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# The mechanics of reinforcement of polymers by graphene nanoplatelets

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## ABSTRACT

A detailed study has been undertaken of the mechanisms of stress transfer in polymeric matrices with different values of Young's modulus,  $E_m$ , reinforced by graphene nanoplatelets (GNPs). For each material, the Young's modulus of the graphene filler,  $E_f$ , has been determined using the rule of mixtures and it is found to scale with the value of  $E_m$ . Additionally stress-induced Raman bands shifts for the different polymer matrices show different levels of stress transfer from the polymer matrix to the GNPs, which again scale with  $E_m$ . A theory has been developed to predict the stiffness of the bulk nanocomposites from the mechanics of stress transfer from the matrix to the GNP reinforcement based upon the shear-lag deformation of individual graphene nanoplatelets. Overall it is found that it is only possible to realise the theoretical Young's modulus of graphene of 1.05 TPa for discontinuous nanoplatelets as  $E_m$  approaches 1 TPa; the effective modulus of the reinforcement will always be less for lower values of  $E_m$ . For flexible polymeric matrices the level of reinforcement is independent of the graphene Young's modulus and, in general, the best reinforcement will be obtained in nanocomposites with strong graphene-polymer interfaces and aligned nanoplatelets with high aspect ratios.

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## 1. Introduction

Graphene has been found to have high levels of stiffness and strength [1] and so is an obvious candidate for the reinforcement of polymers [2–5]. Although there has been a rapid growth of interest in graphene-based polymer nanocomposites for structural applications [6], the mechanics of reinforcement in such materials is still not yet fully understood [7]. The mechanisms and mechanics of the reinforcement of polymers by 1D materials such as fibres has been studied widely [8] but as yet there is still no consensus about similar processes that may occur in nanocomposites reinforced by 2D materials such as a graphene.

There are generally two approaches that are used in considering the mechanical properties of polymer-based nanocomposites. Some people assume their mechanics to be similar to those of composites with macroscopic reinforcements, such as carbon and glass fibres [6,9,10]. Other researchers have taken an opposing viewpoint and have suggested polymer nanocomposites are

actually quasi-homogeneous molecular blends that need to be regarded as molecular composites or self-reinforced composites [11,12]. In this case they have suggested that the classical micro-mechanical models developed for normal composites cannot be applied and that the properties are controlled by interactions on the molecular scale between the nanoparticles and the polymer matrix [12]. This approach has received considerable support particularly from groups working upon nanotube-based composites and there are clearly issues such as crystal nucleation and molecular confinement that cannot be explained through classical micromechanics [12]. In addition it has been pointed out that it is not yet clear as to why the promise of the 1 TPa Young's modulus of graphene is never realised during the reinforcement of nanocomposites [12].

In this present investigation, a detailed analysis has been undertaken of the mechanics and mechanisms of stress transfer in a range of polymeric matrices with very different levels of Young's modulus,  $E_m$ , reinforced by graphene nanoplatelets (GNPs). This use of matrix materials with a wide range of stiffnesses has allowed completely new insights into the mechanical properties of these technologically-important materials to be obtained. We produce overwhelming evidence to show that the elastic deformation of

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graphene-reinforced polymers can be modelled using classical composite micromechanics [6,8,9], particularly at low levels of graphene loading. We will show to what extent this model can be employed and when other approaches may have to be used.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Materials

The melt-processible thermoplastic elastomer (TPE) employed was Alcryn 2265 which is based on a partially cross-linked, chlorinated olefin interpolymers alloy. The polypropylene (PP) homopolymer employed was produced by Lyondellbasell under the commercial name, Moplen HP501L. Exfoliated graphite nanoplatelets (M25), produced by via the sulphuric intercalation of graphite, were obtained from XG Sciences (East Lansing, MI, USA). The M25 nanoplatelets are reported by XG Sciences to have an average thickness of 6–8 nm (~20 graphene layers) and they were found to have an average diameter of 7.7  $\mu\text{m}$  (see Supplementary Information—Fig. S3). Since the M-grade materials have more than 10 graphene layers they should be termed “graphite nanoplatelets”. They are, however, called “graphene nanoplatelets” by XG Sciences and since this terminology has been used widely in the literature, it will also be adopted in this present study.

### 2.2. Processing

The polymers were processed both neat and with different loadings of GNPs by a melt-mixing process performed using a twin-screw extruder (Thermo Scientific HAAKE MiniLab micro compounder) operated at 165 °C and 50 rpm for the TPE and at 190 °C and 100 rpm for the PP. The mixing of the GNPs into the polymers took place for 5 min for the TPE and 12 min for the PP. The pelletized products were further processed into dumbbell-shaped specimens by injection moulding (HAAKE MiniJet Piston Injection Moulding System) with  $T_{\text{cylinder}} = 185$  °C,  $T_{\text{mould}} = 30$  °C for the TPE and  $T_{\text{cylinder}} = 200$  °C,  $T_{\text{mould}} = 70$  °C for the PP.

