

Research Article

Investigate the Mechanical Properties of Soybean Oil Reinforced with ATH-Filled Polyester-Based Hybrid Nanocomposites

K. M. Kaatubi,¹ R. Meenakshi Reddy,² J. Gnanasundar,³ Birla Ramesh,⁴ Rajasekar Rajendran,⁵ D. Joseph Manuel,⁶ Sridar. W. Mohammed,¹ H. Sundar Asiful,⁴ and Endalkachew Mergia Anbese ⁷

¹Department of Chemistry, Sree Krishna College of Engineering, Vellore, 632101 Tamil Nadu, India

²Department of Mechanical Engineering, G. Pulla Reddy Engineering College, Kurnool, 518007 Andhra Pradesh, India

³Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering, Panimalar Polytechnic College, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India

⁴Department of Mechanical Engineering, GGR College of Engineering, Vellore, Tamil Nadu, India

⁵Department of Automobile Engineering, Bharath Institute of Higher Education and Research, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India

⁶Department of Mechanical Engineering, Velammal Institute of Technology, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India

⁷Department of Civil Engineering, Ambo University, Ambo, Ethiopia

Correspondence should be addressed to Endalkachew Mergia Anbese; endalkachew.mergia@ambou.edu.et

Received 8 May 2022; Revised 21 June 2022; Accepted 1 July 2022; Published 11 August 2022

Academic Editor: Ram Prasad

Copyright © 2022 K. M. Kaatubi et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

A mixed microbiologically composite made from natural *Linum usitatissimum* fibers with nano-reinforced organic plastics can improve properties while being environmentally friendly. The inclusion of aluminium tris hydroxide particles into an organic polymer enables it to maintain stiffness without sacrificing durability, even while improving barriers and material characteristics. A study of numerous composite samples verified this complementary effect, with combinations including 10 percent EMS and 2.6 wt.% ATH retaining the resin's stiffness, stress to breakage, and mechanical properties while improving durability. Mechanical tests such as tensile and impact strength were discovered using the conventional ASTM test plan. Best-practice designs which maximize constituent interactions are thus attainable, and the research findings serve as the basis for discovering this balance, thereby broadening the spectrum of microbiologically polymer nanocomposites. The cracked surfaces of the nanomaterials, and the amount of dispersion of an ATH filler, were examined using a scanning electron microscope.

1. Introduction

Regarding the adverse footprint of synthetic or petroleum polymer nanocomposites, that has led to the development of biological or renewable blends. Natural sealants made of natural fibres in an inorganic or organic matrix material are popular due to their low cost, nontoxicity, and compatibility with fibre materials. Furthermore, since microbially derived composites possess inferior thermomechanical qualities to polymer fiber or conventional binding support, their use will be limited. Environmental adaptability has also had a significant impact on metals technology and construction

around the world [1, 2]. Global impacts like recyclability and emission reduction have prompted increasing attention to the usage of natural fibers. Synthetic fibers like graphene, charcoal, and fiber glass are increasingly extensively used in thermoplastic hybrids with high mechanical strength and stiffness [3]. Fiber glass-based composite materials are now available in various price ranges and physical features. Industrial uses include excavation, vehicle manufacture, and turbine fabrication. Fiber glass hybrids, on the other hand, are made of nonrenewable resources and thus are notorious for requiring a lot more energy during the manufacturing process. Aside from that, recovering fiber



FIGURE 1: Flax fiber extraction from flax plant.

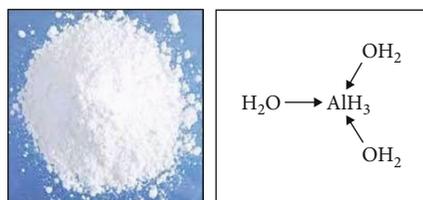


FIGURE 2: ATH powder and its chemical structure.

glass is challenging. As sustainability issues have grown in importance, new ecosustainable composites have been created. Organic materials are widely considered to be more ecologically benign than fiber glass. Natural fabrics provide various advantages over conventional fabrics, including renewability, lightweight, and being inexpensive. Because it reduces fuel consumption, offering a wide range of products appears to have the ability to cut expenses, notably in the car industry. Organic fiber polymers have been long used in the locomotive segment, but mostly for nonstructural uses [4, 5]. Banana fiber, merino, flax, jute, and linen are the most commonly used bio fibres in hybrids due to their characteristics and quantities.

