

**POLYHEDRAL OLIGOMERIC SILSESQUIOXANES (POSS)
BASED POLYMER NANOCOMPOSITES**

by

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DECLARATION

We, the undersigned, hereby declare that the research in this thesis is Mr. Hato's own original work, which has not partly or fully been submitted to any other University in order to obtain a degree.

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to the memories of my late parents (Tankiso Piet and Masinuku Maria), late brothers (Moeketsi Elias and Kgauta David), late sister (Manana Elizabeth), and to my late grandmother (Makgokolotso Alinah Mothibeli)

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‘Modimo o mosa le lerato hlohonolafatsa ba nka karolo mosebetsing ona’

ABSTRACT

This work reports on the preparation and characterization of polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxanes (POSS)-containing polymer nanocomposites. The nanocomposites investigated in this study consist of two different types of POSS particles [octamethyl-T₈-POSS and poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl-methacrylate))] dispersed in two different polymer matrices such as linear low-density polyethylene (LLDPE) and poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA). The melt-blending technique was used for the preparation of various nanocomposites. The morphology and structure of various nanocomposites were characterized by using x-ray diffraction (XRD), small angle x-ray scattering (SAXS), field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) and polarized optical microscopy (POM). The influence of different loadings of POSS particles on the thermal, thermomechanical, tensile, impact, and melt-state viscoelastic properties of nanocomposites was investigated.

The morphology of the freeze-fractured surfaces of the LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites investigated by means of FE-SEM, revealed a homogeneous dispersion of the octamethyl-T₈-POSS particles into the LLDPE matrix at a low filler content. The thermal properties of pure LLDPE and various nanocomposites showed double melting behaviour of the neat LLDPE matrix and the nanocomposite samples. The thermomechanical properties were investigated by stress-strain controlled rheometry using a solid-state rectangular fixture. The results showed a moderate improvement in both the storage and loss moduli of the neat LLDPE upon the incorporation of the POSS particles. The thermal stability of pure LLDPE and its nanocomposites was investigated in both air and nitrogen atmospheres. Two degradation steps were observed for all studied samples under nitrogen atmosphere. An improvement in the thermal stability of the samples studied in air in the high-temperature region was observed.

The melt-state rheological properties measurements showed that the POSS particles were highly immiscible with the LLDPE matrix. POSS-containing LLDPE composites did not show any improvement in tensile properties. A decrease in impact properties of the LLDPE at higher POSS loadings was observed. The heat distortion temperature of the LLDPE samples increased with increasing the POSS loading in the polymer matrix.

In the case of PMMA/POSS nanocomposites, the FE-SEM results did not give any information about the dispersion of the POSS particles in the PMMA matrix. However, the XRD studies indicated that the POSS particles were dispersed throughout the PMMA matrix. Both differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA) showed a single glass transition for all the investigated samples. A decrease in the glass transition temperature was observed with increasing POSS loading in the polymer matrix. The rheological studies showed a gel-like character for all the investigated samples. An increase in the storage modulus for the 5 wt % POSS-containing sample was observed when compared with pure PMMA.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFM	: Atomic force microscopy
AIBN	: N,N-azobis(isobutyronitrile)
Al	: Aluminium
ASTM	: American standard testing method
CCD	: Charge coupled device
CdS	: Cadmium sulfide
CNT	: Carbon nanotube
CoNaph	: Cobalt naphthenate
DCP	: Dicumyl peroxide
DDM	: 4,4'-Diaminodiphenylmethane
DGEBA	: Diglycidyl ether of bisphenol A
dH_c/dT	: Heat flow rate
DSC	: Differential scanning calorimetry
DMA	: Dynamic mechanical analysis
DMSO	: Dimethyl sulfoxide
DMTA	: Dynamic mechanical thermal analysis
E	: Young's modulus
E'	: Elastic storage modulus
E''	: Elastic loss modulus
EDS	: Energy dispersive spectroscopy or energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy
EELS	: Electron energy loss spectroscopy
EG	: Ethylene glycol
EP	: Ethylene propylene
FE-SEM	: Field-emission scanning electron microscopy
G'	: Storage modulus
G''	: Loss modulus
G_N^0	: Rubbery plateau modulus
g-PP	: Grafted polypropylene
ΔH_m	: Heat of fusion
ΔH_c	: Heat of crystallization
HDPE	: High-density polyethylene

HDT	: Heat distortion temperature
ib-POSS	: Isobutyl-POSS
i-PP	: Isotactic polypropylene
LDPE	: Low-density polyethylene
LLDPE	: Linear low-density polyethylene
MAO	: Metallocene-methalaluminumoxane
MEKP	: Methyl ethyl ketone peroxide
m-LLDPE	: Metallocene linear low-density polyethylene
MA	: Methacrylate
MDSC	: Modulated DSC
MMA	: Methyl methacrylate
MMD	: Molecular mass distribution
MMT	: Montmorillonite
\overline{M}_n	: Number average molecular weight
\overline{M}_w	: Weight average molecular weight
MWCNT	: Multi-walled carbon nanotube
η^*	: Complex viscosity
OA	: Octaallylsilsequioxane
Oap-POSS	: Octaaminophenyl POSS
Oib-POSS	: Octaisobutyl-POSS
OnpPOSS	: Octanitrophenyl-POSS
OG	: Octaglycidyl dimethylsiloxyl
OPGE	: Octa(propylglycidyl ether
PbS	: Lead sulphide
PEDOT	: Poly(3,4-ethylene dioxathiophene)
PEG	: Poly(ethylene glycol)
PEO	: Poly(ethylene oxide)
PE	: Polyethylene
PET	: Poly(ethylene terephthalate)
PMMA	: Poly(methyl methacrylate)
PNVC	: Poly(N-vinylcarbazole)
POM	: Polarized optical microscopy
POSS	: Polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxane

POZO	: Poly(2-methyl-2-oxazoline)
PP	: Polypropylene
PPG	: Poly(propylene glycol)
PS	: Polystyrene
PBS	: Poly(butylene succinate)
PBSA	: Poly[(butylene succinate)-co-adipate]
PBT	: Poly(butylene terephthalate)
PEEK	: Poly(ether ether ketone)
PI	: Polyimide
PT-15	: Cyanate ester
PTFE	: Polytetrafluoroethylene
PTP	: Polythiophene
PVA	: Poly(vinyl alcohol)
PVDF	: Polyvinylidene fluoride
PVP	: Poly(vinyl pyrrolidinone)
$R'_8(\text{SiO}_{1.5})_8$: Octa-functional POSS
SAXS	: Small angle x-ray scattering
SDS	: Sodium dodecylsulfonate
SEM	: Scanning electron microscopy
SiO_2	: Silicon dioxide
$\text{Si}(\text{OCH}_3)_3$: Silyltrimethylchlorosilane
SPM	: Scanning probe microscopy
STXM	: Scanning transmission x-ray microscopy
SWCNT	: Single-walled carbon nanotube
T	: Temperature
TA	: Thermal analysis
$\tan \delta$: tan delta (loss factor)
TEM	: Transmission electron microscopy
T_g	: Glass transition temperature
TGA	: Thermogravimetric analysis
THF	: Tetrahydrofuran
T_m	: Melting temperature
T_o	: Crystallization onset temperature
$T_{p,c}$: Crystallization peak temperature

T_{∞}	: Crystallization end temperature
$R'Si(OR)_3$: Trialcoxysilanes
$R'SiCl_3$: Trichlorosilanes
VE	: Vinyl ester
V_f	: Free volume
WAXS	: Wide angle x-ray scattering
XRD	: X-ray diffraction
X_T	: Relative degree of crystallinity (temperature or time)
Zn	: Zinc

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
DEDICATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT	v
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	xi
LIST OF SCHEMES AND FIGURES	xv
LIST OF TABLES	xix

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Objectives of the study	3
1.3 Thesis layout	4
1.4 References	5

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE SURVEY	7
2.1 Introduction	7
2.2 Synthesis and characterization of POSS	7
2.3 Types of POSS	9
2.4 Modification of POSS structure	11
2.5 POSS containing polymer nanocomposites	12
2.5.1 Surface morphology	12
2.5.2 Thermal properties	20
2.5.2.1 Melting, glass transition temperature and crystallization.....	20
2.5.2.2 Thermal stability	26
2.5.3 Dynamic mechanical and mechanical properties	28
2.5.4 Rheological properties.....	32
2.5.5 XRD analysis.....	33

2.6	References	35
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CHAPTER 3

SAMPLE PREPARATION AND EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES..... 43

3.1	Introduction	43
3.2	Materials.....	43
3.2.1	Polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxane (POSS).....	43
3.2.2	Linear low-density polyethylene (LLDPE).....	44
3.2.3	Poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA)	44
3.3	Methods.....	44
3.3.1	Preparation of nanocomposites	44
3.3.2	Small angle x-ray scattering.....	46
3.3.3	Optical microscopy	47
3.3.4	X-ray diffraction.....	48
3.3.5	Scanning electron microscopy	49
3.3.6	Differential scanning calorimetry.....	51
3.3.7	Thermogravimetric analysis.....	53
3.3.8	Injection moulding	54
3.3.9	Tensile testing	55
3.3.10	Dynamic mechanical analysis	57
3.3.11	Heat deflection temperature	59
3.3.12	Rheometry	60
3.3.13	Pendulum impact testing	61
3.4	References	63

CHAPTER 4

MORPHOLOGY, THERMAL AND THERMOMECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF POLYETHYLENE FILLED POSS NANOCOMPOSITES 66

4.1	Introduction	66
4.2	Results and discussion.....	66
4.2.1	Scanning electron microscopy (SEM).....	66
4.2.2	Polarized optical microscopy (POM).....	67
4.2.3	Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)	70

4.2.3.1 Melting behaviour of compression moulded samples.....	70
4.2.3.2 Nonisothermal crystallization behaviour	76
4.2.4 Wide angle x-ray scattering (WAXS)	77
4.2.5 Thermal stability	82
4.2.6 Dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA)	84
4.3 Conclusions	87
4.4 References	88

CHAPTER 5

MELT-STATE VISCOELASTIC AND MATERIALS PROPERTIES OF POSS-CONTAINING LINEAR LOW-DENSITY POLYETHYLENE NANOCOMPOSITES

92

5.1 Introduction	92
5.2 Results and discussion.....	92
5.2.1 Melt-state rheology	92
5.2.2 Tensile properties	96
5.3 Charpy impact strength	99
5.4 Heat distortion temperature (HDT)	100
5.5 Conclusions	101
5.6 References	101

CHAPTER 6

THE EFFECT OF POSS ON THE THERMAL AND THERMOMECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF POLY(METHYL METHACRYLATE) MATRIX.....

103

6.1 Introduction	103
6.2 Results and discussion.....	103
6.2.1 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM).....	103
6.2.2 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)	103
6.2.3 X-ray diffraction (XRD).....	106
6.2.4 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).....	107
6.2.5 Melt-state rheology	108
6.2.6 Dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA)	112
6.3 Conclusions	114

6.4	References	115
CHAPTER 7		
CONCLUSIONS, PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS.....		118
7.1	Conclusions	118
7.2	Publications from this project	119
7.3	Conferences presentations.....	120

LIST OF SCHEMES AND FIGURES

Scheme 2.1	Fabrication of POSS molecules using the hydrolytic condensation reactions of trifunctional organosilicon monomers	8
Scheme 2.2	Schematic representation of formation of POSS-enriched aggregated regions	35
Figure 2.1	Synthesis of octaallylsilsesquioxane.....	9
Figure 2.2	Synthesis of the multifunctional methacrylate (MA)-POSS	9
Figure 2.3	Structures of silsesquioxanes	10
Figure 2.4	Synthesis of monofunctional POSS compounds.....	11
Figure 2.5	Performance of hybrids when compared with ceramics and polymers.....	12
Figure 2.6	Synthesis of vinyl ester/POSS composites.....	14
Figure 2.7	Cross-linked network formation of cyanate ester/POSS composites through triazine ring formation.....	15
Figure 2.8	Synthesis of the PT-15/octaaminophenyl-POSS composites.....	15
Figure 2.9	Synthesis of octaglycidyl dimethylsiloxy-octasilsequioxane (OG)	16
Figure 2.10	Synthesis of epoxy nanocomposites containing octa (propylglycidyl ether)-T ₈ -POSS	17
Figure 2.11	Schematic diagram of PMMA (solid) and PS (dashed) chains in a blend when functionalized POSS is grafted onto PMMA chains.....	18
Figure 2.12	The reaction between the hydroxyl groups of PET and the epoxy groups of POSS	20
Figure 2.13	Schematic diagram of the shear-induced crystallization development in the presence of a POSS molecule.....	24
Figure 3.1	Molecular structures of (a) poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-co-(methyl methacrylate)) and (b) octamethyl-T ₈ -POSS.....	44
Figure 3.2	(a) Haake Polylab OS rheomixer 600 model system and (b) Carver hot-melt press.....	45
Figure 3.3	Anton-Paar small-angle x-ray scattering spectrometer	46
Figure 3.4	A schematic drawing of the optical path in a typical optical microscope.....	47
Figure 3.5	Carl Zeiss Imager Z1 model polarized optical microscope.....	48
Figure 3.6	X'Pert PRO PN3040/60 model (PANalytical) x-ray diffractometer	49
Figure 3.7	A simplified layout of the scanning electron microscope	50

Figure 3.8	JEOL JSM 7500F model field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM)	51
Figure 3.9	Schematic diagram of a differential scanning calorimeter.....	52
Figure 3.10	Q2000 model (TA instrument) differential scanning calorimetry	53
Figure 3.11	Q500 model (TA instrument) thermogravimetric analysis	54
Figure 3.12	Schematic diagram of an injection moulder.....	55
Figure 3.13	ThermoHaake Scientific Minijet II injection moulder	55
Figure 3.14	Tinius Olsen H10KT model tensile testing	57
Figure 3.15	Perkin Elmer DMA 8000 dynamic mechanical analyzer.....	59
Figure 3.16	The Ceast P/N 6921.000 model HDT6/VICAT system.....	60
Figure 3.17	Anton-Paar Physica MCR 501 rheometer.....	61
Figure 3.18	Configurations of Charpy edgewise impact sample with single notch	62
Figure 4.1	FE-SEM images of freeze-fractured surfaces of neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples.....	67
Figure 4.2	Optical microscopy images of (a) neat LLDPE, (b) LLDPE/5POSS, (c) LLDPE/7.5POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposite samples at 150 °C	68
Figure 4.3	POM images of (a) neat LLDPE, (b) LLDPE/5POSS, (c) LLDPE/7.5POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposites taken at 80 °C during nonisothermal crystallization	69
Figure 4.4	High magnification POM images (100x) of (a) neat LLDPE, (b) LLDPE/5POSS, (c) LLDPE/7.5 POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposites	69
Figure 4.5	Melting behaviour of neat LLDPE and nanocomposite samples.....	71
Figure 4.6	Heating rate dependence of DSC thermograms of compression moulded samples. All samples had identical LLDPE content	73
Figure 4.7	Heat only MDSC of compression moulded LLDPE and LLDPE/5POSS samples. Heating rate of 2 °C.min ⁻¹ , an amplitude of ± 0.318 °C and a period of 60 s. All samples had identical LLDPE content	74
Figure 4.8	Nonisothermal crystallization behaviour of neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples.....	76
Figure 4.9	Wide angle x-ray scattering patterns of (a) pure octamethyl-T ₈ -POSS, (b) neat LLDPE, LLDPE/5POSS, LLDPE/7.5POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposite samples.....	78

Figure 4.10	Temperature dependence of WAXS patterns of (a) neat LLDPE and (b) LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposites. The samples were kept at each temperature for 5 min, including 1 min exposure time	80
Figure 4.11	2-D small and wide angle x-ray scattering (SWAXS) patterns of (a) neat LLDPE and (b) LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposite samples obtained at four different temperatures. The samples were kept at each temperature for 5 min including 1 min exposure time.	82
Figure 4.12	TGA curves of neat POSS, neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples obtained in an air atmosphere.....	83
Figure 4.13	TGA curves of neat POSS, neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples obtained in nitrogen atmosphere	84
Figure 4.14	Temperature dependence of the storage modulus (G') of neat LLDPE and the nanocomposite samples.....	85
Figure 4.15	Temperature dependence of flexural loss modulus (G'') of neat LLDPE and the different nanocomposite samples	86
Figure 4.16	Temperature dependence of the loss factor of neat LLDPE and the different nanocomposite samples.....	87
Figure 5.1	Strain amplitude sweep dependence of the storage modulus (G') of the LLDPE matrix and the three different LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites.....	93
Figure 5.2	Strain amplitude sweep dependence of loss modulus (G'') of the LLDPE matrix and the three different LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites.....	94
Figure 5.3	Frequency dependence of the storage modulus (G') of the pure LLDPE and the three different nanocomposite samples	95
Figure 5.4	Frequency dependence of the loss modulus (G'') of the pure LLDPE and the three different nanocomposite samples	95
Figure 5.5	Frequency dependence of dynamic complex viscosity (η^*) of neat LLDPE and its nanocomposites at different POSS loadings.....	96
Figure 5.6	Young's modulus (E) as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites	97
Figure 5.7	Yield strength (σ_y) as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites	98
Figure 5.8	Elongation at break (ϵ_b) as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites	99

Figure 5.9	The notched Charpy impact strength at room temperature as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites	100
Figure 5.10	Heat distortion temperatures as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites.....	101
Figure 6.1	FE-SEM images of the freeze-fractured surfaces of pure PMMA and its different nanocomposite samples.....	104
Figure 6.2	DSC curves of (a) pure POSS, (b) pure PMMA, (c) PMMA/5POSS, (d) PMMA/10POSS, (e) PMMA/15POSS and (f) PMMA/25POSS nanocomposites	105
Figure 6.3	X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) pure POSS, (b) pure PMMA, (c) PMMA/5POSS, (d) PMMA/10POSS, (e) PMMA/15POSS and (f) PMMA/25POSS nanocomposite samples	107
Figure 6.4	TGA curves of pure POSS, pure PMMA and the different nanocomposites obtained in nitrogen atmosphere	108
Figure 6.5	Strain amplitude sweep dependence of storage modulus (G') of the PMMA matrix and the different PMMA/POSS nanocomposites	109
Figure 6.6	Strain amplitude sweep dependence of the loss modulus (G'') of the PMMA matrix and its nanocomposites	110
Figure 6.7	Frequency dependence of the storage modulus (G') of pure PMMA and the PMMA/POSS nanocomposites	110
Figure 6.8	Frequency dependence of loss modulus (G'') of pure PMMA and the PMMA/POSS nanocomposites	111
Figure 6.9	Frequency dependence of the dynamic complex viscosity (η^*) of pure PMMA and the PMMA/POSS nanocomposites.....	112
Figure 6.10	Temperature dependence of the storage modulus, E' of pure PMMA and PMMA/POSS nanocomposites	113
Figure 6.11	Temperature dependence of loss factor curves of pure PMMA matrix and different nanocomposite samples	114

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1	Sample compositions used in this study.....	45
Table 3.2	The settings of the tensile tester used for the analysis	56
Table 3.3	The settings of the instrument and sample dimensions used for DMA analysis..	58
Table 4.1	Reported data are taken from the second scan to ascertain reproducible thermograms free of prior thermal history.....	71
Table 4.2	Estimation of crystallite sizes of POSS nanocrystals in LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites obtained from WAXS data.....	79
Table 6.1	Glass transition temperature of pure POSS, PMMA and different PMMA/POSS nanocomposites.....	105

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Nanoscience is defined as the study of atoms, molecules and objects whose size is in the nanometer range [1], while nanotechnology is generally defined as a manufacturing technology to produce cost effective structures compatible with nature and prepared from molecules [2]. The concept of nanotechnology has been the subject of research for the past few decades. According to Dr. Mihail (Mika) Roco [3], nanotechnology can be described by four eras. The first era indicates the passive nanostructured materials designed to perform one task. The second era introduces active nanostructures for multiple tasks; for instance, actuators, drug delivery devices, and sensors. The third one is anticipated to begin emerging around 2010 and will feature nanosystems with thousands of interacting components. A few years later, the first integrated nanosystems, functioning (according to Roco) much like a mammalian cell with hierarchical systems within systems, are expected to be developed.

Knowledge in this new field of science is growing worldwide, which led to elementary scientific progresses [4]. This will lead to remarkable changes in various applications, such as micro-electronics, photovoltaics, and health care. For example, development is underway on a data storage machine that will be able to store a trillion bits of information on three centimetres, which is twenty times more than today's available technology. This figure is equivalent to 25 million printed pages on something the size of a postage stamp. It is predicted by many scientists that the developments in nanotechnology will affect almost every aspect of our lives, from medicines, the performance of the computers, the supply of energy, food, cars, buildings, and clothing [2]. For this reason, there are rapid increases in investments from governments and industries in each and every part of the world. Currently, billions of dollars have been invested in nanotechnology, of which the highest amount comes from the private sector [5]. In the long run, it is believed that nanotechnology will bring more efficient channels to manufacturing industries, which will use less raw materials and energy. It is also fundamentally important to substantiate such ideas [6].

Nanomaterials are categorized into nanoparticles and nanocrystalline materials. The former are ultrafine dispersive particles with diameters below 100 nm, while the latter are

polycrystalline bulk materials with grain sizes in the nanometer range (less than 100 nm) [7]. Generally, nanoparticles are considered as the building blocks of bulk nanocrystalline materials. Most of their applications are still in a fledging phase of technical development [8]. As a result, a lot of work still needs to be done for the full potential use of these materials in various sectors.

Recently, preparation of nanoparticles following various synthetic methods has shown an immense interest in research and development as well as academia. Different preparative methods may offer different internal structures that can affect the resultant properties of materials consolidated from them [1]. Nanoparticles have very high surface-to-volume ratios, i.e. large fractions of surface atoms. The large fractions of surface atoms together with ultra-fine size and shape effects make nanoparticles exhibit different properties from the bulk. Because nanoparticles contain high specific surface areas, they exhibit a high reactivity and strong tendency towards agglomeration. This particle agglomeration weakens the mechanical or optical properties of the resulting materials [8]. Nanomaterials exhibit peculiar and very fascinating final properties like improvement in the mechanical strength and higher specific heat capacity compared to their conventional coarse grained counterparts [9]. The percentage of surface atoms increases as the size of the nanoparticles decreases [1].

In this study, we mainly focus on the polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxane (POSS) filled polymer composite systems. POSS is a hybrid material (organic-inorganic) which contains a basic polyhedral silicone-oxygen nanostructured skeleton or cage. POSS chemicals can form crystal domains when they are covalently bonded to a polymer backbone as pendant groups during grafting, polymerization, surface bonding, or other transformations [10]. Production of different POSS nanostructured chemicals has shown a rapid increase in recent years [11]. They are usually in the form of powders or oils [12,13], but in some other cases POSS nanomaterials are found in polymeric form as films, thin layers, or coatings. Polymeric POSS has excellent dielectric and optical properties. They are used in photoresists, interlayer dielectrics, and protective coating films for applications in semiconductor devices [13]. Unlike traditional organic compounds, they release no volatile components, so they are odourless and environmentally friendly [12,13]. These nanomaterials may be easily incorporated into different polymer systems using different methods such as melt-blending, copolymerization or grafting to produce lightweight composites without compromising properties such as optical behaviour or weight [14-17].

The use of nanostructured materials to prepare polymer composites is due to their special size-dependant specific properties, while the desired properties of the polymer remain preserved in the composites [18,19]. It was reported that the addition of these POSS hybrid materials into different polymeric systems enhances various properties such as the mechanical, thermal and processing properties that are appropriate to substitute materials like metals and other composite materials in many industrial fields [20]. In the case of POSS-containing polymer nanocomposite systems, homogeneous dispersion of POSS nano-sized particles can be obtained when small loadings of POSS nanofiller are used [16]. However, the incorporation of these hybrid materials may also result in phase separation of the hybrid particulate systems. For one to solve this problem, the use of a polymer which interacts (Van der Waals, dipolar, hydrogen bonding) with the particles as well as the attachment of initiation groups for grafting of polymer chains from the particle surface are needed [21]. Addition of POSS nano fillers into the polymer systems can influence the morphology of the composites. These morphological features of the resultant composites strictly depend on the processing conditions when the nanofillers may act as nucleating agent and influence the crystallization behaviour of the matrix [22].

1.2 Objectives of the study

The POSS particles have been used as reinforcing nanomaterials for many years and they can be molecularly dispersed within polymer matrices. POSS derivatives which contain unreactive functional groups can be physically mixed with polymer matrices to influence the morphological characteristics of the resultant composites. Therefore, the resultant properties of the polymer matrix can be improved by the addition of a small amount of POSS molecules into the polymer systems. For this reason, POSS derivatives are potential candidates as reinforcing nanomaterials for the fabrication of the polymer nanocomposites.

The main objective of this study is to prepare polymer nanocomposites based on thermoplastic and amorphous polymer resins with different types and loadings of POSS nanoscale fillers. The reason we opted for melt-blending in this investigation is because this is a very important method in industrial practices and it is performed to obtain unique properties that the individual materials fail to attain. In this study, linear low-density polyethylene (LLDPE) and poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) were, respectively, melt-mixed with

octamethyl-POSS and poly(propyl methacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-co-(methyl methacrylate) nanofillers. The specific objectives of this project were categorized as follows:

- Preparation of LLDPE/POSS and PMMA/POSS nanocomposites, containing different loadings of nano-scaled POSS particles.
- Determination of the influence of the POSS particles on the crystal growth behaviour of the different samples using a polarized optical microscope (POM).
- Determination of the morphological characteristics of various samples by means of scanning electron microscopy (SEM).
- Determination of the structure, crystallinity and miscibility of the different samples by wide angle x-ray scattering (WAXS) and x-ray diffraction (XRD).
- Determination of the melting and nonisothermal crystallization behaviour of the samples using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC).
- Determination of the influence of the presence of POSS nanoparticles on the thermal stability of the samples by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).
- Determination of the influence of the presence of POSS nanoparticles on the thermomechanical properties of the samples using dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA).
- Determination of the melt-state viscoelastic properties of the different samples using rheometry.
- Determination of the effect of the POSS nanoparticles on the tensile properties of the samples using a universal testing machine.
- Determination of the effect of the POSS nanoparticles on the heat distortion temperatures (HDT) of the samples.
- Determination of the effect of the POSS nanoparticles on the impact properties of the samples.

1.3 Thesis layout

This study comprises of 7 chapters. Chapter 1 presents the background and objectives of this work. A literature survey relevant to the project is given in Chapter 2. A summary of all the materials and characterization techniques used in this study is given in Chapter 3. This includes a brief description on how each of these techniques works. The results generated on

the different polymer/POSS systems during the course of this research are presented and discussed in chapters 4, 5, and 6. Finally, in Chapter 7, a summary of the thesis and concluding remarks are presented.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE SURVEY

2.1 Introduction

New properties, low cost and reuse of polymers are fundamentally important parameters that are needed to meet the demands of today's society and of the polymer industry [1,1]. These polymers are of interest in many fields of science and engineering [3,2]. Unfortunately, for many applications, these demands need a set of properties that no polymers can fulfil. One method to satisfy these demands is by the addition of nanodimensional materials into a polymer matrix. These nanodimensional materials can be dispersed at nano or molecular level within the polymer matrix [5]. Processing methods include melt-blending [6], *in situ* curing [7], hydrolytic condensation [8], and *in-situ* polymerization [9]. However, melt-blending is of more interest because this method is regarded as an economical alternative and also one of the most important methods in industry for the preparation of new polymers. The advantages of polymer blending over other methods are its cost effectiveness and ease of processability. In addition, the unique properties that can be accomplished by melt-blending depend on the composition of the blend [10]. In most of the composites containing POSS nanofiller, studied by previous researchers, the focus was on the crystallization, morphological behaviour, as well as rheological, viscoelastic, thermal, and thermomechanical properties of these composites. However, the miscibility or compatibility and mechanical properties of these composites were not satisfactory.

This chapter is aimed at highlighting some aspects of the research on selective POSS-containing polymer nanocomposites.

2.2 Synthesis and characterization of POSS

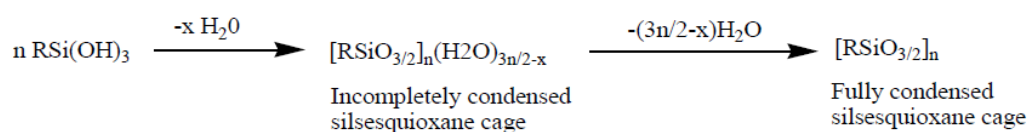
POSS are low density (compared with conventional inorganic nanofillers), high performance hybrid materials that comprise of both organic (carbon) and inorganic (silicon) atoms. These molecules, which have been commercialized in the last decade, are intended to combine the most beneficial molecular properties of both organic and inorganic systems. POSS, owing to

their nanoscale size dimensions and their rigid inorganic framework, are potential candidates to be used for the preparation of hybrid nanocomposites.

Feher and coworkers [11] published a review on the synthesis of POSS macromers. Li *et al.* [12] also published a review describing the synthesis of both monofunctional and multifunctional POSS monomers and polymers. Generally, the synthesis of POSS depends on the nature of the starting materials to be used. These are very complex, multistep processes whereby an appropriate organosilicon precursor or monomer is converted into a series of polyhedral siloxanes *via* hydrolytic polycondensation [12]. The successful synthesis of POSS and its derivatives depends on the following factors [13]:

- (i) Concentration of the initial monomer in the solution.
- (ii) Nature of the solvent.
- (iii) Type of catalyst used.
- (iv) Temperature.
- (v) Solubility of the polyhedral oligomers.
- (vi) Quantity of water added and the rate of its addition.
- (vii) Character of the substituent X and the functional group in the initial monomer.

There are two major methods for the synthesis of POSS compounds [14-16]. The first synthetic method was introduced by Scott in 1946. This method includes oligomeric silsesquioxanes containing the empirical formula $(\text{CH}_3\text{SiO}_{1.5})_n$ and synthesised by a thermolysis process of the polymeric products obtained from cohydrolysis of methyltrichlorosilane and dimethylchlorosilane shown in Scheme 2.1 [17]. The controlled hydrolysis and condensation of purified octaallylsilsequioxane (OA) obtained from allyltrichlorosilane is given in Figure 2.1 [18]. POSS compounds can also be derived from the manipulation of the substituents at the silicon atom without affecting the silicon-oxygen core of the molecule [12] as illustrated in Figure 2.2. This may be achieved via hydrosilylation of alkynes with $(\text{HMe}_2\text{SiOSiO}_{1.5})_8$ cages in the presence of a Pt (platinum) catalyst at 40 °C.



Scheme 2.1 Fabrication of POSS molecules using the hydrolytic condensation reactions of trifunctional organosilicon monomers

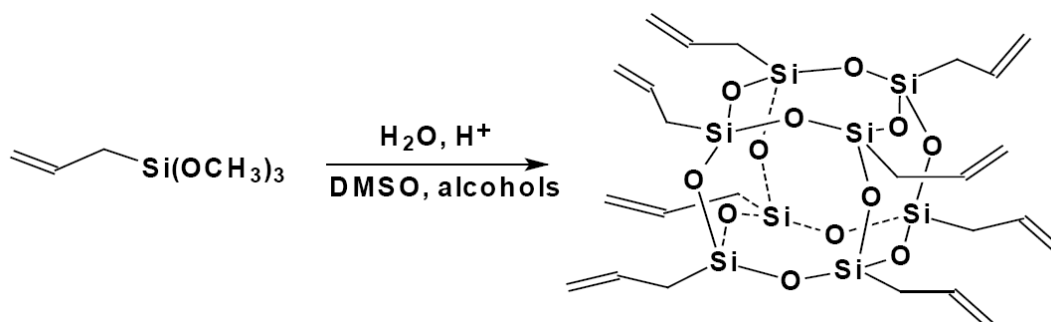


Figure 2.1 Synthesis of octaallylsilsesquioxane [19]

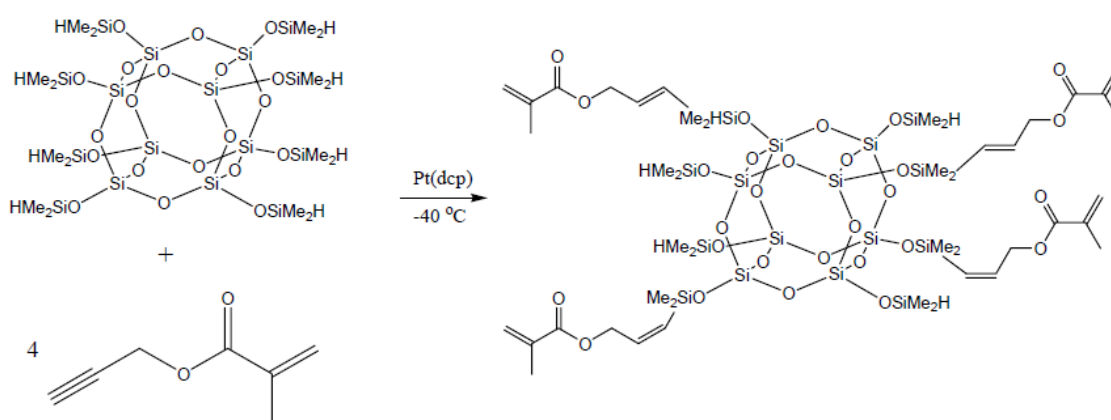


Figure 2.2 Synthesis of the multifunctional methacrylate (MA)-POSS [12]

2.3 Types of POSS

Silsesquioxanes are all structures with the general formula $\text{RSiO}_{1.5}$. Figure 2.3 depicts random, ladder, cage or cubic, and partially cage structures of silsesquioxanes. The ladder-like and cage structures are the most common representations of silsesquioxanes. These compounds contain eight, ten or twelve silicon atoms attached on the vertices of the cage or core. POSS compounds contain a rigid framework which closely resembles that of silica and with a diameter of 1-3 nm. This framework is thermally and chemically robust and can stay intact up to 550 °C. The thermal stability of the organic substituents is compositionally dependent and ranges from 350 to 450 °C [20-22].

