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Raffaele D’Elia, Leonardo Sanches, Jean Marie Des, Guilhem Michon. Experimental characterization and numerical modeling of a viscoelastic expandable epoxy foam: Time–temperature transformation and time–temperature equivalence diagrams. *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 2023, 140 (23), 10.1002/app.53929 . hal-04073790

HAL Id: hal-04073790

<https://imt-mines-albi.hal.science/hal-04073790v1>

Submitted on 19 Apr 2023

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1 **Experimental characterization and numerical modelling of a viscoelastic expandable epoxy** 2 **foam: Time-Temperature-Transformation and Time-Temperature equivalence diagrams**

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7 **Abstract**

8 An expandable and Fire, Smoke and Toxicity (FST) compliant epoxy foam is proposed as an interesting
9 alternative to Nomex® honeycomb cores for the development of Multi-Functional Structures (MFS).
10 The paper first analyses the processing conditions using several experimental techniques as Differential
11 Scanning Calorimetry (DSC), rheology and expansion in a closed volume in order to evaluate the
12 reaction kinetics, the chemo-rheological behaviour and the expansion kinetics of the material. The
13 experimental data are used to identify several empirical models describing the material processing
14 behaviour and finally plotting the isothermal Time-Temperature-Transformation (TTT) diagram. A
15 typical curing cycle for the foam is used to describe the evolution of the material parameters during the
16 curing process. The fully-cured foam is then characterized using optical and laser microscopy in order
17 to identify its cell size distribution and density. Quasi-static and dynamic machines are used to evaluate
18 its mechanical and dynamical properties. The Time-Temperature equivalence is finally used to plot the
19 master's curves of the material, representing the evolution of the material viscoelastic properties as a
20 function of the frequency.

21 **Keywords**

22 Expandable foams, cure kinetic, multifunctional structure (MFS), Time-Temperature-Transformation
23 diagrams, dynamic mechanical analysis, Time-Temperature equivalence

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Multifunctional structures (MFS) are composite materials typically used in aerospace applications,
26 combining functional capabilities of one or more subsystems beyond the structural one, thereby reducing
27 its overall mass and volume [1]. Among the different solutions available to develop MFS, the use of
28 sandwich panel structures is gaining increasing attention, because of their lower areal density, durability
29 and cost. Typical composite sandwich structures for aerospace MFS use Nomex honeycomb as core
30 material, given their superior strength-to-weight-ratio and compliance with FAR and AITM FST
31 regulations. However, their functionalization is quite difficult, given the complexity of their machining
32 process. An effective solution to enhance the functionality of sandwich panel cores is the use of
33 expandable polymeric foams, combining the ease of process with a favourable strength-to-weight ratio
34 and excellent mechanical damping properties. The viscoelastic behaviour of the core material has a

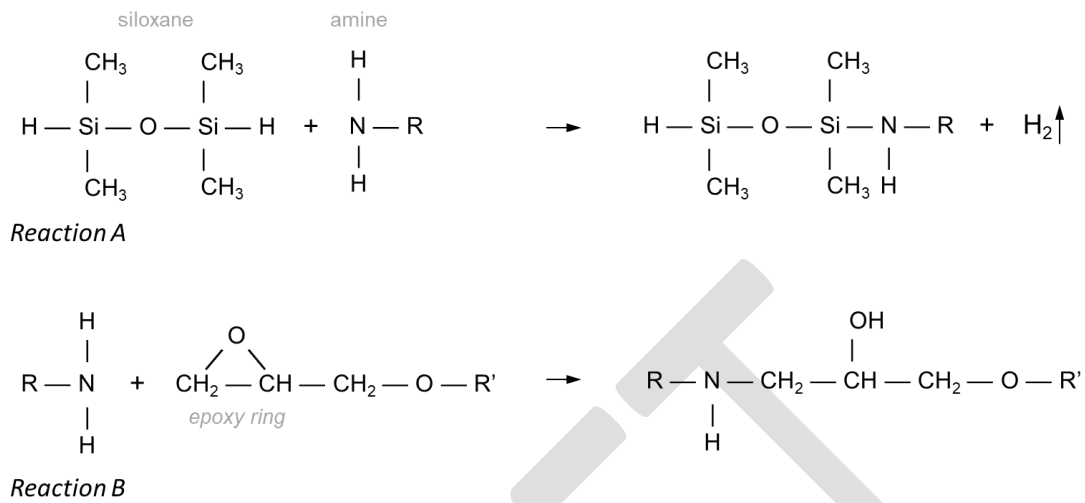
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1 major impact on the final damping performances of the structure [2], [3]. Starting from this premise,
2 new material concepts have been considered by customising their components, as syntactic foam
3 composites with addition of nanoparticles [4]–[7], by using 3d printing technique for the structure
4 realisation [8], [9], or considering multi-layered frequency-dependent material for damping
5 improvements [3], [10]. An interesting example is the study conducted by Shahdin et al. [11], where the
6 damping performance obtained with a Nomex-aramid honeycomb was compared with that obtained by
7 using foam (Rohacell 51A) as core material. The comparison study reveals the damping performance is
8 quite similar to each other up to the 3rd vibrating mode (around 2 kHz). Above this mode, the modal
9 damping ratio observed with the foam becomes 25% bigger than the one with honeycomb configuration.
10 Another study considered the application of absorbing foam as a passive damping medium to enhance
11 resonance control of metallic thin-walled honeycomb structure [12].

12 Literature review is rich of works dealing with plastic foams processing and characterization: for
13 thermoplastic polymers the most interesting works concern amorphous poly lactic acid (PLA),
14 polyethylene (PE), polystyrene (PS) or polypropylene (PP) [13]–[16], while for thermoset most of the
15 works deal with polyurethane (PU) foams, [17]–[19], because of their high versatility and wide range
16 of applications. Great efforts have been performed as well for the modelling of the phenomena of
17 nucleation and growth prediction within cellular plastic using different modelling theories [20]–[24] to
18 predict the final cellular structure obtained depending on the processing conditions. Epoxy foams were
19 first developed in the 1950s [25], [26] and adopted in the aviation industry during the 1970s [26], [27].
20 Despite being introduced in the aerospace industry for over half a century, their processing techniques
21 and underlying mechanical properties remain to be fully comprehended. The processing of epoxy foams
22 has been primarily studied experimentally and to a lesser extent compared to thermoplastic foams or
23 polyurethanes. Most studies have centred on the mechanical properties of fully polymerized foam [28],
24 [29] and on the foam-forming [30] [31]–[33].

25 Three main technologies are used to produce epoxy foams: epoxy resin mechanical mixture with hollow
26 microspheres (Epoxy Syntactic Foams, ESF), physical or chemical foaming by addition of a Physical
27 Blowing Agents (PBA) or Chemical Blowing Agent (CBA) [26], [34]. ESFs are produced by adding
28 hollow microspheres to the epoxy resin prior to curing, resulting in properties that are highly dependent
29 on the type of microspheres and their compatibility with the epoxy resin [34]. Physical foaming can be
30 implemented either by adding a substance changing its state as water [25], [35], or a gas as Freon [36]
31 or simply raising the temperature of the polymer until its boiling point, assuring a cure kinetics that
32 would freeze the final cellular structure and avoid thermal degradation [37]. A typical CBA used to
33 produce epoxy foams is H-terminated polysiloxane [31], [38], [39]. The molecule is added to the pure
34 resin without any risk of starting the expansion reaction, which is initiated right after the mixing with
35 the amine based curing agent, as presented in Figure 1. The foaming process is associated to the Reaction
36 A, where hydrogen gas is generated by the hydro-siloxane moiety with the curing agent. The cure of the

1 system starts simultaneously with a slower reaction kinetics (Reaction B), from a typical addition
 2 reaction between the epoxy-amine groups. Alternative CBA for epoxy foaming are trimethoxy boroxine
 3 (TMB) [40], sodium borohydride (SBH) [41], nonane [33] or azodicarbonamide (ADCA) [42].



4
 5 **Figure. 1** Reactions of expansion between siloxane and amine curing agent (reaction A) with gaseous hydrogen release, and
 6 classical amine-epoxy groups addition reaction during epoxy curing (reaction B) [31].

7 Despite the widespread interest in using this material for aerospace applications, there is a lack of
 8 research in the literature linking the foaming reaction to its microstructure and final mechanical damping
 9 properties, resulting in a fragmented research landscape. Considering this, the aim of this paper is to
 10 characterize the reaction kinetics of an epoxy foam suitable for aerospace applications, modelling its
 11 physico-chemical behaviour in order to obtain a Time-Temperature-Transformation (TTT) diagram. The
 12 microstructure of the foam obtained using an optimized processing protocol will be characterized and
 13 finally the viscoelastic analysis of the material will be performed in order to establish a Time-
 14 Temperature equivalence to model the viscoelastic behaviour.

15 **2. Material selection**

16 The material selected for this study is an expandable and FST compliant epoxy foam supplied by
 17 Sicomin, the PB270i, with its curing agent SD 2630. The properties of the two products are summarized
 18 in Table 1, as proposed by the supplier in the Technical Datasheet (TDS) [43], [44].

Product	T [°C]	PB 270 i	SD 2630
Viscosity [mPas]	20	22 000 ± 4 000	250 ± 50
	25	12 000 ± 2 500	150 ± 30
Rheometer CP 50 mm, shear rate 10/s	30	7 500 ± 1 500	100 ± 20
	40	3 500 ± 700	50 ± 10
Density [g/cm ³] ISO 2811-1	20	1.23 ± 0.01	1.00 ± 0.01

19 **Table 1** Properties of PB 270 i and SD 2630 according to the TDS from Sicomin.

20 The PB 270i has been chosen for its compliance with typical FST regulations as CS 25/FAR 25, assuring
 21 its potential use in aircraft in the cabin interior or MFS applications. The SD 2630 curing agent has been

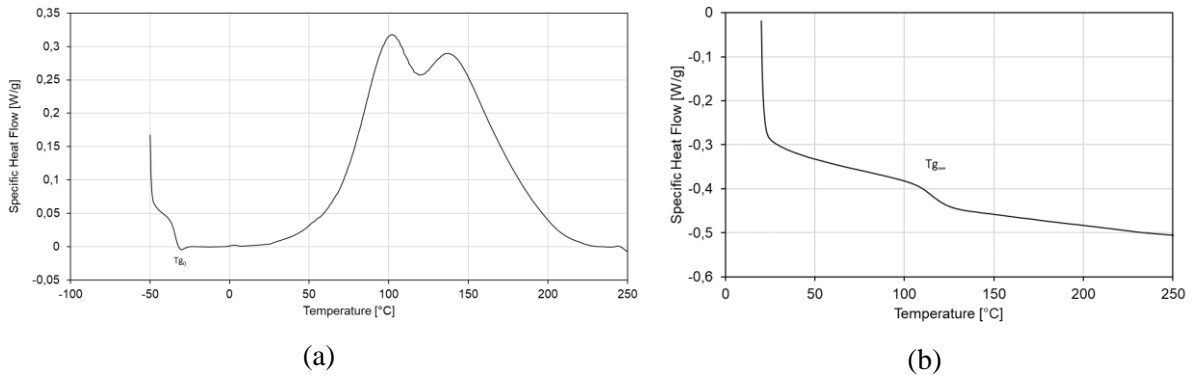
1 chosen in particular for its very slow reaction kinetics in order to assure a complete polymerization and
2 a theoretical higher glass transition temperature, according to the supplier. The mixing ratio initially
3 proposed by Sicomin is 100:27. This value will be taken as a parameter in the frame of this paper and
4 will not be analysed further. The mixing ratio proposed assure a final expansion ratio V_f/V_0 of 4.37,
5 calculated as the ratio between the initial density (1.18 g/cm^3 from Table 1, using the mixture law) and
6 the final density after expansion and curing of the system (0.27 g/cm^3).

7 The two components are mixed during 2 to 3 minutes in order to obtain a homogeneous mixture.
8 Expansion starts immediately after addition of the amine curing agent and presents a very high kinetics
9 in the first hour at 20°C , as it will be shown later in the frame of this paper, followed by a slow curing
10 reaction. A typical curing cycle will be detailed and analysed in the next section, after having identified
11 the TTT diagram of the system.