Flax would be the sole agro significant species as in the Lennoaceae category, which consists of fourteen groups and 400 species. Flaxseed was really the earliest cloth made of cereals or hardened into a grid, but it was discovered in Nubian graves approximately 5000 years before Christ. It is one of the most widely used bio-fibers [6]. Flaxseed has indeed been grown for generations for its filaments as well as petroleum, and this is a significant product. Flaxseed has been the subject of intensive study as well as the acceptance of beneficial traits like herbicide sensitivity, resilience to biogenic stressors, and better petroleum as well as protein qualities. Flaxseed is indeed a 0.5-mm long, meter tall annual herb having branches measuring 16-32 mm. Terpenoid in flaxseed cultivation is much more successful on poor soils, where biogenic climatic factors cause greater morbidity, than on rich soils [7, 8]. The original purpose of the study, which was conducted on 2 separate soil properties in 2019, would have been to examine the efficacy of methyl salicylate as well as salicylate chemicals in growing fiber flaxseed. Acetic acid would have no impact on the levels of flaxseed yields during testing. Despite the fact that natural fabrics are never a conflict substitute for man-made threads, poor surface qualities of natural fibers and matrix material can sometimes limit their efficacy as reinforcing fibers against organic fiber thermal degradation. Heterogeneous composites are made up of more than two fabrics in a single layer. Hybridization may improve the properties of organic fibers and biodegradable polymers by eliminating the drawbacks of individual combi-

nations [9–11]. Antimicrobial polymers, in contrast to providing a stronger organic element, boost the stability of the resulting epoxy mixture. Unfortunately, this increase in strength occurs at the expense of stiffness, resistance, and heat resistance. Rigor as well as durability were two conflicting productivity requirements that should have been harmonised in order for a combination to be effective. Another method for achieving such homeostasis is to include submicron particles such as ATH. The objectives of this paper are to determine options to improve commercial aluminium trihydrate loaded polymeric nanocomposite garbage powders and make them economically useful. Because its annual global production is expected to be around 80000 tons, this ATH can also be used as original content for one-of-a-kind items [12, 13].

The major purpose of this research would have been to develop as well as evaluate novel research areas hybridization biocomposites composed of microbiologically mixed polyester as well as ethoxylated dimethyl soyate enriched by ATH and diced natural flaxseed. Emerging global adaptability and ideal stiffness balance, and other process and capacity attributes such as enhanced and/or controlled moisture and elastic modulus, necessitate an optimum or complementary delicate balance of the various elements as in the ultimate hybrid's biopolymers. This study attempts to demonstrate that a complementary balance may well be achieved. Compression moulding was used to create biomaterials that altered the organic EMS concentration in UPE and the concentrations of ATH while trusting a consistent quantity of natural fibers. Tensile properties were examined using standard procedures. SEM was used to evaluate the amount of ATH diffusion inside the epoxies and the fractured physical properties.

2. Investigational Resources and Methods

2.1. Reinforcement Materials. The flaxseed fibers were provided by GVR Fabric Company in Madurai, Tamil Nadu, India. The threads are carefully laved using drinkable water and then air dried for a couple of days to eliminate the moisture. Figure 1 illustrates the separation of flaxseed strengthening elements from their Figure 1. The flaxseed thread was then submerged in a NaOH solution for 4 hours. The fabric was then gently laved with fresh water before being stored at 70°C. In this investigation, aluminium trihydrate as well as a polyester substrate has been used. Both the matrices as well as the ATH additives were provided by Naga Pharmaceutical Companies in Bengaluru, Tamil Nadu, India. After that, the flax fiber was immersed in NaOH solution for 4 hrs. Then, again, the fiber was laved carefully with