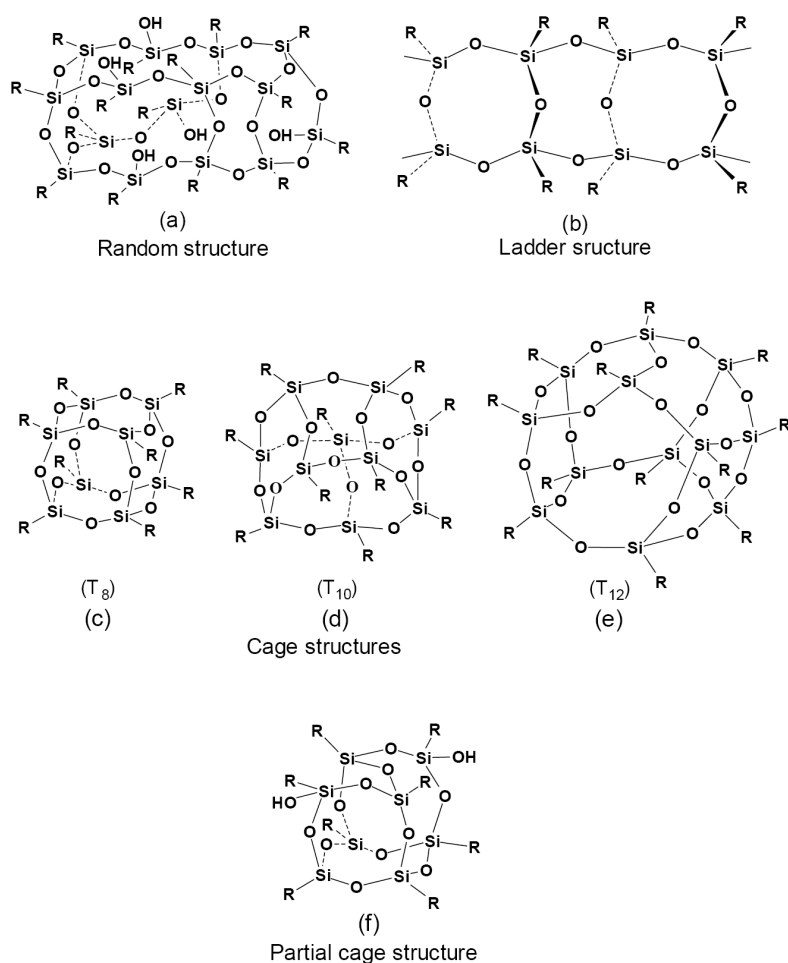


Figure 2.3 Structures of silsesquioxanes [12]

There are four general classifications of POSS-filled polymers and copolymers [23]:

- (i) Star type: these are synthesized by the polymerization of a POSS cage containing multifunctional polymerizable groups which will form 3-D networks that are difficult to characterize.
- (ii) Pendant type: these are POSS molecules with a single reactive functional group (e.g. vinyl) and can be polymerized as a monomer or co-monomer.
- (iii) Bead type: a POSS core with two reactive functional groups is incorporated in the backbone of a polymer.
- (iv) Non-reactive POSS molecules dispersed in a polymer matrix as filler.

Both bead and pendant types are highly soluble in common solvents (THF, toluene and chloroform).

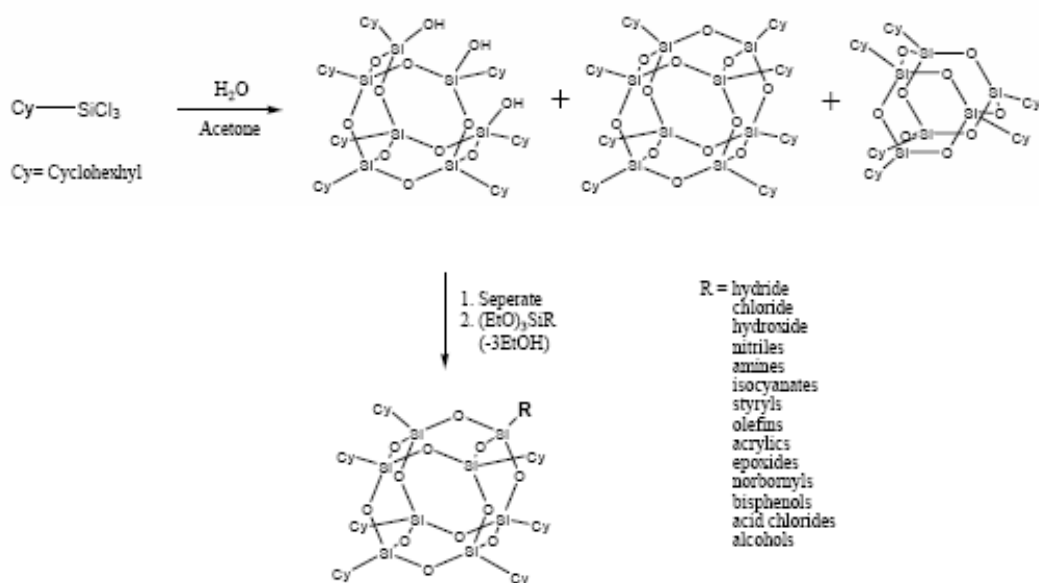


Figure 2.4 Synthesis of monofunctional POSS compounds [18]

In the reaction given in Scheme 2.1 both complete and incomplete condensed silsesquioxanes are produced. Complete condensed silsesquioxanes contain equivalent organic groups on each silicon atom, rendering them completely functionalized with non-reactive groups. Incomplete condensed ones contain reactive silanol functionalities and are the major products for producing monofunctional POSS compounds (see Figure 2.4). The reactivity of silanol groups makes incomplete condensed POSS molecules of interest as models for silica supported catalysts [18]. Multifunctional POSS molecules are another class of POSS derivatives. These molecules can be produced by hydrolysis and condensation of either trialkoxysilanes $[\text{R}'\text{Si}(\text{OR})_3]$ or trichlorosilanes $(\text{R}'\text{SiCl}_3)$. R' is a reactive functional group. This reaction produces octa-functional POSS molecules, $\text{R}'_8(\text{SiO}_{1.5})_8$ as shown in Figure 2.2.

2.4 Modification of POSS structure

The organic groups 'R' attached on the Si atoms of the cage can be varied endlessly for further specific practical requirements [24] such as adhesion, light sensitization, binding catalyst species and surface bonding [21]. Although POSS can be thought of as the smallest particles of silica possible, they are physically large with respect to polymer dimensions and nearly equivalent in size to most polymer segments and coils.

POSS can be compatible or incompatible with different polymer matrices through copolymerization, grafting, or blending [25]. They can be applied in many important areas such as the preparation of polymer nanocomposites. In this case, the main aim is to obtain multifunctional materials with intermediate properties between those of the organic polymers and of ceramics. These intermediate properties fall into the “hybrids” category shown in Figure 2.5 [26].

POSS molecules can be used in other applications such as coatings, films and thin layers. They can be used in photoresists, magnetic recording media, liquid display elements and protective coating films for semiconductor devices, catalysis, precursors to silicates and preparation of copolymers. Polymeric POSS has remarkable dielectric and optical properties [27]. Its commercial availability has increased tremendously and this has recently led to an increase in intensity of research in this field.

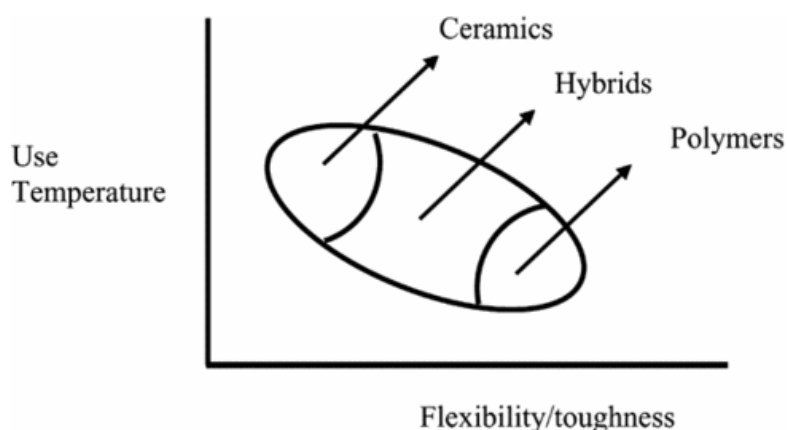


Figure 2.5 Performance of hybrids when compared with ceramics and polymers [26]

2.5 POSS containing polymer nanocomposites

2.5.1 Surface morphology

Introduction of nano-scaled fillers into polymers can affect the morphological characteristics of nanocomposites and these morphologies depend on the processing conditions and the type of reactive functional groups ‘R’ appended on the Si atom of the core. This could contribute largely to the resultant properties of the nanocomposites. A summary of the different processing routes used by previous researchers, and the influence of such processing methods

on the respective morphologies of composites, is given in this section. SEM analyses were mostly used for morphological characterization of POSS based polymer composite systems.

Li and co-workers [28] reported the viscoelastic and mechanical properties of vinyl ester (VE) resin nanocomposites containing chemically bonded multifunctional POSS, POSS-1 $[(C_6H_5CHCHO)_4(Si_8O_{12})CH=CHC_6H_5)_4]$, nonfunctional octa-*i*-butyl- T_8 -POSS (POSS-2) and dodecaphenyl- T_{12} -POSS (POSS-3) molecules prepared by solution blending. They used 5 and 10 wt % POSS contents and the synthesis reaction of these composites is illustrated in Figure 2.6. A good dispersion of the POSS-1 nanoparticles after mixed with VE (50 wt % styrene) resin was observed. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), EDXS (energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy) and EELS (electron energy loss spectroscopy) studies showed that the POSS-1 rich nanoparticles (75 nm to a few nm) are present in the 90/10 w/w VE/POSS-1 composite. Moreover, addition of both POSS-2 and POSS-3 into VE monomers exhibited much larger sized phase-separated morphology. A good miscibility was only observed when ≤ 5 wt % or ≤ 0.42 mol % of POSS-1 units in its styrene copolymers was used.

Preparation of cyanate ester composites containing monofunctional trisilanophenyl-POSS ($C_{42}H_{38}O_{12}Si_7$) by direct blending followed by thermal curing at 250 °C was reported by Liang *et al.* [29] and the reaction is shown in Figure 2.7. The same research group also reported preparation, morphology and the viscoelastic properties of composites containing both octaaminophenyl- T_8 -POSS $[(C_6H_4NH_2)(SiO_{1.5})_8]$ (OapPOSS) and cyanopropylcyclopentyl-POSS $[(C_5H_9)_7(SiO_{1.5})_8CH_2CH_2CH_2CN]$ incorporated in the same cyanate ester resin [30]. They prepared their samples by a solution blending technique (see Figure 2.8). In their studies, they generally used 1, 3, 5, 10 and 15 wt % POSS contents. SEM results exhibited phase-separated aggregates for composites containing 1 to 10 wt % of cyanopropylcyclopentyl-POSS. In the case of the trisilanophenyl-POSS based composite systems, larger aggregates of POSS particles at higher loadings within the polymer matrix were observed. TEM studies revealed that POSS-enriched nanoparticles were present in these composites.

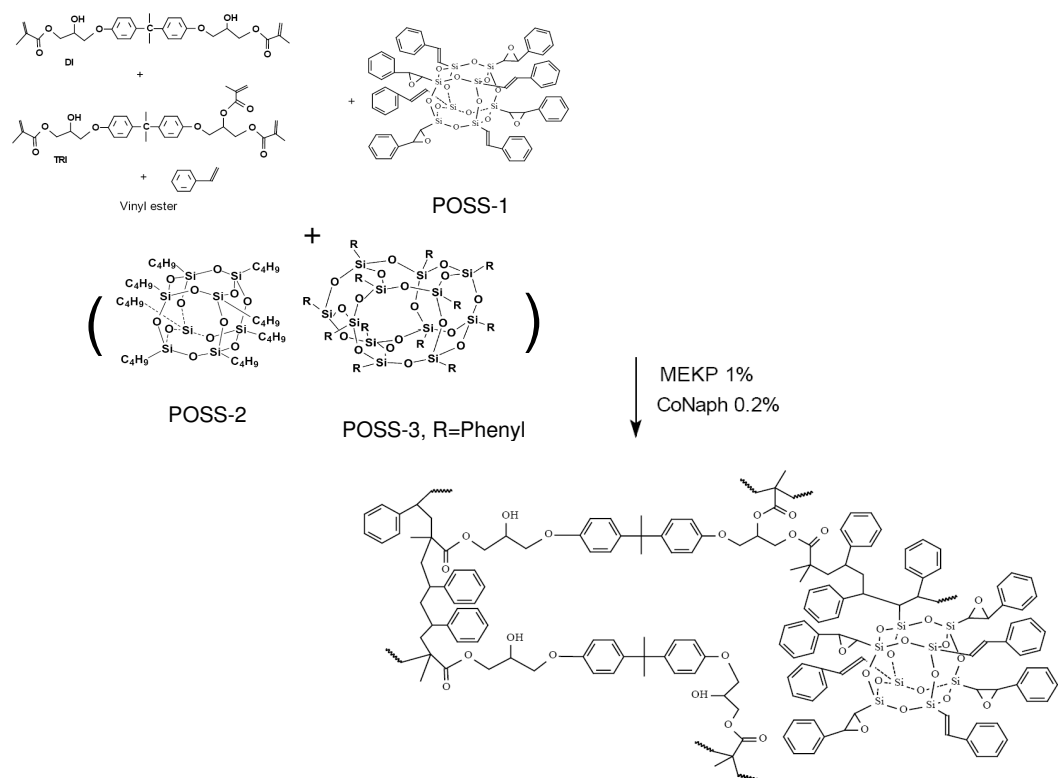


Figure 2.6 Synthesis of vinyl ester/POSS composites [29]

Chigwada *et al.* [31] investigated fire retardancy of vinyl ester nanocomposites in the presence of both clay and POSS nano-dimensional particles. Choi and co-workers [32,33] reported the preparation of epoxy nanocomposites containing octaglycidyl dimethylsiloxy-octahedral silsesquioxane (OG) using a series of octafunctionalized-T₈-POSS (R₈Si₈O₁₂) as reinforcing agents in the presence of aminophenyl and dimethylsiloxypropyl glycidyl moieties (see Figure 2.9). The number of organic tether links between POSS cages was varied by altering the amine to epoxy ratio (N) to control the structural design of the final epoxy nanocomposites. Molecular dispersion of multifunctional POSS [(C₆H₅CHCHO)₄(Si₈O₁₂)CH=CHC₆H₅]₄ units within the aliphatic epoxy resin network at high POSS content (25 wt %) studied by TEM was reported by Li *et al.* [34].

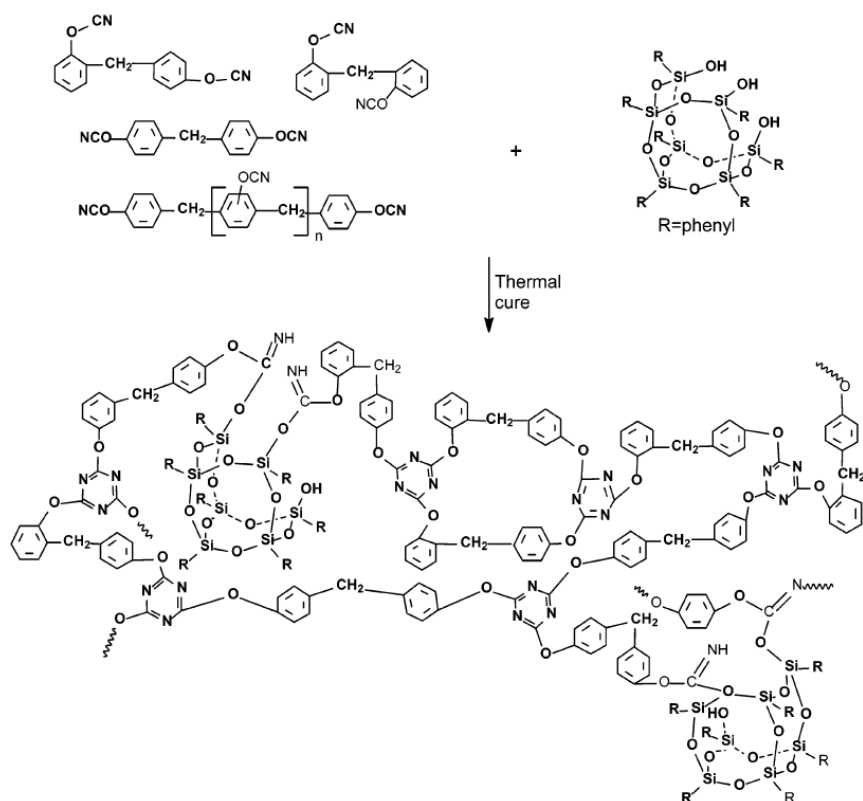


Figure 2.7 Cross-linked network formation of cyanate ester/POSS composites through triazine ring formation [30]

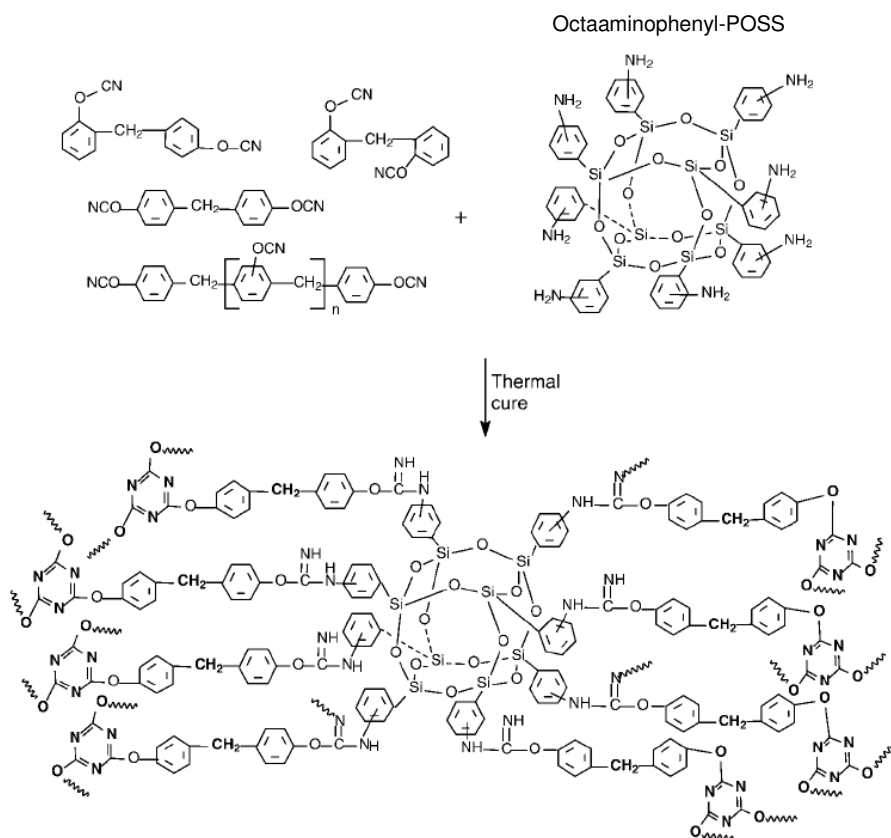


Figure 2.8 Synthesis of the PT-15/octaaminophenyl-POSS composites [30]

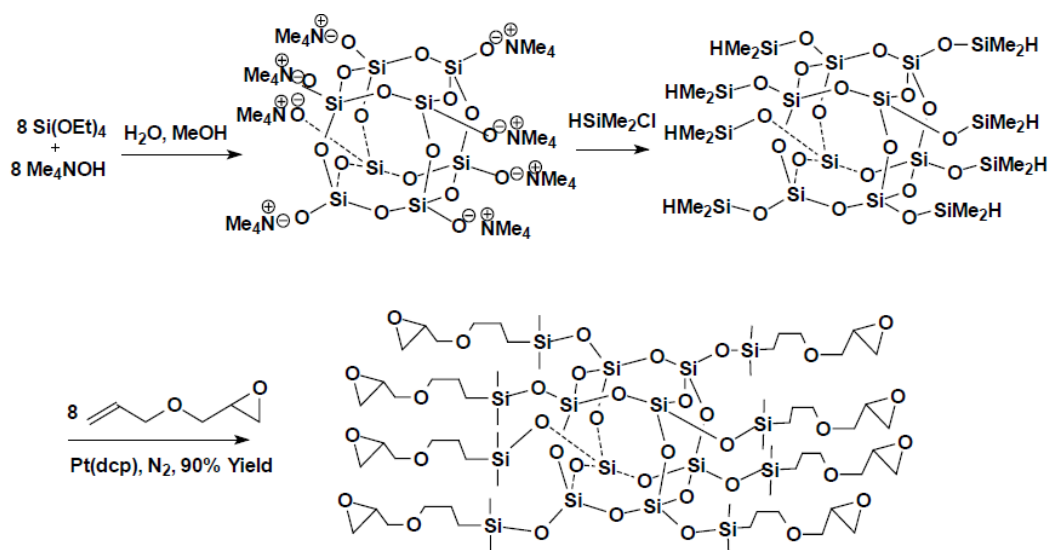


Figure 2.9 Synthesis of octaglycidyl dimethylsiloxane (OG) [32]

Ni and coworkers [9,35] investigated the morphological behaviour of epoxy resin based nanocomposites in the presence of octanitrophenyl $[(\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{NO}_2)_8(\text{SiO}_{1.5})_8]$ (OnpPOSS) and octaaminophenyl $[(\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{NH}_2)_8(\text{SiO}_{1.5})_8]$ (OapPOSS) *via in situ* polymerization of diglycidyl ether of bisphenol A (DGEBA) and 4,4'-diaminodiphenylmethane (DDM) (see Figure 2.10). The authors observed a homogeneous mixture of the starting materials (DGEBA, DDM and POSS monomers), suggesting the miscibility (or solubility) of POSS cages with the precursors of the epoxy resin. The morphologies of the resulting hybrids were dependent on the type of 'R' groups in the POSS macromers. SEM results exhibited a phase-separated morphology of the nanocomposites containing OnpPOSS, with spherical particle sizes of $<0.5 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter, that were uniformly dispersed in the epoxy matrix. The epoxy-rich OapPOSS composites exhibited a homogeneous morphology.

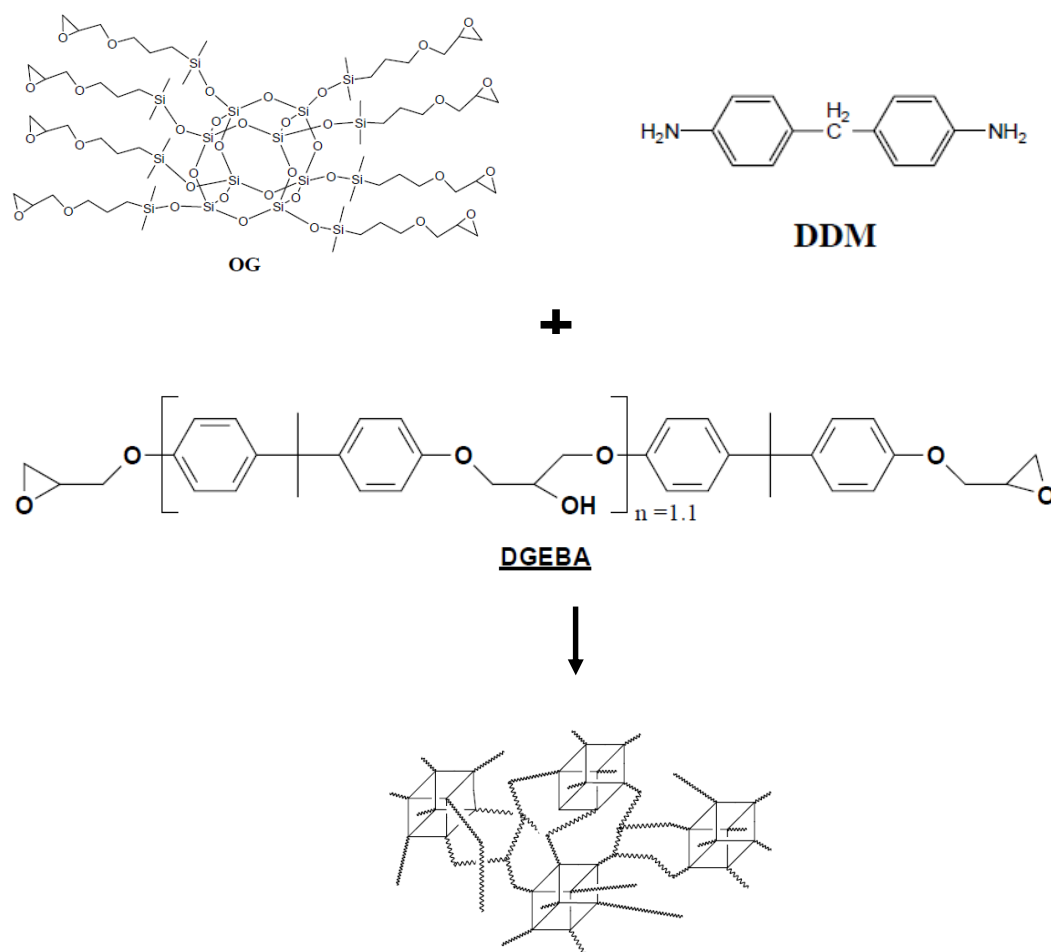


Figure 2.10 Synthesis of epoxy nanocomposites containing octa (propylglycidyl ether)-T₈-POSS [36]

Liu *et al.* [36] also observed a homogeneous dispersion of epoxy resin nanocomposites containing up to 40 wt % of octa(propylglycidyl ether)-T₈-POSS and [glycidyl-(C₃H₆SiO_{1.5})₈] investigated by SEM, TEM and atomic force microscopy (AFM). Zhang and co-workers [37] studied random copolymers of methyl methacrylate (MMA) and propylmethacrylheptacyclopentyl-POSS with both polystyrene (PS) and poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) homopolymer systems through a conventional free radical polymerization process. Their results indicated efficient compatibilization of immiscible polymer blends caused by the copolymers. This compatibilization occurred when POSS was grafted onto the PMMA chains (see Figure 2.11). A strong interaction between cyclopentyl-POSS and the PS homopolymer was also observed. In the same paper, the morphology of polystyrene (PS)/PMMA blends with methyl methacrylate-POSS random copolymers (containing 5.5 % m/m-PMMA-POSS5, 8.0 % PMMA-POSS10 and 10.7 % m/m-PMMA/POSS15 cyclopentyl-POSS) as compatibilizer was examined using scanning

transmission x-ray microscopy (STXM) and scanning probe microscopy (SPM). Both STXM and SPM showed that a bicontinuous microemulsion structure with a well-defined wave vector was formed, indicating a reduction of the interfacial tension between the phases. The topographical images show that the size of the PS domains decreased when the POSS and PMMA copolymer were mixed.

When PMMA was mixed with both $[\text{Si}_8\text{O}_{12}(\text{OSiMe}_2)_8]$ and $[\text{Si}_7\text{O}_9(\text{cyclohexyl})_7(\text{OSiMe}_2\text{H})_3]$, a phase-separated morphology and self-assembly afforded *in situ* nanocubes with average diameters ranging from 25 nm to 500 nm were seen [38].

Kopesky *et al.* [39,40] investigated the miscibility and toughenability of PMMA based nanocomposite systems using different POSS nanocages. These nanocomposite systems were prepared by a solution blending method. The POSS macromers used in their study were unmodified acrylic-POSS, hydrogenated acrylic-POSS, cyclohexyl-POSS, methacryl-POSS and trisilanolphenyl-POSS and the PMMA resin used was Atoglas V920 with a weight average $M_w = 80200 \text{ g.mol}^{-1}$ and a polydispersity index of 1.7. The unmodified acrylic-POSS exhibited better miscibility with PMMA than the hydrogenated-POSS, approaching complete miscibility at volume fractions of $\Phi < 0.10$. A phase-separated morphology was observed when cyclohexyl-POSS was used. In the case of both methacryl-POSS and trisilanolphenyl-POSS, molecular dispersion of nanodimensional particles was reported.

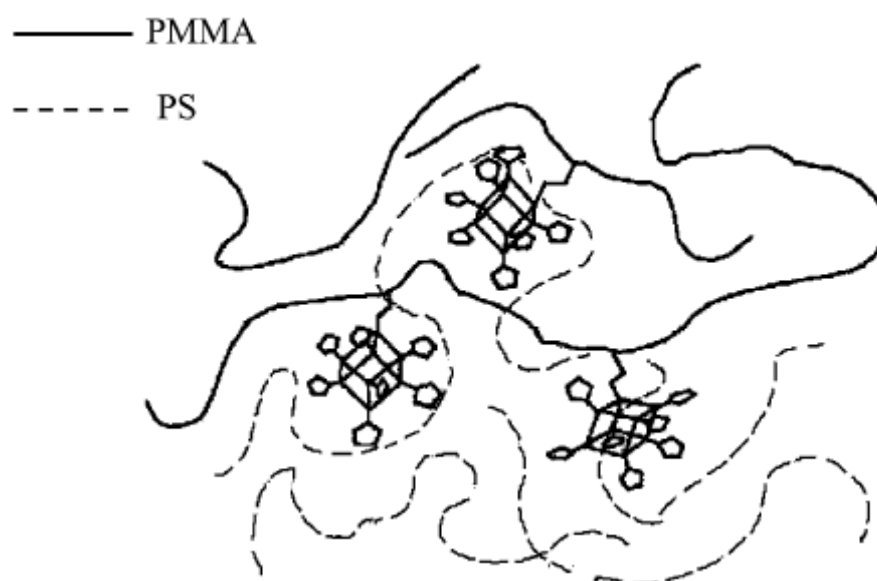


Figure 2.11 Schematic diagram of PMMA (solid) and PS (dashed) chains in a blend when functionalized POSS is grafted onto PMMA chains [37]

Kim *et al.* [41] prepared polymer hybrids by using three kinds of octasilsesquioxanes with hydroxyl groups and different polymers such as poly(2-methyl-2-oxazoline) (POZO), poly(*N*-vinylpyrrolidone) (PVP) and poly(*N,N*-dimethylacrylamide) (PDMAAm). Homogeneous and transparent hybrid films were obtained. The high homogeneity of the polymer hybrids was the result of hydrogen-bonding interaction between octasilsesquioxanes and organic polymers, as was confirmed by the carbonyl stretching shifts in IR measurements. The solubility of POSS and the transparency of polymer hybrids from POSS were closely dependent on this flexibility of the eight arms bound to the silica-like core of the polymer hybrids.

Morphological characteristics of polyolefins containing POSS molecules as reinforcing agents were reported by numerous researchers [5,6,42-48]. The majority of these publications paid attention to composite systems prepared by initially mixing isotactic polypropylene (*i*-PP) with POSS powders through the melt-mixing route in a Brabender internal mixer. A masterbatch of POSS in HDPE was also melt-mixed with the same type of POSS using a twin-screw extruder [5,42,43]. The 10 wt % POSS masterbatch was then used to prepare HDPE/POSS nanocomposites. In all these studies, the authors generally used loadings of POSS between 0.1 and 30 wt %. It was generally found that the octamethyl-T₈-POSS-containing nanocomposites exhibited phase-separated morphology and some crystalline aggregates on a micro-sized scale. In the case of composites of octaisooctyl-POSS and octaisobutyl-POSS with PP, homogeneous dispersion was only observed at low POSS contents. This was probably due to a more favourable interaction of the long alkyl groups with the polymer chains, as compared to octamethyl-T₈-POSS particles.

Zhou *et al.* [49,50] investigated different properties of PP/octavinyl-POSS nanocomposites by incorporating 0.1 wt % dicumyl peroxide (DCP) as a crosslinking agent in their powder mixtures using both physical and reactive blending methods. Before blending, both PP and POSS were dried at 70 °C under vacuum for 12 h. The SEM results of the physically blended composite (95/5 w/w PP/POSS) showed many agglomerates of POSS particles (0.2 to 1 μm) dispersed within the PP matrix. The reactively blended composite (95/5 w/w PP/POSS + 0.1 phr DCP) showed some uniform dispersion of POSS particles within the matrix with a size range of 50 to 200 nm.

Poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET) was melt-mixed and *in situ* polymerized with triepoxy-POSS (5 wt %) [51]. In another publication, the same research group studied PET containing

composites using two types of POSS macromers (disilanolisobutyl-POSS and trisilanolisobutyl-POSS) prepared by only *in situ* polymerization [52]. In these studies, their composites were prepared in the presence of ethylene glycol (EG). The *in situ* polymerized triepoxy-POSS composite systems were prepared by polycondensation and the presumed reaction between the hydroxyl groups of PET and the epoxy groups of POSS is given in Figure 2.12. The loadings of POSS for the preparation of the nanocomposites were 1, 3 and 5 wt %, and the morphological characteristics of these nanocomposites were investigated. The SEM studies revealed that the melt-mixed composites had a phase-separated morphology, while the *in situ* polymerized samples showed a more homogenous morphology, particularly at low POSS contents with sizes ranging from 30 to 40 nm. This behaviour was attributed to the occurrence of interfacial interactions between PET and POSS during polymerization.