### 2.3. Mechanical testing

Stress–strain curves were obtained using dogbone shaped specimens of both materials in an Instron 4301 machine, under a tensile rate of 50 mm min<sup>-1</sup> with a load cell of 5 kN (ASTM D638).

### 2.4. Raman spectroscopy and deformation

For the TPE, samples were prepared as compression moulded sheets (185 °C). They were then stamped into small dumbbell-shape specimens with a gauge length of 10 mm marked by a pen on the specimens. They were then fixed in a mini tensile rig and the strain (extension between the two marks) was measured by a digital caliper. In the case of the PP, parallel sided bars were cut from middle of the dogbone tensile specimens and deformed in a four-point bending rig with the strain measured using a resistance strain gauge attached to the surface of the specimen. Raman spectra were obtained during deformation using a Renishaw inVia Raman microscope with a 633 nm laser.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Young's modulus of the nanocomposites

One of the simplest relationships that has been developed to describe the reinforcement achieved from a high-modulus particulate filler in a low-modulus matrix, under uniform strain, is the so-

called “rule of mixtures” (RoM), in which the Young's modulus of a composite  $E_c$  is given by Ref. [8].

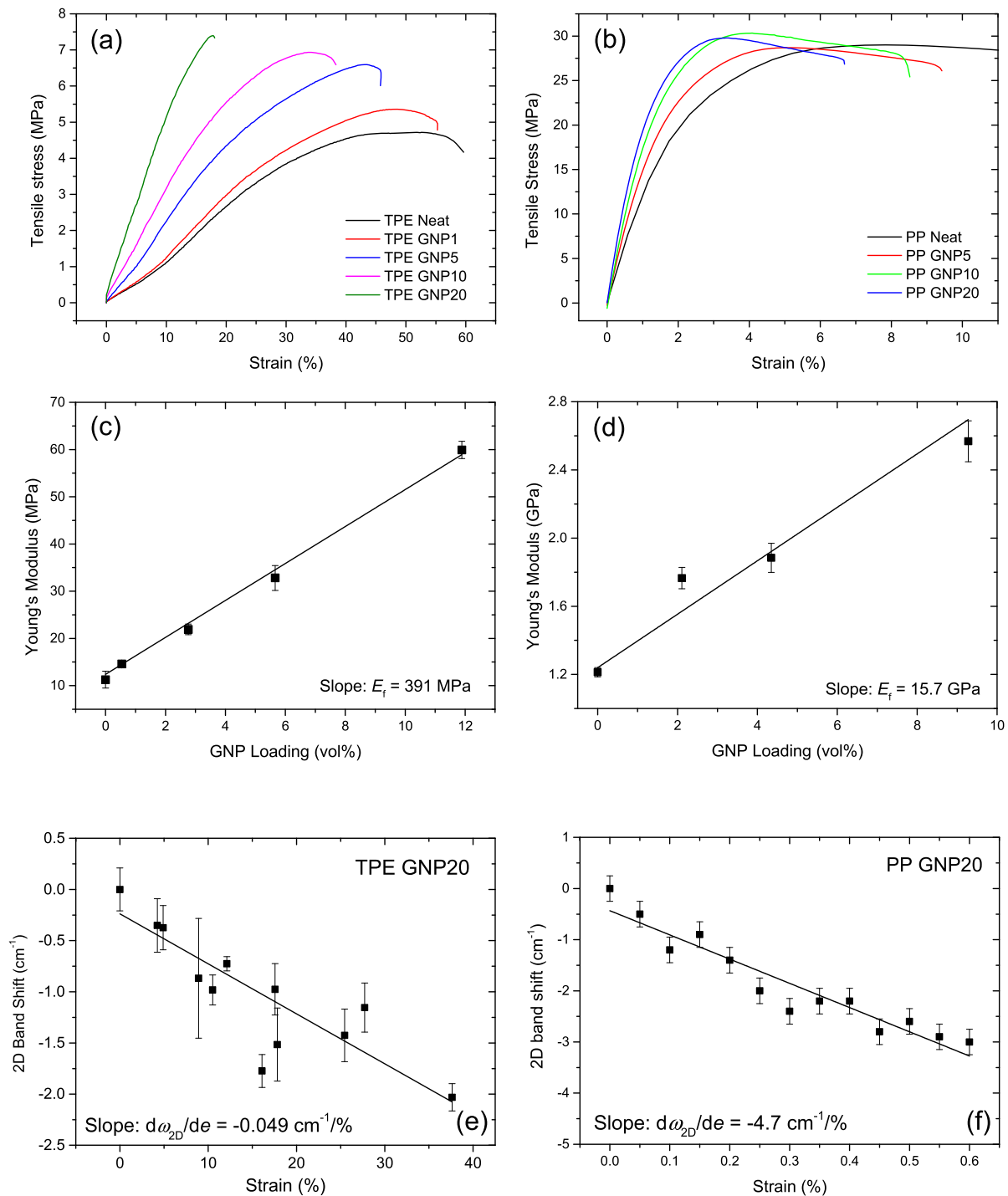
$$E_c = E_f V_f + E_m (1 - V_f) \quad (1)$$