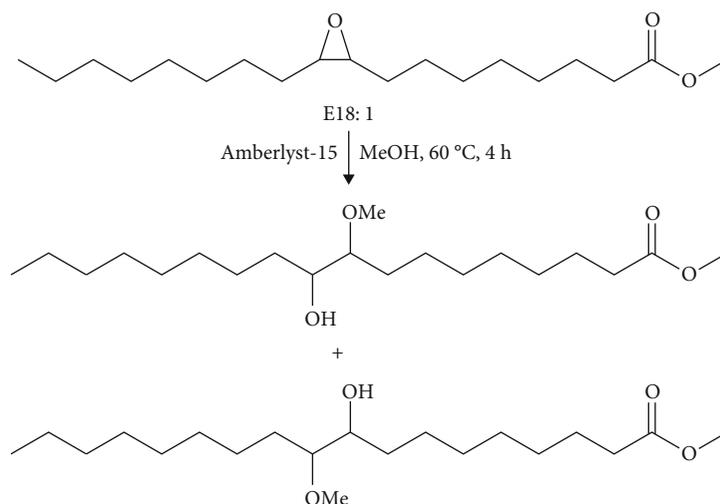


FIGURE 3: Chemical structure of epoxidized methyl soyate (EMS).

TABLE 1: Configurations of hybrid nanocomposites.

Sample no	Polyester	Configuration (%)	
		ATH	EMS
1A	100	0	0
2D	100	2.5	0
3B	90	0	10
4E	90	2.5	10
5C	80	0	20

clean water and placed in the woven at 75°C. The HN361 type of alumina trihydride, and the polyester matrix was employed in this study. Naga Chemicals Industries, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India, supplied both the matrix and ATH fillers. The chemical construction of ATH is revealed in Figure 2. Ethoxylated dimethyl soyate (EMS), a microbially altered substance, was employed as a supplemental ingredient to change parts of the base material. EMS would be a fat mixture formed via the transesterification process of soybean lipids. Figure 3 depicts the EMS molecular assembly.

2.2. Processing of Nanocomposites. The binder replaced polyamide using varying amounts of filler and bioresin. A reaction mixture was used to constantly stir ATH in the mixture at a concentration absorbance of nearly 60 mL of methanol with one kilogram of ATH. The amount of pazz used with the sonicating operation was maintained over all thermoplastics at 25 KJ. The polyamide plus bioresin was then added to a methanol mixture and magnetically agitated for three-four hours on a gas hob to remove the majority of the methanol. A vacuum extraction has been used to remove the leftover methanol at 55°C for 36 hrs. The polystyrene content with in polyester in this study was 33.16 wt. percent. By substituting parts of polyester using phyto, the overall monomer percent of a resulting polymer mixture is significantly reduced. Following propanone removal, the reduced

monomer content is anticipated to induce premature curing of a polymer's combination. As a result, cinnamene was additional to natural polymeric mixture to keep the complete cinnamene pleased of the resin system at 34.56 wt.%. The resulting thermoplastic nanomaterials have been used as a substrate for natural fabrics in mixed biological matrix composite architectures [14].

2.3. Fabrication of Nanocomposites. Compressed moulding is employed to create flattened nanomaterial samples for the major layouts shown in Table 1. The fibers are then processed for 24 hours in an electric furnace at 65°C and 100 psi before use. The regulators as well as activators were coupled with both a submicron binder and a flaxseed molar ratio of 20 percent. This was used in all experiments. The threads were also physically immersed in the binding agent until the desired consistency was reached. The soaked strands were then put into a framed moulding. Because natural fabrics tend to group and twist around, it was critical to precisely disperse the fiber filaments inside the moulds to ensure a uniform sample. The structural moulding is held together by two titanium metal sheets. This sample was then processed inside a press at 110°C for 4 hours under 650 psi force, followed by 60 minutes at 130°C.

2.4. Testing of Hybrid Composites. The produced laminate specimens were extracted as well as machined to ASTM D-638-03 analogues with dimensions of 150 x 25 x 3 mm for tension testing as well as D-256 (wide 12.7, long 64, and a depth of 3 mm) for impishness.