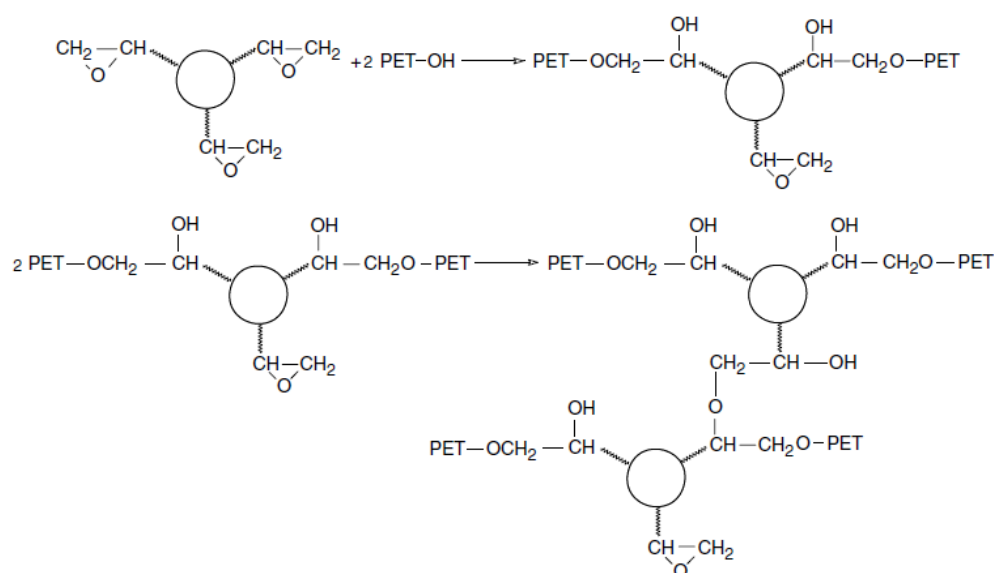


Figure 2.12 The reaction between the hydroxyl groups of PET and the epoxy groups of POSS [51]

2.5.2 Thermal properties

2.5.2.1 Melting, glass transition temperature and crystallization

It is well known that a polyolefin such as *i*-PP exhibits several crystalline forms at different processing conditions. These crystal forms could be affected by molecular mass, molecular mass distribution (MMD) and different blending compounds and preparation conditions used.

Nucleating agents in polymers were extensively used by many researchers. They are important because the control of the crystallization behaviour allows modification of the microstructure and retardation or enhancement of the thermal, mechanical and optical properties of the polymers. However, the relationship between the structure of nucleating agents and the physical properties of the polymer matrix is very complicated [53].

It is important for one to understand the nonisothermal processes of slowly crystallizing materials like polymers using simple models, because these processes are closest to the real industrial processing conditions. One advantage of nonisothermal DSC measurements over the isothermal ones is that these experiments are performed more rapidly and they can also be used to extend the temperature ranges of measurements beyond that accessible in isothermal experiments. Subsequently, nonisothermal crystallization behaviour can broaden and supplement the knowledge of the crystallization behaviour of polymers [54].

Numerous methods including the Ozawa [55], Avrami [56] and the combined Avrami-Ozawa methods [57] were developed for the treatment of nonisothermal DSC data in order to obtain kinetic parameters of polymers that reproduce the experimental data and predict the crystallization behaviour of the system under various conditions.

The absolute crystallinity of the material is not needed for the analysis of crystallization kinetics and the relative degree of crystallinity, X_T , as a function of temperature is defined as

$$X(T) = \frac{\int_{T_o}^T (dH_c / dT) dT}{\int_{T_o}^{T_\infty} (dH_c / dT) dT} \quad (2.1)$$

where T_o and T_∞ are the onset and end crystallization temperatures, dH_c/dT is the heat flow rate and T is the temperature used to determine X_T . In a nonisothermal crystallization analysis, the crystallization time (t) is related to the crystallization peak temperature $T_{p,c}$ ($t = 0$) according to the following equation:

$$t = \frac{(T_o - T_{p,c})}{\phi} \quad (2.2)$$

where ϕ is the cooling rate. This means that, according to equation (2), the relative degree of crystallinity with time can be developed [5].

Although the theory of Ozawa to describe the nonisothermal crystallization kinetics of polymers has been extensively used, it does not consider other factors such as secondary crystallization and dependence of fold length on temperature, and the exponent m is assumed to be constant independent of temperature. Effects such as transcrystallization are also not taken into account [54]. The Ozawa theory [55] states that the degree of conversion or relative degree of crystallinity, X_T , at a temperature T , can be written as:

$$1 - X_T = \exp\left[\frac{-k(T)}{\phi^m} \right] \quad (2.3)$$

where m is the Ozawa exponent that depends on the dimension of crystal growth and k is the cooling crystallization function, which is related to the overall crystallization rate and indicates the rate at which the crystallization occurs. Therefore, equation (3) can be written as

$$\ln [-\ln (1 - X_T)] = \ln k(T) - m \ln \phi \quad (2.4)$$

Equation (4) describes the nonisothermal crystallization kinetics provided the plots of $\ln [-\ln (1 - X_T)]$ versus $\ln \phi$ gives a straight line at a given temperature.

The analysis of the time dependent relative crystallinity function $X(t)$ for a nonisothermal crystallization process is also conducted with the modified Avrami equation which can be written as:

$$X_t = 1 - \exp(-Z_t t^n) \quad (2.5)$$

Taking the double logarithm of this equation gives:

$$\ln[-\ln (1 - X(t))] = n \ln t + \ln Z_t \quad (2.6)$$

where n is the Avrami exponent (integer between 1 and 4) which depends on type of nucleation and growth process, Z_t is the Avrami rate constant involving nucleation and growth

parameters, and t is the crystallization time. Since the process is nonisothermal, Jeziorny [57] brought forward an idea that the Z_t should be corrected for the influence of cooling rate ϕ of the polymer. If one assumes that $\phi \approx \text{constant}$, the final form of the parameter characterizing the kinetics of nonisothermal crystallization is given by the following equation:

$$\ln Z_c = \frac{\ln Z_t}{\phi} \quad (2.7)$$

where Z_c denotes the kinetic growth parameter. According to Jeziorny [57], Z_c does not have a constant value for different scanning rates. A modified Avrami-Ozawa model is valid if plots of $\ln[-\ln(1 - X(t))]$ versus $\ln t$ give a straight line. One should be able to obtain the values of n and Z_t or Z_c from the slopes and intercepts, respectively.

Joshi and coworkers [5,43] discussed the effect of octamethyl-T₈-POSS on the nonisothermal and isothermal crystallization behaviour of high-density polyethylene (HDPE) resin using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). They indicated that the POSS molecules exhibited nucleation activity only at 10 wt % loading in HDPE, and are not effective nuclei at lower loadings. The effect of the same type of POSS molecules (10, 20 and 30 wt %) on the crystallization behaviour of *i*-PP under quiescent and shear conditions were also investigated [44]. The addition of POSS during quiescent conditions increased the crystallization rate of *i*-PP. This suggested that octamethyl-T₈-POSS molecules could act as nucleating agents. At higher POSS content (30 wt %) a significant decrease in the crystallization rate was observed, suggesting that the growth mechanism was hindered. It was observed, under shear conditions, that the crystallization rate was significantly higher than those performed under quiescent conditions. The POSS molecules were assumed to act as weak physical crosslinks in the polymer melts and to increase the relaxation time of the PP chains under shear conditions. Under these conditions the oriented chain segments remained in the oriented state for a longer time, therefore acting as more effective nucleating sites. A higher crystallization rate and better overall orientation of the *i*-PP chains therefore resulted (see Figure 2.13).

The thermal behaviour of isothermally crystallized *i*-PP blended with various loadings of POSS molecules were investigated using DSC [48,58]. An increase in crystallization rate of *i*-PP with increasing loadings of POSS in the polymer matrix during crystallization was

reported. Moreover, the melting temperature of the *i*-PP/POSS nanocomposites slightly decreased, while the heat of fusion increased after addition of POSS molecules.

In the case of octaisooctyl-POSS molecules, reduction of the crystallization behaviour of PP was reported. This behaviour was attributed to the high dispersion of the filler as a liquid phase component. Octaisobutyl-POSS showed different behaviour depending on the loading amount in PP. At a lower content (3 wt %), the nano-dispersion of the POSS molecules hindered the PP crystal growth that resulted in a retarded crystallization behaviour. The presence of octaisobutyl-POSS crystal aggregates at a high content (10 wt %) counterbalanced the crystallization behaviour and induced polymorphism [6,46]. It was also reported that the length of the alkyl groups on the POSS molecules affected the filler dispersion. Chen *et al.* [58] reported that the crystallization behaviour of PP significantly changed with increasing loadings of POSS. POSS crystallized and aggregated together to form a thread or network-like morphology depending on its amount in the polymer matrix.

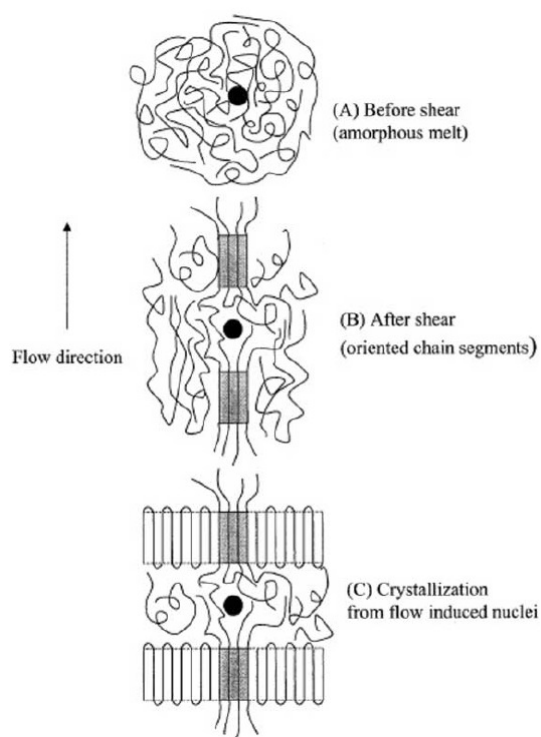


Figure 2.13 Schematic diagram of the shear-induced crystallization development in the presence of a POSS molecule [49]

Zheng and co-workers [59] prepared POSS/olefin copolymers by copolymerizing ethylene and propylene with norbornylene-substituted POSS macromers using a metallocene-

methylaluminoxane (MAO) cocatalyst system. A range of polyethylene (PE)/POSS (up to 56 wt % POSS loading) and PP/POSS (up to 73 wt % POSS loading) copolymers were prepared. The crystallinity of the PE/octamethyl-T₈-POSS nanocomposites decreased with increasing the POSS content.

Zhao *et al.* [60] investigated a series of PMMA containing octavinyl-POSS nanocomposites synthesized by solution polymerization. Only one glass transition was observed for all the nanocomposites and the neat PMMA. In comparison to neat PMMA, the T_g's of the nanocomposites increased with increasing the POSS content up to 12.27 wt %, but they decreased for the higher POSS content (14.06 wt %). The increase in the T_g's of the nanocomposites was due to the hindering effect of POSS, which inhibited the motion of the PMMA chains in the polymer matrix. It was also reported that the star-shaped structures with cubic silsesquioxane core is propitious to the T_g increase. The decrease in T_g was attributed to the increased incorporation of the low molecular weight species. The nanocomposite with 14.06 wt % POSS loading induced a greater steric hindrance of the POSS cages, which increased the internal free volume and decreased the reactivity of the MMA monomers. This led to relatively larger fractions of low molecular weight components. Huang and co-workers [61] reported a composition-dependent single T_g for all the blends investigated. Weickmann *et al.* [38] observed a glass transition temperature increase of 18 °C when PMMA was incorporated with octasilane-POSS loadings and 14 °C when tris(dimethylsilane) cyclopentyl-POSS was used.

Kopesky *et al.* [39] reported a decrease in the T_g and broadening of the glass transition region for POSS loadings up to $\phi = 0.30$ of the unmodified acrylic-POSS/PMMA blends. In the case of the $\phi = 0.30$ blend system, a second glass transition event was observed at -55 °C. This peak corresponds to the T_g of the pure POSS. This behaviour indicated a phase separated morphology of the two components at a particular unmodified acrylic-POSS loading. A similar trend of decreasing T_g with increasing hydrogenated acrylic-POSS loading was also reported. However, the drop in T_g was less pronounced in the case of hydrogenated acrylic-POSS systems.

2.5.2.2 Thermal stability

A number of studies also focused on the thermal stability of POSS containing polymer composites evaluated by means of thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) [31,45,46,48,51,52,59-62]. POSS molecules with different chain lengths (octamethyl-, octaisobutyl- and octaisooctyl-POSS) were incorporated into a PP matrix to investigate the thermal stability of the composites under nitrogen atmosphere [46]. The presence of octamethyl-POSS and octaisobutyl-POSS particles did not affect the degradation mechanism of the PP matrix. This behaviour was based on the fact that, when the degradation temperature of the PP matrix was reached, a negligible amount of octamethyl-POSS was present in the composite because of its lower volatilization temperature at 261 °C, compared to the 317 °C of the composites. A probable reason in the case of octaisobutyl-POSS containing composites is its complete evaporation at 265 °C. However, when 10 wt % octamethyl-POSS was used, two degradation steps were observed. This behaviour was the result of the maximum volatilization rate of octamethyl-POSS observed at 261 °C. No significant changes were observed in the thermodegradative behaviour of PP when octaisooctyl-POSS was used.

The thermal stability of PP/isobutyl trisilanol-POSS composites was investigated in inert and oxidative atmospheres [45]. Prior to TGA analysis, isobutyl trisilanol-POSS was functionalized with aluminium (Al) and zinc (Zn) metals by a deprotonation process. The weight loss maxima for Al functionalized-POSS and Zn-POSS studied in nitrogen atmosphere were, respectively, 342 °C and 490 °C, compared to the 265 °C of T₈-POSS. This behaviour indicated evaporation of Al-POSS, while the weight loss temperature delay was due to the higher molecular weight of the dimeric Al-POSS. The Al-POSS degraded in a single step, while the Zn-POSS showed a continuous weight loss in the range between 200 and 600 °C. The different behaviour in the thermal degradation of Zn-POSS was due to its resistance to evaporation. The residual amount of the Zn-POSS was 47 % of the initial weight, which was found to be stable up to at least 800 °C. This amount of residue was slightly lower than that of the inorganic fraction in Zn-POSS (56 %). This suggested that the thermal decomposition to volatiles of the isobutyl side chains and the reorganization of POSS in a thermally stable inorganic/carbonaceous phase were strongly predominant over the scission/evaporation process. In thermooxidative conditions, the thermal stability of the studied POSS molecules differed from that of the samples investigated under nitrogen atmosphere. This was due to the chemical interaction with oxygen. Different contents of metal functionalized POSS-

containing PP composites, investigated under nitrogen atmosphere, did not significantly change the thermal stability of these composites. However, for the composite samples investigated in air, the metal POSS molecules strongly effected the degradation pathways. Two degradation steps were observed for both metal functionalized POSS composites. The first step corresponded to the degradation of neat PP on the sample surface, while the second one was due to the degradation of the residue formed during the first step.

Chen and Chiou [48] observed similar degradation profiles for all the *i*-PP/POSS nanocomposites. This behaviour suggested the homogeneous dispersion of POSS nanocrystals in the *i*-PP matrix and the thermal stability of *i*-PP was reduced by addition of POSS particles. For pure *i*-PP, the initial decomposition temperature, defined as the 5 % mass loss temperature, was about 395 °C, while those for the nanocomposites were 320 to 348 °C. Even though the decomposition temperature of pure POSS is about 231 °C, a remarkable increase in decomposition temperature was observed after nanocomposites formation with POSS. This behaviour indicated that the thermal stability of POSS molecules increased remarkably when POSS is blended with an *i*-PP matrix, because of the decrease in the thermal vibrational motion of POSS molecules or the increase in the interaction between the POSS molecules and the *i*-PP matrix with increasing POSS loadings.

The influence of octavinyl-POSS on the thermal stability of a PP matrix was investigated by Zhou *et al.* [73]. It was found that all the TGA curves exhibited single step degradation, and all the values of the weight loss maximum and the initial decomposition temperature of the composites were lower than that of the neat PP. This was due to the lower thermal stability of the neat octavinyl-POSS. The degradation pathways of the POSS molecules showed a competition between evaporation and degradation mechanisms. A possible explanation was based on the polymerization effect of vinyl groups with evaporation, which was due to the free radicals produced by the scission/evaporation of octavinyl-POSS and which affected the degradation and decreased the initial decomposition temperature of PP.

For PMMA/octavinyl-POSS nanocomposites, the TGA curve of pure PMMA showed three main degradation steps [60]. The first and second degradation steps are associated with the scission of head-to-head and unsaturated chain ends of the polymer, while the third step is due to random scission. The first and second steps gradually disappeared with increasing the POSS contents lower than 12.27 wt %, while the 5 and 10 % mass loss temperatures increased

by 93 and 86 °C, respectively, for samples containing POSS contents up to 12.27 wt %. This indicated that the incorporated POSS particles retarded the scission of head-to-head linkage and vinylidene and chain-end initiation. The thermal stability decreased remarkably when the amount of POSS content was increased to 14.06 wt %.

When vinyl-POSS molecules were incorporated into a vinyl ester resin, a slight change in the thermal stability of the prepared composites was observed. However, a significant amount of char formation in the presence of both POSS and phosphate was noticed [31]. Zhang *et al.* [74] investigated the thermal stability of phenolic resin/trisilanolphenyl-POSS composites in air atmosphere using 1, 3, 5, 7 and 10.4 wt % POSS loadings. Increasing amounts of trisilanol-POSS molecules in the phenolic resin caused an increase in the thermal stability of these composites.

2.5.3 Dynamic mechanical and mechanical properties

Ethylene copolymers with norbornylene-substituted POSS molecules, incorporated using a metallocene-methaluminumoxane (MAO) cocatalyst system, as well as *i*-PP containing POSS nanoparticles using a C_2 symmetric *ansa*-metallocene, were investigated by dynamic mechanical thermal analysis (DMTA) [59]. A plateau modulus at a temperature above 175 °C was observed. This behaviour indicated the suppression of melt flow for PE-POSS copolymers. Furthermore, the observation of a rubbery plateau at a temperature above 175 °C indicated that both impact and toughness properties of these PE/POSS composites were improved. Slightly higher values of the storage modulus of these composites in the rubbery region were observed, which suggested that the POSS nanoparticles had a better improvement on elastomers. This behaviour was due to the formation of POSS nanocrystals, which contributed to the confinement of polyethylene chains during β -relaxation. The γ -relaxation appeared at the same temperature for all the PE/POSS samples as a result of the “crankshaft” motion in the PE amorphous domain. The α -transition of the samples shifted to lower temperatures due to formation of thinner crystals in the PE/POSS samples.

DMTA results on ethylene propylene (EP)/POSS nanocomposites showed that the presence of 10 wt % POSS particles increased the storage modulus and shifted the T_g of the EP copolymer towards a higher value by 4.5 °C. These results suggested the presence of strong particle-particle interactions between the POSS crystals and weak particle-matrix interactions between

the POSS crystals and the EP matrix. This indicated a decrease of molecular mobility in EP, either due to the induced constraints of the EP chains, or due to the enhanced van der Waals bonding forces between the POSS and the EP chains. This behaviour suggested that the POSS nanocrystals exhibited some physical interactions with the EP polymer chains. Moreover, higher values of the storage modulus of the 10 wt % POSS containing composite were reported in the temperature range from -80 to 60 °C [63].

Li *et al.* [28] investigated the viscoelastic and mechanical properties of multifunctional POSS, $[(C_6H_5CHCHO)_4(Si_8O_{12})CH=CHC_6H_5)_4]$, units that were incorporated into an aliphatic epoxy resin and POSS-styrene copolymers. The presence of 10 wt % POSS particles in the VE network did not show any significant improvement in T_g as well as in the width of $\tan \delta$ peak in the glass transition range. However, the incorporation of multifunctional POSS particles reduced the segmental motion of the small fraction of the segments which contributed to the T_g . There were no observable changes in the volume density of the VE resins after addition of POSS, since the VE resin could crosslink on its own. In contrast, the T_g values of the VE/POSS-styrene copolymers were substantially higher than that of the neat uncrosslinked PS. This behaviour was due to the crosslinking effect induced by the addition of these POSS units and to the restriction of segmental motion by the vast and bulky POSS moieties. The glass transition temperature values of both 5 and 10 wt % multifunctional POSS copolymers were almost the same. This was due to similar crosslinking densities for both the 5 and 10 wt % POSS contents. The E' values of the VE/POSS composites were higher than that of the neat VE resin over the entire temperature range investigated. The POSS-styrene composites have higher E' values. The incorporation of POSS increased the flexural modulus and hardness of the VE resin, and decreased the flexural strength. The presence of 5 wt % of octaisobutyl-POSS (OibPOSS) and dodecaphenyl-POSS in the VE resin gave rise to smaller flexural strength and modulus values for these composites.

Ni and co-workers [9] examined the dynamic mechanical properties of DGEBA epoxy resin/POSS nanocomposites in the presence of DDM as a curing agent. The POSS monomers used in their study were octanitrophenyl- T_8 -POSS (OnpPOSS) and octaaminophenyl- T_8 -POSS (OapPOSS) at loadings of 5, 10, 15, and 20 wt %. They reported lower glass transition temperatures of all the DDM cured composites containing octanitrophenyl- T_8 -POSS and octaaminophenyl- T_8 -POSS monomers over the temperature range investigated. However, in the case of the OnpPOSS composites, the T_g values were smaller than those obtained using

the OapPOSS monomer. The loss factor curve of the neat DDM cured DGEBA epoxy resin showed a well-defined relaxation peak at 177 °C. This peak was attributed to the glass rubbery transition of the polymer matrix. Similar behaviour was observed in the case of the composites at 130 °C. The storage moduli of these composites were higher than that of the neat epoxy resin in the glassy state observed at -50 to 100 °C, and E' increased with increasing POSS content. This behaviour was due to the reinforcement effect of the dispersed, spherical and rigid structure of OnpPOSS. Another possible reason was due to the nanoreinforcement effect of the POSS cages in the crosslinked polymer networks due the covalent bonding formation between OapPOSS and the epoxy resin.

Zhou *et al.* [50] reported that E' of all the physically blended PP composites decreased with increasing POSS loading at lower temperature in the glassy state between -60 and approximately 10 °C. The lower modulus was attributed to the lower stiffness of the β crystalline form and to the soft vinyl groups of POSS. The E' of all the reactive blended PP composites and POSS-g-PP were higher than that of pure PP, and reached a maximum when 2 wt % POSS content was used. This behaviour was associated with the grafting of POSS to the PP chains and the hindered chain mobility of the PP matrix. The loss factor results of the physically and reactively blended composites showed a well defined relaxation peak near 10 °C. This was attributed to the T_g of PP. All the composites showed slightly higher T_g 's than PP, which indicated that the presence of POSS molecules resulted in a decrease of the molecular mobility of PP. When HDPE was used, a significant improvement in E' was reported for composites filled with lower POSS contents (0.25 to 0.5 wt %) [42]. Only one α -transition peak was observed for all the HDPE/octamethyl-POSS nanocomposites at higher temperatures than that of neat HDPE. The shift in peak transition was associated with the restriction of the movement of HDPE chain segments in the intercrystalline regions due to the presence of POSS macromers around the crystallite boundaries.

The DMTA properties of cyanate ester (PT-15) composites containing octaaminophenyl-T8-POSS (OapPOSS) and cyanopropyl cyclopentyl-POSS monomers were investigated by Liang *et al.* [30]. The PT-15/OapPOSS showed higher E' values than the neat PT-15 resin when 1 and 3 wt % OapPOSS contents were used. This behaviour was attributed to the generation of higher network crosslink densities around the OapPOSS moieties caused by amino functional groups that reacted with the liquid PT-15 resin. The loss factor peak intensities decreased and the peaks broadened after nanocomposite formation with OapPOSS. The glass transition

temperature of the PT-15 composite containing 1 wt % OapPOSS increased sharply, but decreased for both the 3 and 5 wt % OapPOSS contents. Similar behaviour was observed in the case of cyanopropyl cyclopentyl-POSS composites. However, both 5 and 10 wt % POSS contents produced opposite behaviour of the E' in the glassy region ($T < T_g$). The loss factor peak intensities decreased and they broadened upon addition of POSS at various loadings. Higher values of the storage bending modulus and the glass transition temperature of PT-15/trisilanolphenyl-POSS were reported by the same research group [29].

Pittman *et al.* [64] investigated the viscoelastic properties of phenolic resin nanocomposites containing four different types of POSS molecules using DMTA. They used dichloromethylsilylethyl heptaisobutyl-POSS, trisilanol heptaphenyl-POSS, poly(phenylsilsesquioxane) uncured POSS and octaisobutyl-POSS in different wt % contents of 1, 3, 5 and 10. Higher values of E' in the rubbery region ($T > T_g$) were observed in the presence of dichloromethylsilylethyl heptaisobutyl-POSS, and these values increased with increasing POSS loadings in the resin. Similar behaviour was observed in the case of the poly(phenylsilsesquioxane)-POSS containing composites in the rubbery region, but only for the 1 to 5 wt % contents. In the glassy region ($T < T_g$) of the phenolic resin, the values of E' were higher for the composites containing 1 to 5 wt % dichloromethylsilylethyl heptaisobutyl-POSS loadings. In the case of the trisilanol heptaphenyl-POSS composites, the E' values were higher in both the glassy and rubbery regions. Similar behaviour was seen in the glassy region ($T < T_g$) of the phenolic resin after addition of octaisobutyl-POSS, except for the 10 wt % octaisobutyl-POSS content. The glass transition temperatures of the composites containing dichloromethylsilylethyl heptaisobutyl-POSS increased with increasing POSS loadings. Higher values of T_g were also observed in the case of trisilanol heptaphenyl-POSS and poly(phenylsilsesquioxane)-POSS composites. However, opposite behaviour was observed when octaisobutyl-POSS was used.

The tensile properties of the polymers and polymer nanocomposites are also very important properties in many industrial applications. Significant for these properties is the compatibility between the different components. Only a few studies reported on the tensile properties of polymers filled with POSS. The tensile properties of nanosilica-filled PP composites containing 1 to 5 wt % fumed silica nanoparticles in the presence of PP/methyl-POSS as a compatibilizer were reported by Lin *et al.* [65]. It was found that PP/methyl-POSS effectively improved the tensile properties of the composites at a lower nanosilica content. This

behaviour was associated with a better dispersion of nanosilica and compatibility between the silica and the PP matrix in the presence of the PP/methyl-POSS compatibilizer.

The tensile properties of the melt-mixed and *in situ* polymerized PET filled triepoxy-POSS fibre composites were reported in another study [51]. It was found that the tensile strength and modulus of the melt-mixed fibre composites decreased when compared to that of the neat PET matrix. In the case of *in situ* prepared PET based composites, only bulk properties instead of fibre properties were reported. The reason for this was the poor spinnability of the *in situ* polymerized composites. Slightly higher values for both tensile strength and modulus were observed, even at 1 wt % POSS content. This behaviour was due to the homogeneous dispersion of the POSS particles in the PET matrix when prepared through *in situ* polymerization. The value of the storage modulus was higher for the *in situ* prepared composite throughout the temperature range. However, the authors observed no difference in the $\tan \delta$ after composite formation with POSS particles. The same research group [52] reported an increase in both tensile strength and modulus when 1 wt % of both disilanol- and trisilanol-POSS molecules were incorporated into a PET matrix.

2.5.4 Rheological properties

Investigation of the rheological properties in the molten state is fundamentally important to understand the processability and structure-property relationships of polymer composite systems. These properties are strongly dependent on the degree of dispersion of the filler particles in the polymer matrix [42], while that of the polymer melt strongly rely on the temperature at which the measurement is carried out [66]. For this reason, it is important to study the rheological behaviour of a polymer matrix reinforced with filler particles, where the POSS nanoparticle size allows interactions with the polymer matrix at the molecular scale.

Joshi *et al.* [42] investigated the rheological properties of HDPE/octamethyl-T₈-POSS nanocomposites. POSS particles acted as lubricating agent at lower POSS contents (0.25 to 0.5 wt %) and reduced the complex viscosity, η^* of the nanocomposites, while high POSS loadings showed an increase in the viscosity. The presence of POSS particles caused gelation in the HDPE matrix at concentrations higher than 5 wt %. This was due to the segregated particle-particle interaction.

In another publication [67], the rheological behaviour of PP/octavinyl-POSS composites, prepared through reactive and physical blending in the presence of dicumyl peroxide (DCP), was investigated. It was found that the η^* of the physically blended composites decreased at a lower POSS content and increased with increasing POSS content. Furthermore, the samples showed a liquid-like rheological character after nanocomposite formation due to the strong particle-matrix interaction of PP and grafted POSS. In the case of the reactive blending, the composites showed a solid-like rheological behaviour at the low frequency region when the POSS content was higher than 1 wt %. Kopesky *et al.* [39] reported that the presence of tethered POSS within entangled PMMA reduced the rubbery plateau modulus (G_N^0) of the neat PMMA. Wu and his co-workers [68] reported on the linear viscoelastic properties of entangled random copolymers from styrene and isobutyl-POSS (ⁱBu-POSS). A dramatic reduction in the G_N^0 values of the copolymers caused by the addition of ⁱBu-POSS particles was observed. Such behaviour suggested a strong dilatation effect on the entanglement density caused by the presence of isobutyl-POSS. Fu *et al.* [63] studied the rheological properties of nanocomposites prepared from an ethylene-propylene copolymer (EP) matrix and POSS particles. Their investigation revealed a transition from liquid-like rheological behaviour in the pure EP to solid-like rheological behaviour for the POSS composites.

Kim *et al.* [52] reported on the rheological behaviour of PET/POSS nanocomposites conducted at 280 °C. They used both disilanol- and trisilanol-POSS particles to prepare their composites. An increase in the amount of disilanol-POSS molecules in the PET matrix increased the η^* of the PET matrix at low frequencies. However, the opposite behaviour was observed with increasing frequency. This behaviour was due to a shear thinning effect. Similar behaviour was observed in the case of PET/trisilanol-POSS nanocomposites, with a slight difference in η^* with increasing the POSS content. A plateau region was observed for the PET/POSS composites containing 1 wt % POSS. This behaviour indicated strong interfacial interactions between the PET and POSS particles.

2.5.5 XRD analysis

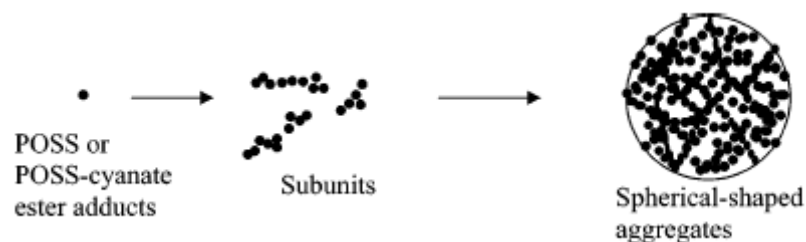
The structure of HDPE [42] before and after nanocomposite formation with octamethyl-T₈-POSS was studied by x-ray diffraction (XRD). The XRD patterns of POSS showed a number of strong sharp peaks which indicated a highly crystalline structure. Fu *et al.* [72] observed

sharp peaks for both neat octacyclohexyl-POSS and hydromethylsiloxyl-POSS molecules. However, the diffraction profiles of hydromethylsiloxyl-POSS were broader than that of octacyclohexyl-POSS, which indicated that the crystal size became smaller or more disordered by the substituted group. Fina *et al.* [46] reported a very intense main diffraction peak at $2\theta = 10.5^\circ$ for octamethyl-POSS, two major intensity diffraction peaks at 8° and 8.8° for octaisobutyl-POSS and one amorphous halo peak at $2\theta = 7^\circ$ for liquid octaisooctyl-POSS. HDPE showed two sharp characteristics peaks at 21.3° and 23.5° . These reflections were assigned to the 110 and 200 reflections of the Bunn orthorhombic subcell. These values agreed well with the values reported for PE as 21.4° and 23.7° , 21.6° and 24.0° as well as 21.6° and 24.1° by Bhadrakumari and Predeep [69], Rizzo *et al.* [70] and Waddon *et al.* [62]. In the case of the HDPE/POSS nanocomposites similar diffraction patterns as that for the neat HDPE were observed. Similar positions of the 110 and 200 peaks indicated that the presence of POSS particles did not change the basic nature of the diffraction pattern of HDPE. However, it was noticeable that the diffraction peaks were not as sharp as the neat POSS peaks. This behaviour suggested imperfection of POSS crystals dispersed in the polymer matrix.

The small angle x-ray scattering (SAXS) pattern of an EP copolymer showed a weak scattering peak when studied at different temperatures [63]. This indicated that the EP had a lamellar structure. At a high temperature of 160°C , this structure of EP was destroyed and no scattering peak was observed with increasing temperature. The same behaviour was observed in the case of the nanocomposite. However, when 30 wt % POSS was used, a very ill-defined lamellar peak at low temperature and after cooling from the melt was observed. This indicated that the formation of the crystalline lamellae was hindered at higher POSS content.