where  $E_f$  is the Young's modulus of the particulate filler,  $V_f$  is its volume fraction and  $E_m$  is the Young's modulus of the matrix. The Young's modulus of the filler  $E_f$  can be determined from a plot of  $E_c$  versus  $V_f$ , and examples of this are shown in Fig. 1 for graphene nanoplatelets (GNPs) in a thermoplastic elastomer (Alcryn – TPE) and polypropylene (PP). The stress-strain curves of the materials with different loadings of GNPs are shown in Fig. 1(a) and (b). The dependences of  $E_c$  upon  $V_f$  for the GNPs in the TPE and PP are shown in Fig. 1(c) and (d). It can be seen that for both systems there is an approximately linear increase in composite modulus with volume fraction up to a  $V_f$  of around 10%. The value of  $E_f$  for the GNPs in the polymers can be determined from the initial slope of these plots using Equation (1) and  $E_f \sim 400$  MPa is determined for the TPE and  $\sim 15$  GPa for the PP matrix. The first thing to point out is that the values of  $E_f$  determined for the two nanocomposite systems are well below the value of  $\sim 1$  TPa reported [1] for the Young's modulus of graphene. It is more significant, however, that the value of  $E_f$  for the GNPs in the TPE is two orders of magnitude lower than that for the same nano-reinforcement in the PP which has a Young's modulus  $E_m$  two orders of magnitude higher than that of the TPE.

In this study we have determined  $E_f$  for a series of nanocomposites based upon a range of different polymers, including natural rubber [13], epoxy resins and another TPE (Pebax), all with very different values of  $E_m$  and reinforced with identical GNPs. The results are summarised in Table 1 where a very significant observation can be made. It can be seen that the values of  $E_f$  are highest for the materials with the highest matrix moduli,  $E_m$ . In fact there appears to be strong correlation between  $E_f$  and  $E_m$  – an order of magnitude decrease in  $E_m$  leads to an order of magnitude decrease in  $E_f$ . This observation is vital for our understanding of the mechanisms of deformation in these nanocomposites. We also recently pointed out that from the analysis of several hundred papers in the literature [14], that there is a general correlation between  $E_f$  and  $E_m$  for graphene-reinforced polymer nanocomposites. A log-log plot of literature values of  $E_f$  versus  $E_m$  for GNPs in a wide variety of different polymers is shown in Fig. S1 of the Supplementary Information. Although there is some scatter in the literature data, due presumably to different types of GNPs being used in the various studies, different processing conditions and variability in experimental procedures, it can nevertheless be seen that the data all fall on a straight line. In addition, the plot has a slope of the order of unity, showing that in general  $E_f \propto E_m$ .

### 3.2. Theoretical analysis

We have developed a comprehensive theory for the mechanisms of reinforcement of polymers by nanoplatelets that enables us to predict the effect of how reinforcement is controlled by factors such as matrix modulus, particle geometry and the strength of the filler-matrix interface. The basis of the theory is shown in Fig. 2. The individual nanoplatelets are assumed to be oriented randomly in the polymer matrix without interacting with each other as shown in the CT scan [13] in Fig. 2(a). In the case of nanocomposites containing particles such as graphene nanoplatelets, Equation (1) can be modified by replacing  $E_f$  with  $E_{\text{eff}(\sigma)\eta}$  to take into account the orientation of the reinforcing particles and their finite length to give



**Fig. 1.** Mechanical property data for nanocomposites consisting of M25 GNPs in TPE and PP matrices. (a) Stress-strain curves for the TPE with different loadings of GNPs in parts per 100 parts of rubber (phr). (b) Stress-strain curves for the PP with different loadings of GNPs in weight percent (wt%). (c) Dependence of the Young's modulus of the nanocomposite  $E_c$  upon  $V_f$  for the TPE. (d) Dependence of  $E_c$  upon  $V_f$  for the PP. (e) Dependence of the 2D Raman band position upon strain for 20 phr of the GNPs in the TPE. (f) Dependence of the 2D Raman band position upon strain for  $V_f \sim 10\%$  of GNPs in the PP.