2.5. Fractographic Study. Morphological examinations of cracked laminate material were carried out using SEM. During SEM resolution, all samples being laved, dried, and then chemically covered using tens of nanometres of silver to improve experimental electrochemical performance of a mixtures.

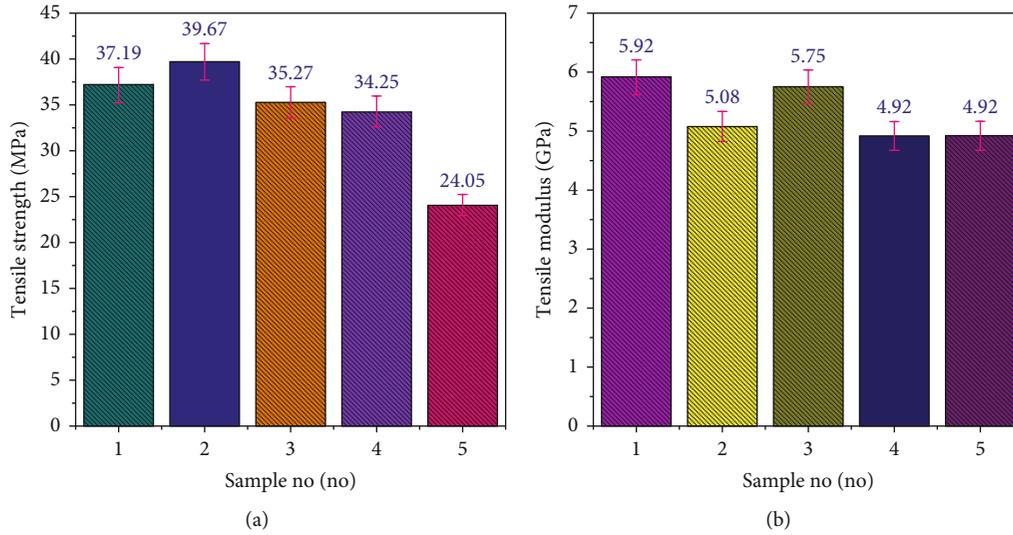


FIGURE 4: Mechanical properties of hybrid nanocomposites: (a) tensile strength and (b) tensile modulus.

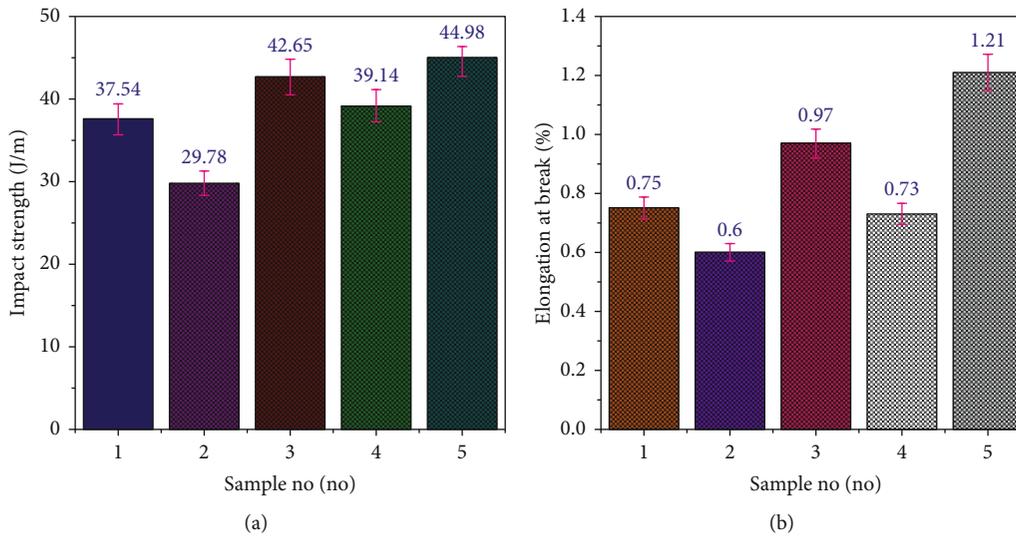


FIGURE 5: Mechanical properties of hybrid nanocomposites: (a) impact strength and (b) elongation at break.