Nanocomposite systems containing PE and POSS nanoparticles were prepared and characterized using WAXS (wide angle x-ray scattering) [71]. The POSS nanoparticles in the PE-co-POSS copolymers formed a lattice separate from the PE lattice with characteristic diffraction signals. The POSS crystallized as anisotropically shaped crystallites. The anisotropic POSS crystallites were the primary component responding to draw, aligning with their major dimension parallel to the draw direction. WAXD studies of the cured PT-15/OapPOSS composites were reported by Liang *et al.* [30]. The OapPOSS pattern exhibited a broad amorphous peak at $2\theta = 7.8^\circ$. However, this broad peak was not observed in the case of the PT-15/OapPOSS composites. All the nanocomposites exhibited one broad peak at $2\theta =$

19.5°, and this peak corresponded to the diffraction peak of the neat PT-15 resin. This indicated that dispersed OapPOSS was compatible with the PT-15 network. When a cyanopropyl cyclopentyl-POSS monomer was incorporated into the PT-15 resin, the crystalline features characteristic of cyanopropyl cyclopentyl-POSS and the amorphous features characteristic of the resin were observed. The intensity of the crystalline peaks increased with increasing the content of cyanopropyl cyclopentyl-POSS in the PT-15 resin.



Scheme 2.2 Schematic representation of formation of POSS-enriched aggregated regions [29]

When PT-15/trisilanolphenyl-POSS nanocomposites were prepared [29], a similar WAXD peak was observed at $2\theta \approx 20^\circ$ for the pure PT-15 resin. This peak was associated with cured amorphous PT-15. The incorporation of different amounts of trisilanol-POSS monomer into PT-15 produced WAXD patterns similar to those when OapPOSS and cyanophenyl cyclopentyl-POSS monomers were used. However, another small diffraction peak was observed at $2\theta \approx 7.5^\circ$ for the nanocomposite containing 10 wt % POSS. This peak was attributed to the distance between the trisilanolphenyl-POSS moieties found in the neat solid sample of the POSS, which contributed to the formation of POSS aggregates into ordered particles that occurred at a higher POSS content. These POSS aggregates contributed to some regular structure that occurred when 10 wt % POSS was used as illustrated in Scheme 2.2.

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CHAPTER 3

SAMPLE PREPARATION AND EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES

3.1 Introduction

The experimental techniques used in this study include melt-mixing in a Thermohaake-mixer, hot-melt pressing, injection moulding, differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA), rheometry, polarized optical microscopy (POM), field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM), small angle x-ray scattering (SAXS), x-ray diffraction (XRD), heat distortion temperature (HDT), pendulum impact and tensile testing. A detailed discussion of these techniques for the preparation and characterization of the neat polymers and their nanocomposites is provided in section 3.3.

3.2 Materials

3.2.1 Polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxane (POSS)

POSS derivatives used in this study, octamethyl-T₈-POSS and poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl-methacrylate)), were purchased in powder form from Sigma Aldrich, Republic of South Africa. Octamethyl-T₈-POSS has a molecular weight of 537 g.mol⁻¹ and a decomposition temperature of about 230 °C. Poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl methacrylate)) has a T_g of 97 °C. The octamethyl-T₈-POSS is slightly soluble in common solvents such as tetrahydrofuran (THF) and chloroform, while poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl-methacrylate)) is soluble in both solvents. The molecular structures of poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl-methacrylate)) and octamethyl-T₈-POSS are illustrated in Figure 3.1.

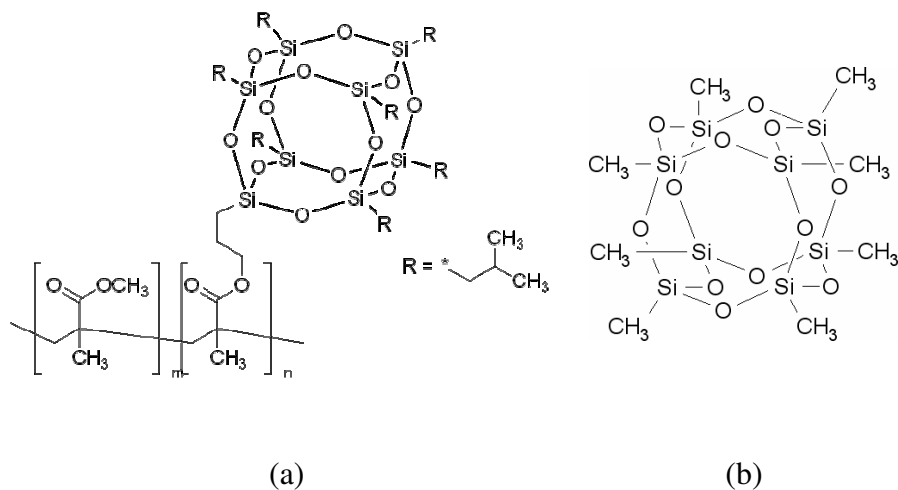


Figure 3.1 Molecular structures of (a) poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl methacrylate)) and (b) octamethyl-T₈-POSS

3.2.2 Linear low-density polyethylene (LLDPE)

DOWLEX 2045G (Dow Chemical) linear low-density polyethylene (LLDPE) pellets were supplied by Plastomark (Pty) Ltd, Republic of South Africa, and has a melt flow index (MFI) of 1 g.10 min⁻¹ (ASTM D-1238), a melting point of 121 °C and a density of 0.920 g.cm⁻³.

3.2.3 Poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA)

The PMMA resin was supplied in pellet form by Rohm and Haas Co. (Plexiglas V-811). It has a weight average molecular weight $\overline{M}_w = 130\,000$, number average molecular weight $\overline{M}_n = 52\,900$ and a T_g of 108 °C.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Preparation of nanocomposites

The LLDPE/octamethyl-T₈-POSS and PMMA/poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl methacrylate)) nanocomposite systems were mixed at 150 °C and 180 °C (set points) for LLDPE and PMMA, respectively, in a twin-rotor thermohaaake-mixer (Haake PolyLab OS system) (Figure 3.2 (a)) at 60 rpm for 8 min. LLDPE and PMMA with different POSS loadings from 5 to 25 wt % were prepared according to the desired ratios (Table 3.1).

Prior to use, both LLDPE and PMMA were dried under vacuum at 80 °C for 4 hours and 100 °C for 24 hours, respectively. The POSS powders were used as received and slowly added into the mixer after 2 minutes (time zero) of melting of the LLDPE and PMMA in the mixer. The mixing of the samples was followed by melt-pressing for 5 min at 150 °C for LLDPE and 180 °C for PMMA using a pressure of 2 tons in the Carver hot-melt press (Figure 3.2 (b)).

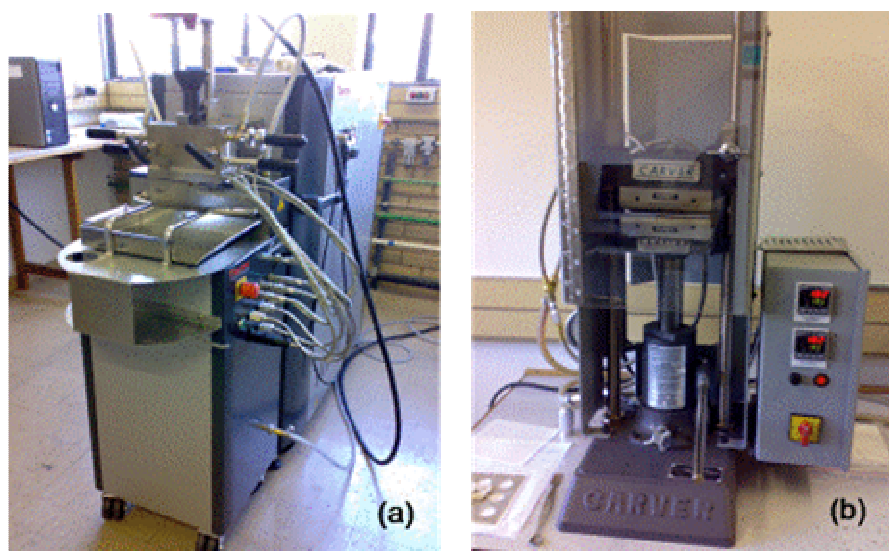


Figure 3.2 (a) Haake PolyLab OS rheomixer 600 model system and (b) Carver hot-melt press

Table 3.1 Sample compositions used in this study

LLDPE/octamethyl-T ₈ -POSS (w/w)	PMMA/poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl- POSS)-co-(methyl-methacrylate)) (w/w)
100/0	100/0
95/5	95/5
92.5/7.5	90/10
90/10	85/15
-	75/25

3.3.2 Small angle x-ray scattering

Small angle x-ray scattering (SAXS) is an accurate non-destructive analytical technique used to investigate the structure of the particle systems with respect to the average particle sizes or shapes. In the SAXS, x-rays are produced by either an x-ray tube or a synchrotron source by irradiating a sample. The first one is mostly preferred in SAXS studies, while the latter is used when high beam intensities or unusual wavelengths are needed. SAXS can be used to test different materials in the solid or liquid phase. It can also be used to test materials that contain solid, liquid or gaseous domains (called particles) of the same or another material in any combination. It is, therefore, perfectly suitable to be utilized in various applications from cement, oils, polymers, food and in pharmaceutical industries. This method can also be helpful for quality control purposes. The advantage of SAXS over other analytical techniques is that it can test particles of high atomic numbers which can exhibit higher contrast and give better detection limits. Particle or structures ranging from 1 to 100 nm can be resolved in a typical set-up. The range of measurements can be extended on either side by taking measurements at smaller (i.e. ultra small-x-ray scattering or larger q region) or larger angles (i.e. wide-angle x-ray scattering, WAXS or smaller q region) [1].



Figure 3.3 Anton-Paar small-angle x-ray scattering spectrometer

In order to determine the structural modification during heating, WAXS spectra of the samples were collected on a SAXS instrument (Anton-Paar, Figure 3.3) with a wide-angle attachment (SAXSess, Germany, CuK_α radiation), operated at an accelerating voltage of 40 kV and a current of 50 mA. The sample thickness was ≈ 0.4 mm and the temperature was controlled by a TCU50 (Anton-Paar) temperature control unit.

3.3.3 Optical microscopy

An optical microscope, often referred to as a light microscope, is a type of microscope which uses visible light and a system of lenses to magnify images of small samples. Optical microscopes are the oldest and simplest of the microscopes. When they are accompanied by a charge coupled device (CCD) camera, a sample is examined and the image is shown directly on a computer screen without the use of optics like eye-pieces. Optical microscopes are used for identification of metals, composite construction, as well as the assessment of the homogeneity of nanoparticles dispersion in the polymer matrix [2]. A schematic illustration of the optical path in a typical microscope is shown in Figure 3.4.

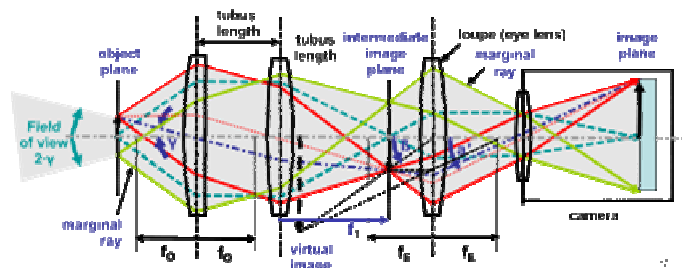


Figure 3.4 A schematic drawing of the optical path in a typical optical microscope [3]

The microstructures of the samples were investigated with a Carl Zeiss imager Z1 model polarized optical microscope (POM) shown in Figure 3.5. Prior to taking the POM micrographs, compression-moulded thin films (sample thickness was ≈ 0.4 mm) were placed between two covering glasses and placed on a Linkam hot-stage (Linkam Scientific Instruments Ltd, UK) mounted on the microscope.

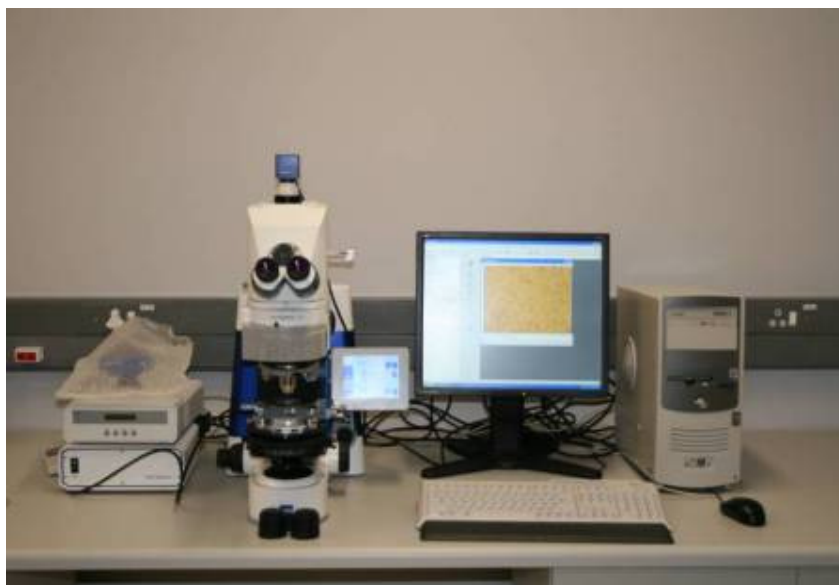


Figure 3.5 Carl Zeiss Imager Z1 model polarized optical microscope

3.3.4 X-ray diffraction

X-ray diffraction (XRD) is an efficient non-destructive analytical technique used to determine structural properties of crystalline materials. It is also used in applications such as phase identification, determination of grain size, compositions of solid solutions, lattice constants, and degree of crystallinity in a mixture of amorphous and crystalline substances. A diffraction pattern is produced when a material is irradiated with a collimated beam of x-rays. The x-ray patterns generated by this technique provide a structural fingerprint of the unknown material. The relative peak height is generally proportional to the number of grains in a preferred orientation, and peak positions are reproducible. The intensity of the diffracted x-rays is measured with respect to the diffraction angle 2θ and the sample's orientation [4].

The X'pert PRO (PANalytical) PN 3040/60 x-ray diffractometer shown in Figure 3.6 was used for the analyses of the samples in this study. A monochromated Cu- K_{α} ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm) radiation source, operated at an acceleration voltage of 45.0 kV and a current of 40.0 mA were used. XRD data were collected in the 2θ geometry ranging from 5 to 40° with a step size of 0.02 and a scanning rate of $4^{\circ} \text{ min}^{-1}$.

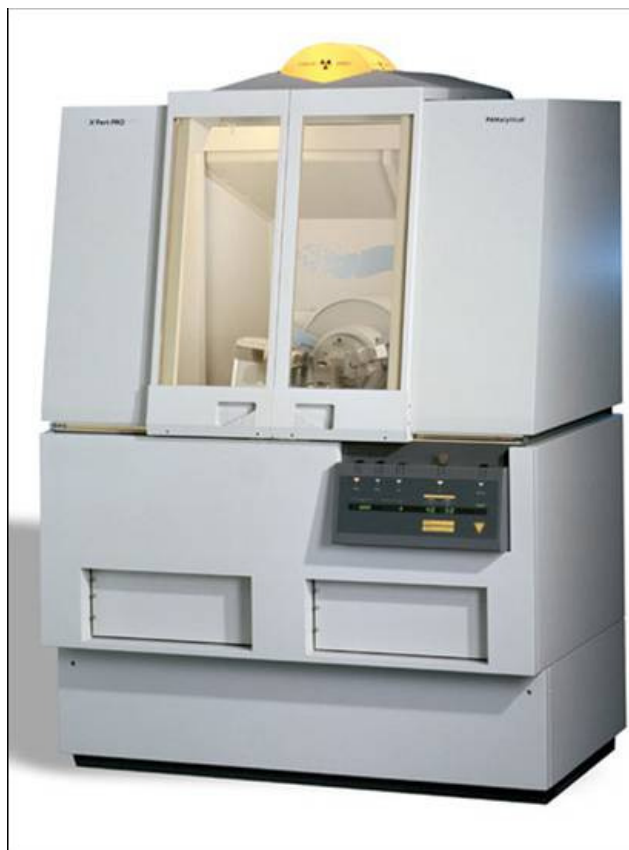


Figure 3.6 X'Pert PRO PN3040/60 model (PANalytical) x-ray diffractometer

3.3.5 Scanning electron microscopy

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) is a technique whereby a beam of energetically well-defined and highly focused electrons is scanned across a sample. The microscope uses a lanthanum hexaboride (LaB_6) source and is pumped using turbo and ion pumps to maintain the highest possible vacuum. The technique can provide information about the topography, morphology and crystallography of the material [4]. If the system is equipped with an energy dispersive x-ray spectrometer (EDS), it can also provide information about the chemical composition of the material [5]. The basic principle of the system is that the electron beam impinges the surface and generates a splash of electrons, called secondary electrons, with kinetic energies much lower than the primary incident electrons. An image of the sample surface is constructed by measuring the secondary electron intensity as a function of the primary beam position. Advantages of the SEM over traditional microscopes are (i) its large depth of field, which allows more of a sample to be in focus at one time and much higher

resolution, so that closely spaced samples can be magnified at much higher levels, and (ii) its use of electromagnetic lenses which give much more control on the degree of magnification. A simplified layout of a SEM is shown in Figure 3.7.

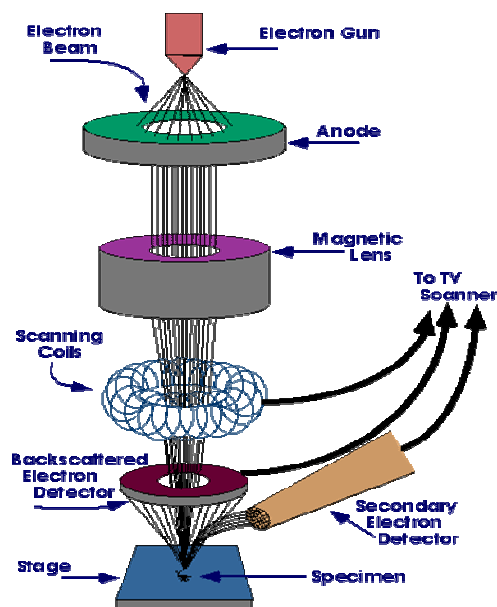


Figure 3.7 A simplified layout of the scanning electron microscope [4]

The SEM micrographs were obtained by the JEOL JSM 7500F field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM), shown in Figure 3.8. Before the images were taken, all the samples were frozen in liquid nitrogen for 24 hours, and fractured by simply breaking the samples in an appropriate size to fit in the sample chamber, and then mounted onto the holder. The surfaces of the samples were coated with carbon by an electro-deposition method to impart electrical conduction before recording the SEM micrographs. This was done to prevent the accumulation of static electric charge on the sample during electron irradiation.



Figure 3.8 JEOL JSM 7500F model field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM)

3.3.6 Differential scanning calorimetry

Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) is a thermoanalytical technique in which the difference in the amount of heat required to increase the temperature of a sample and reference are measured as a function of temperature (nonisothermal) or time (isothermal). DSC techniques are widely used in the polymer industry. It is mainly applied in studying phase transitions such as melting, crystallization, oxidation, glass transitions, curing, as well as the composition and compatibility of plasticized polymers, polymer blends and composites. The transitions involve energy or heat capacity changes that can be detected by the DSC with great sensitivity. The most commonly used DSC type in analytical laboratories is based on the heat flux principle, illustrated in Figure 3.9. Both the sample and reference are maintained at nearly the same temperature throughout the experiment. Generally, the temperature program for a DSC analysis is designed in such a way that the temperature of the sample holder increases linearly with respect to time. The reference sample has a well-defined heat capacity over the range of temperatures to be scanned [6,7].

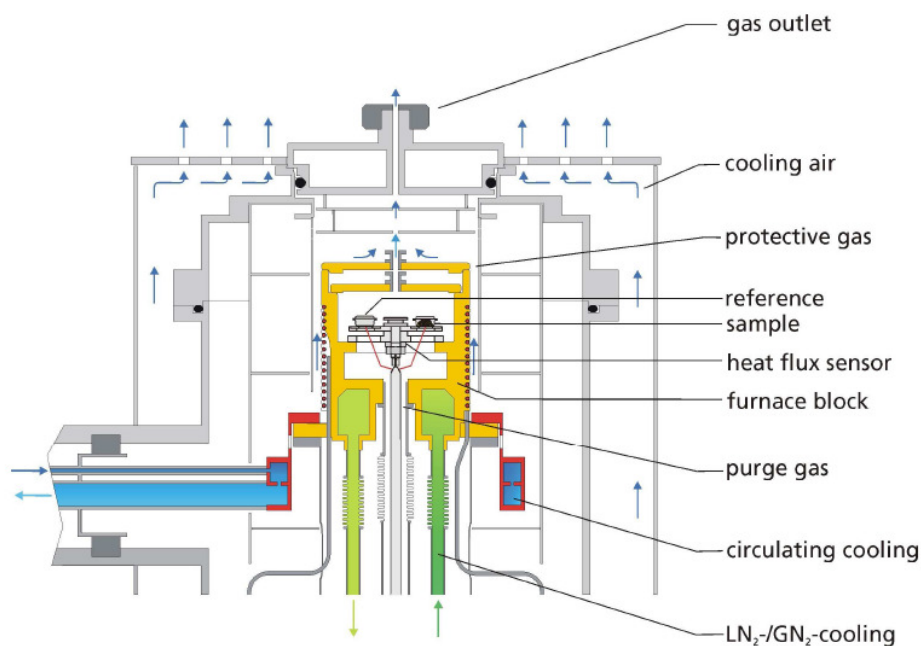


Figure 3.9 Schematic diagram of a differential scanning calorimeter [8]

DSC analyses were done on a TA Q2000 model (TA Instruments) differential scanning calorimeter (Figure 3.10) under constant flowing nitrogen (flow rate 50 ml min⁻¹). The samples were weighed such that all the samples had an identical LLDPE and PMMA content. Approximately 7-10 mg of each sample was loaded in an aluminium pan in order to minimize any possible thermal lag during the scans. The instrument was calibrated by employing the temperature and heat-of-fusion of an indium standard, and the baseline was checked according to the TA Instruments protocols. The thermal histories of all the samples were the same prior to each experiment.

To study the nonisothermal crystallization behaviour and the T_g , the samples were first heated to 150 °C for LLDPE and 180 °C for PMMA at a heating rate of 20 °C.min⁻¹, held at that temperature for 3 min. to eliminate any previous thermal history, and then cooled to -60 °C at a constant cooling rate of 10 °C.min⁻¹. For the second scan, the samples were heated and cooled under the same conditions.



Figure 3.10 Q2000 model (TA instrument) differential scanning calorimetry

To separate the heat capacity and kinetic-related components during re-crystallization and the subsequent melting of the pure LLDPE and the nanocomposite systems containing 5 wt % POSS, a TMDSC (temperature-modulated DSC) analysis of the samples was carried out using the same DSC instrument with a constant nitrogen flow of 50 ml.min^{-1} . TMDSC generally applies a sinusoidal temperature oscillation (modulation) on a conventional heating DSC and allows the total heat flow (as obtained from conventional DSC) to be separated into the heat capacity related (reversible) and kinetic (non-reversible) components. The heat capacity was calibrated with a sapphire sample. Different underlying rates, modulations and periods were applied. The most suitable parameters were a heating rate of $2 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C.min}^{-1}$, an amplitude of $\pm 0.318 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and a period of 60 s.

3.3.7 Thermogravimetric analysis

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) is an analytical technique used to determine a material's thermal stability and its fraction of volatile components by monitoring the weight changes that occur in relation to temperature, time or both in a controlled atmosphere such as air or inert gas. TGA is commonly used in research to determine the characteristics such as degradation temperatures, absorbed moisture content of materials, the level of inorganic and organic components in materials, decomposition points of explosives, and solvent residues of

polymers, composites, films, fibers, coatings and paints. It is also often used to estimate the corrosion kinetics in high temperature oxidation. In addition to weight changes, some instruments also record the temperature difference between the sample and one or more reference pans such as differential thermal analysis (DTA) [9,10].



Figure 3.11 Q500 model (TA instrument) thermogravimetric analysis

Figure 3.11 shows the TGA Q500 model (TA Instruments) used for studying the thermal degradation behaviour of the samples. The measurements were carried out at a heating rate of $10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ under thermo-oxidative and nitrogen atmospheres from room temperature to $700\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Samples ranging from 5 to 10 mg were analyzed.

3.3.8 Injection moulding

Injection moulding is a technique used to produce different parts using different thermosetting and thermoplastic materials. The principle of the process is that the material is supplied into a heated barrel, mixed and forced through the sprue into a mould cavity where it cools and hardens to the configuration of the mould cavity. It is widely used for manufacturing of parts, from the smallest component (e.g. packaging bottles) to entire body panels of vehicles [11]. Figure 3.12 depicts a schematic diagram of the injection moulder.

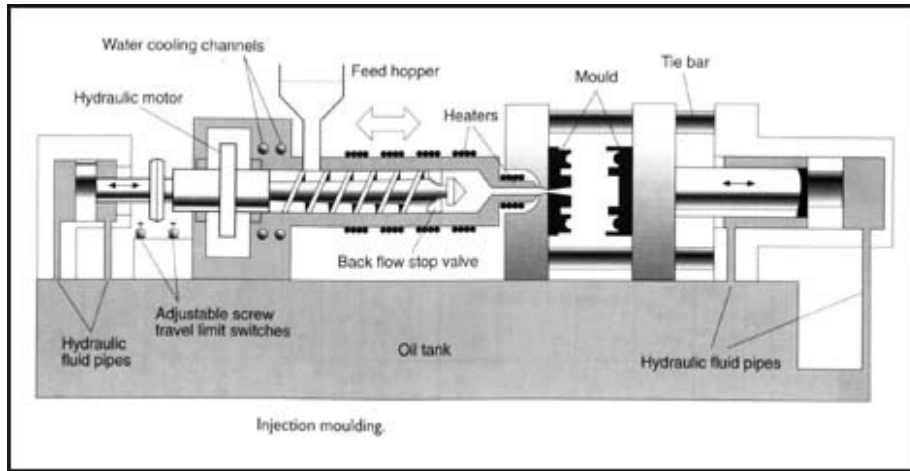


Figure 3.12 Schematic diagram of an injection moulder [11]



Figure 3.13 ThermoHaake Scientific Minijet II injection moulder

3.3.9 Tensile testing

Tensile testing is used to determine the modulus of elasticity (or Young's modulus), the tensile strength, stress at break and sample elongations at yield and break. In a typical tensile

test a sample of known dimensions is firmly tightened between two grips. The tensile tester pulls the sample from both ends and measures the force needed to pull the sample apart as well as the elongation of the sample. The product of a tensile test is a load versus elongation curve which is then converted into a stress-strain curve, from which the required tensile values are determined [7]. The tensile properties of composites can be influenced by the aspect ratio of the inclusions [12,13]. The modulus of elasticity of reinforced polymer composites can be predicted by using various models, which are mainly based on either hydrodynamic considerations, for example, Guth-Smallwood, the Kerner equation and its modifications such as Hashin-Shtrikman or Halpin-Tsai [14-18].

The dumbbell-shaped samples for LLDPE/POSS composites were prepared at 180 °C (cylinder temperature), an injection pressure of 400 bar and a mould temperature of 60 °C using a ThermoHaake Minijet II injection moulding machine (ASTM D-638) as shown in Figure 3.13. Samples of thickness = 3.00 mm, width = 3.0 mm and length = 64 mm were used. Five measurements were carried out for each composition and the results were averaged to obtain a mean value. A Hounsfield H10KT (Tinius Olsen Ltd) tensile tester was used for the tensile properties of the samples at room temperature (Figure 3.14). The settings of the instrument used for the tensile analysis are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 The settings of the tensile tester used for the analysis

Load range	250.0 N
Extension range	500.0 mm
Gauge length	25.0 mm
Stretching speed	10.0 mm.min ⁻¹
Approached speed	0.02 mm.min ⁻¹

The dimensions and shape of the moulded dumbbell-shaped (ASTM D-638) sample for tensile testing were as follows:

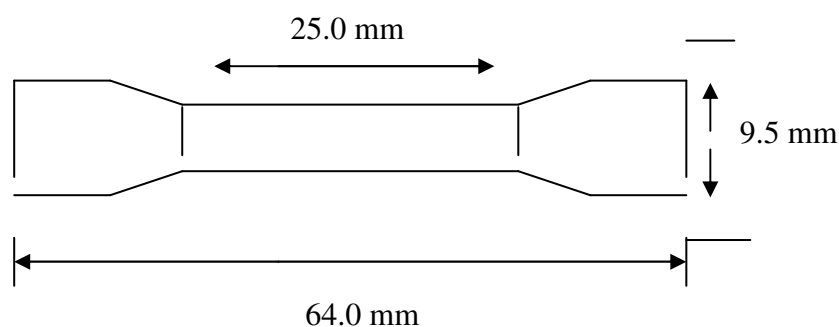




Figure 3.14 Tinus Olsen H10KT model tensile testing

3.3.10 Dynamic mechanical analysis

Dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA) is a technique that yields information about the mechanical properties such as the storage modulus, loss modulus and damping factor of a sample. In a typical DMA test, an oscillation force is applied to a sample as a function of time and temperature and the system analyzes the response of the material to the applied force. Depending on various factors such as the type of the sample, as well as dimensions and sample behaviour, different measuring setups ranging from compression, 3-point bending, shear, tension, single and dual cantilever modes can be performed by DMA [19].

DMA can be used to study the viscoelastic behaviour of polymers and their composites, as well as powders, coatings, and liquids. Since all polymers are viscoelastic in nature, this method is perfectly suited for the task of evaluating a complex array of phenomena that polymers present to us, focusing on solid state transitions [7,19].

Polymers and their corresponding composites may exhibit three thermal transitions that can be described in terms of free volume changes or relaxation times. These transitions are classified as the γ -, β - and α -transitions by their types of motion [7,20-22]. When DMA tests are performed from a very low temperature where the molecules are tightly compressed, to higher temperatures, the free volume, v_f starts increasing so that localized bond movements (bending and stretching) and side chain movements occur. This transition is known as the γ -transition. With increasing the temperature, the v_f increases to a point where there is enough space and mobility of the whole side chains and localized groups of 4-8 backbone atoms. For this reason, the sample develops some toughness. This type of transition is called the β -transition. When studying a blend system, this is referred to as the T_g of a secondary component in that blend. The α -transition is associated with the chain segment mobility in the crystalline phase, probably due to the reorientation of defect areas in crystals. The α -transition appears to be a composite process of two transitions labeled as α and α' [7,23-25].

The dynamic mechanical analysis of the samples was done using the Perkin-Elmer DMA 8000 shown in Figure 3.15. Table 3.3 shows the instrumental settings used for the DMA measurements.

Table 3.3 The settings of the instrument and sample dimensions used for DMA analysis

Frequency	6.28 rad s ⁻¹
Temperature range	LLDPE/POSS samples (-50 to 150 °C), PMMA/POSS samples (0 to 180 °C)
Heating rate	5 °C.min ⁻¹
Normal force	-1.0 N
Length	29.0 mm
Width	9.8 mm
Thickness	1.6 mm

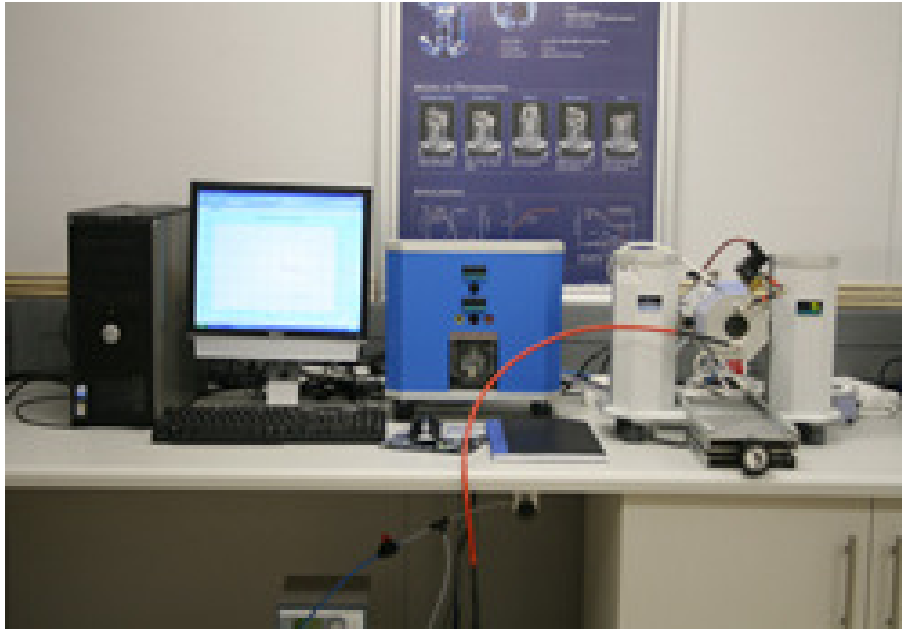


Figure 3.15 Perkin Elmer DMA 8000 dynamic mechanical analyzer

3.3.11 Heat deflection temperature

Heat deflection temperature or heat distortion temperature (HDT) is defined as the temperature at which a standard test bar (rests on two supports of a specified span) deflects a specified distance under a specific load. It is an essential piece of information for product design. If connected with vicat stations, softening temperatures can also be determined [26]. It is also defined as a non-direct reflection of the intrinsic property of the material, as well as a measurement of the upper boundary of the dimensional stability of a plastic material under a normal load and thermal effect [27]. The interpretation of HDT data is often related to the mechanical behaviour of the materials of concern [28].

The HDT of the samples was measured using a Ceast 6 HDT/Vicat tester (Figure 3.16). The dimensions of the test bars and the procedure all conformed to those specified in ISO 75-2 (1993).