$$E_c = E_{\text{eff}} \eta_o \eta_l V_p + E_m (1 - V_p) \quad (2)$$

where  $\eta_o$  is the Krenchel orientation factor [15,16] and  $\eta_l$  is the length factor [17]. The parameter  $E_{\text{eff}}$  is the effective Young's modulus of the filler that depends only upon its structure. For example it will be 1050 GPa for monolayer graphene but will be

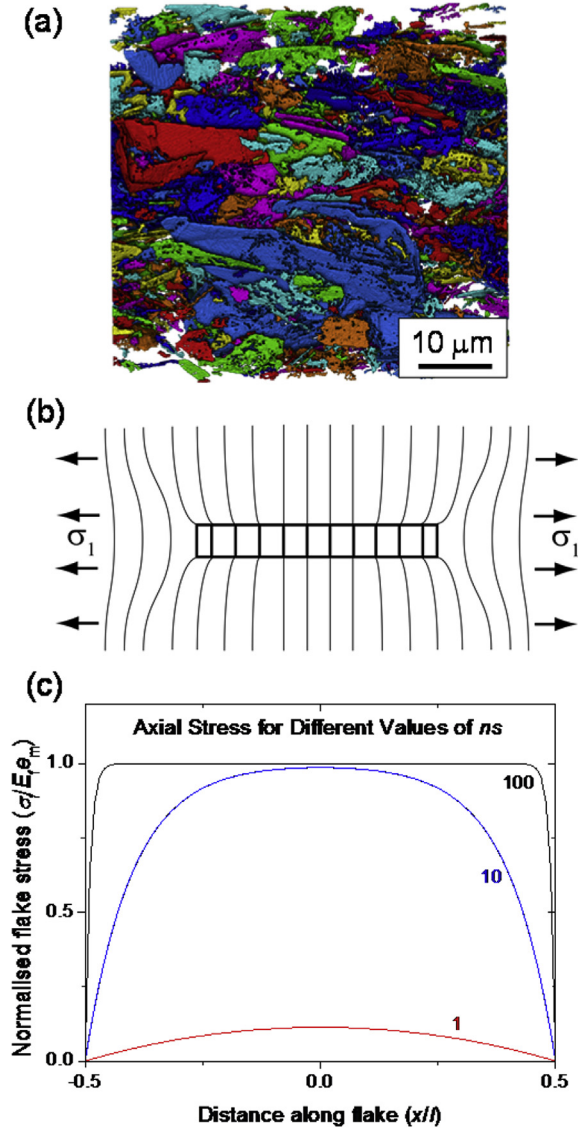
lower for few-layer graphene [18,19] and graphene oxide [20,21]. The orientation factor  $\eta_o$  is 1 for aligned nanoplatelets and it was shown recently [15,16] that for randomly-oriented nanoplatelets,  $\eta_o = 8/15$ . The length factor  $\eta_l$  ( $0 \leq \eta_l \leq 1$ ) reflects the efficiency of stress transfer from the matrix to the filler that is controlled by both the shape of the filler and the strength of the filler-matrix interface.

Stress transfer from the matrix to the individual aligned

**Table 1**

Summary of the matrix and filler modulus values determined for the different polymers from the mechanical testing and Raman band shifts.

Polymer matrix <sup>a</sup>	$E_m$ (GPa)	$E_f$ (GPa) (Mechanical)	$d\omega_{2D}/de$ ( $\text{cm}^{-1}/\%$ strain)	$E_R$ (GPa) (Raman)	Reference
Epoxy Resin 1	2.5	$58 \pm 10$	$4.0 \pm 1.0$	$70 \pm 17$	Supplementary Data
Epoxy Resin 2	1.98	–	$3.0 \pm 1.1^a$	$52 \pm 20$	Supplementary Data
Polypropylene	1.2	$36 \pm 5$	$4.0 \pm 1.3$	$70 \pm 22$	This study
TPE 2 (Pebax)	0.45	$13 \pm 3$	$1.0 \pm 0.5$	$17.5 \pm 8.7$	Supplementary Data
TPE 1 (Alcryn)	$1.1 \times 10^{-2}$	$0.52 \pm 0.16$	$0.042 \pm 0.017$	$0.73 \pm 0.30$	This study
Nitrile Rubber (NBR)	$1 \times 10^{-3}$	$0.035 \pm 0.006$	$0.0074 \pm 0.0028$	$0.13 \pm 0.05$	Supplementary Data
Natural Rubber (NR)	$8.1 \times 10^{-4}$	$0.054 \pm 0.009$	$0.0068 \pm 0.0017$	$0.12 \pm 0.03$	[10]

<sup>a</sup> (Determined from  $2 \times d\omega_{D}/de$ ).