3. Result and Discussion

Introducing man-made fillers may well have a beneficial or negative effect on the factor being evaluated. As a result, all of the results as in subsection 1 were outlined in the following biomaterial specimen, which is entirely comprised of synthetic materials.

3.1. Tensile Strength and Its Modulus. Figures 4(a) and 4(b) show the tensile strength and their modulus values. Because the stiffness of Phyto polymer, the addition of Phyto to polyamide reduced tension characteristics as well as the elasticity of the starting engagement. The tensile stress of biomaterial specimens 3 as well as 5 was reduced by approximately 8% and 32%, respectively. Similarly, the ultimate strength of biomaterial specimens 3 and 5 decreased by around 4% and 20%, respectively. Since elastic strength is mostly governed by organic fiber, a large increase in elastic

strength as a result of 2.5 wt.% ATH was not expected. Notwithstanding that, biomaterials specimen 2, which included 2.5 wt.% ATH in polyester, showed an average elastic stiffness improvement of roughly 6%. A similar increase was projected for biomaterials comprising ten percent bio resin [15]. Nonetheless, it appears that the tensile modulus loss caused by the accumulation of 10% EMS was greater than the recuperation afforded by inserting 2.5 wt. percent ATH. In order to determine the strength, the introduction of ATH to the resin mixtures reduced ultimate tensile characteristics by roughly 19% and 23% for biocomposite samples 2 and 4, correspondingly. This drop might be ascribed to the polymer system's brittle fracture. As can be observed in Figure 4, there is a lot of variation in test findings. Processing, the existence of gaps and contaminants, inappropriate fiber dispersion, variance in fiber lengths, ATH dispersion, and other factors might all contribute to the discrepancy. Such differences are not taken into consideration

