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Chemically imaging the effects of the addition of nanofibrillated cellulose on the distribution of poly(acrylic acid) in poly(vinyl alcohol)

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ABSTRACT

The distribution of poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) in model laminates of nanocellulose and poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVOH) was investigated by FTIR chemical imaging. The method was effective in spatially discerning the three components of the composite. PAA can potentially improve the performance of nanocellulose reinforced PVOH by not only crosslinking the PVOH matrix but also improving the adhesion between PVOH and nanocellulose by forming ester linkages with both of them. However, PAA was found to migrate out of the PVOH matrix and concentrate in the nanocellulose layer of the laminate. This led to a PAA-depleted region in the matrix near the nanocellulose layer, which would likely lead to a weak interphase and limited stress transfer between the fiber and matrix in the heat-treated composite. Methods for improving the distribution of the PAA need to be investigated to optimize performance. This is the first chemical imaging study of nanocellulose materials using synchrotron-based vibrational spectroscopy.

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1. Introduction

Polyvinyl alcohol (PVOH) has been investigated for use in a wide variety of applications such as controlled drug release hydrogels, separation membranes, fibers, and tissue engineering formulations [1,2]. For many applications, treatment of PVOH is required to render it more stable in water. This can be accomplished to some extent by heat-treating or by repeated freeze/thaw cycling but the most effective methods for long-term stability involve chemical crosslinking [2]. This is most often accomplished with mono- or dialdehydes but recent investigations have explored the use of less toxic crosslinking agents such as poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) [1,2]. Ester linkages are formed between the hydroxyls of PVOH and the carboxyls of PAA during heat treating, which results in a network structure and renders the polymer insoluble in water.

PVOH has also been of interest as a matrix material for nanocellulose composites. Nanocellulose is a naturally-sourced reinforcement extracted from trees, plants, some marine creatures or certain bacteria and fungi [3]. Researchers are exploring a wide variety of uses of nanocellulose such as in dimensionally stable,

* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* cclemons@fs.fed.us (C. Clemons). optically transparent composites for flexible electronics [4] or in improved barrier membranes [2]. Types of nanocellulose, their properties, and their potential applications have been described in recent reviews [3,5,6]. Since its preparation most often results in aqueous dispersions, nanocellulose can be relatively easily dispersed in water-soluble polymers such as PVOH and then fabricated into composites. Several researchers have demonstrated mechanical property improvements when nanocellulose is added to PVOH [7–12]. Ultimately, however, their susceptibility to water and still modest mechanical performance limits the applications in which they can be used. Adding PAA to the PVOH during composite preparation may improve performance by not only crosslinking PVOH but also improving the adhesion between PVOH and nanocellulose by forming ester linkages with both of them. However, understanding and controlling this chemistry during fabrication is necessary for optimal performance.

Paraliker et al. [2] explored a PVOH-PAA-nanocellulose system. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy showed ester formation with heat treatment and the composites with 80:10:10 PVOH:PAA:nanocellulose by weight yielded the highest mechanical performance. Follow-up work using atomic force microscopy (AFM) found gradients in the mechanical and adhesion properties of the interphase region between the nanocellulose surface and the bulk matrix suggesting variations in the densities of the ester linkages



[13]. Optimization of this interphase region is crucial for effective stress transfer, especially since the large surface area of the nano-cellulose means that much of the matrix is part of the interphase.

Determining the spatial distribution of the different components of the composite would be a useful step in understanding the behavior of these composites, especially in the critical region near the fiber-matrix interface. FTIR imaging can use the functional group chemistry of the composite constituents to image their spatial distribution. In this investigation, we used a new, synchrotron-based, mid-infrared beamline, IRENI (Infra**R**ed **EN**vironmental Imaging), at the University of Wisconsin Synchrotron Radiation Center (SRC) to image the PAA distribution in PVOH-PAAnanocellulose composites. Laminates with layers of nanocellulose and matrix were used as model composites.

FTIR imaging is non-invasive and does not require staining or special sample environments. Comparing the single substances with the composites FTIR data gives information about the chemical interactions in the sample. Due to the unique design of the IRENI beamline it is possible to have truly diffraction limited resolution at all wavelengths in just a couple of minutes. The combination of visible and spectral information is crucial for investigating the distribution of the PVOH in the sample. Although FTIR spectroscopy is a common tool for studying polymers [14], such as wood polymers [15,16], IRENI rapidly generates data with higher sensitivity, spatial resolution, and signal to noise ratio. Previous studies on polymers [17], animal tissues [18], cultural heritage samples [19] and many other samples [20] have proven the capabilities of this instrument.