**Fig. 2.** (a) Artificially-coloured image of a CT scan of a natural rubber nanocomposite [13] containing M25 GNPs nanoflakelets. (b) Deformation patterns for a discontinuous nanoflakelet in a polymer matrix under stress. (c) Predicted variation of normalized axial stress with distance along the nanoflakelet for a short nanoflakelet in a matrix. (The values of the product  $ns$  are indicated.)

nanoflakelet shown in Fig. 2(b) is assumed to take place through a shear stress at the nanoflakelet/matrix interface [6,9]. Before deformation, parallel lines perpendicular to the nanoflakelet can be drawn from the matrix through the nanoflakelet. When the system

is subjected to axial stress,  $\sigma_1$ , parallel to the plane of the nanoflakelet, the lines become distorted as shown in Fig. 2(b) since the Young's modulus of the matrix is much less than that of the nanoflakelet. This induces a shear stress at the nanoflakelet/matrix interface. The axial stress in the nanoflakelet will build up from zero at the nanoflakelet ends to a maximum value in the middle of the nanoflakelet and shown in Fig. 2(c). The uniform strain assumption means that, if the nanoflakelet is long enough, the strain in the middle of the nanoflakelet equals that of the matrix. Since the nanoflakelets have a much higher Young's modulus than the matrix the nanoflakelets carry most of the load in the composite. It should be pointed out that this approach is different from that developed by Eshelby [22,23] and Tanaka and Mori [24] for a matrix reinforced by rigid inclusions. In our model there is a variation of stress along the nanoflakelets whereas the inclusion models assume a uniform stress within the nanoflakelets.

The behavior of a single discontinuous nanoflakelet in a matrix can be modelled using shear lag theory [8,9,17,25,26] in which it is assumed that the nanoflakelet of length  $l$  and thickness  $t$  is surrounded by a layer of resin with an overall thickness of  $T$  [9]. It is also assumed that both the nanoflakelet and matrix deform elastically and the nanoflakelet-matrix interface remains intact. The final equation for the distribution of nanoflakelet stress as a function of distance,  $x$  along the nanoflakelet at a given level of matrix strain,  $e_m$ , was determined in our earlier study and is given by Ref. [9].

$$\sigma_f(x) = E_{\text{eff}} e_m \left[ 1 - \frac{\cosh(nx/t)}{\cosh(nl/2t)} \right] \quad (3)$$

$$\text{where } n = \sqrt{\frac{2G_m}{E_{\text{eff}}} \left( \frac{l}{T} \right)},$$

$E_{\text{eff}}$  is the effective Young's modulus of the nanoflakelet and  $G_m$  is the shear modulus of the matrix. It is convenient to use the concept of nanoflakelet aspect ratio,  $s = l/t$  so that the above equation can be rewritten as

$$\sigma_f(x) = E_{\text{eff}} e_m \left[ 1 - \frac{\cosh\left(\frac{nsx}{l}\right)}{\cosh(ns/2)} \right] \quad (4)$$

for the axial nanoflakelet stress. The effect of the different parameters upon the build-up of stress in a nanoflakelet is demonstrated in Fig. 2(c) for different values of the product  $ns$ . It can be seen that the nanoflakelet is most highly stressed, i.e. the most efficient reinforcement is obtained, when the product  $ns$  is high.

The mean stress along an aligned individual nanoflakelet can be determined from the integral



$$\bar{\sigma}_f = \frac{1}{l} \int_{-l/2}^{+l/2} \sigma_f(x) dx \quad (5)$$

Substitution of Equation (4) into this integral gives

$$\bar{\sigma}_f = E_{\text{eff}} e_m \left[ 1 - \frac{\tanh(ns/2)}{ns/2} \right] \quad (6)$$

This equation again shows that the best reinforcement is obtained when  $E_{\text{eff}}$  is high and the product  $ns$  is very large.