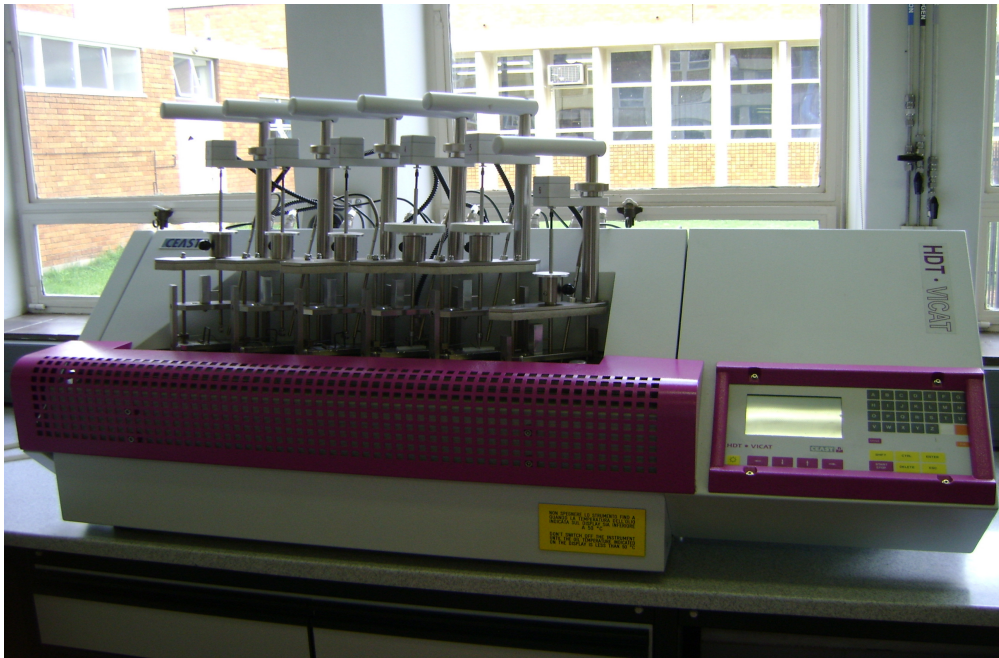


Figure 3.16 The Ceast P/N 6921.000 model HDT6/VICAT system

The rectangular samples for the LLDPE/POSS composites were prepared at 180 °C (cylinder temperature), an injection pressure of 400 bar and a mould temperature of 60 °C using the ThermoHaake Minijet II injection moulding machine (ASTM D-638) shown in Figure 3.13. Samples of thickness = 10.00 mm, width = 4.0 mm and length = 80 mm were used. At least five measurements were performed for each sample and the results were averaged to obtain a mean value.

3.3.12 Rheometry

Rheology is defined as the science of deformation and flow of materials such as polymers and composites. It is a branch of physics and physical chemistry since the most important variables come from the field of mechanics. Rheological experiments reveal information about the flow behaviour of liquids and the deformation behaviour of solids. These experiments are done using a rheometer. There are two types of rheometers used in research nowadays, namely (1) rotational and (2) oscillatory rheometers. Liquids and solid materials can be investigated using both rheometers. Rotational tests are performed to characterize the viscous behaviour of materials, while creep and viscoelastic behaviour, as well as relaxation tests can be carried out using oscillatory tests [29].



Figure 3.17 Anton-Paar Physica MCR 501 rheometer

The Anton-Paar Physica MCR 501 rheometer (Figure 3.17) was used to investigate the rheological properties of all the samples in this study. It was equipped with 25 mm diameter parallel plates in an oscillatory shear mode. To preserve the structure of the sample, the gap between the two plates (1.1 mm) was adjusted while the sample was being melted at 150 °C for LLDPE and 180 °C for PMMA samples, so that no material was squeezed out between the plates. The following tests were carried out: (i) a strain amplitude sweep at a frequency of $\omega = 6.28 \text{ rad s}^{-1}$, for a strain, γ , ranging from 0.01 to 100 % and (ii) a frequency sweep at strains, $\gamma = 1$ and 5 % within an ω range from 0.01 to 100 rad s^{-1} . In the rheological tests during the melt-state, G' symbolizes the strain energy reversibly stored by the sample, while G'' represents the amount of energy irreversibly dissipated by the material to its surroundings.

3.3.13 Pendulum impact testing

An impactor is a technique designed to determine the mechanical and physical properties of polymers and their corresponding composites. The impactor is designed to perform three different configurations, e.g. Charpy, Izod and tensile impact properties of a sample according to international standards. The impact test involves a pendulum with a known weight at its arm swinging down and striking the notched sample clamped in a horizontal or vertical position. When the sample is horizontally clamped, the test is called the Charpy test. The Izod

test is performed when a sample is clamped in a vertical position. The Charpy test is regarded as a high speed fracture test in which a sample is laid horizontally on two supports against an anvil and the notched side of the sample is positioned away from the pendulum. The Izod tests involve the sample mounted in a vice fixture with the notch facing the pendulum.

The outputs of all these tests are expressed in terms of kinetic energy consumed by the pendulum in order to break the sample. The energy required to break a standard sample is actually the sum of different contributions such as the energy to deform the sample, to initiate the fracture, to propagate the fracture across sample and the energy spent in order to toss the broken ends of the sample. The energy lost through the friction and vibration of the apparatus is usually very small and it can be neglected. The impact strength (resilience) is the loss of momentum in the pendulum while breaking the sample off at the notch. Advantages of the Charpy test over the Izod test are (i) the sample does not have to be clamped and it is free of variations in clamping process, (ii) its easily applicability, (iii) short testing times, and (iv) low cost consumption materials during the test [30].

The CEAST Automatic Notchvis Plus and the Pendulum Resil Impactor II (Figure 3.18) were used to (a) prepare the notched samples and (b) measure the Charpy impact properties of the samples at room temperature.

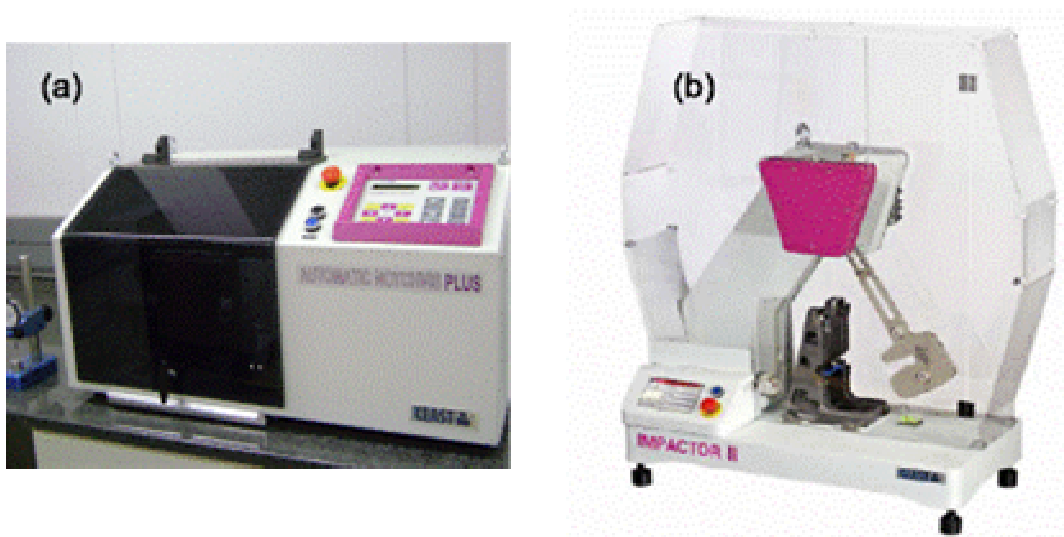


Figure 3.18 Configurations of Charpy edgewise impact sample with single notch

The dimensions and shape of the Charpy moulded rectangular-shaped (ISO 179) of the pendulum impact sample were as follows:

Length	80 mm
Height	10 mm
Breadth	4 mm
Notch root radius	0.125 mm
Span between supports	40 mm

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CHAPTER 4

MORPHOLOGY, THERMAL AND THERMOMECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF POLYETHYLENE FILLED POSS NANOCOMPOSITES

4.1 Introduction

Polyethylene (PE) is one of the polymers produced in large quantities in the world compared to other polymers. PE is produced in different forms, each of which possesses different valuable properties such as low cost, ability to be recycled, good processability, non-toxicity and bio-compatibility. These properties give polyethylene the strongest platform to be used in different engineering applications including vehicles, sporting goods, etc. However, because of its apolar chemical nature, its low temperature toughness and stiffness, it is not suitable for some industrial applications [1]. In this chapter different properties of LLDPE, prior to and after nanocomposites formation with POSS macromonomers, are discussed.

4.2 Results and discussion

4.2.1 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

The morphological characteristics of the freeze-fractured surfaces of LLDPE and three different nanocomposite systems were investigated by field-emission SEM (FE-SEM). Parts (a) – (d) of Figure 4.1 show the fractured surfaces of the PE nanocomposites containing (a) 0 wt %, (b) 5 wt %, (c) 7.5 wt %, and (d) 10 wt % POSS loadings. It can be seen that the compatibility between the POSS and the LLDPE matrix is very low, leading to the formation of micro-aggregates for all the compositions. The homogeneous dispersion of phase-separated POSS particles can be seen in Figure 4.1(b). The phase-separated morphology becomes more pronounced with increasing the loadings of POSS in the polymer matrix. At the higher POSS loading of 10 wt % many small crystallites as well as micron-sized POSS agglomerates are observed (Figure 4.1(d)). In all the images there seem to be a large degree of debonding, which is shown by some voids in the interface between the POSS aggregates and the polymer

matrix. These voids are clearly observed at the higher POSS loadings (7.5 and 10 wt %), suggesting a weak interfacial interaction between the POSS particles and the LLDPE matrix.

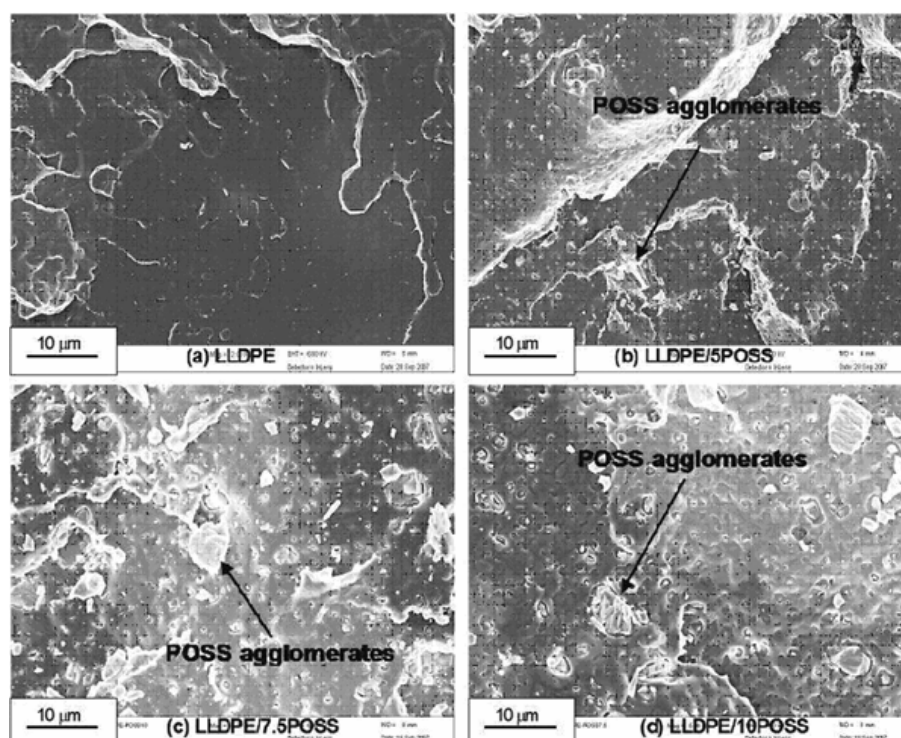


Figure 4.1 FE-SEM images of freeze-fractured surfaces of neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples

4.2.2 Polarized optical microscopy (POM)

To further elucidate the degree of dispersion of the POSS particles in the LLDPE matrix, POM studies were carried out at 150 °C. Before taking the POM photographs, the samples were held at the same temperature for 6 min. Figure 4.2 shows the POM images of the neat LLDPE matrix and the different nanocomposite systems at 150 °C. It is clear from the images that the POSS particles forming micro-aggregates are homogeneously dispersed in the LLDPE matrix. Furthermore, the degree of formation of micro-aggregates systematically increases with increasing the loading of POSS into the initial feed. However, it is very difficult to reach a conclusion on the extent of agglomeration.

POM studies during nonisothermal crystallization conditions were also carried out to determine the effect of the POSS particles on the crystal growth behaviour of the LLDPE

matrix. To perform these studies, a thin sample, sandwiched between two covering glasses, was placed inside the hot-stage mounted onto the optical microscope. The temperature was first raised to 150 °C at a heating rate of 30 °C.min⁻¹, and kept constant for 12 min to ensure complete melting of the samples. The samples were then cooled to 80 °C at a cooling rate of 10 °C.min⁻¹.

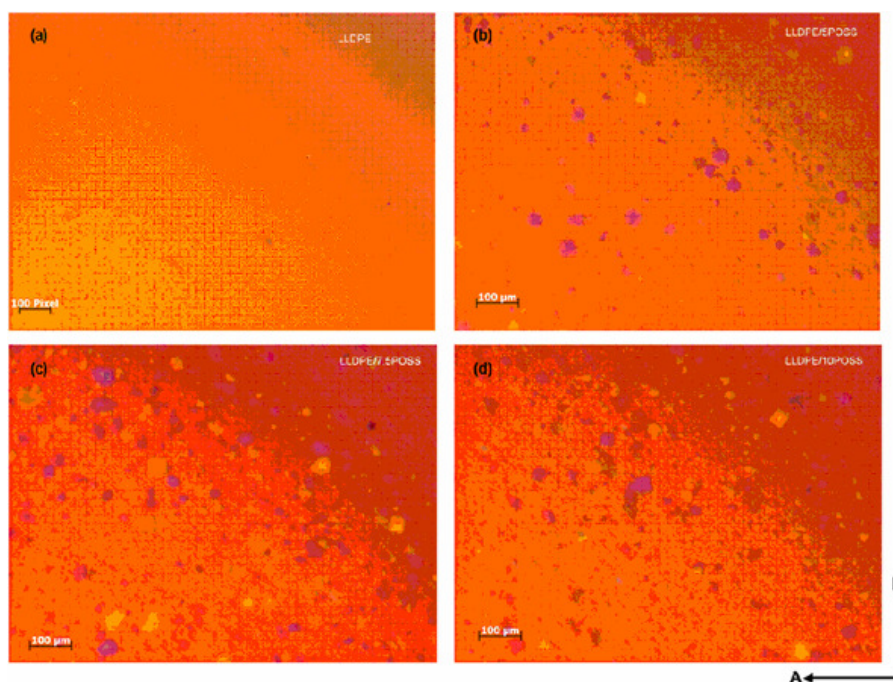


Figure 4.2 Optical microscopy images of (a) neat LLDPE, (b) LLDPE/5POSS, (c) LLDPE/7.5POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposite samples at 150 °C

Figure 4.3 shows the POM images of neat LLDPE and three different nanocomposite samples taken during the nonisothermal crystallization process. It is clear from the POM image of the neat LLDPE (Figure 4.3(a)) that the spherulites are fairly large and perfectly grown. In the case of the nanocomposite samples, the sizes of the spherulites are very little affected by the different loadings of the POSS particles (Figures 4.3 (b)-(d)). This is more pronounced in the high-magnification POM images (100x) of the neat LLDPE and the nanocomposite samples presented in Figure 4.4. This suggests that the nucleating role of the dispersed POSS phase is not that active during the crystallization of the LLDPE matrix from the melt.

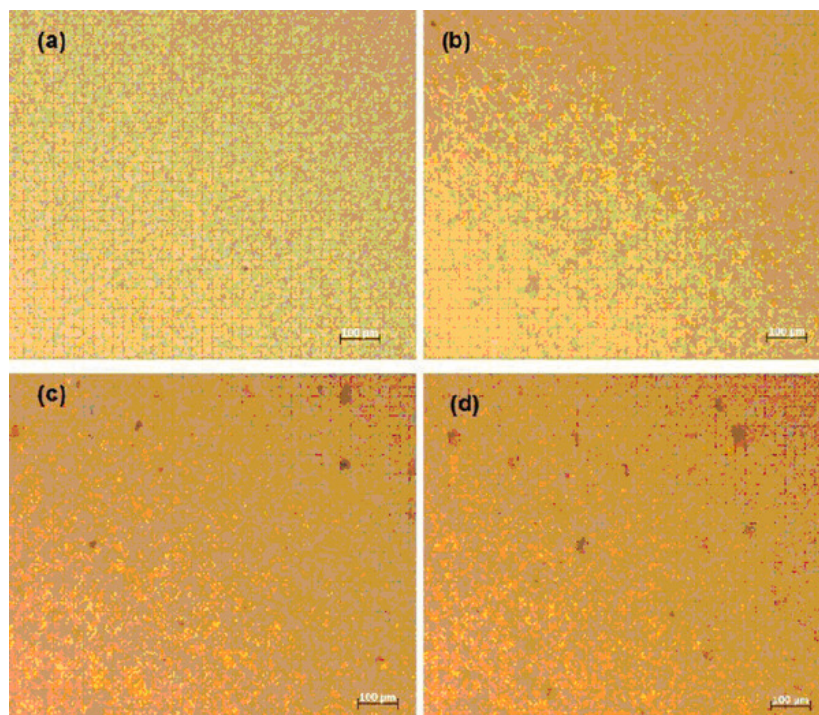


Figure 4.3 POM images of (a) neat LLDPE, (b) LLDPE/5POSS, (c) LLDPE/7.5POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposites taken at 80 °C during nonisothermal crystallization

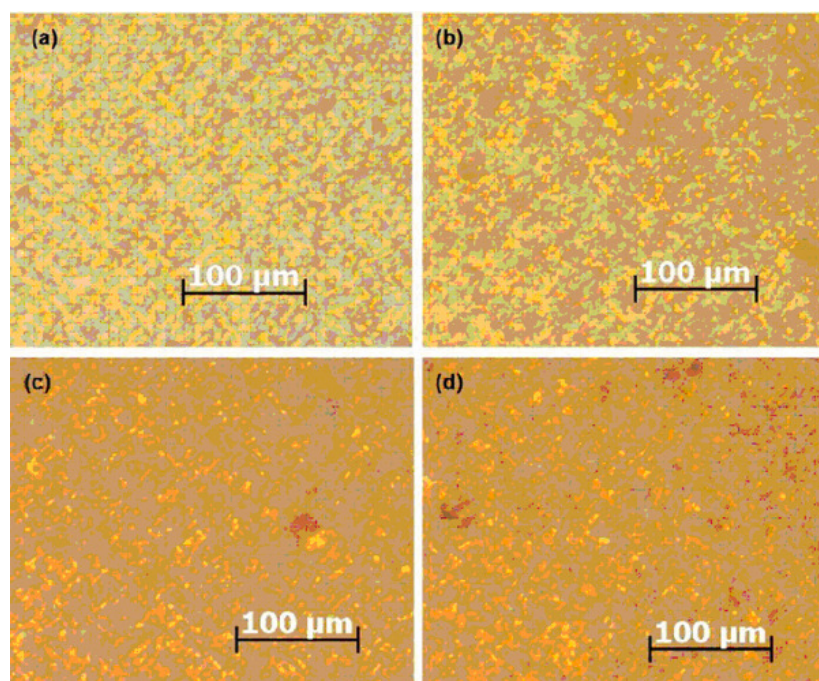


Figure 4.4 High magnification POM images (100x) of (a) neat LLDPE, (b) LLDPE/5POSS, (c) LLDPE/7.5 POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposites

4.2.3 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)

4.2.3.1 Melting behaviour of compression moulded samples

The typical melting behaviour of neat LLDPE and the different nanocomposite samples are presented in Figure 4.5 and the results are summarized in Table 4.1. The DSC curves exhibit two distinct melting peaks of LLDPE labelled 'I' and 'II' from low to high temperatures. These multiple melting peaks indicate the presence of two different populations of crystalline lamella [2]. The temperature positions of the 'I' and 'II' melting peaks of the neat LLDPE are 110.8 °C and 121.4 °C. Addition of POSS particles into LLDPE did not change these peak temperatures. At the highest POSS loading (10 wt %), the second melting peak temperature (T_{mII}) shifts to a lower temperature by only 0.8° compared to that of the pure LLDPE. This observation indicates that the crystalline lamellar thickness of the LLDPE matrix remains almost the same in the presence of POSS. However, the total heat of fusion (ΔH_m) of the two melting peaks of LLDPE, estimated by the integration of the area under these peaks, decreases with the addition of POSS (see Table 4.1). This behaviour indicates that the degree of crystallinity decreases by the incorporation of the inorganic phase into the polymer matrix. This is due to the high level of dispersion of POSS particles in the LLDPE matrix as revealed by the POM and FE-SEM images, which consequently acts as obstacles for the mobility and flexibility of the polymer chains to fold and join the crystallization growth front.

Several authors reported on the multiple melting behaviour of various semi-crystalline thermoplastic polymers such as PET [3-7], poly(butylene terephthalate) (PBT) [8-11], PE [12], semi-crystalline polyimides (PI) [13], poly(ether ether ketone) (PEEK) [14,15], poly(butylene succinate) (PBS) [2], and poly[(butylene succinate)-co-adipate] (PBSA) [2,15]. There are a number of models to explain this behaviour of polymers. The two most important ones are: (a) the presence of melting, re-crystallization, and re-melting phenomena [17-19], and (b) the crystal structure modification during the heating scan. According to the first model, the first step is melting and re-crystallization of the low-melting crystallites with lower thermal stability, followed by the melting of the crystallites with higher thermal stability along with the modified crystals formed through re-crystallization. The discussion below will consider the applicability of the above two models in addressing the double-melting behaviour of LLDPE in the light of the available experimental evidence.

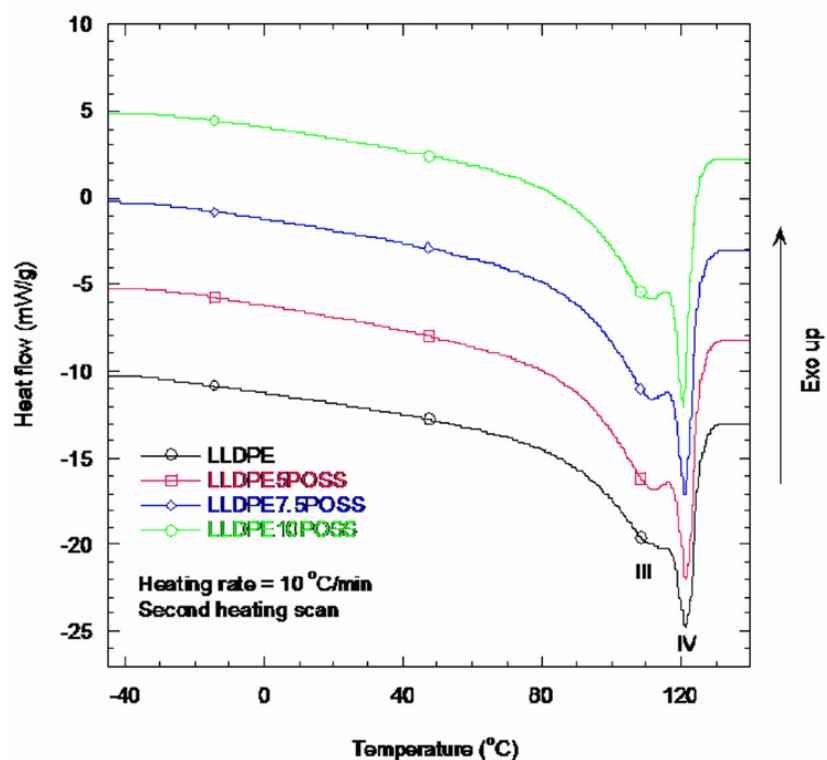


Figure 4.5 Melting behaviour of neat LLDPE and nanocomposite samples

Table 4.1 Reported data are taken from the second scan to ascertain reproducible thermograms free of prior thermal history

Sample	Area under characteristic LLDPE peaks, calculated from WAXS patterns	T_{mI} (°C)	T_{mII} (°C)	ΔH_m (J.g ⁻¹)	T_c (°C)	ΔH_c (J.g ⁻¹)
LLDPE	18.5 ± 0.11	110.8	121.4	123.8	107.1	83.6
LLDPE/5POSS	17.5 ± 0.13	110.8	121.6	122.3	108.8	81.2
LLDPE/7.5POSS	16.8 ± 0.16	110.8	121.1	120.5	108.7	80.6
LLDPE/10POSS	16.1 ± 0.10	110.8	120.6	110.6	109.1	74.1

T_{mI} , T_{mII} , ΔH_m , and ΔH_c are the first melting temperature, second melting temperature, heat of melting of the two melting peaks of LLDPE and heat of crystallization, respectively

To verify the first model, *i.e.* the presence of melting, re-crystallization, and re-melting phenomena, Figure 4.6 depicts the pure LLDPE and the LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposite samples heated at different heating rates of 1, 2, 5, 10, 15 and 20 °C.min⁻¹. It can be seen in Figure 4.6(a) that with increasing heating rate, the endotherm 'II' of the pure LLDPE (see Figure 4.5) developed into two endothermic peaks designated as 'III' and 'IV'. These endothermic peaks appear at 117.4 and 120.8 °C. It is clear that 'IV' corresponds with 'II' and shifts towards lower temperatures while its intensity decreases, whereas the endotherms 'II' and 'III' became more prominent and remained in the same positions. There is also a development of another endotherm 'I' in the low-temperature region with increasing heating rate. Another interesting observation is that the re-crystallization phenomenon between endotherms 'III' and 'IV' became less pronounced with increasing heating rate, but was still visible. At a very slow heating rate, the sample passes through the re-crystallization process very slowly, and there is more than enough time for the molten sample to reorganise into new crystals. The endotherms 'III' and 'IV' are therefore well resolved at a slow heating rate (5 °C.min⁻¹). However, at higher heating rates (more than 5 °C min⁻¹), the sample passes through the re-crystallization region so rapidly that there is not enough time for the molten sample to reorganise into new crystals. Therefore, the reorganisation process is largely inhibited as the heating rate increases which consequently decreases the fraction of perfect crystals and finally contributes to the decrease in the peak temperature of endotherm 'IV'. These observations indicate the presence of melting, re-crystallization, and re-melting phenomena that are partly responsible for the multiple melting behaviour of LLDPE.

The LLDPE/5POSS sample also shows the same type of melting behaviour. However, all the melting endotherms are less intense and slightly moved towards lower temperatures (at low heating rates). This may be due to a decrease in the overall crystallinity of the LLDPE in the presence of the POSS particles as observed in the previous paragraphs.

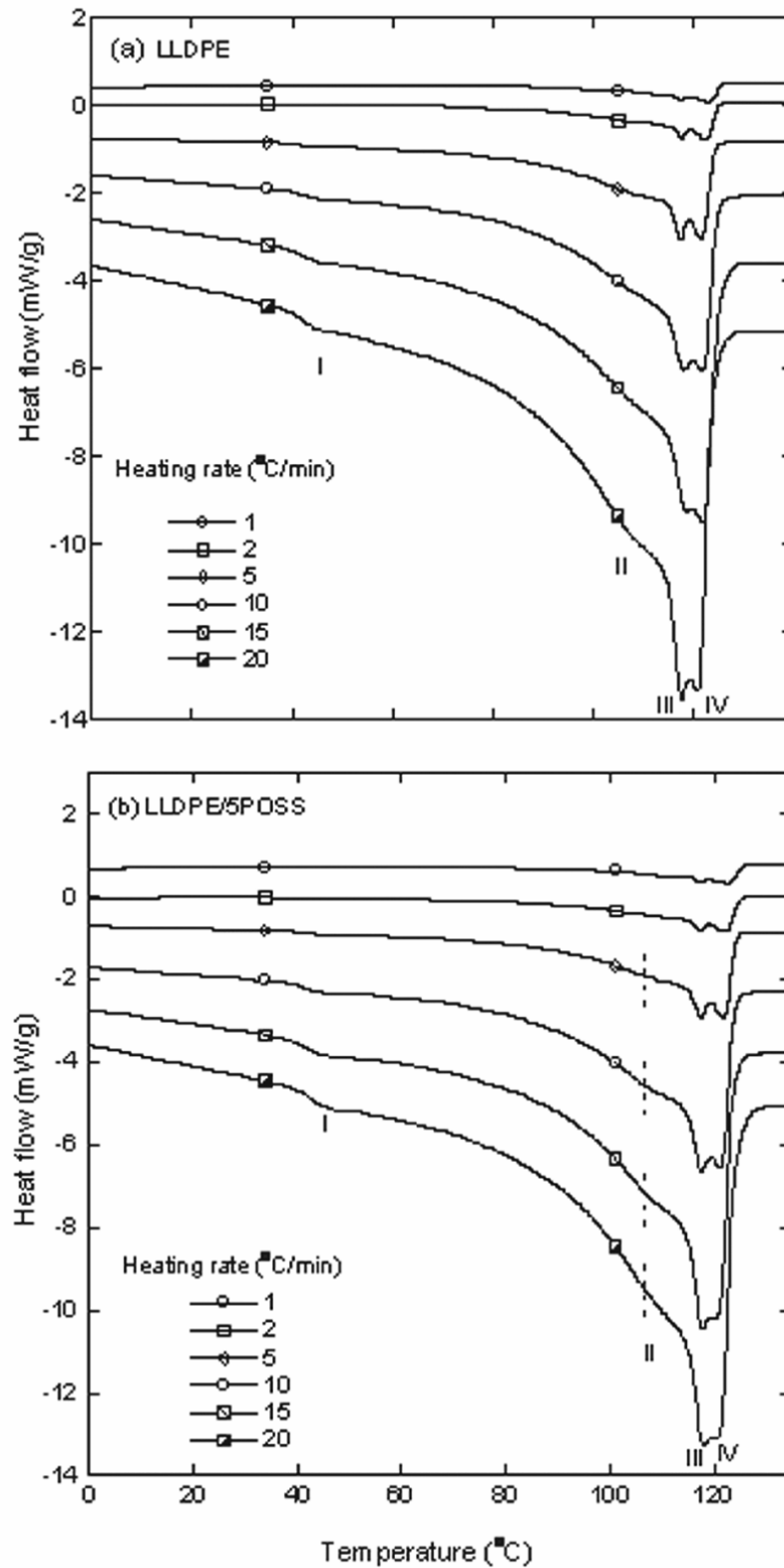


Figure 4.6 Heating rate dependence of DSC thermograms of compression moulded samples. All samples had identical LLDPE content

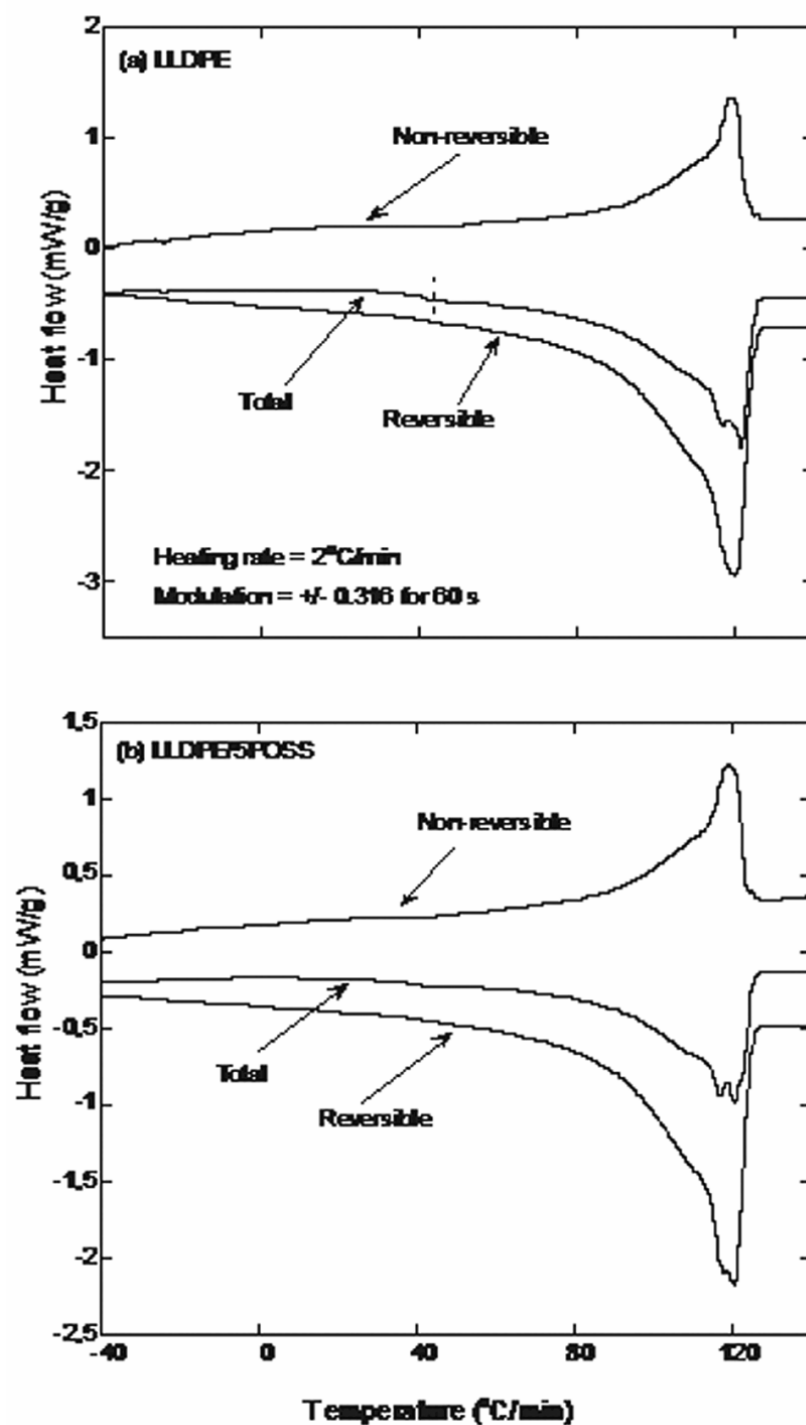


Figure 4.7 Heat only MDSC of compression moulded LLDPE and LLDPE/5POSS samples. Heating rate of $2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, an amplitude of $\pm 0.318\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and a period of 60 s. All samples had identical LLDPE content

To further support the melting, re-crystallization and re-melting phenomena of LLDPE, modulated DSC (MDSC) analyses were performed. MDSC generally applies a sinusoidal

temperature oscillation (modulation) on the heating in a conventional DSC and separates the total heat flow (as obtained from the conventional DSC) into heat-capacity-related (reversible) and kinetic (non-reversible) components. Therefore, MDSC allows one to see that some re-crystallization occurs as soon as the LLDPE begins to melt. Figure 4.7 shows the MDSC curves of the neat LLDPE and LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposite samples obtained at a heating rate of $2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$. For both samples, the total heat flow (middle curve) is separated into well-defined reversible heat flow (bottom) and non-reversible heat-flow (top) curves.