12 The nature of the CBA is not detailed in the Technical Data Sheet (TDS) of the product and it was not
13 possible to confirm its exact composition in the frame of this work. However, given the immediate
14 expansion reaction generated by the mixture of the amine curing agent to the resin, it is possible to
15 deduce that the CBA is directly pre-mixed in the epoxy resin and its composition can be supposed close
16 to the polysiloxane chemicals. In fact, as mentioned in the literature review (Figure 1), this family of
17 CBA directly reacts with amine curing agent after their addition to the epoxy resin, generating two
18 parallel reactions: the expansion with di-hydrogen generation and the more classical epoxy-amine
19 addition.

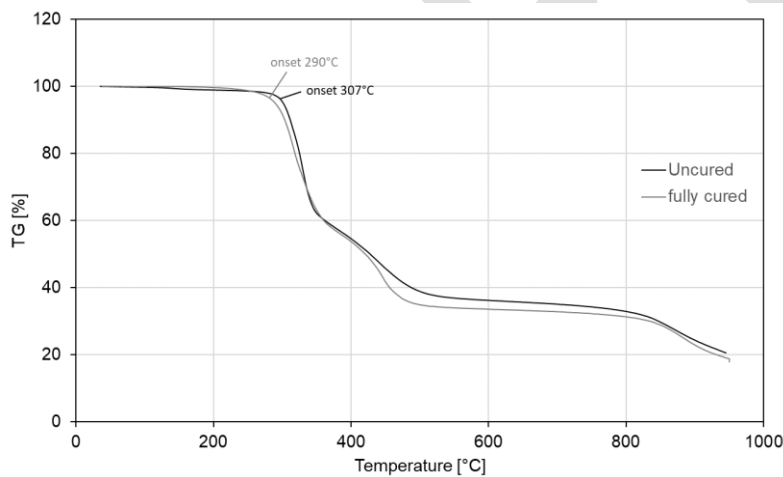
20 In a very first phase, the system has been characterized using DSC (Differential Scanning Calorimetry)
21 and TGA (Thermo-Gravimetric Analysis) dynamic scans under nitrogen flow, in order to evaluate the
22 different physico-chemical properties as the glass transition temperatures (T_g) of the uncured (T_{g_0}) and
23 fully cured (T_{g_∞}) system, the enthalpy of polymerization (ΔH_{tot}) and the mass loss during the expansion,
24 curing and degradation reactions. First analyses have been performed using a heating rate of $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$,
25 because at higher values degradation reaction starts before polymerization is completed. In the next
26 section, several scans using different heating rates will be used to average the enthalpy of reaction.

27 In the first DSC dynamic scan at $5^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ presented in Figure 2, T_{g_0} at -35.6°C is clearly visible,
28 followed by the exothermic signal of the enthalpy of polymerization, with an onset at 64°C . This first
29 sweep at 5°C is followed by a quench down to 20°C and by a second sweep at $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ in order to
30 evaluate the T_{g_∞} of the system, which correspond in this case to 119.4°C , as showed in Figure 2.



1 **Figure 2** DSC dynamic scans performed on the system: (a) first sweep at 5°C/min and (b) second sweep at 10°C/min after
 2 complete cure of the system.

3 A TGA analysis of the system has been then performed at the same heating rate of 5°C/min on an
 4 uncured and fully cured system (Figure 3). The first curve (black, uncured sample) shows a mass loss
 5 of around 1.10% at 200°C, with a degradation onset at 307°C. The second curve on a fully cured sample
 6 presents a lower degradation onset at 290°C and a lower mass loss of 0.34% at 200°C, difference clearly
 7 arising from the expansion/curing reaction already completed for a fully cured sample.



8
 9 **Figure 3.** TGA curves performed on uncured and fully cured sample at 5°C/min under nitrogen.

10 The system has been particularly chosen for its compatibility with the FST requirements for aircraft
 11 interior cabin applications. The compliancy of the material with the FST standard CS25/FAR 25 25-853
 12 for the 12 seconds flammability has been evaluated in August 2014 in DGA-CEAT, France (Report
 13 N°14-DGATA-MTF-P140003001004-F-A). These tests have been performed on the PB270i foam
 14 mixed with DM02 hardener, a different hardener from that used in this study and with a slower reactivity
 15 with regard to the SD2630. The data of the test have been supplied by Sicomin to the authors and show
 16 as the average burn length on three different samples is 7.6 cm (the limit of the standard is fixed at 20.3
 17 cm for the 12 seconds flammability test).

18

19

3. Material processing analysis and modelling

3.1 Heat of polymerization and glass transition temperature

The total heat of polymerization (ΔH_{tot}) was measured using a series of dynamic scans from room temperature up to the completion of the cure of the sample using four different heating rates: 0.5°C/min, 1°C/min, 2°C/min and 5°C/min. These values were selected in order to avoid material degradation before the end of the exothermal peak of the reaction, phenomenon observed for heating rates higher than 10°C/min for the system under study. The results of these tests are presented in Figure 4.

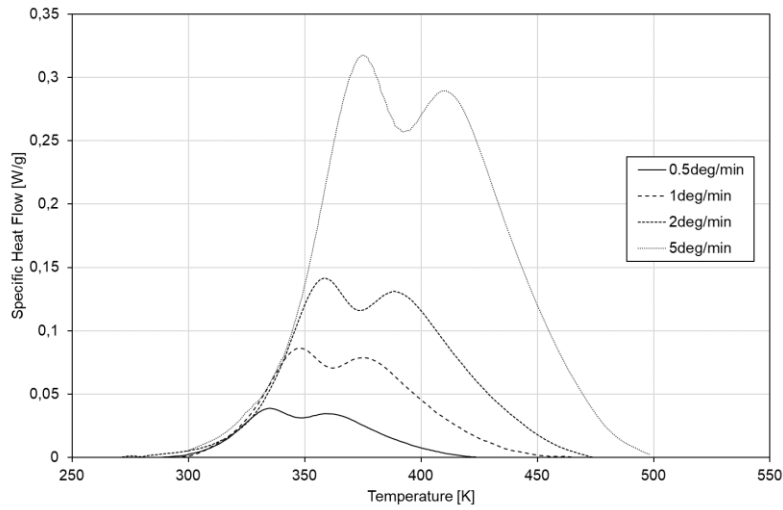


Figure 4. Specific Heat Flow of the PB270i/SD2630 system for different heating rates, from 0.5°C/min to 5°C/min.

The ΔH_{tot} represents the overall heat of reaction and is computed as the integral of the specific heat flow \dot{H} over time using the following equation. The mean value obtained for this system is 322.4 (± 21.1) J/g.

$$\Delta H_{tot} = \int_0^{t_f} \dot{H} dt \quad (1)$$

The glass transition temperature of the system (T_g) and the residual heat of reaction (ΔH_{res}) are determined after several idle times at several temperatures using DSC analysis. The degree of cure of the system is computed directly from the residual heat of reaction using the following equation:

$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{\Delta H_{res}}{\Delta H_{tot}} \quad (2)$$

Once both the degree of cure and the T_g are known for each experimental condition, it is possible to identify the Di Benedetto's formula for the system [45], as follow:

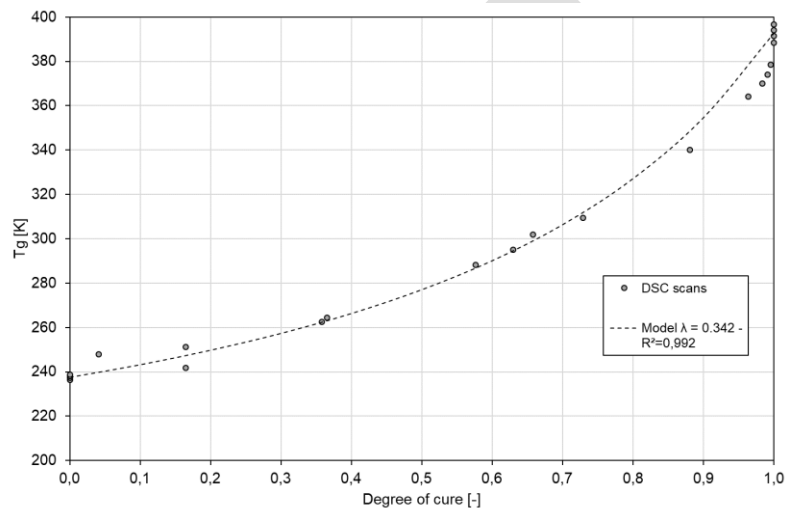
$$T_g = T_{g0} + (T_{g\infty} - T_{g0}) \cdot \frac{\alpha\lambda}{1-(1-\lambda)\alpha} \quad (3)$$
$$\lambda = \frac{F_x}{F_m}$$

where T_{g0} and $T_{g\infty}$ are respectively the glass transition temperatures for uncross-linked ($\alpha = 0$) and fully cross-linked polymer ($\alpha = 1$), F_m and F_x are the segmental mobility of the corresponding physical states.

1 From the experimental DSC scans it is possible to identify the λ parameter of the system using a
 2 linearization of the equation (3) as follow:

$$3 \quad T_g = A + B \cdot X \quad (4)$$

4 where $A = T_{g0}$, and $B = (T_{g\infty} - T_{g0})$ and $X = \frac{\alpha\lambda}{1-(1-\lambda)\alpha}$. It is possible to make a correlation between
 5 this straight line and the experimental data obtained by DSC scans and determine the λ value assuring
 6 the best R^2 coefficient. In the present case a very good correlation between the experimental data and
 7 the model has been obtained (R^2 of 0.992) for a λ of 0.342. The other parameters obtained using the
 8 DSC analysis are summarized in Table 2, while the Di Benedetto's plot presenting the evolution of the
 9 T_g with the degree of cure is presented in Figure 5.



10

11

Figure 5. Di Benedetto's plot of the PB270i/SD2630 epoxy system.

Parameter	Value
ΔH_{tot}	322.4 (± 21.1) J/g
T_{g0}	-35.6 (± 1.0) °C (237.5 K)
$T_{g\infty}$	119.4 (± 3.6) °C (392.4 K)
λ	0.342

12

Table 2 Overall heat of reaction and Di Benedetto's parameters.

13

3.2 Cure kinetics modelling

14

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Cure kinetic modelling represents an essential step in the analysis of the processing of the epoxy foam: it allows estimating the evolution of the degree of cure of the system, and associate it with the different phenomena involved as gelation, vitrification, viscosity evolution and so on [46], [47]. In the literature two main identification methods of the reaction mechanisms of a chemical system are proposed: the isothermal analysis [48]–[54] and the isoconversional analysis [55]–[59]. Although the

1 isoconversional methods are very promising for the study of complex systems with several
2 heterogeneous reactions involved, they are quite complex and very difficult to fit with isothermal data.