2. Experimental

The PVOH used had a molecular weight (M_W) of 85,000–124,000 and was over 99% hydrolyzed. The PAA had a M_W of 1800. Both polymers were obtained from Sigma–Aldrich and used as purchased.

The nanocellulose was a nanofibrillated cellulose (NFC), which was prepared using commercially-supplied fully bleached Eucalyptus pulp using a procedure similar to that of Saito et al. [21]. The pulp was carboxylated using 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidinyl-1-oxyl (TEMPO), sodium chlorite and sodium hypochlorite as the oxidizing reactants at 60 °C for 48 h. The carboxylate content of the reacted pulp fibers was determined to be 0.46 mmol per gram of pulp via titration based on TAPPI Test Method T237 cm-98 [22]. Oxidized pulp fibers were then washed thoroughly with deionized water and refined in a disc refiner to break apart fiber bundles. The fiber slurry was diluted to facilitate separation of coarse and fine fractions by centrifuging at 12,000 g_f , and the coarse fraction was rejected. The nanofiber suspension was concentrated to a solid content of approximately 0.5% using an ultrafiltration system. A final clarification step was performed in which the nanofibril dispersion was passed once through an M-110EH-30 Microfluidizer (Microfluidics, Newton, MA) with 200- and 87-µm chambers in series. The NFC suspension was stored at 4 °C until use.

Cast NFC films were prepared by vigorously stirring the 0.5% NFC solution, de-aerating under vacuum, casting into a petri dish, and air-drying. For PVOH films, a 15% by weight aqueous solution was first prepared and then heated to 90 °C in a water bath and stirred for 30 min. The solution was de-aerated under vacuum, cast into a petri dish, and air-dried. FTIR analysis of pure PAA was performed on the original powder since the films made from it were extremely brittle.

Laminates were made by first preparing a PVOH solution as described above. Sufficient PAA was then added to yield a 2:1, 4:1, or 8:1 PVOH:PAA weight ratio. Each solution was de-aerated, cast into a petri dish and an NFC film was immersed in it. After air-drying, the final NFC layer and total laminate thicknesses were about 50 and 250 μ m, respectively as measured by a calibrated optical microscope (Lietz Wetzlar). 10 μ m thick cross-sections were cut from the films with a microtome and used for the FTIR analysis. Several of the microtomed laminate cross-sections were crosslinked by placing them on a hot plate at 170 °C for 45 min, which was found as optimal conditions for similar composites in previous work [2]. The spectra of these heat-treated laminates were normalized to that of the uncrosslinked laminates using the peak at 2942 cm⁻¹. This corresponds to the C–H stretch, which does not participate in the crosslinking reactions [1].

High-resolution FTIR images were recorded using the IRENI beamline at the University of Wisconsin-Madison Synchrotron Radiation Center (SRC), a national light source facility. The IRENI beamline is illuminated with storage ring radiation and equipped with a Bruker Hyperion 3000 FTIR microscope (Billerica, MA) A swath of radiation (320 mrad (horizontal) \times 25 mrad (vertical)), is extracted from a bending magnet, collimated and rearranged into a matrix of 3×4 beams, by a set of mirrors. Slight defocussing at the sample position results in homogenous illumination at the sample plane, allowing for diffraction limited imaging of an area of $40 \times 60 \ \mu\text{m}^2$ over the whole spectral range (3800–850 cm⁻¹), with a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ [18,23]. The microscope has a 74×, 0.65 Numerical Aperture (NA) objective with a condenser of matching NA. The FPA detector is a liquid nitrogen cooled Mercury Cadmium Telluride mid-IR detector with an array of 128×128 pixels that are recorded in parallel. The effective, projected sample pixel size at the FPA (focal plane array) detector is 0.54 μ m². For each tile (34 \times 34 μ m² area) reported here, 64 \times 64 pixels² were



Fig. 1. FTIR spectra for pure PAA, PVOH, NFC, and the average spectrum of their composite. The selected absorption bands used for the integration images in Fig. 2 are indicated. More information is given in the text.

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