For the neat LLDPE sample, the following behaviour was observed. Firstly, the lower melting endotherm in the non-reversible signal curve begins at the same temperature as the melting endotherm observed in the total heat-flow curve. Secondly, the small peak shoulder, corresponding to the endotherm 'II' in Figure 4.6, appears in the reversible curve. Finally, a well-distinguished re-crystallization signal is only observable in the non-reversible curve. A sharp melting peak is also observed in the reversible curve. This observation supports the conclusion that re-crystallization operates simultaneously with the high-temperature melting.

The MDSC curves of the LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposite also show the same type of behaviour, but the main endo- and exotherms are less intense. The melting peak shoulder, corresponding to the endotherm II (see the dashed line in Figure 4.7), is more prominent for the LLDPE sample. This behaviour suggests the presence of a high concentration of crystallites in the LLDPE sample, which is responsible for the endotherm II. A very weak re-crystallization phenomenon is observed in the reversible curve of the nanocomposite. This observation may be due to the continuous partial melting and perfection of a higher fraction of crystals responsible for the melting endotherm II before their final melt.

On the basis of the above observations, for both neat LLDPE and nanocomposite samples, it can be confirmed that the multiple melting behaviour of LLDPE originates from the melting and re-crystallization of the lower melting crystallites with a lower thermal stability. The melting of the crystallites with a higher thermal stability, along with the modified crystals formed through the re-crystallization, then occurs.

4.2.3.2 Nonisothermal crystallization behaviour

The crystallization exotherms of neat LLDPE and the three different nanocomposite samples during nonisothermal crystallization from their melt at the same cooling rate are presented in Figure 4.8. The characteristic parameters of the nonisothermal crystallization exotherms of all the samples are summarised in Table 4.1.

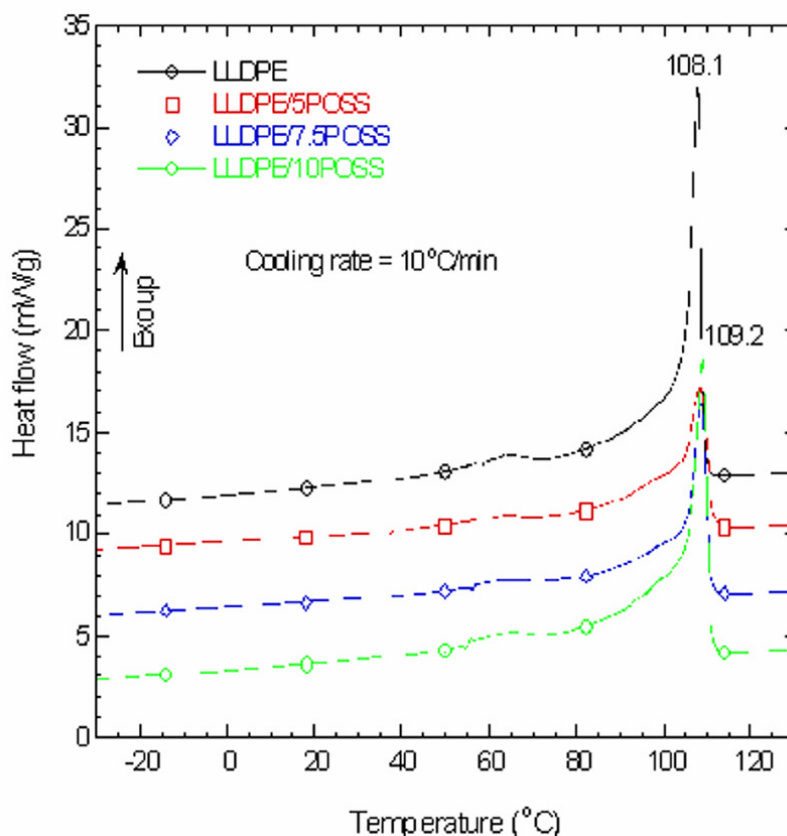


Figure 4.8 Nonisothermal crystallization behaviour of neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples

It can be seen that the crystallization peak temperature (T_c) of the neat LLDPE slightly moves towards a higher temperature region. In the case of the LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposite system, this peak appears at 109 °C. A very small increase in the crystallization peak temperature of the nanocomposite sample compared to the neat LLDPE sample implies that the POSS particles do not really nucleate the crystallization of the LLDPE matrix, and that the POSS loading does not play any role. This may be due to either the poor compatibility between the LLDPE matrix and the POSS particles (see Figure 4.1), or the smaller available surface area of the spherical structure of the POSS particles, as well as the observed

agglomeration, that will less effectively initiate the crystallization process as nucleation centres. This conclusion also confirms the POM studies obtained at a particular crystallization temperature. However, the total heat of crystallization (ΔH_c), estimated by integration of the area under the exothermic peak in the DSC curves, decreases with the addition of the POSS particles (Table 4.1). This result indicates that the POSS particles influence the crystallization behaviour of LLDPE. There are different factors that can determine the influence of an inorganic phase on the crystallization behaviour of PE [20]. These include the sizes and size distribution of the filler particles, the dispersion of the particles in the polymer matrix, the effective surface areas of the particles, the extent of interaction between the matrix and the filler particles and the crystallinities and crystallization mechanisms of the respective polymers. Depending on these factors, the filler particles will immobilize the polymer chains (reduce crystallinity) and/or act as nucleating agents (increase crystallinity). We can therefore attribute this behaviour to the high level of dispersion of POSS particles in the LLDPE matrix.

4.2.4 Wide angle x-ray scattering (WAXS)

The microstructure of LLDPE before and after nanocomposite formation was studied by WAXS with a scattering angle (2θ) varying from 2 to 40°. The normalized WAXS patterns of pure POSS powder, neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite compression-moulded films are presented in Figure 4.9 (sample thickness was ≈ 0.4 mm). The WAXS pattern of pure POSS macromonomer powder with eight methyl groups attached to a main silicon skeleton is presented in Figure 4.9(a). It is clear from the figure that the POSS macromonomer shows a number of strong peaks that indicate a highly crystalline structure. Figure 4.9(b) depicts the WAXS pattern of neat LLDPE which exhibits two sharp characteristic peaks at 21.3° and 23.7°. These two observable peaks are assigned to the 110 and 200 reflections of the Bunn orthorhombic subcell [21]. Similar crystalline peaks have earlier been reported by Rizzo *et al.* [22] and Heinemann *et al.* [23] for PE. Another broad background scattering is observed for the WAXS pattern of neat LLDPE. This behaviour suggests the presence of an amorphous structure in the polymer. It is interesting to note that the intensity of the characteristic peaks of the LLDPE crystalline structure decreases with increasing the POSS loading in the LLDPE resin. The decrease was more pronounced when 5 wt % POSS particles were used. The positions of the two peaks remained unchanged after nanocomposite formation, indicating that the crystal lattice of the LLDPE did not expand in the presence of the POSS particles.

The area calculated under the crystallization peaks from the WAXS patterns (rough estimation within the range of $2\theta = 10-28^\circ$) decreases systematically with increasing POSS particle loadings. This observation is in good agreement with the DSC observations (Table 4.1).

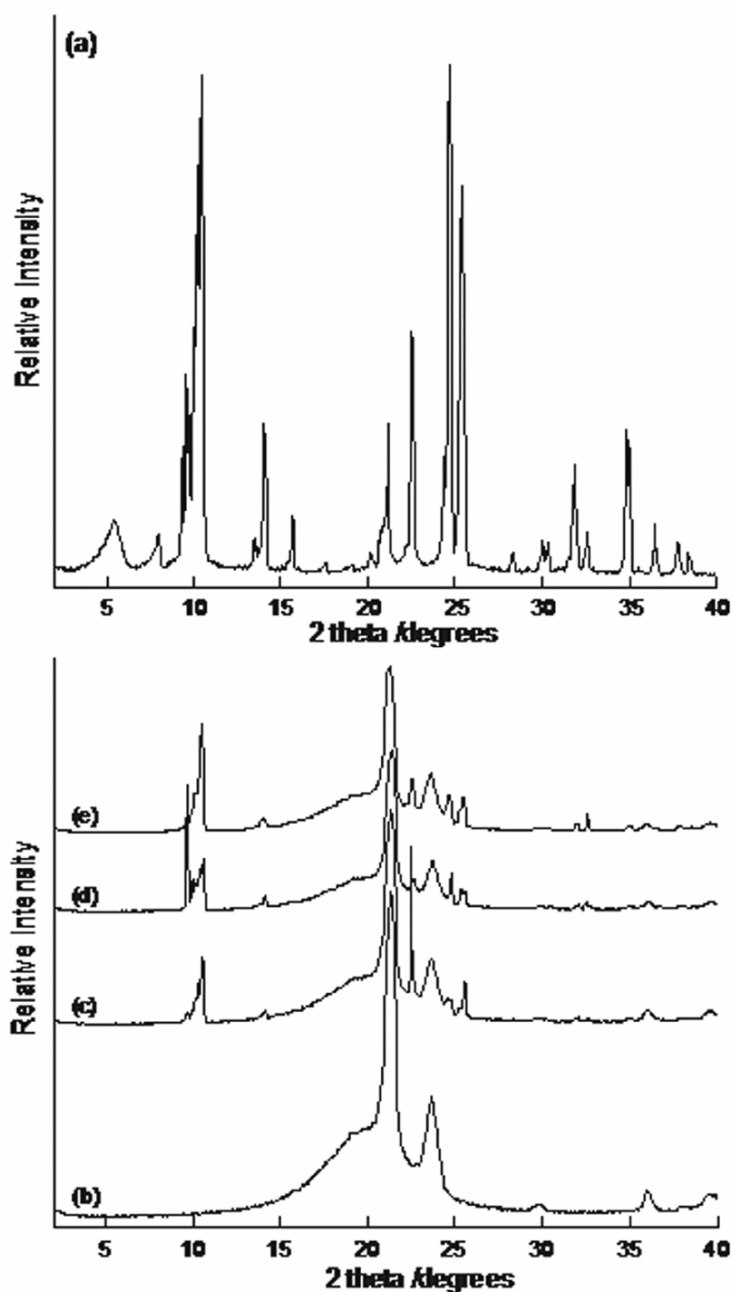


Figure 4.9 Wide angle x-ray scattering patterns of (a) pure octamethyl-T₈-POSS, (b) neat LLDPE, LLDPE/5POSS, LLDPE/7.5POSS and (d) LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposite samples

The average crystallite size, $D_{(hkl)}$, for the broadening of diffractions was determined using Equation 4.1. Table 4.2 shows the values of $D_{(hkl)}$ calculated from the characteristic dominant scattering peak of POSS at $2\theta = 10.4^\circ$, which corresponds to the 011 reflection.

$$D_{(hkl)} = \frac{K}{\cos \theta} \quad (4.1)$$

where β is the half-width of the diffraction peak in radians, K is equal to 0.94, θ is the Bragg angle, and λ is the wavelength of the x-rays. It can be seen that crystals from the dispersed POSS in the nanocomposites are smaller than the pure POSS crystals. This suggests that the dispersed POSS crystals are not as perfect as the pure POSS crystals. However, the value of β increases with increasing the loading of POSS particles into the LLDPE matrix, indicating that the crystalline perfection decreases after nanocomposites formation with POSS particles.

Table 4.2 Estimation of crystallite sizes of POSS nanocrystals in LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites obtained from WAXS data

Sample	hkl	2θ	β (degree)	β (rad)	$\cos \theta$	D_{hkl} (nm)
POSS	011	10.47	0.1664	0.002904	0.9960	50.05
LLDPE/5POSS	011	10.51	0.1907	0.003328	0.9960	43.70
LLDPE/7.5POSS	011	10.54	0.1985	0.003465	0.9960	42.00
LLDPE/10POSS	011	10.46	0.2957	0.005161	0.9960	28.20

Since the crystallinity of the pure LLDPE matrix is affected by the incorporation of POSS, one can assume that the POSS particles are mostly dispersed in the LLDPE crystalline phase [21,22]. From Figure 4.9(a) it is clear that the POSS is highly crystalline and have a characteristic dominant scattering peak at $2\theta = 10.4^\circ$. In Figures 4.9 (c) – (e) this dominant characteristic peak appears for all the nanocomposites. This suggests that the POSS exists as separate crystals or that the POSS particles are able to crystallize when they are dispersed in the polymer matrix. However, there is a sudden increase in the peak intensity for both 7.5 and 10 wt % POSS incorporation in the LLDPE matrix, which may be due to the POSS particles starting to agglomerate and crystallize more easily at higher concentrations. The increasing intensity clearly shows the progressive development of a different ordered POSS lattice. This conclusion supports the POM and FE-SEM results discussed in the previous paragraphs.

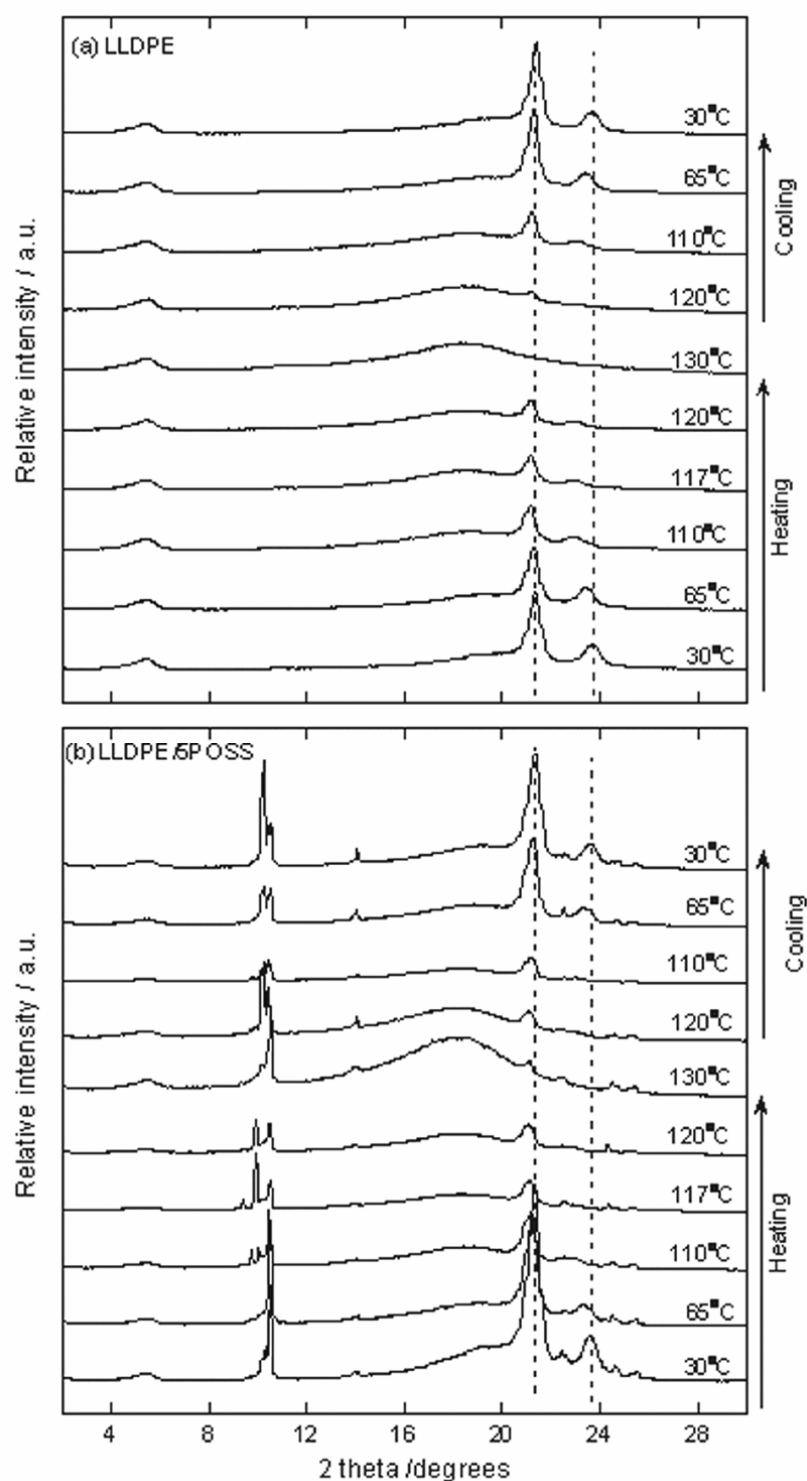


Figure 4.10 Temperature dependence of WAXS patterns of (a) neat LLDPE and (b) LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposites. The samples were kept at each temperature for 5 min, including 1 min exposure time

To identify the different crystal structure modifications, i.e. phase changes, during the heating scan that may have been responsible for the multiple melting endotherms of the LLDPE, WAXS studies were performed on neat LLDPE and LLDPE/5POSS samples that were both crystallised for 5 min above and below the temperature of each DSC endothermic peak. Figure 4.10 shows the WAXS patterns of the compression moulded LLDPE and LLDPE/5POSS samples crystallised at different temperatures of 30, 65, 110, 117, 120, 130, 120, 110, 65 and 30 °C (sample thickness was \approx 0.4 mm). The WAXS patterns of both samples show that the intensity of the main characteristic peaks of the LLDPE matrix decreases during heating and increases during cooling. This observation is ascribed to the melting and re-formation of crystals from the melt.

On the other hand, the characteristic peak positions of the LLDPE crystals move slightly towards lower 2θ angles during the heating scans, and move in opposite direction during the cooling process from the melt. It is also interesting to note that for both samples, the peak positions remain unchanged for a particular temperature. This slight shift in the scattering 2θ angle may be due to the thermal expansion of the crystallites and not to the formation of new types of crystals. Therefore, on the basis of the WAXS patterns, it is contended that the presence of multiple melting endotherms is the result of the presence of melting, re-crystallization, and re-melting phenomena as well as to the presence of two different populations of crystals, and not because of the formation of different crystal structures during the heating or cooling process.

Figure 4.11 shows the 2-D small and wide angle x-ray scattering (SWAXS) temperature dependence of the crystal growth behaviour of the neat LLDPE and the LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposite obtained at four different temperatures during nonisothermal crystallization studies. The 2-D SWAXS images show that both samples are highly crystalline at room temperature and maintain their spherulitic structure up to 65 °C, probably because the spherical POSS particles have a preferential orientation (i.e. anisotropic structure) and this orientation is also maintained in nanocomposite. At 130 °C the LLDPE is molten and all crystallinity is lost. When POSS is present in the LLDPE matrix, there is still some crystallinity visible at 130 °C, which is probably the result of the crystallinity and orientation of the POSS particles in the molten LLDPE matrix.

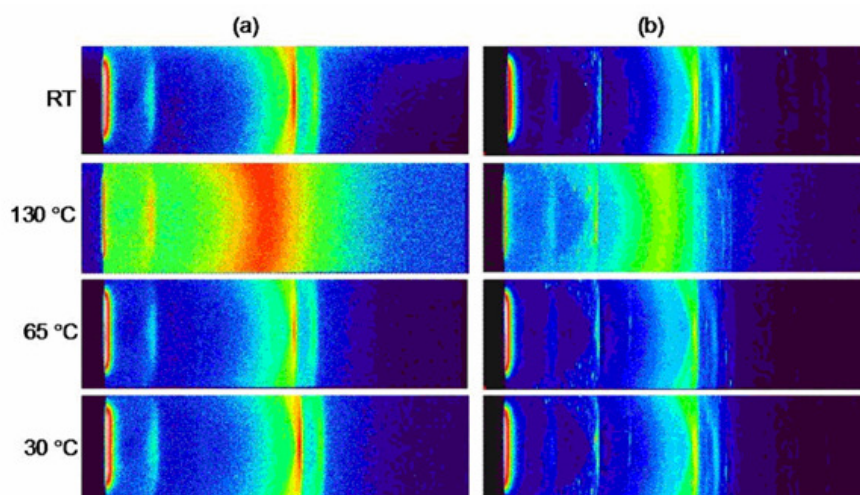


Figure 4.11 2-D small and wide angle x-ray scattering (SWAXS) patterns of (a) neat LLDPE and (b) LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposite samples obtained at four different temperatures. The samples were kept at each temperature for 5 min including 1 min exposure time.

4.2.5 Thermal stability

Figure 4.12 presents the typical TGA curves of the POSS powder, the neat LLDPE and the three different nanocomposite samples measured under an air atmosphere. It is clear that the thermal stability of pure POSS is much lower than that of the neat LLDPE matrix. The temperatures at 5% weight ($T_{0.05}$) loss are 345.1, 301.6, 315.4, and 302.6°C for LLDPE, LLDPE/5POSS, LLDPE/7.5POSS, and LLDPE/10POSS, respectively. This behaviour is due to the lower thermal stability of the POSS particles. However, the LLDPE/7.5POSS nanocomposite shows a higher value of $T_{0.05}$. This behaviour is difficult to explain at this point in time because one would expect a lower thermal stability due to the lower thermal stability of the POSS. In the temperature range of 390-500 °C, the thermal stability of nanocomposites systematically increases with POSS loading. This increase in the thermal stability may be attributed to the dispersion of the POSS particles in the LLDPE matrix, which actually decelerates the degradation of polymer chains *via* char formation.

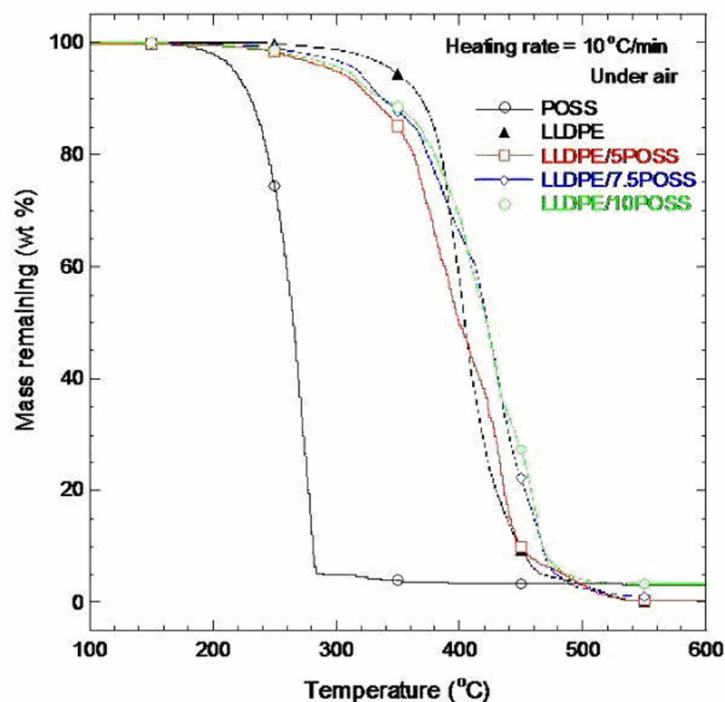


Figure 4.12 TGA curves of neat POSS, neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples obtained in an air atmosphere

Figure 4.13 depicts the TGA curves of the pure POSS powder, the neat LLDPE and the three different nanocomposite systems investigated in nitrogen atmosphere. It can be seen that all the composite samples exhibit two degradation steps. Similar behaviour was reported by Fina *et al.* [25] when 10 wt % octamethyl-POSS was incorporated into a PP matrix. A probable reason for this behaviour is due to the maximum volatilization rate of octamethyl-POSS around 270 °C. However, no significant change in the thermal stability of the composites was observed after addition of different POSS loadings in the LLDPE matrix. Similar behaviour was reported when metal functionalized POSS molecules were incorporated into a PP matrix when measured under an inert atmosphere [26]. However, in this study, no definite explanations were given. Since the neat octamethyl-POSS does not undergo any oxidation process, the lower volatilization temperature observed in air still occurs in nitrogen atmosphere at the same temperature. Therefore, when LLDPE starts degrading, a negligible amount of octamethyl-POSS is still present in the composite, and its evaporation is not yet completed. Based on this argument, we can assume that octamethyl-T₈-POSS protects LLDPE by forming a surface layer preventing oxygen diffusion within the polymer matrix.

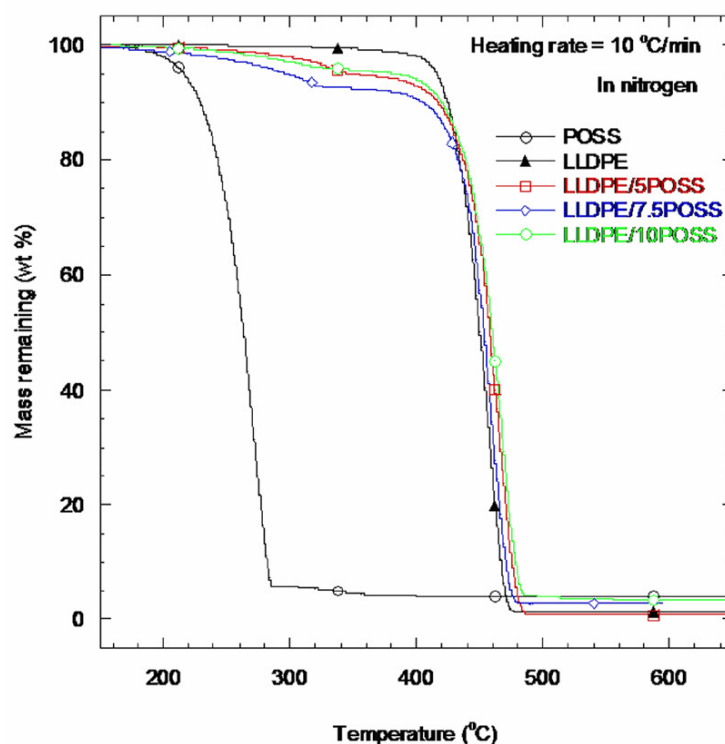


Figure 4.13 TGA curves of neat POSS, neat LLDPE and various nanocomposite samples obtained in nitrogen atmosphere

4.2.6 Dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA)

Dynamic mechanical analysis was used to measure the response to an oscillatory deformation in tension-torsion mode as a function of temperature for the LLDPE matrix before and after nanocomposite formation with POSS. The temperature dependence of the storage modulus (G') and the loss modulus (G'') of LLDPE upon nanocomposite formation was examined at three different POSS concentrations (Figures 4.14 and 4.15). It is evident that for both LLDPE/7.5POSS and LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposites a significant improvement in G' , compared to that of neat LLDPE, is observed over the entire temperature range investigated, while the LLDPE/5POSS nanocomposite shows an improvement in the flexural storage modulus up to room temperature. This observation may be due to the potential formation of three-dimensional network-like structures in the nanocomposites with higher POSS contents [27]. The G' curves of both LLDPE/7.5POSS and LLDPE/10POSS nanocomposites show an enhanced rubbery plateau, which indicates that the addition of POSS particles induces a reinforcement effect which increases at very high temperatures. This behaviour indicates the enhancement of the thermomechanical stability of these materials at high temperatures.

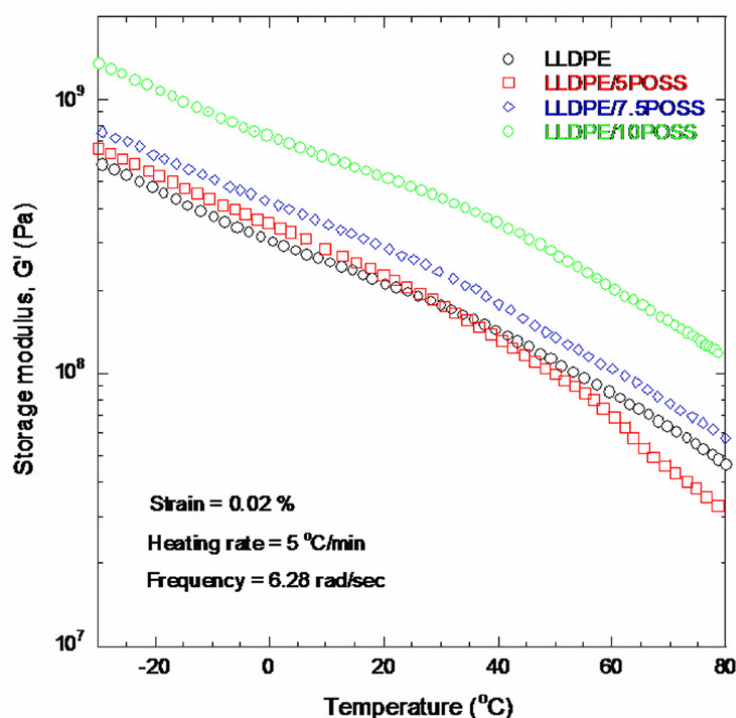


Figure 4.14 Temperature dependence of the storage modulus (G') of neat LLDPE and the nanocomposite samples

The incorporation of POSS particles into the LLDPE matrix also results in a substantial increase in G'' (Figure 4.15). This observation suggests that the plastic behaviour of the LLDPE matrix increases in the presence of the POSS particles. It is interesting to note that all the samples show two distinguishable transitions in the G'' curves. Generally, polyethylene exhibits three transitions in the DMA loss modulus or loss factor curves, designated as α , β , γ in decreasing order of temperature. The α -transition is found in the wide temperature range of 10 to 120 °C, the β -transition occurs in the temperature range of -30 to 10 °C, and the γ -transition in the temperature range of -150 to -120 °C [28,29]. The β -transition has been universally detected in branched polyethylenes [30,31]. In this study, it can be seen that all the samples exhibit only β - and α -transitions. Since LLDPE is a semi-crystalline polymer, crystalline structures coexist with amorphous parts. The first transition (β -transition) relates to the relaxation of the disordered structures (amorphous parts) along with small crystallites. The second broad transition (α -transition) is due to the crystalline part of the polymer [32-34]. In this study, the β -transition for LLDPE can be regarded as its glass transition temperature. The glass transition is where the chains in the amorphous regions start with coordinated large-scale motion. Although there is a controversy regarding the glass transition of polyethylenes [35], it is generally agreed that the β -transition is due to the transition of branch points.

Figure 4.16 shows the loss factor (G''/G') curves of the LLDPE and its nanocomposites. The loss factor provides information on the relative contributions of the viscous and elastic components of viscoelastic materials. It can be seen that all the samples exhibit β - and α -transitions. It is clear from Figures 4.15 and 4.16 that the presence of POSS did not change the T_g of LLDPE. This is probably the result of the relatively weak interaction between the LLDPE and the POSS particles as well as the lack of dispersion. It is, however, clear from the loss factor curves in Figure 4.16 that the α -transitions related to the crystalline parts of LLDPE were influenced by the presence of POSS. This may be the result of preferable crystallization of LLDPE around the POSS particles.