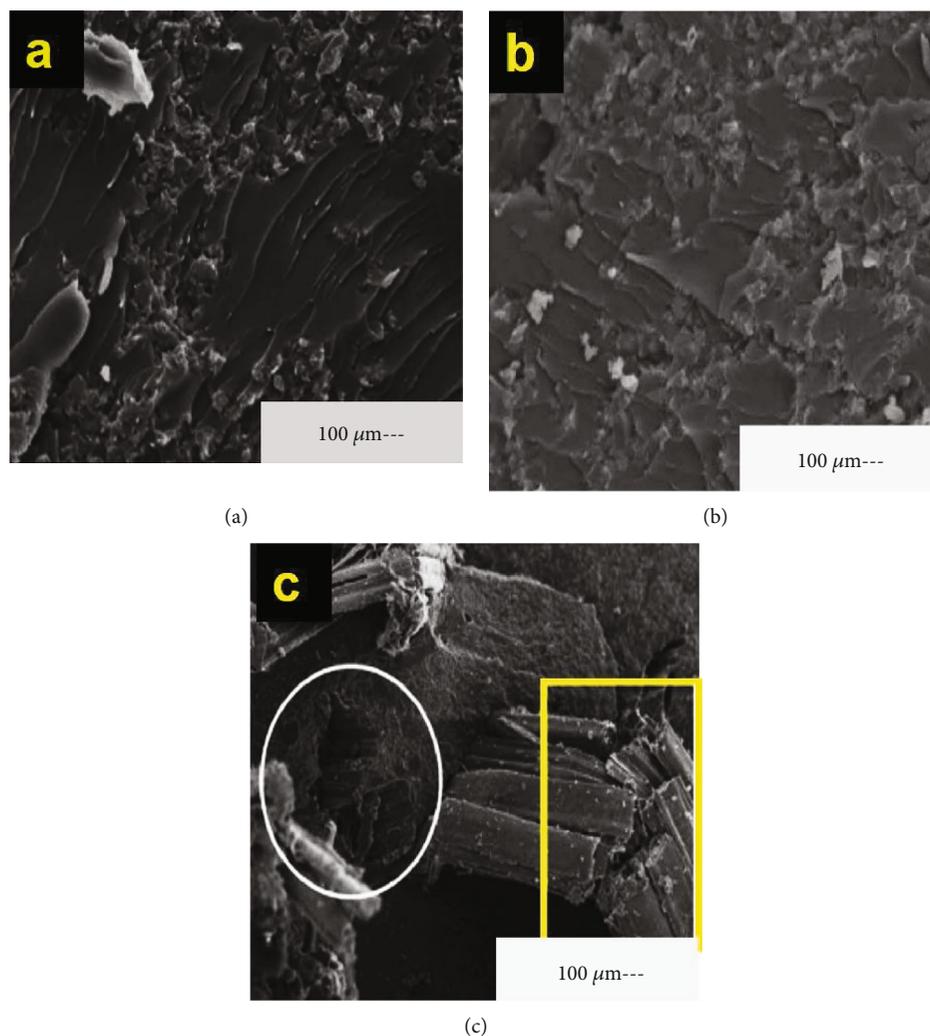


FIGURE 6: Microstructural analysis of ATH-based nanocomposite.

in the comparison stated above. Generally, the inclusion of bioresin lowers the composite's tensile modulus and strength. The inclusion of ATH increases modulus while decreasing tensile strength [16, 17].

3.2. Impact Strength and Its Failure. Elongations at failure using tensile testing and notch impact test strength are summarized in Figures 5(a) and 5(b). The inclusion of EMS improved the robustness of the biomaterials, as evidenced by greater elongation at break at catastrophe and maximum impact strengths in experiments. For polymer mixtures without ATH additives, a regular growth in maximum stress of 28% and 55% was detected for nanocomposite samples 3 (10% EMS) and 5 (21% EMS), individually. Generally, the impact strengths of nanocomposite samples 3 and 5 were improved by 10% and 17%, correspondingly. The inclusion of ATH rendered the polymer mixtures rigid, reducing flexibility and, as a result, elongations at fracture and impact strengths. With the addition of 2.5 wt. percent clay to plain polyester, nanocomposites 2 show similar decreases in ultimate stresses and impact strength of around 23% and 20%,

respectively. Synergistic activity was observed in nanocomposites sample 4, which contained 10% EMS and 2.5 wt. percent ATH. As shown in Figure 5, in terms of ultimate stresses, the performance level is very close to that of bio-composite sample 1 (about 4% lower), and the impact strengths improved by 5%.

This demonstrates that combining bioresin and ATH may compensate for individual inadequacies, and the resultant hybrid composites would have the benefits of both ingredients, culminating in a favorable stiffness–toughness balancing. With increasing bioresin content, mechanical testing demonstrated a drop in rigidity metrics like tensile strength and tensile modulus, as well as an improvement in durability characteristics like ductility (elongation at failure) and impacting intensities. The inclusion of ATH raised the stiffness of the composites but decreased their durability. With the inclusion of ATH, the improved durability of the resultant nanocomposites was jeopardized. The benefits of integrating EMS with ATH provide such a synergistic impact that goes beyond only attaining a rigidity balancing in the final microbial nanocomposite [18, 19].

3.3. Microstructural Analysis. The properties of tensile surface defects and interface fiber–matrix were observed using scanning electron microscopy. Others have utilized this method to assess nanocomposites' rigidity modulus and durability characteristics. In the literature, three types of failure processes for normal fiber-based polymeric have been identified: polymer disappointment, fiber breakage, and polymer and reinforcement adhesive disaster.

Fiber pull-out rather than fracture may happen from a weedy boundary or insufficient interaction among fiber and matrix, reducing the mechanical characteristics. Figure 6(a) represents the dispersion of ATH powder in natural composites. Mixtures of these failures were detected in this investigation, dependent on the nanocomposite's constitution. Figure 6(b) depicts a typical SEM micrograph of nanocomposite sample 4 with 11% EMS in polyester and 2.5 wt. percent ATH. Fiber pull-out is shown in the circular region, whereas fiber fracture is shown in the boxed region [20]. The interaction holes surrounding pull-out fibers augmented as the organic resin concentration rose, implying worse adhesion qualities between the fiber and the bio-based matrix. As a result, pull-out failures' interface properties were investigated as a result. The interface distance increases organic resin concentration for 10% epoxidized methyl soyate (nanocomposites 3) and 21% epoxidized methyl soyate (nanocomposites 5), as shown in Figures 5(a) and 5(b). The interfacial separation of nanocomposites E, which contain 10% epoxidized methyl soyate and 2.5 wt.% ATH, was identical to that of nanocomposite 3, which contains 10% epoxidized methyl soyate but no ATH powder Figure 6(c). It suggests that ATH reinforcing has no effect on the interfacial bonding of the fiber and matrix. The findings of tensile tests confirm the hypothesis that a weaker interface causes an additional dramatic pull-out spectacle, since a decrease in mechanical characteristics was found as the amount of organic-based resin content increased. The pull-out of fiber allows additional oomph to be dissipated at the interfaces, the above finding is compatible with increased impact properties, and durability during the organic based resin pleased is increased [21, 22].