3 For this reason, the authors have used a more classical isothermal approach, composed of a series of
4 isothermal DSC scans, where the temperatures are chosen in order to constitute a representative range
5 for the reaction kinetics, previously analysed through different dynamic scans. A reaction model has to
6 be chosen and numerically fitted with the isothermal DSC curves in order to obtain the kinetic constants
7 and the reaction orders of the reaction. Among the wide variety of reaction models available in the
8 literature [59], a typical phenomenological one used for epoxy systems has been proposed by Kamal
9 and Sourour [60]. This model; composed of two kinetic constants (k_1 and k_2) and two reaction orders
10 (n , m), represents quite well the autocatalytic and catalytic reaction mechanisms involved within the
11 epoxy-amine chemical reaction. The equations of the model are the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\alpha}{dt} &= (k_1 + k_2\alpha^m)(1 - \alpha)^n \\ k_i(T) &= k_{0i} \exp\left(\frac{-E_{0i}}{RT}\right) \quad i = 1, 2 \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

13 This method generally neglects the thermal history during the heating rate that precedes the isothermal
14 step of the analysis [53]. This initial ramp generates an initial degree of cure of the system α_0 that has
15 to be considered especially for high temperature isotherms. The initial heating rate has two main effects
16 influencing the initial degree of cure of the sample: first the advancement of the reaction, directly
17 correlated to the thermal history of the sample before the isothermal step (direct effect); second an
18 indirect effect upon the DSC curve itself, which does not allow to exploit the whole curve due to the C_p
19 evolution during the dynamic scan. This second effect is more pronounced for higher temperature, where
20 the initial degree of cure of the sample will be much higher. Besides all these aspects, this parameter α_0
21 can be easily obtained from two parameters: the isothermal DSC scan itself and the degree of cure at the
22 end of the isotherm, obtained as previously explained from equation (2). The following equations hold:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0 = \alpha(t_0) &= \alpha_f - \frac{\int_{t_0}^{t_f} H dt}{H_{tot}} \\ \alpha_f = \alpha(t_f) &= 1 - \frac{\Delta H_{res}}{\Delta H_{tot}} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

24 where t_0 and t_f are respectively the starting and end times of the isothermal step. The introduction of
25 the α_f parameter is necessary to consider the final degree of cure at the end of the isothermal step. When
26 the isothermal step is long enough to complete the reaction, the α_f matches the maximum degree of cure
27 at that specific isotherm (α_{max}). This third parameter is used to deal with the diffusion phenomena
28 taking place when the glass transition temperature of the system attain the testing temperature [49], [50]
29 and vitrification of the sample occurs. A first estimation of this parameter can be performed using the
30 Di Benedetto's formula presented above in the text, although it is generally directly obtained from
31 experimental DSC data [61]. In the present case the parameters α_f and α_{max} are considered as

1 equivalent and a trend for α_{max} is defined in order to take into account the diffusion-controlled zone.
 2 By considering these proposed modifications on the modified Kamal-Sourour model, the following
 3 relation is obtained:

$$4 \quad \frac{d\alpha}{dt} = (k_1 + k_2\alpha^m)(\alpha_{max} - \alpha)^n \quad (7)$$

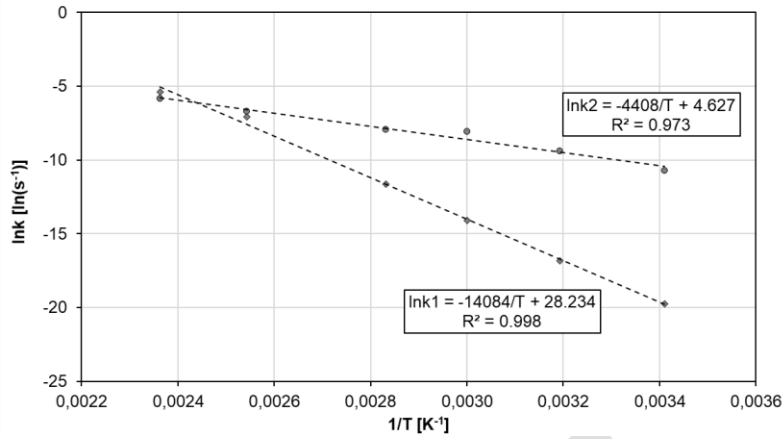
5 Once the model is fit with the different isothermal scans, it is possible to plot the natural logarithm of
 6 the two kinetic constants as a function of the reciprocal of the temperature (1/T). From this Arrhenius
 7 plot it is possible to identify the activation energy (the slope is $-E_a/R$, with $R = 8.3144 \text{ Jmol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$) and
 8 the pre-exponential factor as the intercept of the line. The reaction orders m and n are averaged or
 9 eventually linearly fitted with a regression line, depending on their evolution with regard to the testing
 10 temperature.

11 In the present study the isothermal scans have been performed on a very wide range of temperatures,
 12 from 20°C (293.15 K) up to 150°C (423.15 K), in order to model the reaction kinetics on the whole
 13 range of processing temperatures of the epoxy foam. This wide range of temperature for kinetic
 14 modelling is not very common: indeed, reaction kinetic is generally identified on a very sharp window
 15 of temperatures, in order to represents exclusively the curing process. In the present study, the authors
 16 have decided to extend the temperatures for the identification of the kinetic of the system, in order to
 17 model the polymerization and expansion of the system. In fact, the foaming process takes places at room
 18 temperature (20°C), while the curing of the final product is performed between 40°C and 130°C, as
 19 previously explained in section 2. The kinetic parameters for the different isothermal scans are presented
 20 in Table 3. They are obtained from a direct fit with the experimental DSC curves using a *Nelder-Mead*
 21 simplex direct search algorithm [62], [63], through a *fminsearch* Scilab subroutine.

$t_{cure} (h)$	$T_{cure} (°C)$	k_1	k_2	m	n	α_0	α_{max}
48	20	2.61E-09	2.23E-05	0.12	0.89	0.01	0.66
12	40	4.95E-08	8.29E-05	0.13	1.03	0.03	0.73
8	60	7.45E-07	3.16E-04	0.13	1.15	0.23	0.88
8	80	8.71E-06	3.54E-04	0.11	1.23	0.14	0.96
5	120	8.38E-04	1.20E-03	0.09	1.48	0.42	0.98
5	150	4.50E-03	2.90E-03	0.11	1.70	0.73	1.00

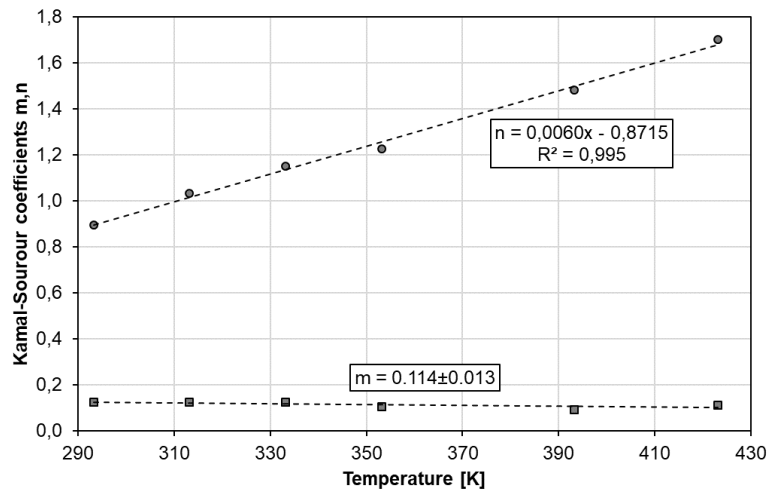
22 **Table 3** Kamal-Sourour parameters for isothermal modelling.

23 These data have been used to obtain the overall parameters of the model as explained above. The two
 24 rate constants k_1 and k_2 (Figure 6) are in very good agreement with the Arrhenius law, with correlation
 25 coefficients of respectively 0.998 and 0.973. Very good correlations have been obtained for the reaction
 26 orders as well (Figure 7). The first autocatalytic reaction order n follows a linear trend with the
 27 temperature, while the catalytic one m is almost constant over the whole temperature range. Concerning
 28 the α_{max} a good linear trend is observed for a temperature ranging from 20°C and 80°C (Figure 8),
 29 while for temperatures higher than 90°C, an extrapolation of the model will be considered and an α_{max}
 30 of 1 will be considered.



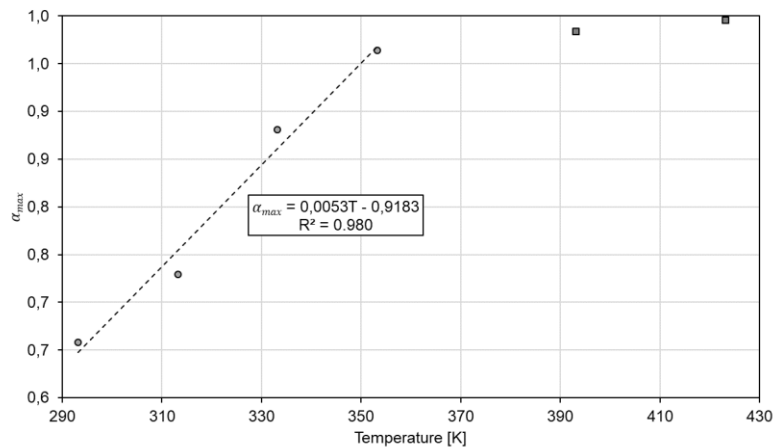
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Figure 6 Arrhenius plot of the two rate constants of the system according to Kamal-Sourour model.



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4

Figure 7 Reaction orders of the Kamal-Sourour model.



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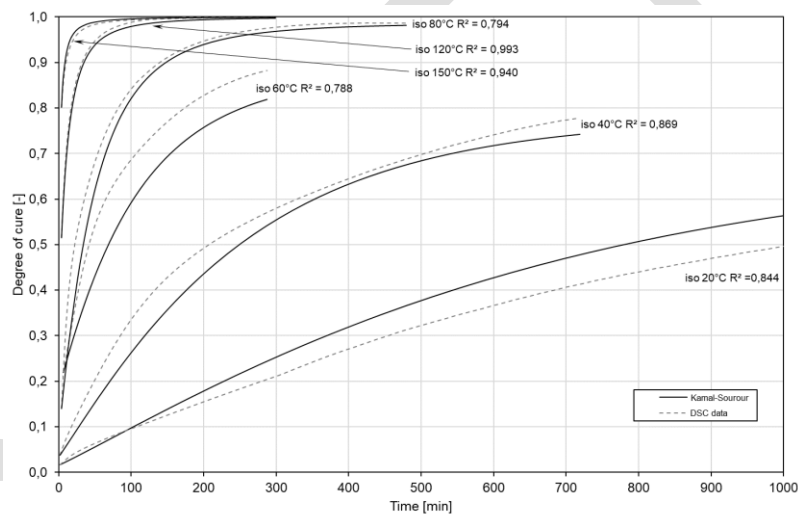
Figure 8 α_{max} evolution for the Kamal-Sourour model.

7 The final parameters of the Kamal-Sourour model obtained in agreement with these data are
8 summarized in Table 4, while the degree of cure fitting with the DSC isothermal and dynamic scans are
9 presented in Figures 9 and 10. The identified Kamal-Sourour model is globally representative of both

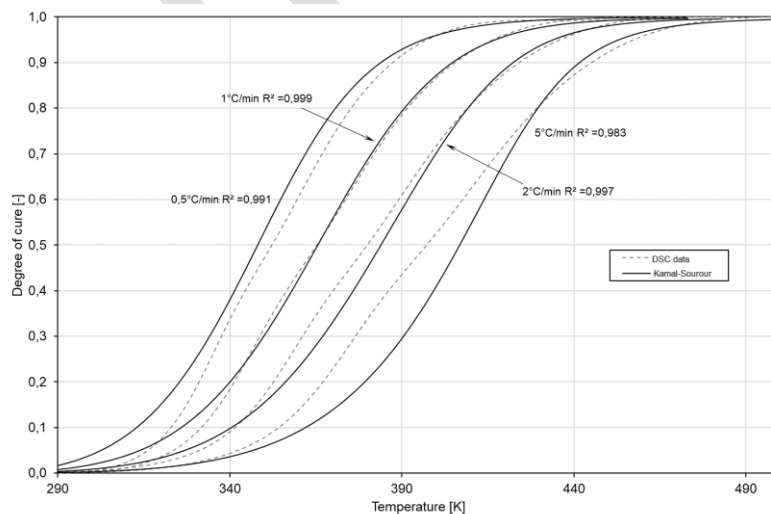
1 isothermal and dynamic conditions, with correlations factors R^2 ranging between 0.788 (iso60°C) and
 2 0.999 (dynamic scan at 1°C/min). Concerning the isothermal conditions, it is possible to notice that the
 3 model is in good agreement with isothermal curves at 120°C and 150°C ($R^2 > 0.94$), while is partially
 4 satisfactory for the other isothermal curves at 20°C, 40°C, 60°C and 80°C (R^2 between 0.788 and 0.869).
 5 Dynamic scans are globally well represented by this model, although the reaction speeds for low reaction
 6 degree (< 0.6) are slightly different from the experimental DSC data. These different trends are globally
 7 dependent from the large spectrum of temperatures used and analysed. However, results are mostly
 8 reliable ($R^2 > 0.8$), and can be considered as representative of the global trend of the material curing.

$$\begin{aligned}
 k_{01} &= 1.83E12 \text{ s}^{-1} & k_{02} &= 1.02E02 \text{ s}^{-1} \\
 E_{01} &= 117.1 \text{ kJ/mol} & E_{02} &= 36.7 \text{ kJ/mol} \\
 m &= 0.114 \pm 0.013 \\
 n &= 0.0060T - 0.8715 \\
 \alpha_{max} &= 0.0052T - 0.8503
 \end{aligned}$$

9 **Table 4** Kamal-Sourour parameters obtained with isothermal identification.



10
 11 **Figure 9** Degree of cure for different isothermal tests from 20°C to 150°C: DSC data vs. Kamal-Sourour model.