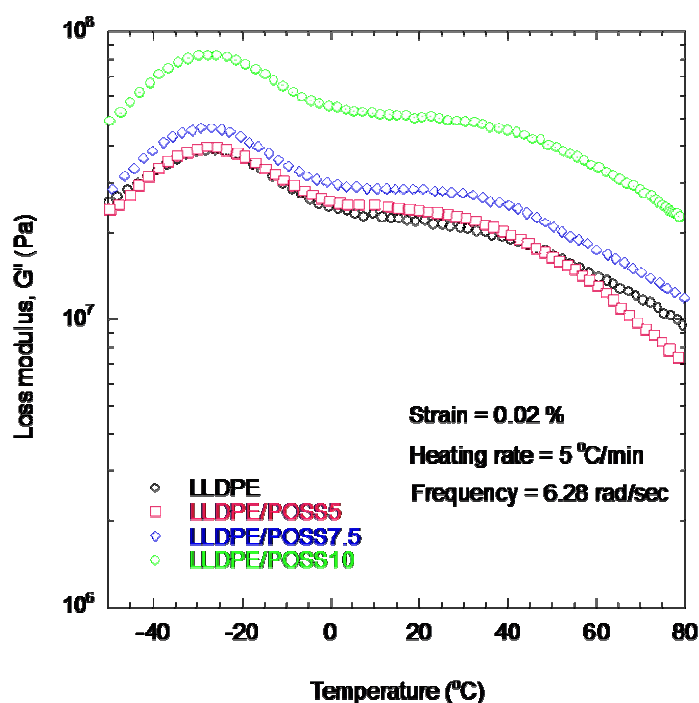


Figure 4.15 Temperature dependence of flexural loss modulus (G'') of neat LLDPE and the different nanocomposite samples

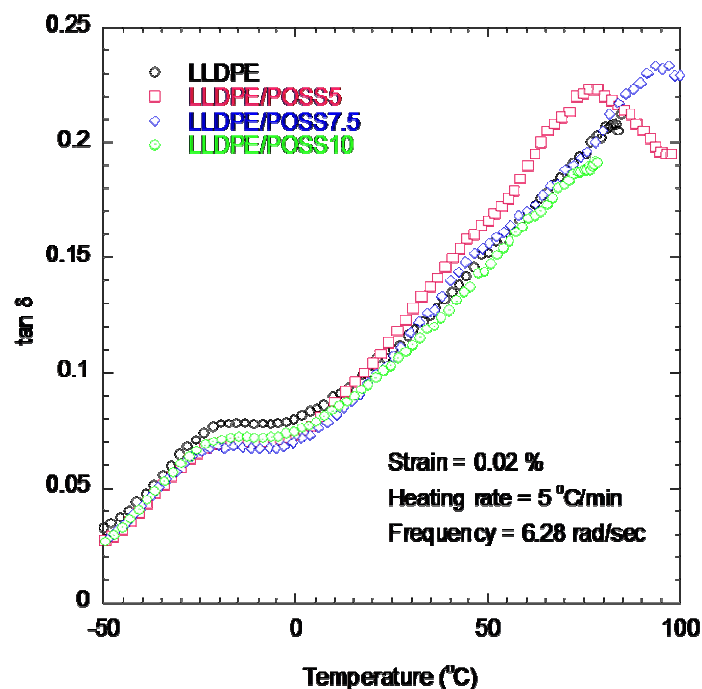


Figure 4.16 Temperature dependence of the loss factor of neat LLDPE and the different nanocomposite samples

4.3 Conclusions

In this chapter, the effect of the inorganic-organic hybrid POSS nanofiller loading on the thermal and thermomechanical properties of an LLDPE matrix was reported. POM and FE-SEM studies revealed a fairly homogeneous dispersion of POSS micro-aggregates in the LLDPE matrix. This micro-aggregation in the nanocomposite systems is due to the intrinsic chemical properties of both LLDPE and POSS, even though the POSS used had been modified with octamethyl chains.

Both conventional and temperature modulated differential scanning calorimetry were used to study the melting behaviour of the LLDPE and its nanocomposites. Multiple melting behaviour was observed for all the samples. This behaviour was attributed to partial melting, re-crystallization, and re-melting phenomena. DSC analysis showed a decrease in the overall crystallinity of the LLDPE matrix with POSS loading. This is associated with a homogeneous

dispersion of POSS micro-aggregates into the LLDPE matrix, which might hinder the local lamellar crystallization and leads to a decrease in the overall degree of crystallinity. However, POSS did not have any significant effect on the melting temperature of LLDPE.

The homogeneous dispersion of POSS micro-aggregates in the LLDPE matrix leads to a dramatic improvement in the elastic storage modulus at higher POSS concentrations. This is due to the potential formation of three-dimensional network-like structures. Two distinguishable transitions were observed in both the loss modulus and loss factor curves. The thermal stability of pure LLDPE and nanocomposite samples was also studied in air and inert atmospheres. Two degradation steps were observed for all the nanocomposite systems under inert atmosphere. The higher thermal stability of the nanocomposite samples observed in air in the high-temperature regions may be due to the dispersion of POSS particles in the LLDPE matrix, which decelerates the degradation of polymer chains *via* char formation.

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CHAPTER 5

MELT-STATE VISCOELASTIC AND MATERIALS PROPERTIES OF POSS-CONTAINING LINEAR LOW-DENSITY POLYETHYLENE NANOCOMPOSITES

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the effect of the incorporation of octamethyl-T₈-POSS nanoparticles on the melt-state rheological properties of LLDPE was investigated, since the measurement of the rheological properties of any polymeric material in the molten state is crucial to gain a fundamental understanding of the processibility of that material and of the degree of interfacial interactions between the polymer chains and the filler surface [1]. A series of LLDPE nanocomposites with different POSS loadings from 5 – 10 wt % were prepared through melt mixing. LLDPE nanocomposites with three different POSS loadings of 5, 7.5 and 10 wt. % were correspondingly abbreviated as LLDPE/5POSS, LLDPE/7.5POSS and LLDPE/10POSS. The effect of addition of POSS on the material properties of LLDPE were studied in detail.

5.2 Results and discussion

5.2.1 Melt-state rheology

When a small deformation sinusoidal strain [$\gamma(t) = \gamma_0 \sin(\omega t)$] is applied to any polymeric material in the linear viscoelastic (LVE) region, the resultant shear stress $\tau(t)$ is denoted by

$$\tau(t) = \gamma_0[G'(\omega) \sin(\omega t) + G''(\omega) \cos(\omega t)] \quad (5.1)$$

where t is the real time.

Figures 5.1 and 5.2, respectively, present the storage (G') and loss (G'') moduli as a function of applied strain for pure LLDPE and the three different nanocomposites. It is clear from these figures that the neat LLDPE exhibits a Newtonian plateau up to 6 % strain. It is also

notable that both these moduli decrease after nanocomposites formation with different POSS loadings. Furthermore, the presence of POSS particles does not significantly change the onset of the nonlinear viscoelastic region of LLDPE. This observation can be attributed to the absence of strain-sensitive rigid network-like structures [2] between the POSS and the LLDPE matrix, which results in a decrease in the modulus values. The absence of strain-sensitive structures is due to a highly phase separated morphology between the POSS particles and the LLDPE as shown in Figure 4.1.

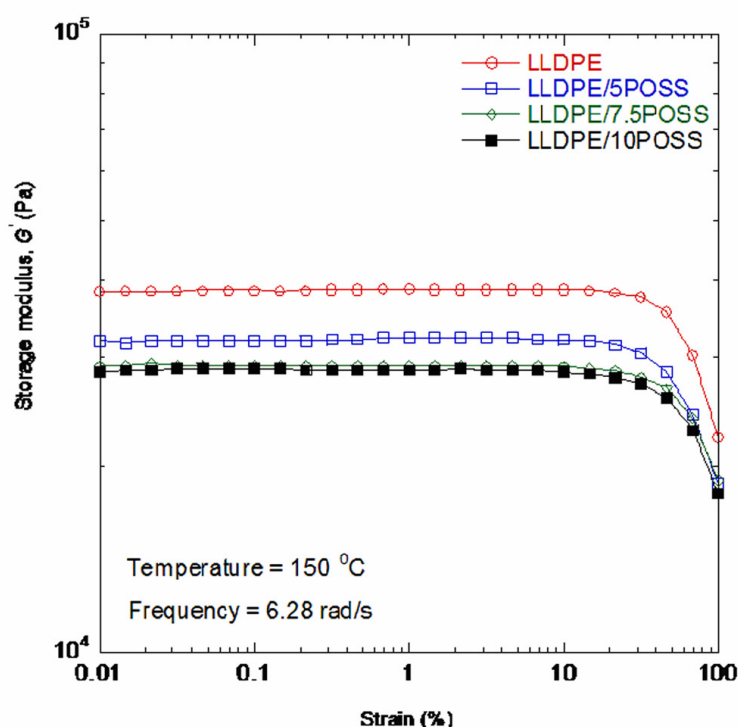


Figure 5.1 Strain amplitude sweep dependence of the storage modulus (G') of the LLDPE matrix and the three different LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites

For the neat LLDPE and its nanocomposites, in the LVE region, it can be seen that the viscous behaviour dominates the elastic one (i.e. $G'' > G'$). This suggests the existence of a liquid-like behaviour for all the samples investigated. This is because of no chemical or physical network formation between the LLDPE chains and the POSS particles. For this reason, the samples are not form stable at rest since they creep or flow [3].

To further elucidate the effect of the POSS particles on the structure of the LLDPE matrix, frequency sweep experiments of the pure LLDPE and the LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites were conducted at 150 °C at a constant strain of 5 % and the results of G' and G'' are shown in

Figures 5.3 and 5.4. It can be seen that the presence of the POSS particles in LLDPE does not cause any significant enhancement in both the storage modulus (G') or the loss modulus (G'') at all frequencies investigated. It is also notable that both moduli show a frequency dependence that is characteristic of liquid-like materials [4]. This is due to the lack of interaction between the LLDPE chains and the POSS particles as observed in the amplitude sweep results. Another possible reason for this behaviour is the lubrication effect of the POSS particles on the LLDPE matrix in the molten state [5].

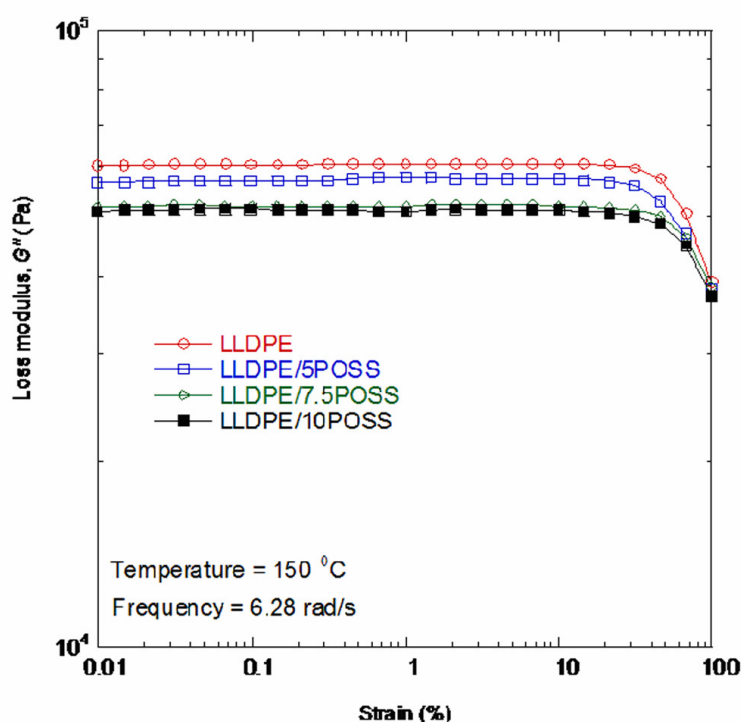


Figure 5.2 Strain amplitude sweep dependence of loss modulus (G'') of the LLDPE matrix and the three different LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites

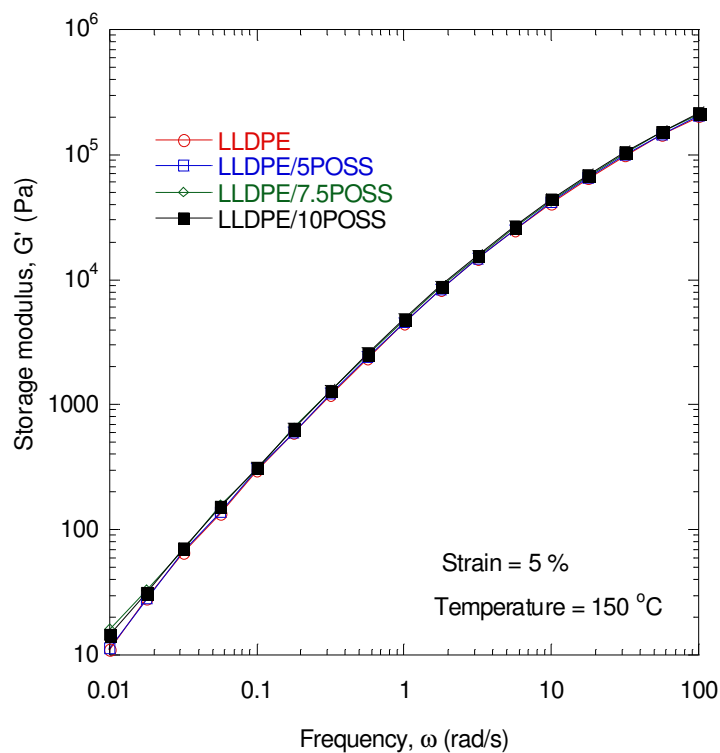


Figure 5.3 Frequency dependence of the storage modulus (G') of the pure LLDPE and the three different nanocomposite samples

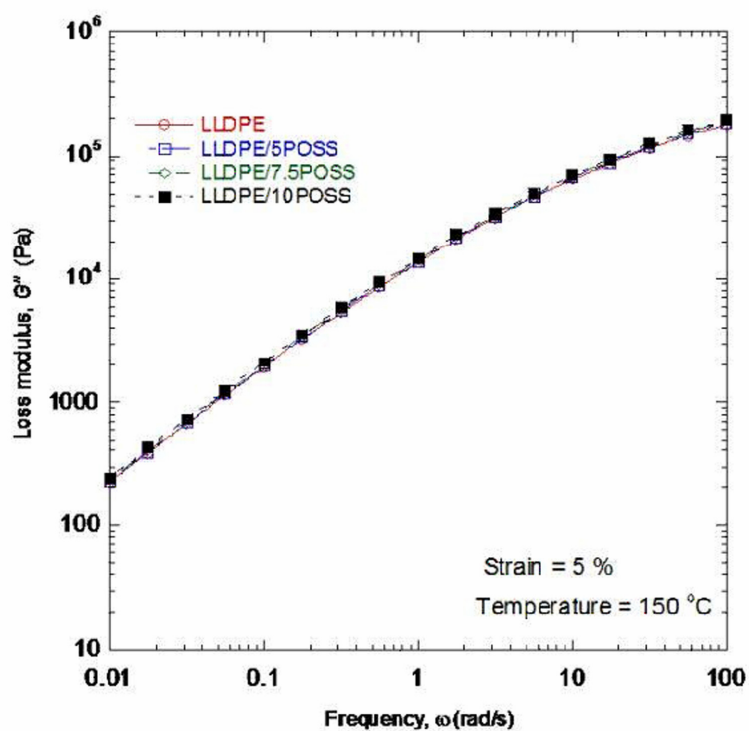


Figure 5.4 Frequency dependence of the loss modulus (G'') of the pure LLDPE and the three different nanocomposite samples

The frequency dependence of the dynamic complex viscosity, $|\eta^*|$ of LLDPE and various nanocomposites is shown in Figure 5.5. The value of $|\eta^*|$ of the neat LLDPE matrix shows almost no effect after nanocomposite formation with various POSS concentrations. These results also support the conclusion that there are almost no interactions between the POSS particles and the LLDPE matrix as revealed by SEM studies (see Figure 4.1). However, all the samples exhibit a shear thinning region in the high frequency range. In this region, there is limited relative motion in the entangled structures, because the cyclic motion of the rheometer is too fast for the polymer chains to react to the change in applied stress. The maximum part of the energy needed to deform the sample can therefore be stored at this high frequency region. This means that the amount of deformation energy lost by friction between the molecules because of relative motion is reduced, hence a decrease in $|\eta^*|$ was observed [6].

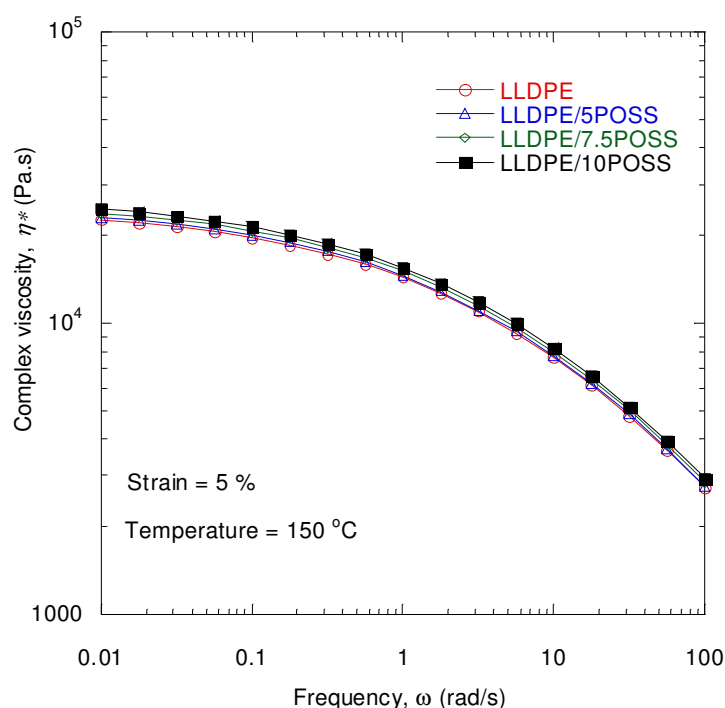


Figure 5.5 Frequency dependence of dynamic complex viscosity (η^*) of neat LLDPE and its nanocomposites at different POSS loadings

5.2.2 Tensile properties

To determine the interfacial interactions between the POSS particles and the LLDPE chains, the tensile properties of the pure LLDPE and the various nanocomposite samples were measured at room temperature and 42 % humidity. It is well known that the tensile properties

of a composite material are directly dependent on the interfacial interactions between the filler and the matrix as well as the dispersion of the filler particles. The values of Young's modulus (E), yield strength (σ_y), and elongation at break (ϵ_b) of all the samples are summarized in Figures 5.6 to 5.8. It is clear from Figure 5.6 that there is a very slight increase in Young's modulus with 5 wt % POSS loading. This is associated with the high degree of crystallinity of the sample in the presence of low POSS content. With an increase in POSS loading there was no improvement in the modulus, and in the case of the nanocomposite with 10 wt % POSS loading the modulus dropped to a value lower than that of LLDPE. These results are in good agreement with the work reported by Yoon *et al.* [7]. In their studies they observed a decrease in modulus for PET/POSS composites prepared by melt-mixing. This behaviour may either be due to the phase separated morphology of the LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites, or a decrease in the total crystallinity of the neat LLDPE matrix with an increase in POSS loading (Table 4.1).

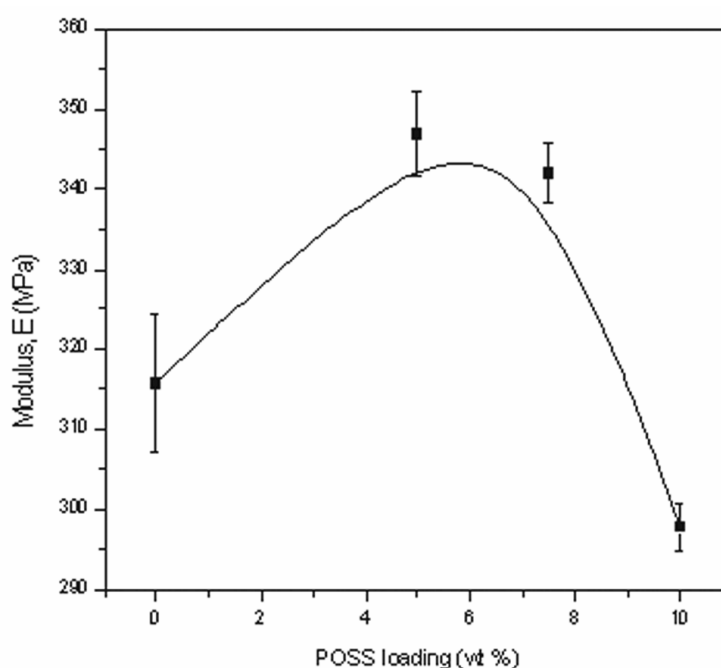


Figure 5.6 Young's modulus (E) as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites

Figure 5.7 shows the yield strength of neat LLDPE and three different LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites as a function of POSS loading. It is well known that the strength of a particulate composite is usually reduced with filler content following a power law in the case of poor polymer-filler interaction [8,9]. From the figure it is clear that the strength of the LLDPE matrix decreases after incorporation of POSS particles. This behaviour is the result of

the observed phase separated morphology, as well as the poor adhesion at the polymer-filler interface. The phase separated morphology is also responsible for the decrease in the elongation at break of the LLDPE matrix after nanocomposite formation with POSS (Figure 5.8). When there is phase separation in the nanocomposites, the material loses drawability and strain at break strongly decreases. Possible crack initiation can start at the domains of segregation of low molecular weight material. The number of chain ends, i.e. the number of dislocations, will increase with an increase in POSS content due to the spherical POSS particles that are difficult to form tie chains. This will induce a decrease in the strain at break.

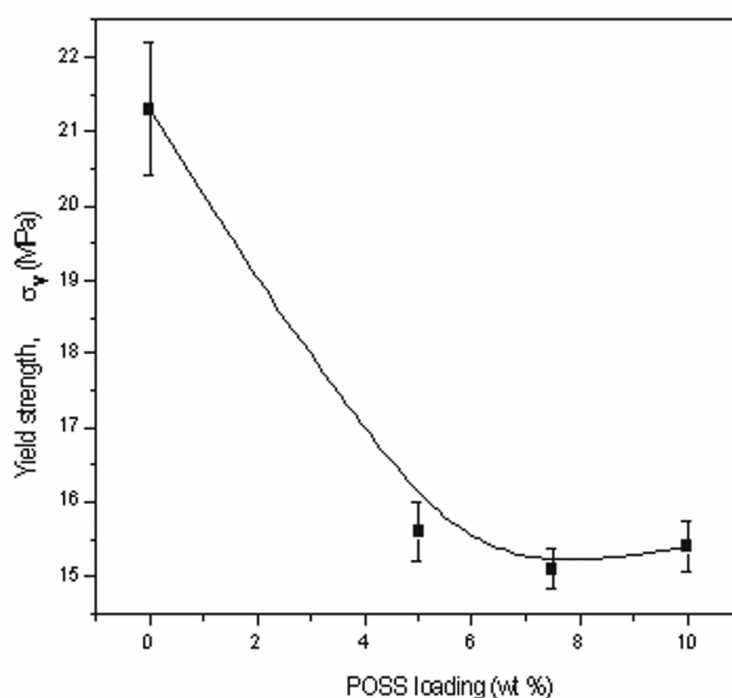


Figure 5.7 Yield strength (σ_y) as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites

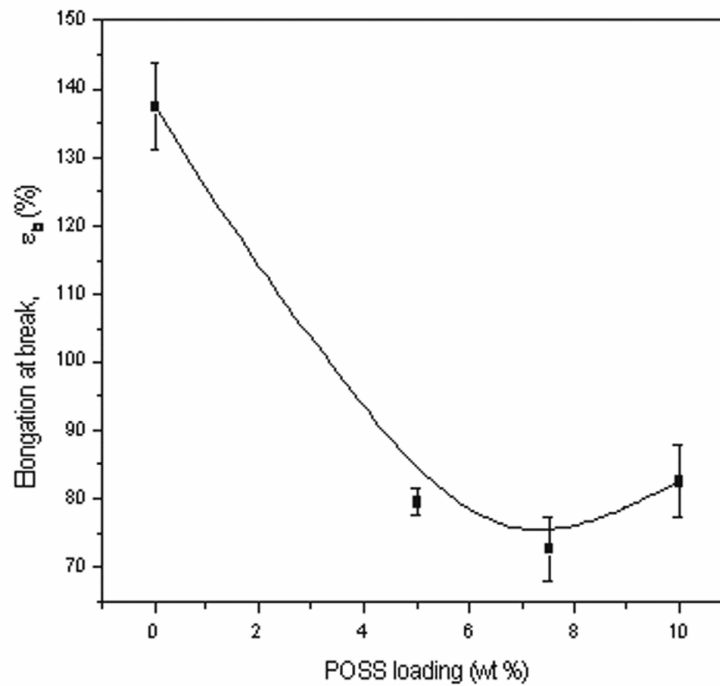


Figure 5.8 Elongation at break (ϵ_b) as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites

5.3 Charpy impact strength

Impact strength is defined as the ability of a material and its structure to survive impact induced damages during an impact event applied at a high speed. The impact properties of composites are directly related to their overall toughness. Composite fracture toughness is affected by factors such as interlaminar shear, matrix ductility, void content of the composites and interfacial strength parameters [10,11].

Figure 5.9 represents the results of the Charpy impact strength of pure LLDPE and its three different nanocomposites. The impact strength of the composite with 5 wt % POSS content is 105.2 kJ.m^{-2} compared to that of the neat LLDPE matrix (98.5 kJ.m^{-2}), implying that POSS at a lower content toughens the LLDPE matrix. The increase in impact behaviour is due to a number of deformation and failure mechanisms acting in the notch tip process zone and in the crack wake. Crack tip zone processes include plastic deformation of the thermoplastic such as nucleation, growth, and coalescence of micro-voids. A crack wake mechanism like crack bridging by highly ductile microscopic-sized ligaments of the polymer also contributes to such an enhancement in toughness [12]. With a further increase in POSS loading from 7.5 to

10 wt %, there is a considerable decrease in impact strength, indicating that a small amount of energy is needed to break the sample. This decrease is due to the phase separated morphology as well as poor adhesion at the polymer-filler interface (Figure 4.1). These results are in accordance with the tensile results reported above.

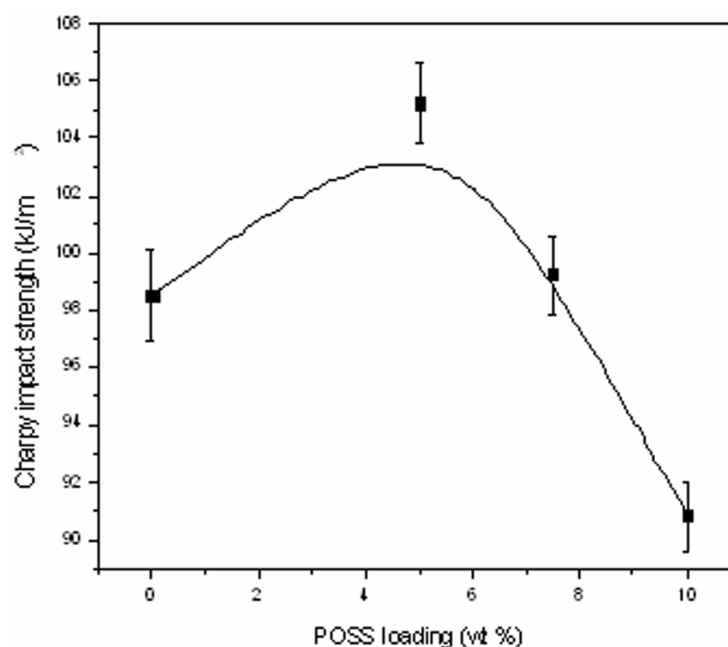


Figure 5.9 The notched Charpy impact strength at room temperature as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites

5.4 Heat distortion temperature (HDT)

Shown in Figure 5.10 are the heat distortion temperature results of the neat LLDPE matrix and its different nanocomposites. It can be seen that the HDT of the nanocomposites increased with increasing POSS loading. According to Nielsen's prediction regarding the behaviour of flexural modulus with filler loading [13], the increase of the HDT is attributed to a change in flexural modulus.

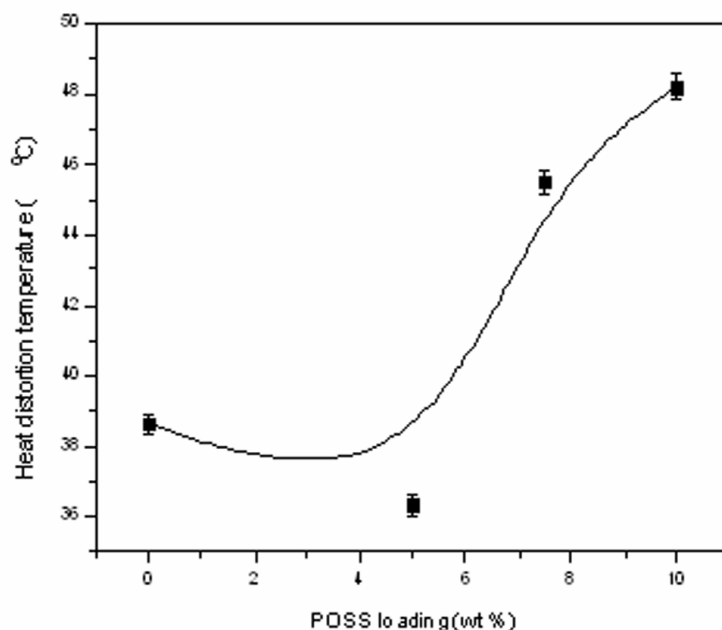


Figure 5.10 Heat distortion temperatures as a function of POSS loading of pure LLDPE and the various LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites

5.5 Conclusions

In this study, the influence of POSS nanofiller loading on the melt-state rheological properties of LLDPE was investigated. Strain and frequency sweep results show that the POSS particles are highly immiscible with the LLDPE matrix. Because of this phase-separated morphology, POSS-containing LLDPE composites do not show any improvement in tensile properties. A phase-separated morphology also gave rise to the decrease in impact properties of the LLDPE at higher POSS loadings. The heat distortion temperature of the samples increased with increasing the POSS loading in the polymer matrix. This observation was attributed to the potential formation of three-dimensional network-like structures in the nanocomposites.

5.6 References

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CHAPTER 6

THE EFFECT OF POSS ON THE THERMAL AND THERMOMECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF POLY(METHYL METHACRYLATE) MATRIX

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the morphology, thermal, thermomechanical and rheological properties of PMMA filled POSS nanocomposites. PMMA nanocomposites with various POSS loadings of 5, 10, 15 and 25 wt %, were prepared through melt mixing and are correspondingly abbreviated as PMMA/5POSS, PMMA/10POSS, PMMA/15POSS and PMMA/25POSS.

6.2 Results and discussion

6.2.1 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

The morphologies of the nanocomposites were studied by field-emission SEM (FE-SEM) analysis of the fracture surfaces of the nanocomposites, in order to investigate the dispersion degree and the compatibility between the POSS particles and the PMMA matrix. Figure 6.1 shows the FE-SEM images of the pure PMMA matrix and its nanocomposites containing different POSS loadings. No clear distinction could be made between the PMMA matrix and the POSS nanoparticles in the images, probably because of the small difference between the optical absorbances of POSS and PMMA. The scales of the images are also such that it will be difficult to locate individual nanoparticles in the polymer matrix on the images, and therefore it is difficult to draw any conclusions about the dispersion of the POSS in the PMMA matrix from the FE-SEM results.

6.2.2 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)

The conventional DSC curves of pure PMMA and the different PMMA/POSS nanocomposites are shown in Figure 6.2. No exothermic peaks are observed in the curves, which indicate that no reactive methyl methacrylate (MMA) monomer residues were present

in the nanocomposites. All the samples show a single glass transition temperature (T_g) and these values are presented in Table 6.1. The T_g slightly decreased and the glass transition region broadened with increasing POSS content in the matrix. There are several factors that contribute to the variation of the T_g of POSS-containing polymer hybrids [1,2]. These factors

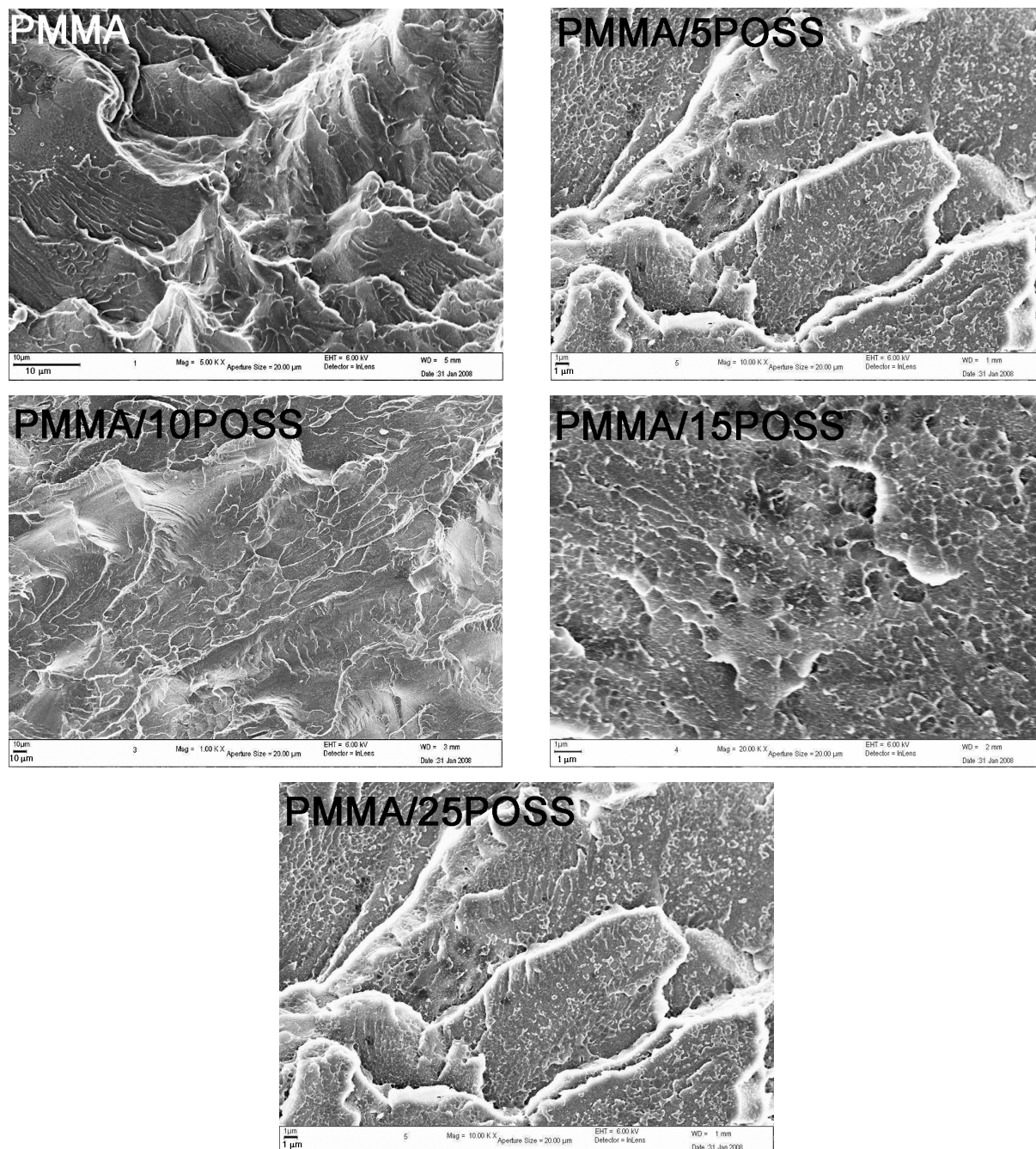


Figure 6.1 FE-SEM images of the freeze-fractured surfaces of pure PMMA and its different nanocomposite samples

include POSS species, POSS loading and different structures of the hybrids. In this work, we attribute the T_g depression of the nanocomposites to an internal plasticization effect of the

well-dispersed POSS cages within the PMMA matrix, where the side groups increase the interchain spacing and free volume, V_f [3], which facilitate the motion of the PMMA chains.