4. Conclusion

- (i) This study proposes an environmentally friendly method for improving the mechanical behaviour of flaxseed, and ATH, as well as EMS-based polyamide nanocomposite.
- (ii) The composites' biomechanical properties were evaluated, as well as the data were consistent to basic fiber components. Tension characteristics was shown to be improved by taking material characteristics into account.
- (iii) The earliest cracking conditions, which become connected to the strain charts loosening, coincide with increasing tensions and deformation levels as that of the ATH content increase.
- (iv) Likewise, the suggested ATH that was the crash characteristics of a generated hybrids. The notion,

which has now been established intuitively and depends on the mechanical information, was supported up by related to the location of the cracked interfaces employing SEM that significantly confirms the treatment's superior influence on filament adherence.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article. Further data or information is available from the corresponding author upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

Acknowledgments

The authors appreciate the supports from Ambo University, Ethiopia, for the research and preparation of the manuscript. The author thanks the G. Pulla Reddy Engineering College, Saveetha Institute of Medical and Technical Sciences, and GGR College of Engineering & Technology, for providing assistance in this work.

References

- [1] V. Ganesan and B. Kaliyamoorthy, "Utilization of Taguchi technique to enhance the interlaminar shear strength of wood dust filled woven jute fiber reinforced polyester composites in cryogenic environment," *Journal of Natural Fibers*, pp. 1–12, 2020.
- [2] T. Raja, V. Mohanavel, S. Suresh Kumar, S. Rajkumar, M. Ravichandran, and R. Subbiah, "Evaluation of mechanical properties on kenaf fiber reinforced granite nano filler particulates hybrid polymer composite," *Part*, vol. 59, pp. 1345–1348, 2022.
- [3] M. A. Rahuman, S. S. Kumar, R. Prithivirajan, and S. G. Shankar, "Dry sliding wear behavior of glass and jute fiber hybrid reinforced epoxy composites," *International Journal of Engineering Research and Development*, vol. 10, no. 11, pp. 46–50, 2014.
- [4] S. Sekar, S. Suresh Kumar, S. Vigneshwaran, and G. Velmurugan, "Evaluation of mechanical and water absorption behavior of natural fiber-reinforced hybrid biocomposites," *Journal of Natural Fibers*, vol. 19, no. 5, pp. 1772–1782, 2022.
- [5] V. Mohanavel, S. Suresh Kumar, J. Vairamuthu, P. Ganeshan, and B. NagarajaGanesh, "Influence of stacking sequence and fiber content on the mechanical properties of natural and synthetic fibers reinforced penta-layered hybrid composites," *Journal of Natural Fibers*, pp. 1–13, 2021.
- [6] M. Evtimova, M. Vlahova, and A. Atanassov, "Flax improvement by biotechnology means," *Journal of Natural Fibers*, vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 17–34, 2005.
- [7] N. E. Zafeiropoulos, C. A. Baillie, and J. M. Hodgkinson, "Engineering and characterisation of the interface in flax fibre/polypropylene composite materials. Part II. The effect of surface treatments on the interface," *Composites. Part A*,