The Young's modulus of the nanoplatelet  $E_f$  in the nanocomposite is given by the mean stress  $\bar{\sigma}_f$  divided by the nanoplatelet strain  $e_f$  ( $= e_m$  for uniform strain). Hence for an aligned individual nanoplatelet Equation (6) gives

$$E_f = E_{\text{eff}} \left[ 1 - \frac{\tanh(ns/2)}{ns/2} \right] \quad (7)$$

This shows that the value of  $E_f$  for an aligned graphene nanoplatelet in the nanocomposite is controlled by the effective Young's modulus of the nanoplatelet,  $E_{\text{eff}}$ , and the value of  $ns$ . It also follows that the length factor is given by

$$\eta_l = 1 - \frac{\tanh(ns/2)}{ns/2} \quad (8)$$

If the nanoplatelets are not aligned then the Krenchel orientation factor [15,16] needs to be taken into account and Equation (7) becomes

$$E_f = E_{\text{eff}} \eta_o \left[ 1 - \frac{\tanh(ns/2)}{ns/2} \right] \quad (9)$$

In the case where  $ns$  is small this equation can be recast since the hyperbolic function can be represented by a Taylor series as

$$\tanh x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^5}{15} - \frac{17x^7}{315} + \dots \quad (10)$$

If  $ns$  is small Equation (9) then becomes

$$E_f \approx E_{\text{eff}} \eta_o \frac{(ns/2)^2}{3} \quad (11)$$

Substituting the value of  $n$  given in Equation (3), this gives for small values of  $n$

$$E_f \approx \eta_o \frac{s^2}{6} \frac{t}{T} G_m \quad (12)$$

The shear modulus of the matrix is related to its Young's modulus through the relation [8].

$$G_m = \frac{E_m}{2(1+\nu)} \quad (13)$$

where  $\nu$  is Poisson's ratio (typically  $\nu \sim 0.35$ – $0.5$  for rigid polymers and elastomers). Combining Equations (12) and (13) gives the final equation

$$E_f \approx \eta_o \frac{s^2}{12} \frac{t}{T} \frac{E_m}{(1+\nu)} \quad (14)$$

Hence it is predicted that  $E_f \propto E_m$  when  $ns$  is small corresponding,

for a fixed aspect ratio  $s$ , to low values of  $G_m$  and hence  $E_m$ . Moreover the slope of unity on a log-log plot of  $E_f$  versus  $E_m$  is predicted, as found from the analysis of literature data [14] (see Fig. S1, Supplementary Information).

In a nanocomposite containing an array of nanoplatelets, the ratio  $t/T$  is related to the proximity of neighboring particles and hence the volume fraction of filler,  $V_f$ . The exact relationship will depend upon the geometry of the arrangement of the nanoplatelets and for the simple case of a stack of nanoplatelets sandwiched between layers of polymer matrix, it can be assumed that  $t/T \sim V_f$ . Using this relationship and substituting Equation (14) back into the rule of mixtures equation (1) gives

$$E_c \approx \eta_o \frac{s^2}{12} \frac{E_m}{(1+\nu)} V_f^2 + E_m (1 - V_f) \quad (15)$$

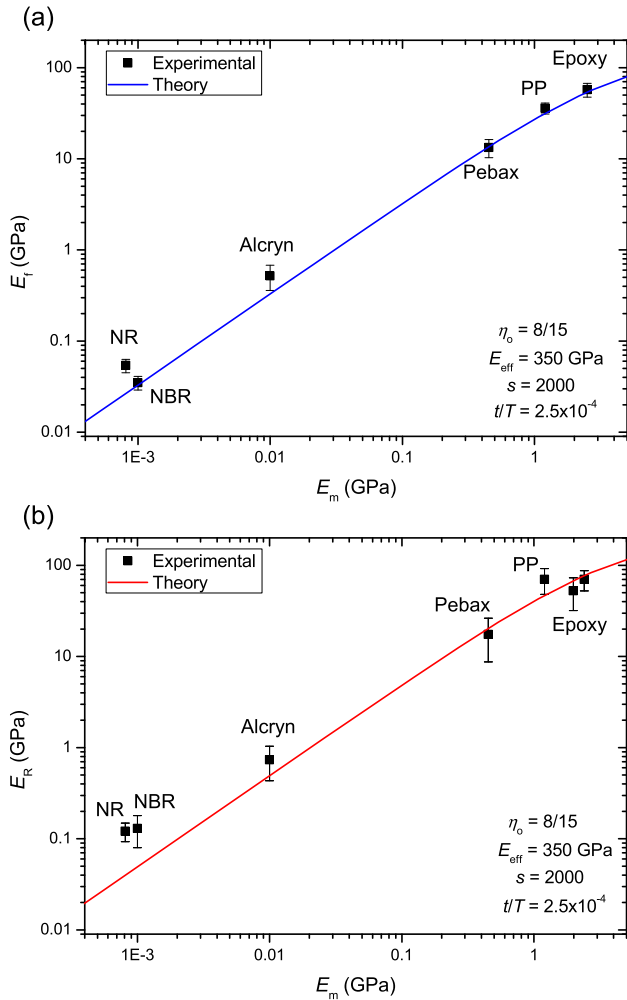
which on rearranging becomes

$$E_c \approx E_m \left[ 1 - V_f + \frac{s^2}{12} \frac{\eta_o}{(1+\nu)} V_f^2 \right] \quad (16)$$

This equation, with the dependence of  $E_c$  upon both the square of the filler aspect ratio  $s^2$  and  $V_f^2$  and the independence of  $E_c$  upon  $E_f$ , is reminiscent of the Guth-Gold relationship often used to model the effect of the addition of fillers upon the stiffness of elastomers [27–29]. This gives further confidence in our use of the shear-lag approach.