12
 13 **Figure 10** Degree of cure for different dynamic tests from 0.5°C/min to 5°C/min: DSC data vs. Kamal-Sourour model.

1 3.3 Chemo-viscosity analysis: gelation and expansion

2 In order to analyse the viscoelastic behaviour of the foam during its processing, a series of dynamic and
3 isothermal rheological tests have been performed under oscillatory conditions, with a frequency of 1 Hz
4 and a strain amplitude of 1% in a plane-plane rheometer with an upper plate diameter of 20 mm. This
5 analysis is commonly performed on thermoset polymers in order to follow the evolution of the complex
6 viscosity ($\bar{\eta}$) and the complex shear modulus (\bar{G}) with temperature and time. According to the classical
7 viscoelastic theory, if a sinusoidal strain $\varepsilon(t)$ with amplitude ε_0 and pulsation ω is applied to the
8 polymer, the system will react with a sinusoidal stress $\tau(t)$, with an amplitude τ_0 and a pulsation ω , that
9 will be shifted with regard to the strain of an angle δ , representing the loss angle. The complex shear
10 modulus and viscosity will then be computed as follow:

$$11 \quad \bar{G}(\omega) = \frac{\bar{\tau}(t)}{\bar{\varepsilon}(t)} = G'(\omega) + iG''(\omega) \quad (8)$$

$$12 \quad \bar{\eta}(\omega) = \frac{\bar{G}(\omega)}{i\omega} \quad (9)$$

13 where the G' and G'' are respectively the storage and loss shear modulus of the system. The viscoelastic
14 analysis of the system consists in the study of the evolution of these two parameters together with the
15 $\tan\delta$ as a function of time or temperature, for respectively isothermal or dynamic conditions. The goal
16 of this analysis is the identification of the gel point of the system, corresponding to an irreversible
17 phenomenon where the thermoset polymer transforms from a viscous liquid to an elastic gel. This point
18 is defined as the moment when the average value of the molecular weight reaches infinity [46], [47],
19 [64]. Once a thermoset has passed its gel point, it cannot be processed as a viscous liquid anymore and
20 for this reason it is an essential parameter for the processing of a thermoset.

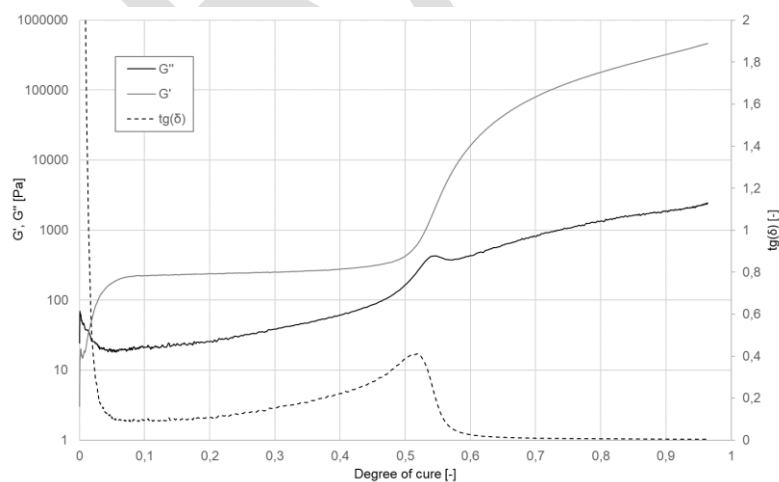
21 It is possible to correlate these parameters with the degree of cure using a kinetic model as the Kamal-
22 Sourour that has been identified in this paper in the previous section. The goal of the viscoelastic analysis
23 is to identify the gel point of the system under different conditions. Several criteria are proposed in the
24 literature to evaluate the gel point for thermoset systems: the crossover of the G' and G'' curves [64][65],
25 the maximum of the $\tan\delta$ curve [66][67] or the point where the $\tan\delta$ is independent from the frequency
26 [68] are the most widely used, although the inflexion of G'' is a reliable method as well [53][66].

27 For a typical thermosetting polymer only one gel point is observed, since it depends only upon the cure
28 kinetics and so on the densification of the molecular bridging of the system. In the present case, however,
29 two phenomena have to be considered within the system: the foaming reaction, taking place in the very
30 first phases of the cure, and the real gelation of the system taking place separately and farther in time if
31 the expansion takes place at room temperature, as it is the case in our study. In analogy with the gelation
32 criteria, it is possible to study the foaming process as well during the viscoelastic analysis, in order to
33 identify a gel point of the foam during the expansion phase of the system. This approach has already

1 been successfully applied to the analysis of a polyurethane foam expansion within a plane-plane
2 rheometer by Bouayard and co-workers [69]. According to their analysis and to several authors in the
3 literature [70]–[75], the foaming process of a thermoset system can be divided into four steps: (i)
4 induction time of degassing reaction, (ii) gas reaction, (iii) polymerization, (iv) consolidation. According
5 to the experiment of Bouayard et al., a well-defined curve profile can be observed at the very beginning
6 of the reaction, with the first three steps that can be clearly observed for a time lower than 150 seconds,
7 while the so defined gel time of the foam, can be clearly identified as the cross-over of the two shear
8 modulus.

9 In the present case, in order to obtain a homogeneous mixture of the two reactants of the system
10 (expandable foam and hardener), the average preparation time of the sample before launching the
11 rheometer tests ranged between 150 and 180 seconds. This preparation time seems to be too long in
12 order to be able to observe the first three steps of the foaming process as described by the authors. For
13 this reason, only the gel point of the system will be considered. In order to clearly separate it from the
14 gel point coming from the curing of the system, this second gel point will be defined here as a *gel foam*
15 *point* or simply *foam point*.

16 In order to analyse both the *foam gel point* (FGP) and the gel point (GP) of the system, first three
17 dynamic tests in a rheometer have been performed using three different heating rates: 1°C/min, 2°C/min
18 and 5°C/min. The two shear modulus G' and G'' and the $\tan\delta$ are presented as a function of the degree
19 of cure, computed according to the Kamal-Sourour model previously identified. Results are very close
20 for the three tests and are presented here for the test performed at 2°C/min.



21

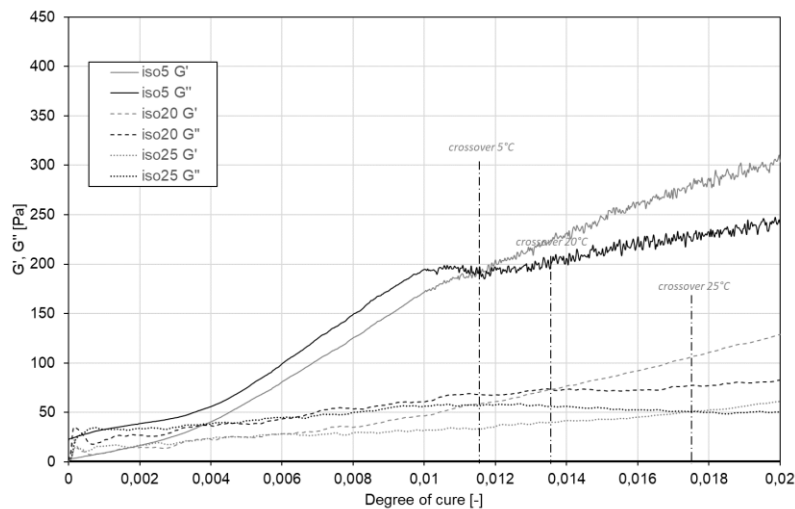
22 **Figure 11** Dynamic scan at 2°C/min in a plane-plane rheometer on the expandable foam: G' and G'' and the $\tan\delta$ are
23 presented as a function of the degree of conversion, calculated with the Kamal-Sourour kinetic model.

24 In all the curves it is possible to identify for a very low degree of conversion (0.014 – 0.016) the cross-
25 over of the G' and G'' moduli, representing the *foam gel point*, while for a higher degree of conversion
26 (0.519 to 0.585) the maximum of the $\tan\delta$ criterion is clearly presenting the *curing gel point* of the
27 sample. Results for the three heating rates are summarized in Table 5.

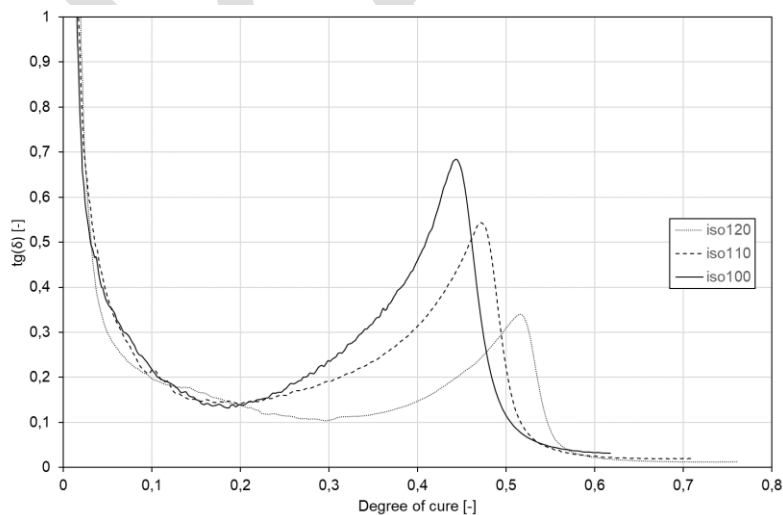
Heating rate (°C/min)	$\alpha_{\text{foam gel}}$	$T_{\text{foam gel}} [^{\circ}\text{C}]$	α_{gel}	$T_{\text{gel}} [^{\circ}\text{C}]$
1	0.015	30.7	0.554	95.8
2	0.014	37.2	0.519	111.3
5	0.016	51.8	0.585	138.6

1 **Table 5** Dynamic rheology tests: foam gel and curing gel points.

2 According to the dynamic tests, some temperatures have been selected to perform the isothermal scans
3 under the same configurations (plane-plane oscillation, 1 Hz and 1% of amplitude). Two groups of tests
4 have been performed in order to analyse the foam gel point (5 to 25°C) and gel point (100-120°C):
5 results of these isothermal tests are presented in Figures 12 and 13 and summarized in Table 6.



6
7 **Figure 12** G' / G'' crossover for the three expansion tests performed within the rheometer at 5°C, 20°C and 25°C.



8
9 **Figure 13** $\text{Tan}\delta$ evolution for isothermal tests at 100°C, 110°C and 120°C for the identification of the gel point of the
10 system.

11 Figure 12 shows the crossover of G' and G'' as a function of the degree of cure computed with the
12 Kamal-Sourour model. For a very low degree of cure ($\alpha < 0.02$) and temperatures ranging from 5 to
13 25°C, the crossover of the two moduli represents the *gel foam point*, representing the maximum
14 densification of the bubbles within the foam. This analysis will be confirmed in the next session using

1 optical microscopy and a dedicated set-up developed to evaluate the expansion dynamic at room
2 temperature.

3 In order to perform a gelation analysis at higher degree of cure and temperatures ($\alpha > 0.2$, temperatures
4 ranging between 100°C and 120°C) a G'/G'' crossover criterion is generally used. However, in this
5 particular case, the previously mentioned criterion cannot be directly applied due to the crossover
6 occurring during the foaming phase, resulting in G'' constantly being lower than G' . This is a direct
7 result of the porous structure that is created during bubble networking. To determine the gel point of the
8 polymer, an alternative and effective criterion is often used in the literature based on the inflexion of the
9 G'' modulus [53], [66]. Figure 11 demonstrates how the G'' inflexion corresponds to a clear maximum
10 in the $\tan\delta$. This criterion has been ultimately utilized as the gelation criterion in Figure 13. Results of
11 both analysis (foam gel point and gel point) are summarized in Table 6.

T [°C]	$\alpha_{foam\ gel}$	$t_{foam\ gel}$ [min]	α_{gel}	t_{gel} [min]
5	0.012	45.8		
20	0.014	22.7		
25	0.018	21.1		
100			0.494	24.6
110			0.559	22.5
120			0.644	21.5

12 **Table 6** Isotherm rheology tests: foam gel and curing gel points.