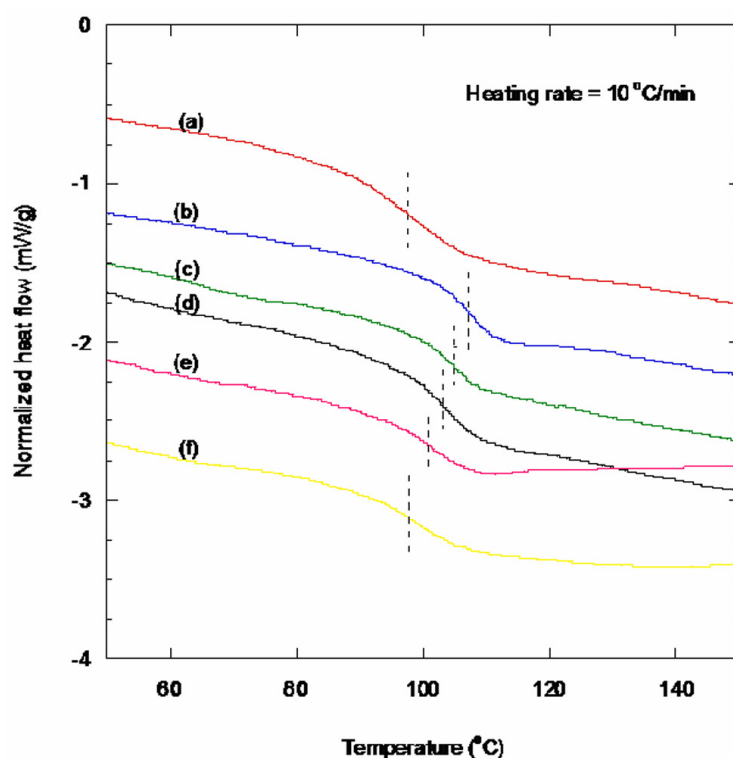


Figure 6.2 DSC curves of (a) pure POSS, (b) pure PMMA, (c) PMMA/5POSS, (d) PMMA/10POSS, (e) PMMA/15POSS and (f) PMMA/25POSS nanocomposites

Table 6.1 Glass transition temperature of pure POSS, PMMA and different PMMA/POSS nanocomposites

Sample	T_g (°C)
POSS	97.3
PMMA	107.7
PMMA/5POSS	104.2
PMMA/10POSS	102.9
PMMA/15POSS	100.8
PMMA/25POSS	98.4

Different authors observed a decrease in the T_g for epoxy/POSS nanocomposites [4,5]. They reported that this behaviour was due to the separation of the polymer chains caused by the bulkiness of the POSS cages where chain separation additionally prevented interchain

hydrogen bonding in epoxy systems [6,7]. Xu *et al.* [8] observed that for poly(hydroxystyrene-*co*-vinylpyrrolidone-*co*-isobutylstyryl polyhedral oligosilsesquioxane) the T_g of the hybrids decreased as the POSS loading increased. They reported that the interactions between the copolymers reduced the original dipole-dipole interaction within the polymers. Kim *et al.* [9] reported that the flexible siloxane spacer unit appended to two of the apexes of the POSS cube led to a more flexible molecular environment, which finally reduced the T_g .

6.2.3 X-ray diffraction (XRD)

X-ray diffraction studies were carried out to characterize the dispersion of POSS within the PMMA matrix. Figure 6.3 shows the diffraction patterns of the pure POSS, PMMA and different PMMA/POSS nanocomposites. A broad peak is observed between $2\theta = 11^\circ$ and 16° for pure PMMA and POSS. This broad peak is characteristic of an amorphous nature. Similar characteristic diffraction patterns for PMMA were observed by Elasmawi and Hakeem [10] at $2\theta = 14.8^\circ$ and 35° . Two shoulder peaks are observed at $2\theta = 8.1^\circ$ and 19.4° for POSS. The two peaks correspond to d -spacings of 1.16 nm [11] and 0.46 nm [12]. In this study, the peak at the higher 2θ value is not pronounced and it has been observed by other researchers for most POSS crystals [13-15]. The broadness of the peak observed between $2\theta = 11^\circ$ and 16° in the nanocomposites can be attributed to the hybrid formation due to the presence of POSS inorganic segments. In the case of different nanocomposite systems, similar diffraction patterns were observed after addition of POSS into a PMMA matrix. However, the location of the main diffraction peak of the PMMA ($2\theta = 14.8^\circ$) slightly shifts towards higher d -spacing (smaller 2θ angle) with increasing POSS concentration, suggesting that POSS nanoparticles are distributed throughout the matrix. This means that the POSS nanoparticles push the PMMA chains apart and shift the peak to a smaller 2θ angle. This is due to the overlapping signal of the POSS peak observed at $2\theta = 19.4^\circ$. This does not allow the precise location of the PMMA matrix to be determined upon nanocomposite formation with POSS [16]. The broad PMMA diffraction peak, which appears at a higher 2θ scattering angle, remains in the same position in the presence of different POSS loadings.

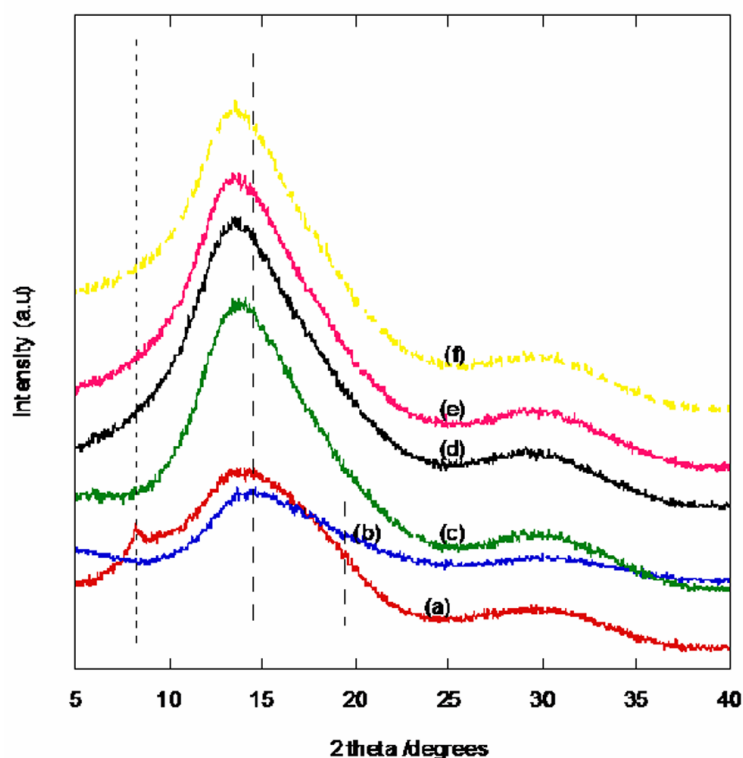


Figure 6.3 X-ray diffraction patterns of (a) pure POSS, (b) pure PMMA, (c) PMMA/5POSS, (d) PMMA/10POSS, (e) PMMA/15POSS and (f) PMMA/25POSS nanocomposite samples

6.2.4 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

Figure 6.4 presents the TGA curves for pure PMMA and different PMMA/POSS nanocomposite samples, performed under nitrogen atmosphere. The TGA curve of pure POSS shows two degradation steps. The first degradation step at 182°C is attributed to the organic fraction of the POSS [17], while the second step could probably be due to further degradation of the methyl methacrylate fraction of POSS. The pure POSS exhibits much lower thermal stability compared to that of the pure PMMA and the nanocomposite samples. The lower thermal stability of POSS may be associated with its sublimation behaviour at lower temperatures [18-20]. The thermal stability of the PMMA matrix decreases with increasing POSS content. The decrease is the result of the lower thermal stability of the POSS. However, at 25 wt % POSS loading the onset of degradation is still more than 100°C higher than that of pure POSS. It seems as if the presence of PMMA inhibits the POSS degradation, probably because of the intimate contact between the PMMA and the POSS which to a certain extent

isolates the POSS and retards its thermal degradation. Moreover, all the samples exhibited a 100 % weight loss, indicating that no silicates were formed upon POSS thermal treatment.

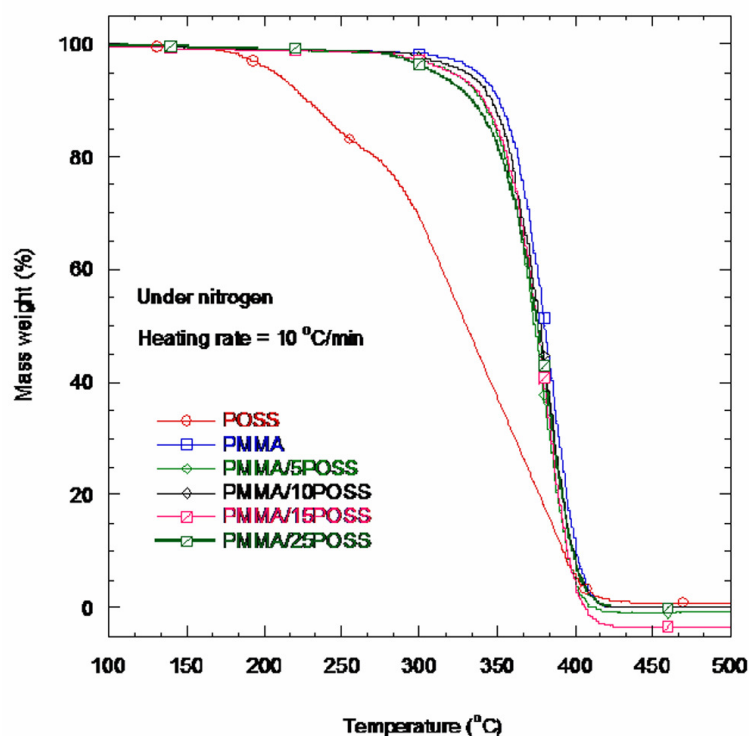


Figure 6.4 TGA curves of pure POSS, pure PMMA and the different nanocomposites obtained in nitrogen atmosphere

Lichtenhan [21] observed that polymers reinforced with polyhedral silsesquioxanes show higher decomposition temperatures, due to the ceramic nature of the silsesquioxane component, which creates a glassy layer during pyrolysis and retards the rate of diffusion of decomposition gases.

6.2.5 Melt-state rheology

To determine the effect of the POSS concentration on the structural modification of the PMMA matrix with changing the strain amplitude, strain amplitude tests were conducted at 180 °C on the different nanocomposites. Figures 6.5 and 6.6 depict the storage modulus (G') and loss modulus (G'') as a function of applied strain, γ (0.01 to 100 %). All the samples show a Newtonian plateau up to 8 % strain, and the incorporation of different POSS loadings into the polymer matrix shows an increase in G' and G'' . Furthermore, the presence of the POSS particles does not significantly change the onset of the nonlinear viscoelastic region of the

PMMA. This behaviour can be attributed to the absence of the formation of a strain-sensitive rigid network-like structure [22] between the POSS and the PMMA, which results in higher moduli values. The absence of strain-sensitive structures may be due to well dispersed POSS particles within the matrix, although such a dispersion could not be conclusively established. In the linear viscoelastic region the elastic behaviour dominates the viscous one (i.e. $G' > G''$) for all the samples investigated, indicating the formation of a gel-like behaviour of PMMA and its nanocomposites. Even if this is a weak gel-like structure, these samples exhibit a certain form-stability [23].

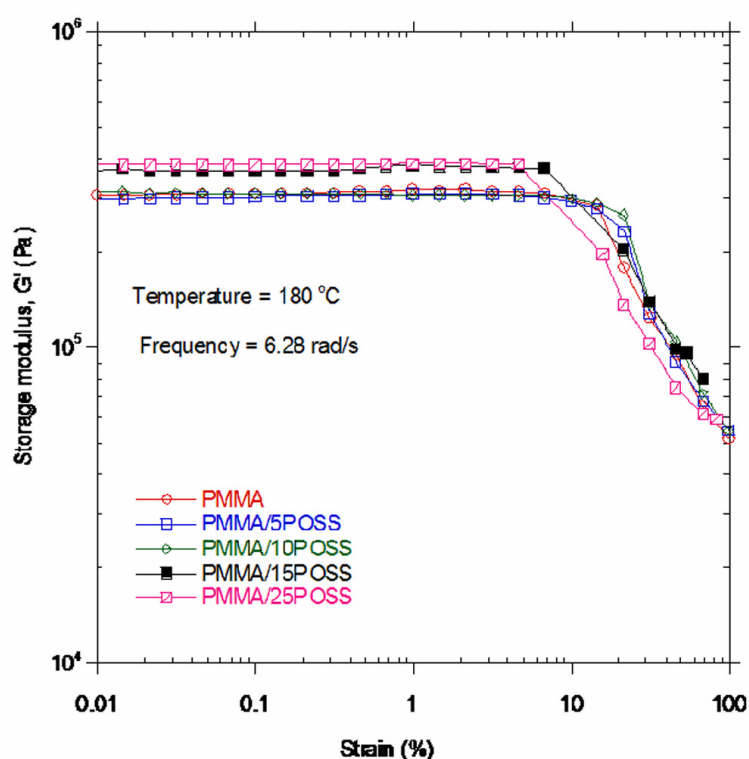


Figure 6.5 Strain amplitude sweep dependence of storage modulus (G') of the PMMA matrix and the different PMMA/POSS nanocomposites

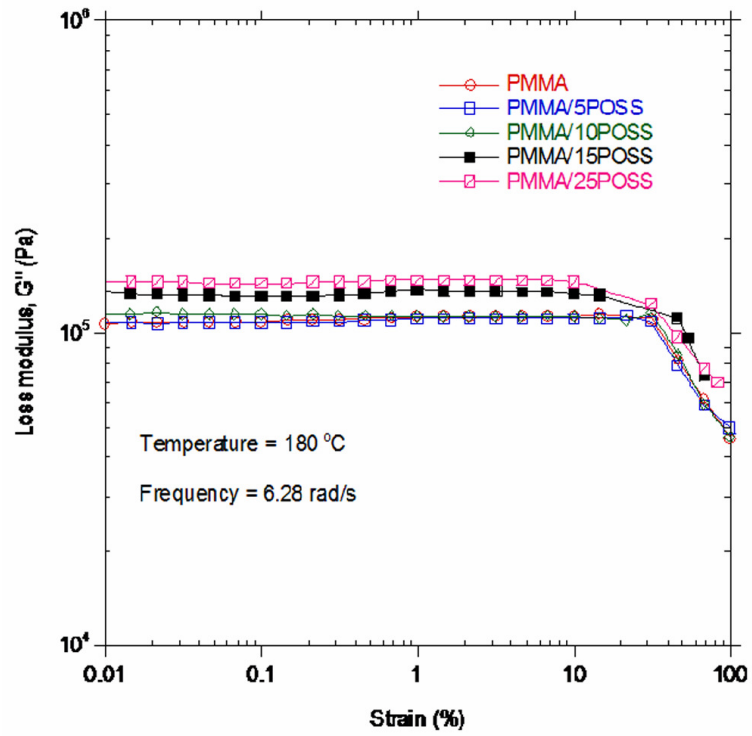


Figure 6.6 Strain amplitude sweep dependence of the loss modulus (G'') of the PMMA matrix and its nanocomposites

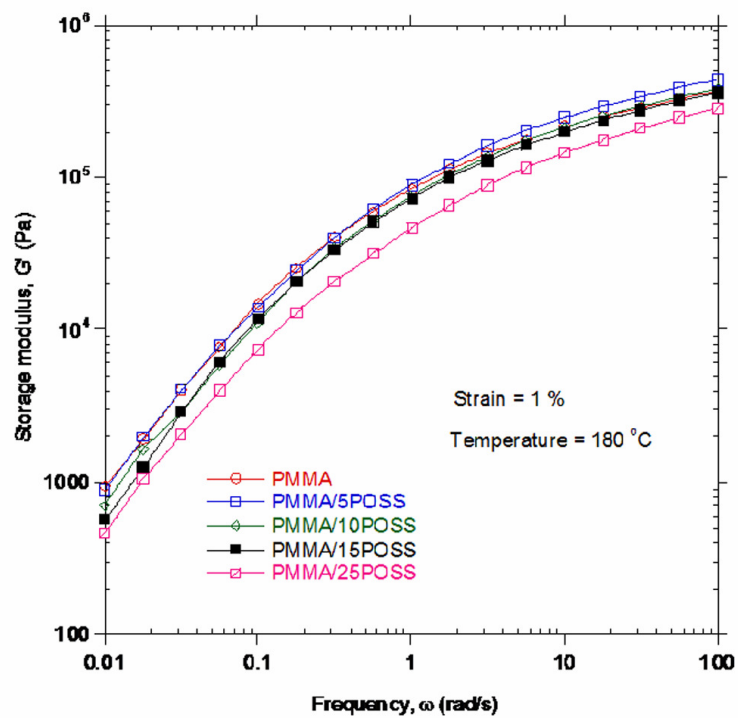


Figure 6.7 Frequency dependence of the storage modulus (G') of pure PMMA and the PMMA/POSS nanocomposites

The frequency sweep tests of the samples were performed in a dynamic oscillation mode at a constant oscillation strain of 1 % at 180 °C to investigate the time-dependent shear behaviour of the pure PMMA and its nanocomposites simulated by rapid motion (high frequencies) and by slow motion (low frequencies) as shown in Figures 6.7 and 6.8. By increasing the frequency, the structure of the temporary network-of-entanglements of the PMMA shows more inflexibility and rigidity. Under these circumstances more deformation energy dissipated by friction between the molecules, because of the reduced relative motion between their chains, can be accumulated. Therefore, both G' and G'' are increasing with dominant elastic behaviour. The moduli show an increase up to 5 wt % POSS loading in PMMA, particularly at higher frequencies. A decrease in the modulus with increasing the content of POSS in the polymer matrix was observed. This was probably due to the dispersion of the POSS particles within the matrix. The presence of POSS particles within the matrix resulted in a viscous behaviour of the samples [22], suggesting a decrease in the value of the complex viscosity, η^* (Figure 6.9).

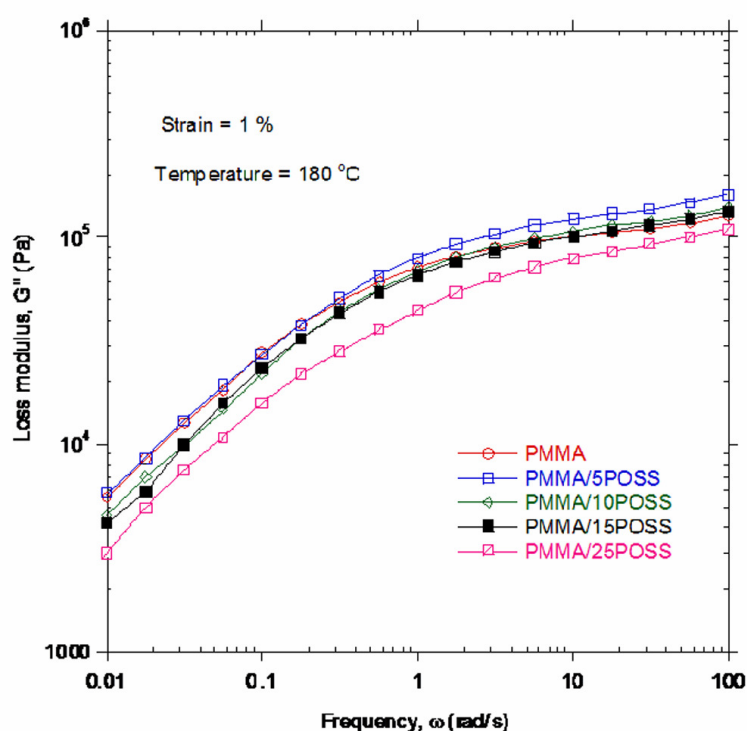


Figure 6.8 Frequency dependence of loss modulus (G'') of pure PMMA and the PMMA/POSS nanocomposites

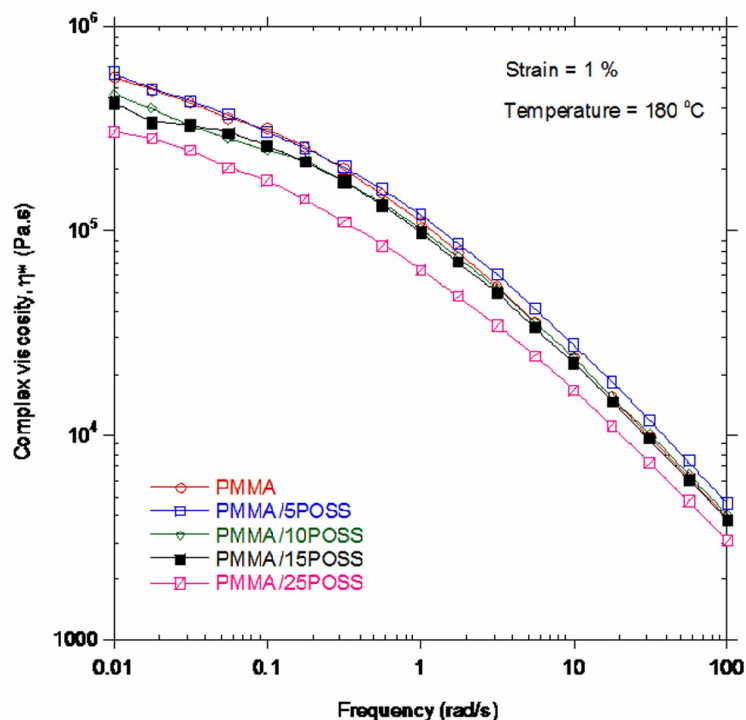


Figure 6.9 Frequency dependence of the dynamic complex viscosity (η^*) of pure PMMA and the PMMA/POSS nanocomposites

Kopesky *et al.* [24] reported the rheological behaviour of POSS-filled homopolymers. A slight decrease in the viscosity for POSS loadings $\phi < 0.05$ was observed. This decrease was attributed to a small amount of molecularly-dispersed POSS particles that plasticized the matrix in the molten state at small loadings.

6.2.6 Dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA)

DMA studies were conducted to further confirm the plasticization effect of POSS on the PMMA matrix. The storage modulus (E') curves as a function of temperature are illustrated in Figure 6.10. One can clearly see that the E' for the nanocomposite containing 5 wt % POSS was slightly higher than that of the pure PMMA in the glassy state over the investigated temperature range. The increase in modulus could be attributed to various factors such as the reinforcement effect of the dispersed spherical and rigid particles of POSS on the PMMA. Another probable reason is that the PMMA matrix could simultaneously be reinforced by part of the POSS cages, indicating that the PMMA nanocomposites have a much higher dimensional thermal stability than the pure PMMA at lower temperatures. However, with increasing the POSS content up to 25 wt %, a decrease in E' was observed. Since the POSS

particles do not have any influence on the stiffening of the PMMA matrix when high loadings of POSS were used, this clearly shows that the POSS is molecularly dispersed within the polymer matrix [24]. It is interesting to note that the storage modulus in the rubbery state ($T > T_g$) of the PMMA nanocomposites containing POSS are closer or lower than that of the pure PMMA, despite the presence of nanoreinforcement by the small amount of POSS. This behaviour is attributed to plasticization effect of POSS particles on the PMMA matrix.

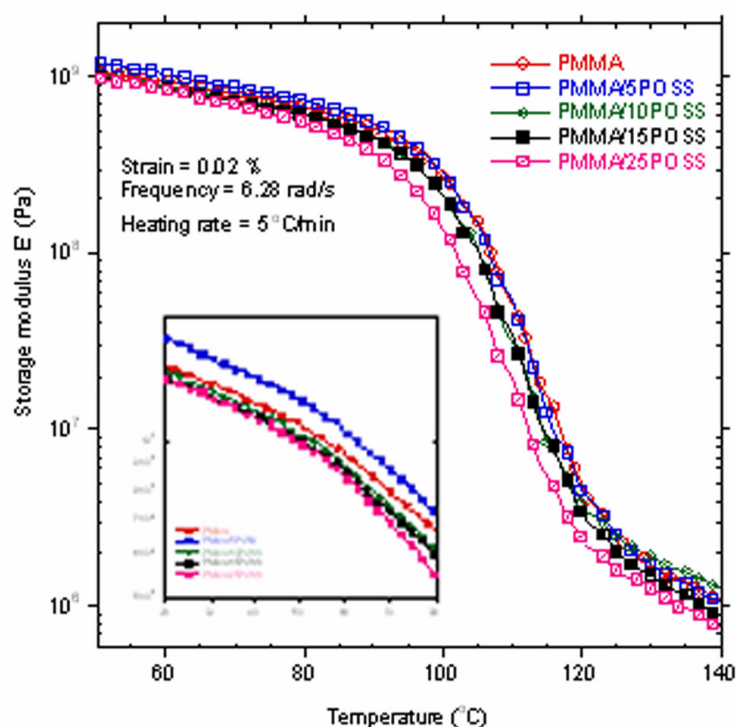


Figure 6.10 Temperature dependence of the storage modulus, E' of pure PMMA and PMMA/POSS nanocomposites

The $\tan \delta$ curves as a function temperature of the pure PMMA and its nanocomposites are shown in Figure 6.12, in which the T_g is defined as the maximum of $\tan \delta$ peak. The $\tan \delta$ curve of the pure PMMA matrix shows a well-defined relaxation peak centered at 125 °C, which is ascribed to the glass-rubbery transition of the PMMA matrix. The T_g values of the PMMA/5POSS, PMMA/10POSS, PMMA/15POSS and PMMA/25POSS nanocomposites are 120, 116, 116 and 113 °C, respectively. The decrease in the T_g with increasing POSS content is attributed to the plasticization effect of the POSS on the PMMA.

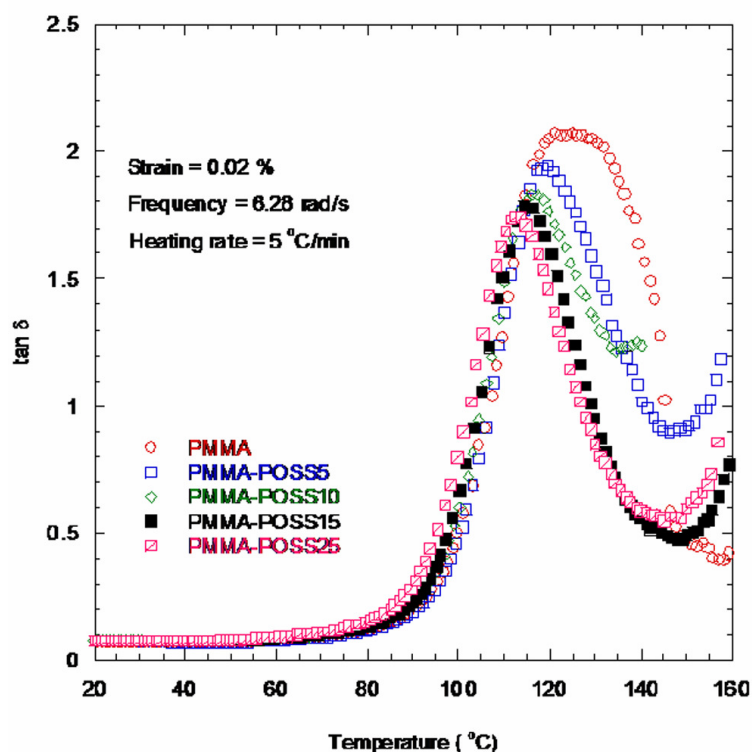


Figure 6.11 Temperature dependence of loss factor curves of pure PMMA matrix and different nanocomposite samples

6.3 Conclusions

This chapter discussed the effect of the addition of different contents of POSS on the morphological, thermal and thermomechanical properties of the PMMA matrix. The dispersion of the POSS particles in the PMMA matrix could not be conclusively established from the FE-SEM results, but the x-ray diffraction studies indicated that the POSS particles were dispersed throughout the PMMA matrix. Both differential scanning calorimetry and dynamic mechanical analysis show a single glass transition for all the investigated samples. A decrease in the glass transition temperature was observed with increasing POSS loading in the polymer matrix, which was attributed to the plasticization effect of POSS on the PMMA. The rheological studies showed a gel-like character for all the investigated samples. An increase in the storage modulus for the 5 wt % POSS containing sample was observed. This behaviour was due to the reinforcement effect of the well dispersed, spherical and rigid POSS particles in the matrix.

6.4 References

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CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

7.1 Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to prepare polymer nanocomposites based on thermoplastic (LLDPE) and amorphous (PMMA) resins with different types and loadings of POSS nanoscale fillers. The influence of POSS loadings on the morphology, thermal, mechanical, microstructure, thermomechanical and rheological properties was investigated through two different systems, namely LLDPE/octamethyl-T₈-POSS and PMMA/poly((propylmethacryl-heptaisobutyl-POSS)-*co*-(methyl methacrylate)) nanocomposites.

Polarized optical microscopy and FE-SEM studies revealed a fairly homogeneous dispersion of octamethyl-T₈-POSS micro-aggregates in the LLDPE matrix. This micro-aggregation in the nanocomposite systems was due to the intrinsic chemical properties of both LLDPE and POSS, even though the POSS used had been modified with octamethyl chains.

Both conventional and temperature modulated differential scanning calorimetry exhibited multiple melting behaviour of the LLDPE and its nanocomposites at all POSS loadings. This behaviour was attributed to partial melting, re-crystallization, and re-melting phenomena. A homogeneous dispersion of POSS micro-aggregates into the LLDPE matrix resulted in a decrease in the overall crystallinity of the LLDPE matrix with POSS loading. However, POSS did not have any significant effect on the melting temperature of LLDPE.

The homogeneous dispersion of POSS micro-aggregates in the LLDPE matrix led to a dramatic improvement in the elastic storage modulus at higher POSS concentrations. This was due to the potential formation of three-dimensional network-like structures. Two distinguishable transitions were observed in both the loss modulus and loss factor curves. The thermal stability of pure LLDPE and the nanocomposite samples was also studied in air and inert atmospheres. Two degradation steps were observed for all the nanocomposite systems under inert atmosphere. The higher thermal stability of the nanocomposite samples observed

in air in the high-temperature regions may be due to the dispersion of POSS particles in the LLDPE matrix, which decelerated the degradation of the polymer chains *via* char formation.

The melt-state rheological property measurements showed that the POSS particles were highly immiscible with the LLDPE matrix. Because of this phase-separated morphology, POSS-containing LLDPE composites did not show any improvement in tensile properties. A phase-separated morphology also gave rise to a decrease in impact properties of the LLDPE at higher POSS loadings. The heat distortion temperature of the samples increased with increasing the POSS loading in the polymer matrix. This observation was attributed to the potential formation of three-dimensional network-like structures in the nanocomposites.

In the case of PMMA/POSS nanocomposites, the FE-SEM results did not give any information about the dispersion of the POSS particles in the PMMA matrix. However, the x-ray diffraction studies indicated that the POSS particles were dispersed throughout the PMMA matrix. Both differential scanning calorimetry and dynamic mechanical analysis showed a single glass transition for all the investigated samples. A decrease in the glass transition temperature was observed with increasing POSS loading in the polymer matrix, which was attributed to the plasticization effect of the POSS on the PMMA. The rheological studies showed a gel-like character for all the investigated samples. An increase in the storage modulus for the 5 wt % POSS containing sample was observed, which was due to the reinforcement effect of the well dispersed, spherical and rigid POSS particles in the matrix.

7.2 Publications from this project

1. M.J. Hato, S. Sinha Ray, A.S. Luyt. Nanocomposites based on polyethylene and polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxanes: 1 - Microstructure, thermal and thermomechanical properties. *Macromolecular Materials and Engineering* 2008; 293:752-762.
2. M.J. Hato, S. Sinha Ray, A.S. Luyt. The effect of POSS nanoparticles on the melt-state viscoelastic and mechanical properties of linear low-density polyethylene nanocomposites. *Journal of Nanoscience and Nanotechnology*, accepted (2010).
3. M.J. Hato, S. Sinha Ray, A.S. Luyt. The effect of POSS nanoparticles on the thermal and thermomechanical properties of poly(methyl methacrylate). *Advanced Science Letters*, submitted (2010).

7.3 Conferences presentations

1. Preparation, characterization and viscoelastic properties of LLDPE/POSS nanocomposites. NanoAfrica 2009 Conference, Pretoria, 1-4 February 2009, RSA.
2. Preparation, characterization and viscoelastic properties of linear low-density polyethylene/POSS nanocomposites. 2nd Southern African Conference on Rheology, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town, 6-8 October 2008, RSA.
3. Properties of linear low density polyethylene/polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxanes nanocomposites. 236th American Chemical Society (ACS) meeting and exposition, Philadelphia, PA, 17-21 August 2008, USA.