Varying the parameters in Equation (9) reveals some interesting findings as discussed in detail in the Supplementary Information and shown in Fig. S2. The effect of varying the value of the effective filler modulus  $E_{\text{eff}}$  is shown in Fig. S2(a). A higher value of  $E_{\text{eff}}$  leads to a higher value of  $E_f$  for rigid matrix materials ( $E_m > 1$  GPa) but for flexible matrices,  $E_f$  is independent of  $E_{\text{eff}}$  as predicted by Equation (14). The value of  $E_f$  depends upon the degree of orientation of the nanoplatelets as shown in Fig. S2(b); it is reduced by a factor of 8/15 for randomly oriented nanoplatelets compared with perfectly-aligned ones [15,16]. Fig. S2(c) shows that  $E_f$  depends strongly upon the aspect ratio,  $s$ , highlighting that the aspect ratio of the nanofiller is of vital importance. The dependence of  $E_c$  upon the diameter of the GNPs is shown in Fig. S4. Finally Fig. S2(d) shows that  $E_f$  depends strongly upon the ratio,  $t/T$ . This parameter essentially depends upon how rapidly the stress decays into the matrix away from the nanofiller and is controlled by both the volume fraction of filler and the strength of the filler-matrix interface. Hence this ratio,  $t/T$ , can be thought of as an indication of the quality of the interface [9] and  $E_f$  will be higher for stronger interfaces. The significance of all these different parameters upon the relationship between  $E_f$  and  $E_m$  is discussed in detail in the Supplementary Information.

It is also possible to use Equation (9) to model the reinforcement by the same graphene nanoplatelets of the different polymer matrices with different values of  $E_m$  presented in Table 1 and Fig. 1 as shown in Fig. 3. A plot of  $E_f$  versus  $E_m$  for the different systems investigated is given in Fig. 3(a) and the solid line is the fit of Equation (9) to the data using with appropriate values of the various parameters indicated in the Figure. A value of  $E_{\text{eff}} = 350$  GPa was chosen to take into account the decrease in graphene modulus that occurs as the number of layers increases [18,19]. The same value of  $E_{\text{eff}}$  was used for the GNPs in the different matrix materials, implying that further exfoliation of the GNPs did not occur during processing. An aspect ratio of 2000 was used, along with a value of  $t/T$  of  $2.5 \times 10^{-4}$  although these parameters can be adjusted to modify the fit. In addition it was assumed that the nanoplatelets were randomly oriented so that  $\eta_o = 8/15$  [15,16]. It can be seen that overall there is excellent agreement between the predicted and



**Fig. 3.** (a) Variation of  $E_f$  with  $E_m$  for the M25 GNPs reinforcing a series of polymeric matrix different materials with different values of matrix modulus,  $E_m$ . The solid line is the behavior predicted using Equation (9) with the parameters indicated. (b) Variation of  $E_R$  with  $E_m$  for the GNPs reinforcing a series of polymeric matrix different materials with different values of matrix modulus,  $E_m$ . The solid line is the behavior predicted using Equation (16) with the parameters indicated.

measured values of  $E_f$ . The close correlation in Fig. 3(a) of  $E_f$  with  $E_m$  measured from bulk mechanical properties implies that molecular-scale interactions between the nanoparticles and polymer matrix [11,12], giving rise to phenomena such as tethering of molecular chains or local crystallisation, do not have a major effect upon the reinforcement mechanisms.

It should be pointed out that our analysis is only applicable to the prediction of  $E_f$ , the Young's modulus of the particulate filler, for use in Equation (1). Although this equation can then be used to predict the Young's modulus of the composite,  $E_c$ , the rule of mixtures often breaks down, typically through the agglomeration of the nanofiller particles, especially at high loadings. This is not the case in the two examples shown in Fig. 1, but agglomeration often occurs in thermosetting systems such as epoxy resins where a significant increase in  $E_c$  can be obtained for low loadings of graphene [30], and no further increase is found above a certain loading of the nanofiller (see Supplementary Information – Fig. S6).