13 Data obtained under both isothermal and dynamic conditions are very consistent and an average value
14 has been computed for both foam gel and gel points, with an average error of respectively 13.9% and
15 9.4%:

$$\alpha_{foam\ gel} = 0.014 \pm 0.002$$

$$\alpha_{gel} = 0.559 \pm 0.052$$

18 3.4 Macroscopic expansion analysis

19 In order to confirm the expansion kinetics observed in the rheometer, a second experimental set-up has
20 been used to evaluate the macroscopic behaviour of the foam during its expansion. To do so, the foam
21 has been placed in a closed and known volume of air right after mixing. The volume of air is previously
22 measured and the whole system is sealed and connected to a pressure sensor (*Inficom CDG*), capable of
23 measuring very small variation of pressure. In accordance to the perfect gas law, in a closed volume and
24 under isothermal quasi-static conditions, the following relation holds [76] :

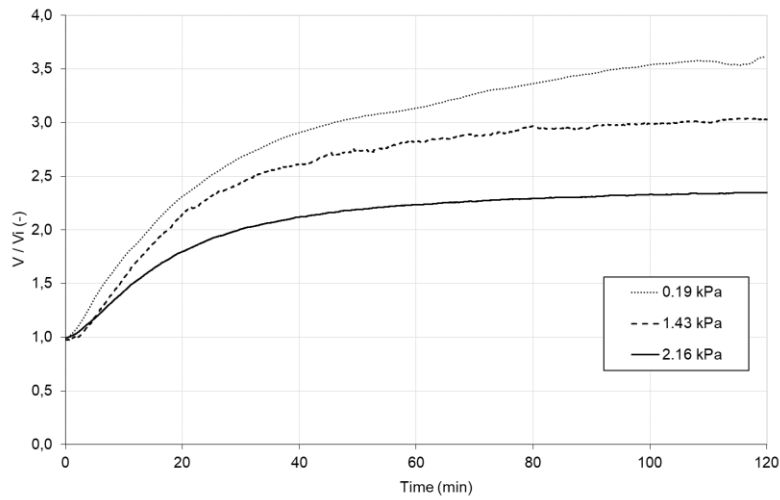
$$25 \quad p_0 V_0 = pV \quad (10)$$

26 where p and V stand for pressure and volume respectively. The index 0 stands for the initial conditions,
27 while the values without index represent values as function of time. For instance, once the initial
28 conditions (pressure and volume) are known, it is possible to compute in real time the exact volume
29 from equation (10) simply reading the value of the chamber pressure as a function of time.

1 In order to be representative of a free expansion at constant pressure in air, the volume has to be very
 2 important in order to have a very limited pressure increase and a neglecting effect on the expansion
 3 dynamic. In order to identify the volume assuring these conditions, three different volumes have been
 4 tested using air balloons with different sizes, generating three different pressure increases on the foaming
 5 sample. All the experiments have been performed at $22 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and $1008 \pm 4 \text{ kPa}$ of initial pressure. The
 6 results are summarized in the following table and presented in Figure 14.

Volume (cm^3)	Pressure increase (kPa)	Expansion ratio at 120 min
1395	2.16	2.35
3290	1.43	3.12
29780	0.19	3.59

7 **Table 7:** Results of the foam expansion in close volume.



8 **Figure 14:** Expansion ratio vs. time for the three experiments performed.

9 It is interesting to notice that for a volume of around 30000 cm^3 , the pressure increases of only 0.19 kPa .
 10 A further increase of the volume would generate an even smaller pressure increase, but it would be
 11 difficult to measure with the sensor used in the study. For this reason, this volume has been used for the
 12 following expansion analysis. The expansion curve obtained under these conditions can be fitted with
 13 an n^{th} order kinetic model [77], represented by the following equations:
 14

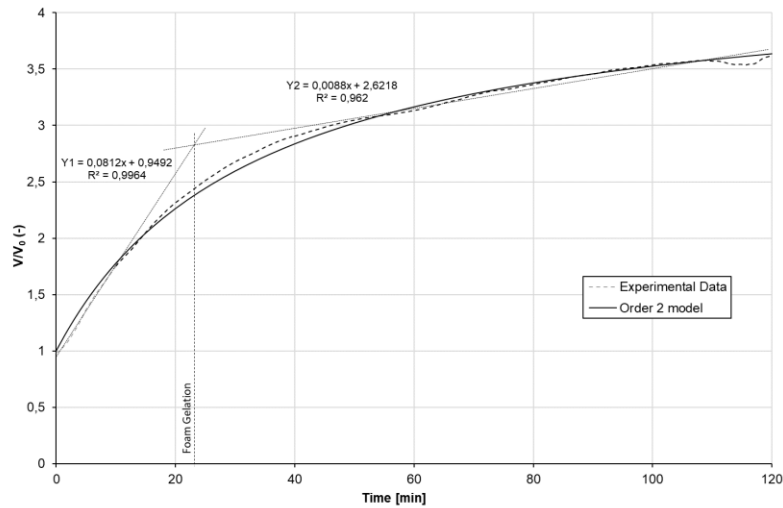
$$15 \quad \frac{d\beta}{dt} = k(1 - \beta)^n \quad (11)$$

$$16 \quad \beta = \frac{X - X_0}{X_f - X_0} \quad (12)$$

17 Where X represents the expansion ratio (V/V_0) at different instant during the test: X is the real time
 18 value, X_0 is the value at the beginning of the test and its equal to the unity, and X_f is the expansion ratio
 19 at the of the test. In this case, it has been supposed that the final expansion ratio is equal to the value
 20 obtained for a full expansion of the foam and a final density of 0.27 g/cc . This value has been measured
 21 on a fully cured foam, presented in the following, and are in agreement with that supplied by the foam

1 producer. This equivalent expansion ratio corresponding to the foam final density is of 4.37. The β value
2 represents the degree of conversion of the expansion reaction: for $\beta = 0$ the expansion ratio is equal to
3 unity ($X_0=1$), while for $\beta = 1$ the expansion ratio is equal to $X_f = 4.37$.

4 Under these conditions, the kinetic constant k of equation (11) has a value of $5.0E-4$, while the reaction
5 order n has a value of 2. The model and the experiment are both presented in Figure 15. An inflexion
6 point of the curves at 22 minutes can be determined from the crossing of the two linear regions ($t < 10$
7 minutes and $t > 40$ minutes). Using the Kamal-Sourour model identified in section 3.2, it is possible to
8 compute as well the degree of conversion (α) of the polymerization reaction, which is 0.016, in very
9 good agreement with the $\alpha_{foam\ gel}$ value (0.014 ± 0.002) obtained from the chemo-viscosity analysis as
10 the crossing point between G' and G'' . This result highlights a very interesting accordance between the
11 two analysis (chemo-rheology and macroscopic expansion kinetic), confirming the good approach used
12 in the study.



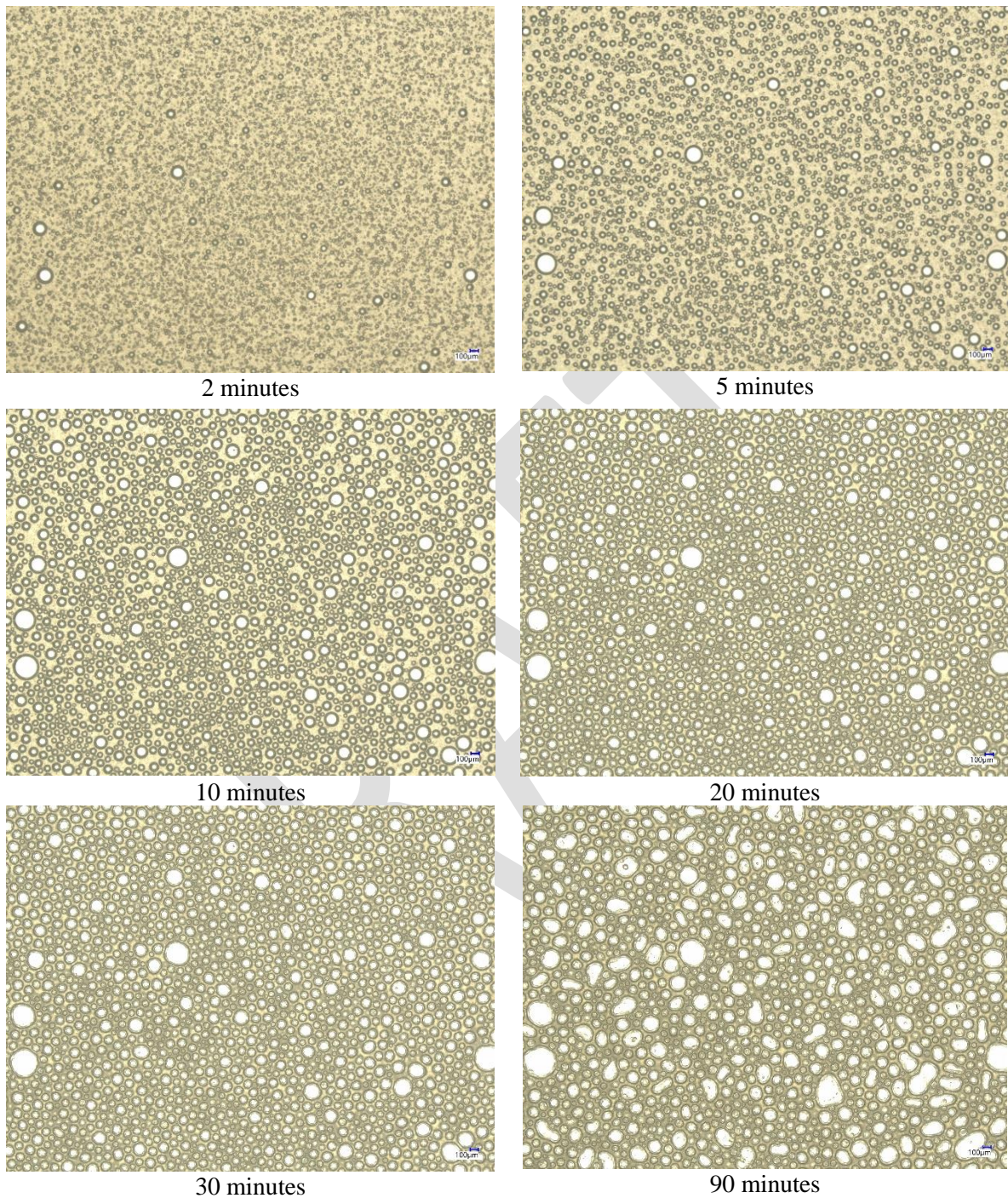
13

14

Figure 15: Foam expansion in a closed volume: experiment vs. modelling.

15 The process has been observed as well using a VHX7000 Keyence microscope with an objective VHX-
16 E20 (x50 magnification), using a transmission light configuration. After a mixing time of 1'30", the
17 foam has been placed on a standard microscope slide covered with a cover glass slip, in order to obtain
18 a thin foam layer, enhancing the sharpness of the image and facilitate the identification of the bubbles.
19 Images have been taken right after the mixing from 2 minutes to 90 minutes. The whole time-lapse is
20 reported in Figure 16. Bubble nucleation takes place right after mixing, when the CBA reacts with the
21 amine hardener. This phenomenon is clearly visible in the first image obtained 2 minutes after mixing.
22 Bubble growth seems to be very fast before the foam gelation ($t < 22'$), strongly slowing down in the
23 following ($t > 22'$), when bubble density has reached its maximum. In this first phase, bubbles
24 coalescence does not seem to be a relevant phenomenon. However, for much longer times ($30' < t <$
25 $90'$), coalescence of the biggest bubbles is visible, when the bubbles clearly show a deviation from their
26 initial circular form. These images confirm again that the maximum bubble growth is attained at the

- 1 foam gelation point (between 20 and 30' in this case), in agreement with both rheological and expansion
- 2 tests.