- Applied Science and Manufacturing*, vol. 33, no. 9, pp. 1185–1190, 2002.
- [8] M. Ramesh, “Flax (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) fibre reinforced polymer composite materials: a review on preparation, properties and prospects,” *Progress in Materials Science*, vol. 102, pp. 109–166, 2019.
- [9] G. Velmurugan, T. Shaafi, and M. S. Bhagavathi, “Evaluate the tensile, flexural and impact strength of hemp and flax based hybrid composites under cryogenic environment,” *Mater. Today Proc.*, vol. 50, pp. 1326–1332, 2022.
- [10] S. Sanjeevi, V. Shanmugam, S. Kumar et al., “Effects of water absorption on the mechanical properties of hybrid natural fibre/phenol formaldehyde composites,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 13385, 2021.
- [11] G. Velmurugan, K. Babu, L. I. Flavia, S. S. Kumar, and M. Hariharane, *Optimization on mechanical behavior of hemp and coconut shell powder reinforced epoxy composites under cryogenic environment using Grey-Taguchi Method*, Social Science Electronic Pub., [Rochester, NY], 2019.
- [12] M. Vovk and M. Šernek, “Aluminium trihydrate-filled poly(-methyl methacrylate) (PMMA/ATH) waste powder utilization in wood-plastic composite boards bonded by MUF resin,” *BioResources*, vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 3252–3269, 2020.
- [13] P. Khalili, K. Y. Tshai, D. Hui, and I. Kong, “Synergistic of ammonium polyphosphate and alumina trihydrate as fire retardants for natural fiber reinforced epoxy composite,” *Composites. Part B, Engineering*, vol. 114, pp. 101–110, 2017.
- [14] M. Haq, R. Burgueño, A. K. Mohanty, and M. Misra, “Hybrid bio-based composites from blends of unsaturated polyester and soybean oil reinforced with nanoclay and natural fibers,” *Composites Science and Technology*, vol. 68, no. 15-16, pp. 3344–3351, 2008.
- [15] A. K. Mohanty, M. Misra, and G. Hinrichsen, “Biofibres, biodegradable polymers and biocomposites: an overview,” *Macromolecular Materials and Engineering*, vol. 276-277, no. 1, pp. 1–24, 2000.
- [16] S. S. Morye and R. P. Wool, “Mechanical properties of glass/flax hybrid composites based on a novel modified soybean oil matrix material,” *Polymer Composites*, vol. 26, no. 4, pp. 407–416, 2005.
- [17] E. Bodros, I. Pillin, N. Montrelay, and C. Baley, “Could biopolymers reinforced by randomly scattered flax fibre be used in structural applications?,” *Composites Science and Technology*, vol. 67, no. 3-4, pp. 462–470, 2007.
- [18] J. L. Tsai and M. D. Wu, “Organoclay effect on mechanical responses of glass/epoxy nanocomposites,” *Journal of Composite Materials*, vol. 42, no. 6, pp. 553–568, 2008.
- [19] T. H. Hsieh, A. J. Kinloch, K. Masania, J. Sohn Lee, A. C. Taylor, and S. Sprenger, “The toughness of epoxy polymers and fibre composites modified with rubber microparticles and silica nanoparticles,” *Journal of Materials Science*, vol. 45, no. 5, pp. 1193–1210, 2010.
- [20] E. J. Pappa, J. A. Quinn, J. J. Murray, J. R. Davidson, C. M. Ó. Brádaigh, and E. D. McCarthy, “Experimental study on the interlaminar fracture properties of carbon fibre reinforced polymer composites with a single embedded toughened film,” *Polymers (Basel)*, vol. 13, no. 23, p. 4103, 2021.
- [21] F. H. Gojny, M. H. G. Wichmann, B. Fiedler, W. Bauhofer, and K. Schulte, “Influence of nano-modification on the mechanical and electrical properties of conventional fibre-reinforced composites,” *Composites. Part A, Applied Science and Manufacturing*, vol. 36, no. 11, pp. 1525–1535, 2005.
- [22] L. Wang, K. Wang, L. Chen, Y. Zhang, and C. He, “Preparation, morphology and thermal/mechanical properties of epoxy/nanoclay composite,” *Composites. Part A, Applied Science and Manufacturing*, vol. 37, no. 11, pp. 1890–1896, 2006.