Another interesting implication of the theory is that  $E_f$  increases as  $E_m$  increases. In the case of pure polymers  $E_m$  is generally no higher than around 5 GPa which limits the maximum value of  $E_f$  that can be obtained for polymer-matrix nanocomposites. This is

not the case for metal matrix composites and a recent study [31] has shown that significant levels of reinforcement can be obtained for an aluminium matrix composite ( $E_m \sim 70$  GPa) reinforced with graphene oxide.

### 3.3. Stress-induced Raman band shifts

It has been established by the authors that stress transfer from the matrix to the reinforcement in nanocomposites reinforced by graphene nanoplatelets (GNPs) can be followed from stress-induced Raman band shifts for the graphene [30,32,33]. The Young's modulus of graphene-based materials can be estimated from the slope of a plot of the 2D (or D) Raman band position against strain [34,35]. We shall term the modulus determined in this way in nanocomposites, the Raman modulus,  $E_R$ . It is well known that the 2D band for monolayer graphene with a Young's modulus of 1050 GPa subjected to tensile deformation downshifts by  $-60 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\%$  strain [34,35]. The rate of shift of the position of the 2D Raman band per unit strain ( $d\omega_{2D}/de$ ) can then be used to determine the value of  $E_R$  for any type of graphene in a composite through the simple relation

$$E_R = \frac{d\omega_{2D}}{de} \times \frac{1050}{-60} \text{ GPa} \quad (17)$$

where  $d\omega_{2D}/de$  is determined for the 2D band in  $\text{cm}^{-1}/\%$  strain. A similar equation can be used for the shift rate of the D band,  $d\omega_D/de$ , with the  $-60$  being replaced by  $-30$ .

The variation of the position of the 2D band with strain for GNPs in the TPE matrix is shown in Fig. 1(e) and the mean value of  $d\omega_{2D}/de$  calculated from an average of at least 5 measurements for each system is given in Table 1. Similar measurements for the PP reinforced with GNPs are shown in Fig. 1(f) and the average value is also given in Table 1. In each case the value of  $E_R$  estimated using Equation (15) is also given in the Table and it can be seen that the values of  $E_f$  and  $E_R$  determined using the two independent techniques are similar for each material, with  $E_R$  generally being higher than  $E_f$ . It is shown in the Supplementary Information that it is possible to modify the shear lag theory developed above to predict the dependence of  $E_R$  upon  $E_m$  as

$$E_R = \eta_o E_{eff} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\cosh(ns/2)} \right] \quad (18)$$

and the final equation for flexible polymers ( $E_m < 1$  GPa) is

$$E_R \approx \eta_o \frac{s^2 t}{8 T} \frac{E_m}{(1 + \nu)} \quad (19)$$

Comparison of Equation (18) with Equation (9) shows that it is predicted that  $E_R > E_f$ , as is often found (Table 1).

It is also possible to use Equation (18) to model the Raman band shift rates of the different polymer matrices with different values of  $E_m$  presented in Table 1 and Fig. 1. Fig. 3(b) shows a plot of  $E_R$  versus  $E_m$  for the different systems investigated and the solid line is the fit of Equation (18) to the data using with appropriate values of the various parameters indicated in the Figure. It can be seen that there is again good agreement between the predicted and measured values of  $E_R$ .

## 4. Conclusions

In conclusion it is clear that the development of our simple but comprehensive theory has enabled the effective Young's modulus of graphene nanoplatelets in polymer-based nanocomposites to be

modelled with a high degree of precision. The importance of different structural parameters is clearly highlighted. The theory gives a convincing explanation of why it is not possible to realise the promised 1 TPa Young's modulus of the graphene in low modulus polymeric matrices. In fact it predicts, perhaps rather surprisingly, that the Young's modulus of such a nanocomposite will be independent of the Young's modulus of the nanofiller. In general it appears therefore that for most polymers, the aspect ratio of the nanoplatelets is more important than their Young's modulus. This is not a necessarily a drawback, however, in the case of graphene since this nanofiller generally has both a high Young's modulus and high aspect ratio. Two other parameters that are of vital significance are the orientation of the nanoplatelets and the strength of the interface with the matrix. Aligned nanoplatelets give a level of reinforcement roughly twice that of randomly-oriented ones. Also, not surprisingly, the theory shows that a strong nanofiller-matrix interface leads to good stress transfer and hence better reinforcement than a weak interface.

This theory does have its limitations, however. It is only concerned with the elastic deformation of the nanocomposites at relatively low levels of loading before any agglomeration or restacking effects occur. It is also not related directly to other important mechanical properties such as fracture strength, impact resistance or toughness. Nevertheless, the ability of nanofillers such as graphene to increase the stiffness of a polymer is of major technological importance and our theoretical approach represents a significant step forward towards a full understanding of the mechanical properties of polymer-based nanocomposites reinforced with nanoplatelets.

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### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compscitech.2017.11.007>.

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