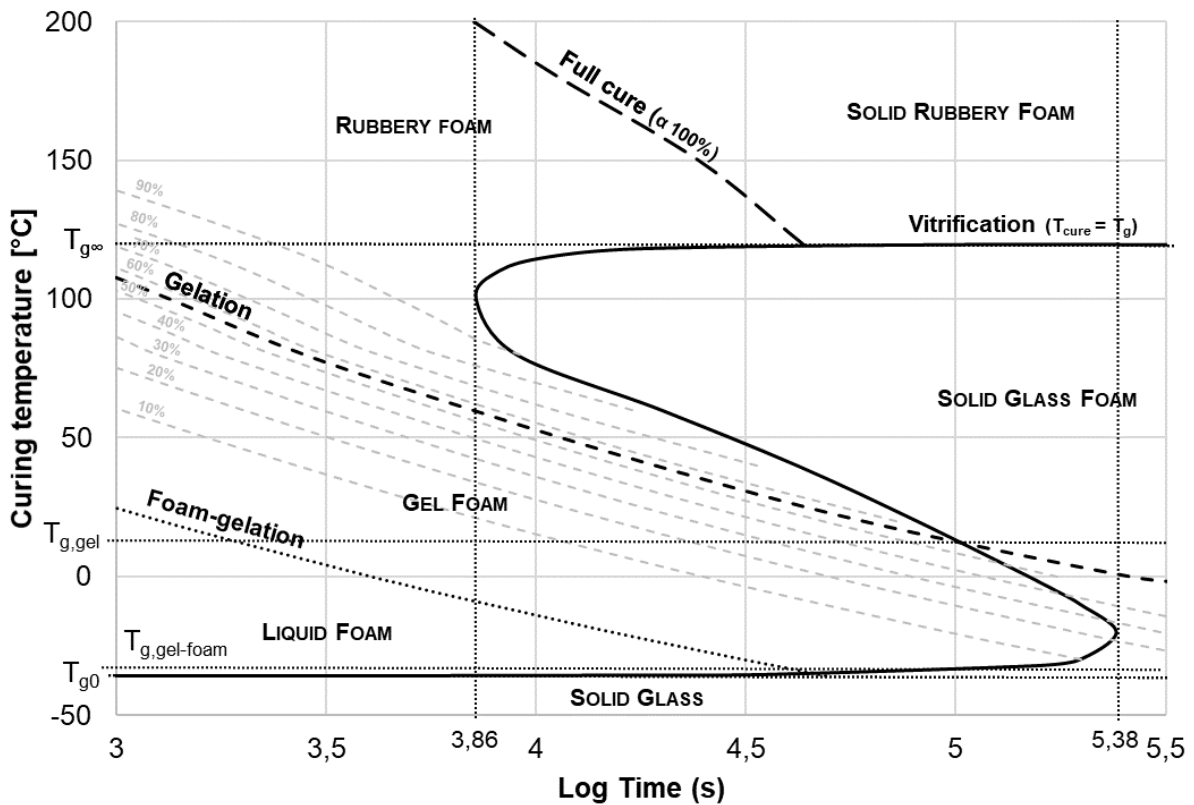


3 **Figure 16:** Foaming time-lapse using Keyence microscope.

4 3.5 TTT isothermal diagrams

5 Using the results obtained in the previous sections concerning the Di Benedetto equation for vitrification
6 (Table 2), the Kamal-Sourour reaction kinetics model (Table 4) and the results of the chemo-viscosity
7 analysis on the foam-gel and gel points (Table 6), it is possible to plot the TTT (Time-Temperature-
8 Transformation) diagram of the system (Figure 17). The diagram presents the curves corresponding to

1 the different transformation taking place in this specific thermoset system, with on the Y axis the curing
 2 temperature and on the X axis the logarithm base 10 of the time. The t_0 of the diagram corresponds to
 3 the mixing time of the PB270i with its SD 2630 hardener. The four main curves presented are the foam-
 4 gelation curve, the gelation curve, the full curing curve and vitrification curve for this specific system.
 5 The curves corresponding to the different degrees of cure (10% to 90%) are presented in grey. According
 6 to the classical theory for TTT diagrams presented by Gillham [47], it is possible to define several
 7 physical states for the system considering Figure 17, described by several characteristic points
 8 summarized in Table 8.



9
 10 **Figure 17:** TTT diagram of the PB270i – SD2630 system.

<i>Characteristic phenomenon</i>	<i>Temperature (°C)</i>	<i>Time (hours)</i>
T_{g0}	-35.6	t_0
$T_{g,foam-gel}$	-34.9	11.1
Tangent 1	-20.0	66.6
$T_{g,gel}$	11.2	27.8
Tangent 2	100.0	2.0
$T_{g∞}$	119.4	-

11 **Table 8:** Characteristic temperatures and times of the system.

12 The processing parameters obtained for the foam and used to plot the TTT diagrams presented in Figure
 13 17 are summarized in the following table.

14

Processing modelling	
<i>Cure kinetics (Kamal-Sourour model)</i>	
$k_{01}=1.83E12 \text{ s}^{-1}$	$k_{02}=1.02E02 \text{ s}^{-1}$
$E_{01}=117.1 \text{ kJ/mol}$	$E_{02}=36.7 \text{ kJ/mol}$
$m = 0.114 \pm 0.013$	
$n = 0.0060T - 0.8715$	
$\alpha_{max} = 0.0052T - 0.8503$	
<i>Expansion kinetics at 20°C (2nd order model)</i>	
$k=5.0E-4 \text{ s}^{-1}$	
$n=2$	
<i>Gelification and expansion</i>	
$\alpha_{foam\ gel} = 0.014 \pm 0.002$	
$\alpha_{gel} = 0.559 \pm 0.052$	
<i>Vitrification (Di Benedetto's equation)</i>	
$\Delta H_{tot}: 322.4 (\pm 21.1) \text{ J/g}$	
$T_{g0}: -35.6 (\pm 1.0) \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	
$T_{g\infty}: 119.4 (\pm 3.6)$	
$\lambda: 0.342$	

Table 9: Characteristic temperatures and times of the system.

3.6 Curing cycle selection for bulk material characterization

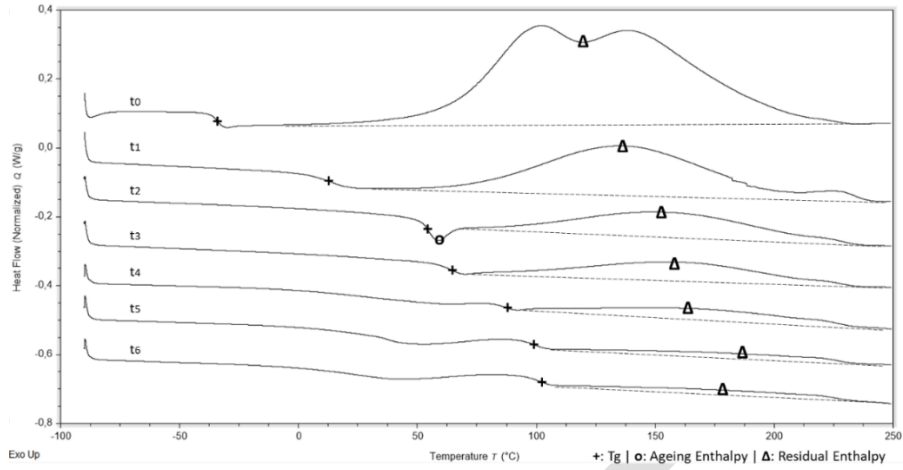
Using the parameters identified in the previous section, it is possible to evaluate the theoretical evolution of the degree of reaction, glass transition temperature and expansion ratio during a typical curing cycle of the foam. The curing cycle selected for the following analysis of the cured foam, represents a compromise in order to obtain the highest expansion ratio at the end of the cure along with the highest T_g value, in agreement with the supplier recommendation. It is composed of several steps at different temperatures as follows:

24 h at 20°C, 24 h at 40°C, 2h at 60°C, 2h at 85°C, 2h at 110°C and 2h at 130°C.

In order to evaluate the parameters evolution during this specific cycle and compare their evolution with their prediction from the model, a foam specimen has been submitted to the complete cycle in an oven. At the end of each temperature step, a sample was extracted and characterized using DSC analysis: during a first sweep (5°C/min from -90°C to 250°C) the residual enthalpy of reaction and the glass transition temperature of the specimen are measured; during a second sweep (10°C/min from 20°C to 250°C) the eventual endothermal enthalpy of ageing and the T_{g∞} of the system are measured. The results of the DSC analysis are presented in Figure 18 and their comparison with the kinetic modelling are summarized in Table 10.

The first step at 20°C is used mainly to reach the final degree of expansion proposed by the supplier. Using the expansion kinetics model, the degree of expansion at the end of this first step corresponds to 4.29, with a foam density of 0.275 g/cm³, very close to the final value of 0.270 g/cm³.

Considering the results obtained from the kinetic modelling for the curing process, they are globally in good agreement with the DSC experiments for the steps performed at 20°C, 40°C and 60°C. The modelling results are more diverging from the experiments performed on the last three steps at 85°C, 110°C and 130°C.



1

2 **Figure 18:** DSC scans at the beginning of the curing (t_0) and after the different curing step of the epoxy foam (t_1 to t_6).

<i>Step name</i>	t_1	t_2	t_3	t_4	t_5	t_6	
Temperature (°C)	20	40	60	85	110	130	
Duration (hours)	24	24	2	2	2	2	
Degree of cure α	<i>Measured*</i>	0.543	0.771	0.822	0.902	0.962	0.965
	<i>Model</i>	0.630	0.778	0.839	0.949	0.983	0.996
	<i>Relative error</i>	0.087	0.007	0.017	0.047	0.021	0.031
T_g (°C)	<i>Measured*</i>	13.0	54.3	63.5	85.0	95.9	100.0
	<i>Model</i>	21.5	48.9	63.6	98.3	111.9	117.7
	<i>Relative error</i>	8.5	5.4	0.1	13.3	16.1	17.7
Residual Enthalpy of reaction (J/g)*	147.3	73.8	57.4	31.6	12.4	11.2	
Ageing Enthalpy (J/g)	0.0	7.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
T_{g∞} (°C)**	110.2	116.4	115.2	117.7	118.1	119.4	

3

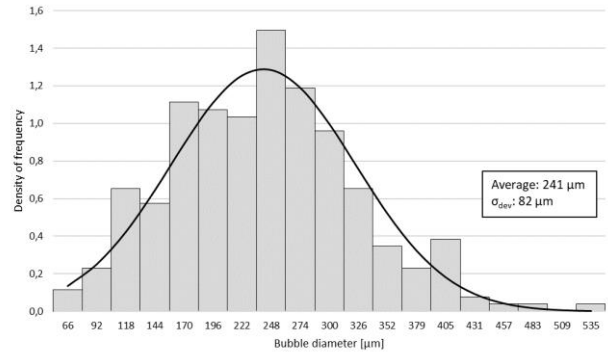
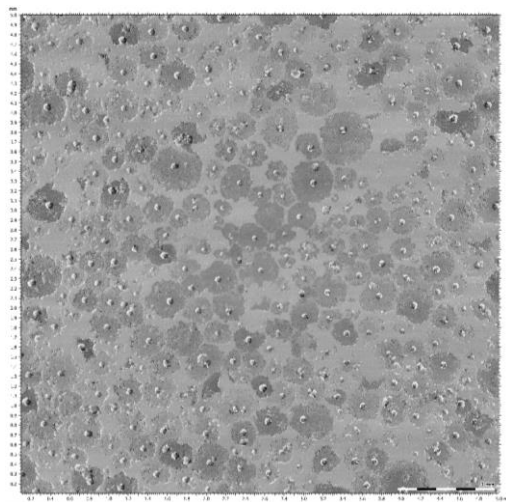
Table 10: Curing cycle: experiment vs. modelling (* 1st sweep at 5°C/min, ** 2nd sweep at 10°C/min).

4

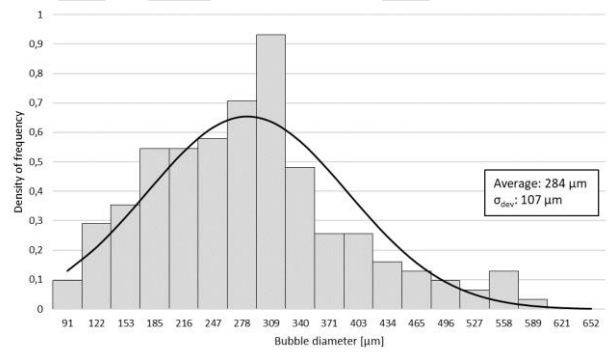
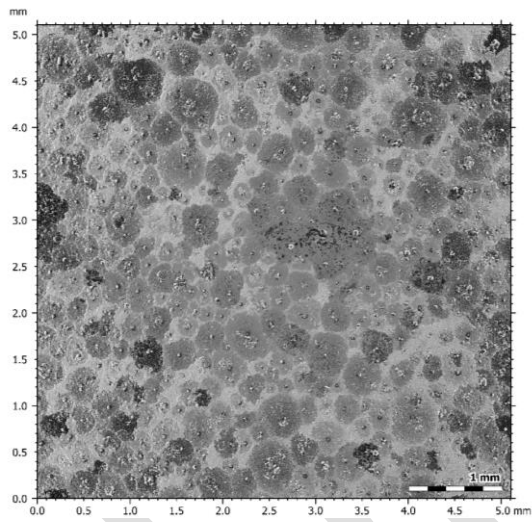
5 This tendency can be mainly associated to the fact that a unique kinetic model has been chosen to
6 describe the whole curing process from 20°C to 130°C. This choice creates an average representation
7 of the different kinetics (expansion and curing) of the system and seems to affect much more the last
8 steps of the curing process at higher temperature ($T > 85^\circ\text{C}$). In addition, the vitrification phenomenon
9 has been described using a α_{\max} linearly dependent from the temperature. This simplification seems to
10 affect in particular the higher curing temperatures, where the T_g of the system is very close to the
11 vitrification curve and so more affected by the diffusion-controlled kinetics. In addition, the Di
12 Benedetto model presents a very important variation of the T_g with the degree of cure when the system
13 approaches the $T_{g\infty}$. All these elements contribute on the final mismatch observed between the model
14 and the experiments. The final degree of conversion measured for the system obtained using DSC scan
15 is 0.965 (0.996 from the kinetic modelling), while the final T_g of the system is 100.0°C (117.7°C from
16 the modelling). In order to improve the system kinetic modelling, a more accurate diffusion-controlled
17 kinetics would be necessary instead of a simple α_{\max} linear dependence from the temperature. This
improvement would require more isothermal tests and won't be considered in the present study.

1 **4. Material characterization after curing**

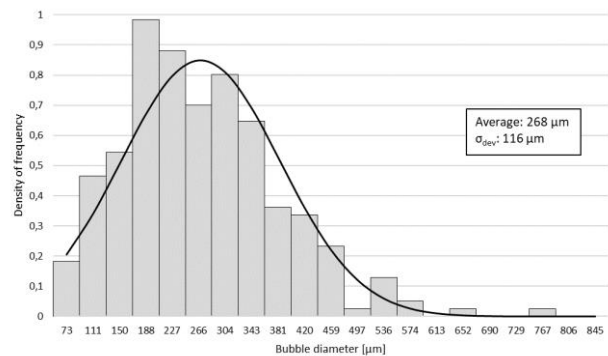
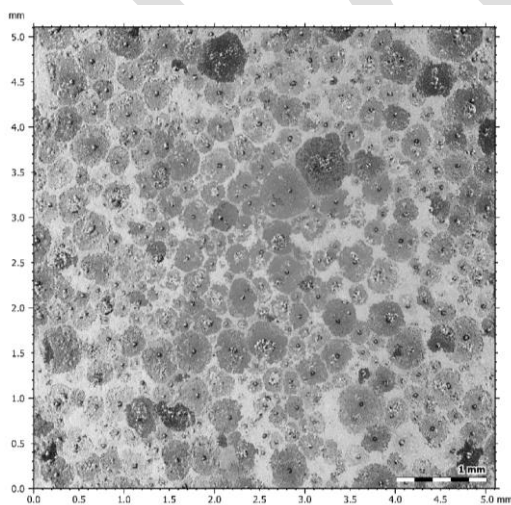
2 **4.1 Microstructure, density and static mechanical analysis**



Sample A



Sample B



Sample C

3 **Figure 19: Microstructure of the bubbles obtained on three different samples cured with the cycle presented above.**

1 In order to analyse the microstructure obtained with the selected curing cycle described in the previous
2 section, several images have been taken and analysed using a laser confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM800)
3 with a magnification of $2.5x$ (Numerical Aperture 0.085, type *EC Plan Neofluar*, Working Distance 8.8
4 mm). The images are presented in Figure 19, with three different samples (A, B and C) cured with the
5 same cycle presented in the previous section. Each micrograph (on the left of the image) is associated
6 with its bubble statistical size analysis (on the right), with a normal distribution described by the average
7 bubble size and its standard deviation.

8 In the three images, bubbles are clearly visible in dark grey, with the clearer zones representing the
9 epoxy resin. At the centre of each bubble it is possible to notice a darker zone representing the original
10 nucleus of the bubble, generated by the reaction of the CBA with the amine hardener. These nuclei
11 present an average diameter of around $41 \pm 7 \mu\text{m}$. After nucleation, two main phenomena drive the
12 expansion process, growth and coalescence of the bubbles, as largely described in the literature [22].

13 Using the open-source *ImageJ* software and its *ROI Manager tool*, images have been analysed and
14 bubbles have been characterized by their equivalent diameter. The data have been collected and
15 modelled using a classical normal Gauss distribution. The parameters obtained for the three images are
16 summarized in the following table. An average bubble size of $264 \pm 102 \mu\text{m}$ is obtained.

<i>Sample</i>	<i>Average (μm)</i>	<i>σ_{dev} (μm)</i>	<i>Bubbles counted</i>
Sample A	241	82	267
Sample B	284	107	176
Sample C	268	116	247

17 **Table 11:** Results for the three samples analysed using the confocal microscope.

18 Apparent density of the samples has been measured as well, as the ratio between the mass and the
19 apparent volume. For this purpose, ten different cubes have been developed and cured with the same
20 curing cycle proposed above. A value of $0.272 \pm 0.007 \text{ g/cm}^3$ has been obtained, in agreement with the
21 supplier datasheet (final density 0.270 g/cm^3).

22 *4.2 Material mechanical static and dynamic analysis*

23 Considering the foam as an isotropic material, the static mechanical properties of the foam have been
24 characterized through quasi-static tests on a standard hydraulic machine *Instron* equipped with a load
25 cell of 10 kN. Two different tests have been carried out in order to identify the static Young and shear
26 modulus E and G , respectively, and the Poisson ratio of the foam. For the Young modulus determination,
27 cubes of around 20 mm x 20 mm x 20 mm have been submitted to compression loads with a
28 displacement rate of 0.5 mm/min. An average value of 165 MPa for the Young modulus is determined
29 through these tests.

30 Concerning the shear modulus evaluation, the material has been tested using a quad-shearing test with
31 four samples assembled as presented in Figure 20. The material specimens consist in a parallelepiped

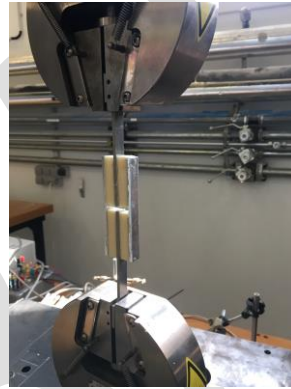
1 with transverse section of 100 mm² (10 mm x 10 mm) and length of 40 mm. The samples have been
2 glued on the aluminium support using a classical *Loctite epoxy glue*. The average shear modulus
3 obtained has a value of 61 GPa. Using the classical relationship between the Young modulus and the
4 shear modulus, it is possible to finally compute the Poisson ratio of the material from the following
5 equation.

$$6 \quad \nu = \frac{E}{2G} - 1 \quad (13)$$

7 The value obtained for the Poisson's ratio of the foam is 0.35. The mechanical properties of the foam
8 determined with quasi-static tests are summarized in Table 12.

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Value</i>
<i>E</i>	165 MPa
<i>G</i>	61 MPa
<i>ν</i>	0.35

9 **Table 12:** Mechanical properties of the foam under quasi-static conditions.



10
11 **Figure 20:** Quad-shearing test on the foam.

12 In order to evaluate the viscoelastic behaviour of the foam developed above, Dynamic Mechanical
13 Analysis (DMA) under compression conditions have been carried out on a *Metravib DMA+1000*
14 machine, using prismatic samples with a transversal section of 100 mm² (10 mm x 10 mm) and a length
15 of 40 mm. Both form factor and stiffness of the samples are in agreement with the requirements specified
16 by the machine's technical data sheet. This analysis is important in order to evaluate the viscoelastic
17 intrinsic material properties of the foam, which are directly affected by the environmental and
18 operational conditions and thus conditioning the structural response of the material during its life-cycle.
19 For instance, in order to fully understand the material behaviour and evaluate a precise vibrational
20 prediction of the industrial functionalized structures that would be developed with the PB270i foam, the
21 evolution of the storage and dissipative modulus are investigated with regard to frequency and
22 temperature domains.

23 A first iso-frequency analysis is performed in order to identify T_{α} of the material, representing the
24 temperature at which the material loses its mechanical properties. The imposed mono-harmonic

1 deformation has the form of $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_m \cos(2 \pi f t)$, with amplitude $\varepsilon_m = 0.05 \%$ and frequency $f = 50$
 2 Hz, within a temperature range from 110°C to 180°C and a heating temperature rate of $2^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$. The
 3 dynamic stress $\sigma(t)$ is computed through the measured dynamic force ($\sigma(t) = F/S$, F being the
 4 measured dynamic force and S the cross-section area of the specimen). The storage modulus ($E' =$
 5 $\frac{\sigma(t)}{\varepsilon(t)} \cos\delta$), the loss modulus ($E''(t) = \frac{\sigma(t)}{\varepsilon(t)} \sin\delta$) and the loss factor ($\tan\delta = E''/E'$) can then be
 6 computed. E' and $\tan\delta$ are presented in Figure 21. The T_α of the material obtained under these
 7 conditions has a value of 147°C if the peak of the loss factor ($\tan\delta$) is considered. A loss factor of
 8 around 0.9 and a decrease of the storage modulus from 100 to 1 MPa is observed as well during the
 9 thermal transition. It is interesting to notice that this parameter T_α is quite different from the T_g measured
 10 using DSC analysis, which corresponds mainly to a C_p (Specific Heat) changing within the material
 11 more than a real mechanical property. Indeed, T_α is more than 30°C higher than the $T_{g\infty}$, which according
 12 to the DSC analysis represents the highest glass transition temperature attainable for this material. The
 13 difference observed between the two techniques is rather usual [78] and arises directly from the different
 14 principles and sensitivities of the two equipments used, along with the different masses, sample
 15 geometries, heating rates and frequency involved.

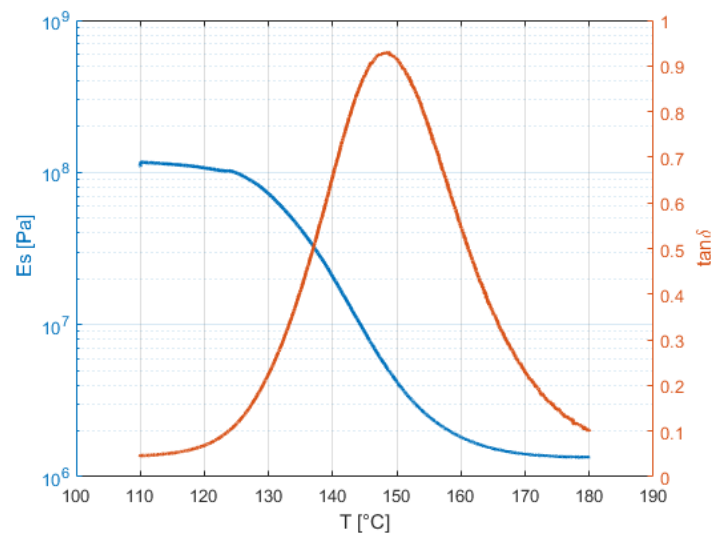


Figure 21: – Storage Modulus and loss factor of the epoxy foam PB 207i with respect to temperature variations

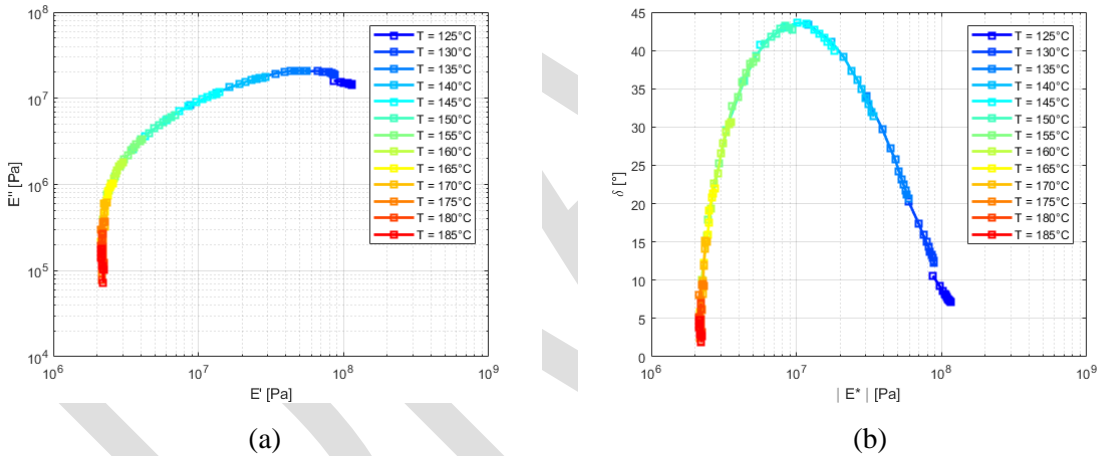
16 4.3 Time-Temperature equivalence and Master curves identification

17 In order to comprehend the evolution of the intrinsic material properties with respect to temperature and
 18 frequency variations, the Time-Temperature equivalence of viscoelastic materials is used to address the
 19 master curves of this foam. These curves are a useful tool to describe the evolution of the viscoelastic
 20 material properties for different range of frequencies (or times) and thus model its response under
 21 solicitations of different nature, frequency and intensity. The principle, first described by Leaderman in
 22 1941 [79], describes how a viscoelastic material presents a similar behaviour if tested at high temperature
 23 and frequencies or at low temperatures and frequencies. The principle is described by the definition of
 24 master curves expressing dynamic variables E' , E'' and $\tan(\delta)$ in the frequency domain. The variables

1 are identified for a limited frequency range and for different temperatures. For this purpose, the simple
 2 thermo-rheological characteristic of the material has to be verified first using two different diagrams:
 3 the Cole-Cole diagram [80] and the Wicket diagram [81], illustrated in Figure 22 a and b, respectively.
 4 The first shows the relation between the loss modulus E'' and the storage modulus E' , while the latter
 5 shows the evolution of the loss angle δ with respect to the norm of the complex elastic modulus $|E^*|$. As
 6 for the rheological analysis previously presented, the loss and storage modulus used in the DMA analysis
 7 are linked with the complex elastic module as follows:

$$8 \quad \bar{E}(\omega) = E'(\omega) + iE''(\omega) \quad (14)$$

9 where ω represents the testing frequency. The above-mentioned diagrams are obtained through
 10 isothermal DMA analyses for a frequency range defined between 10 Hz and 100 Hz with 10 equally
 11 spaced points on a logarithm scale. The temperature range considered is defined within the interval of
 12 125°C and 180°C. The continuity assured on the curves all along the different temperatures guarantees
 13 the simple thermo-rheological characteristic of the foam over the frequency and temperatures range
 14 studied.



15 **Figure 22**– Cole-Cole (a) and Wicket (b) diagrams of Epoxy Foam PB 270i.

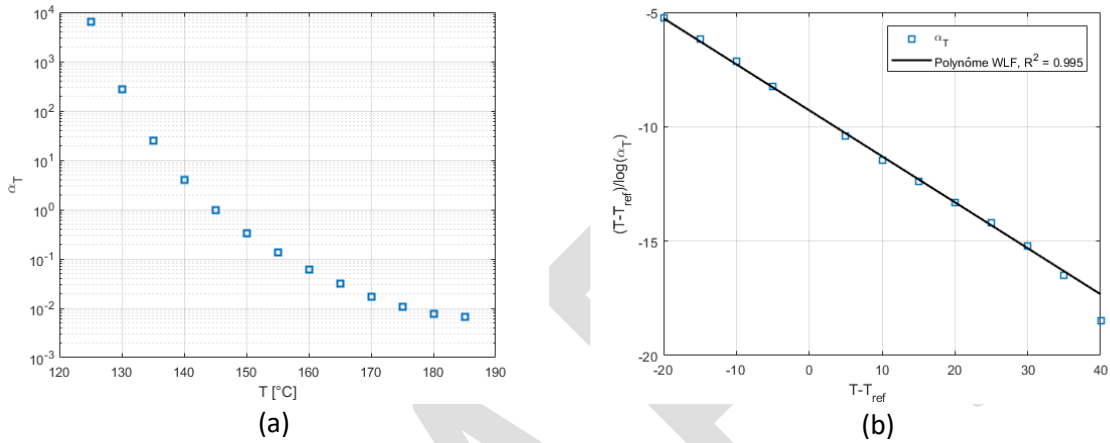
16 The validation of the simple thermo-rheological characteristic done, it is possible to apply the Time-
 17 Temperature equivalence to the material. To do so, a displacement factor α_T associated to the horizontal
 18 translation of the curves E' , E'' and $\tan(\delta)$ versus frequency of each isothermal test is computed using
 19 DYNATEST® software. A reference temperature has to be used for the translation and in the present
 20 case a value of 145°C has been chosen. The evolution of the α_T as a function of the temperature as
 21 directly obtained from the software is presented in Figure 23 a. In order to use this parameter to plot the
 22 master's curves, the parameter has been fit using a Williams-Landel-Ferry (WLF) model according to
 23 the following equation [82]:

$$24 \quad \log(\alpha_T) = \frac{-C_1^{ref}(T-T_{ref})}{C_2^{ref} + (T-T_{ref})} \quad (15)$$

- 1 The parameters obtained from the WLF model fitting with the displacement factor values are presented
- 2 in the following table and allow plotting the curve presented in Figure 23 b.

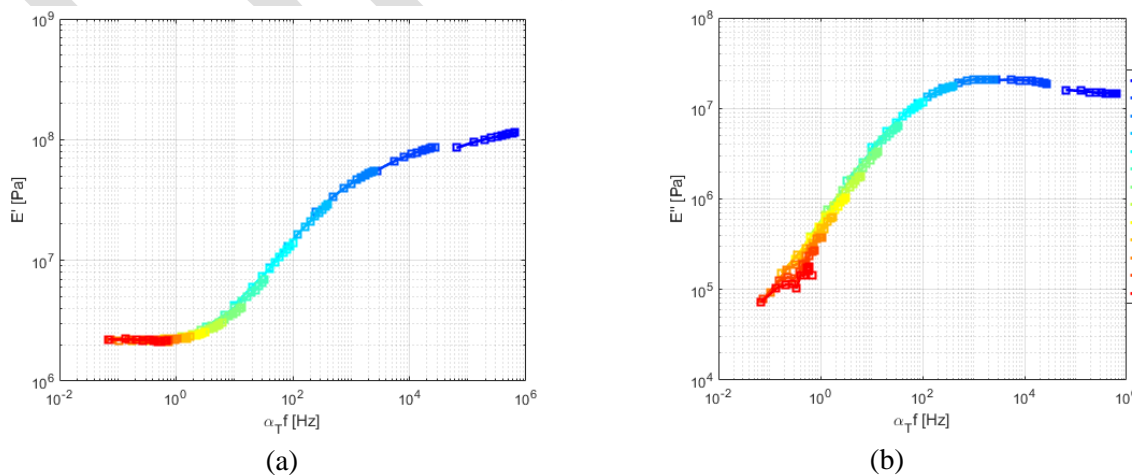
<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Value</i>
T_{ref}	145°C
C_1^{ref}	4.811
C_2^{ref}	44.639 K

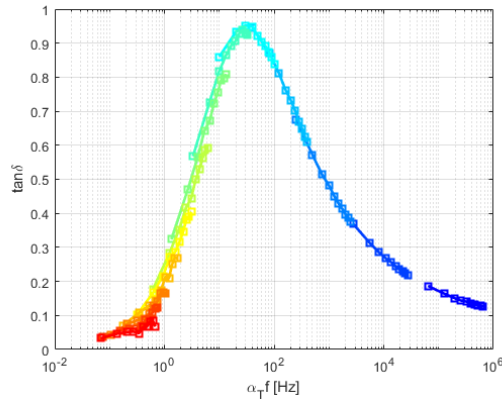
3 **Table 13:** WLF model parameters for the displacement factor.



4 **Figure 23** – Isothermal displacement factor for a reference temperature of 145°C

- 5 Using the displacement factor obtained in Figure 23 a, it is possible to plot as well the three different
- 6 master's curves of the material, presenting the dynamic material parameters as a function of the
- 7 displacement factor. The curves are presented in Figure 24. The master curves presented in the figures
- 8 are useful to predict the evolution of the mechanical properties of the material for a wide range of
- 9 frequency at different operational temperatures. This procedure is highly envisaged in order to predict
- 10 the vibrational response of functionalized industrial structures composed with the studied epoxy foam.





(c)

Figure 24– Master’s curves of the PB 270i foam: storage modulus (a), loss modulus (b) and loss factor (c).

4.4 Synthesis of the foam characterization

The overall results of the microstructural and mechanical characterization, along with the parameters of the master curves for the foam system are summarized in the following table.

<i>Material characterization after curing</i>
<i>Microstructure</i>
Density : $0.272 \pm 0.007 \text{ g/cm}^3$
Bubble diameter : $264 \pm 102 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$
<i>Quasi-static properties</i>
E : 165 MPa
G : 61 MPa
ν : 0.35
<i>Dynamic properties (WLF model)</i>
T_{ref} : 145°C
C_1^{ref} : 4.811
C_2^{ref} : 44.639 K

Table 14: Summary of bulk foam characterization.

5. Conclusions

The present paper has dealt with the processing and characterization of an expandable epoxy foam in order to identify and model the most relevant phenomena involved with this material, from the processing conditions, to the microstructure and the static and dynamic mechanical characterizations. All the relevant parameters have been identified and will be of great interest for the future development of multi-functional structures based on this material as a core material for the sandwich structures. The approach used in the study is divided in two main areas: the processing analysis, the characterization and modelling of the PB270i foam with its hardener SD 2630. The processing conditions of the foam have been analysed using a classical kinetic and chemo-rheological approach. The DSC, rheology and foam expansion experiments have been conducted, analysed and modelled in agreement with the literature, using either physical or empirical models. The different models identified have then been used to plot the Temperature-Time-Transformation (TTT) diagrams of the foam. Several phenomena have been integrated in the diagrams as the foam gelification, the polymer gelification, the curing and the

1 vitrification of the final foam. The TTT diagrams have allowed analysing a specific curing cycle for the
2 foam, showing in detail the evolution of the material Tg with the curing temperature. It has been shown
3 that the model is in good agreement with the experimental results for low curing temperatures (20°C to
4 60°C), while it is less reliable when approaches the higher degree of conversion. This result has been
5 attributed to the modelling assumption made, considering a unique model to represents the whole system
6 over a wide range of temperatures. In addition, diffusion-controlled phenomena have been represented
7 using a very simple approach. Nevertheless, the kinetic models integrated in the TTT diagram globally
8 allow representing the transformation within the system with an acceptable degree of accuracy. In future
9 works, diffusion-controlled kinetics in vitrification region and the temperature dependence of the
10 expansion kinetics will be addressed in detail, in order to complete the constitutive behaviour of this
11 system and improve the reliability for all the regions of the TTT diagram. The curing cycle selected has
12 been used to produce several foam samples of various sizes and shapes that have been used to
13 characterize the final bulk material. A microscopic analysis of the bubble size distribution has been
14 performed using a statistical-imagery approach, followed by the analysis of the mechanical properties
15 under quasi-static and dynamic conditions. The last part of the paper has focused on the validation of
16 the Time-Temperature equivalence for the material, in order to identify the WLF model for the plotting
17 of the Master curves of the foam and describe in detail its dynamic behaviour. The models obtained are
18 in good agreement with the experimental data and constitute a good basis for further development of
19 future MFS for aerospace applications. The PB270i expandable foam with its hardener SD 2630
20 represents a very interesting candidate to replace honeycomb core materials as Nomex®, given its good
21 damping behaviour and the possibility to directly integrate any functional element within it.

22 **Acknowledgements**

23 This project received funding from the Clean Sky 2 Joint Undertaking (JU) under grant agreement No.
24 785462. The JU received support from the European Union's Horizon 2020 (H2020) research and
25 innovation program and the Clean Sky 2 JU members other than the Union.

26 The authors would like to thank Sicomin for the helpful discussions regarding their PB270i product.

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