

**FINITE ELEMENT ANALYSIS OF
MECHANICAL PROPERTIES FOR 2D WOVEN
KENAF COMPOSITE**

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ABSTRAK

Komposit tenunan berdasarkan serat semulajadi semakin banyak digunakan untuk aplikasi dalam industri disebabkan oleh kos yang rendah, ringan, kurang menyebabkan kerosakan pada peralatan pemprosesan, kemasan permukaan yang baik, ciri-ciri mekanikal yang baik dan sumber yang boleh diperbaharui, terdapat beberapa masalah bagi membangunkan produk kerana kos dan tempoh masa untuk melaksanakan pengujian produk dalam skala sebenar. Teknik model ramalan digunakan untuk mengurangkan keperluan untuk ujian fizikal, memendekkan masa rekabentuk dan mengoptimumkan rekabentuk. Sifat-sifat mekanikal fabrik tenunan bagi teknikal tekstil bergantung kepada a) bahan mentah b) bilangan benang c) kepadatan benang dan d) struktur tenunan. Justeru itu, kajian ini dilaksanakan untuk mengenalpasti kesan rekabentuk fabrik terhadap sifat-sifat mekanikal. Kombinasi antara saiz benang dan corak tenunan bagi menghasilkan struktur fabrik yang optimum dikaji. Kajian ini dilaksanakan pada skala mikroskopik, mesoscopik dan makroskopik. Kelebihan menggunakan kaedah ini ialah: (1) mengurangkan kos pembangunan produk dengan kaedah cuba jaya (2) mengurangkan masa untuk memperkenalkan teknologi baru, (3) kaedah model pelbagai skala mengurangkan kemungkinan rekabentuk yang konservatif atau dikompromi yang menyebabkan kebergantungan kepada bahan yang kurang sempurna. Perisian digunakan bagi menghasilkan model komposit tenunan kenaf yang mempunyai ciri-ciri tersendiri. Seterusnya, model dianalisis menggunakan kaedah analisis unsur terhingga untuk meramalkan sifat-sifat mekanikal komposit tenunan kenaf. Di samping itu, kesan gabungan saiz benang dan corak tenunan bagi komposit kenaf tenunan dikenalpasti merujuk kepada sifat-sifat mekanikal untuk meramalkan struktur yang optimum bagi komposit kenaf tenunan.

ABSTRACT

Woven composite based on natural fiber increasingly used for many applications in industries because of their advantages such as low cost, low weight, less damage to processing equipment, improved surface finish, good relative mechanical properties and renewable resources, but there are some problems as cost and protracted development period to perform reliability evaluation by experimental with real scale. Predictive modeling technique is used to minimize the need for physical testing, shorten design timescales and provide optimized designs. Mechanical properties of woven fabrics for technical textile depend on a) type of raw materials b) type and count of warp and weft yarns c) yarn density and d) the type of weave structure. The effect of fabric architecture to the mechanical properties is investigated. The optimum fabric structure is crucial due to the combination of difference of yarn size and weave pattern are observed. The research is conducted in the microscopic, mesoscopic and the macroscopic scale. The benefit using the hierarchal method of multi scale modeling is: (1) it encourages a reduced reliance on costly trial and error. (2) Lead-time for the introduction of new technologies is reduced, (3) the multi-scale modeling system lowers the likelihood of conservative or compromised designs that might have resulted from reliance on less-than-perfect material. Woven kenaf composite is modeled using the modeling software to get the properties of the model. Further, the model is analyzed using finite element analysis to predict the mechanical properties of the woven kenaf composite. In addition, the effect of the combination of yarn size and weave pattern of the woven kenaf composite is stated based on the mechanical properties to predict the optimum structure of woven kenaf composite.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	TITLE	i
	DECLARATION	ii
	DEDICATION	iii
	ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
	ABSTRACT	v
	ABSTRAK	vi
	TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
	LIST OF FIGURES	xi
	LIST OF TABLES	xv
CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION	
	1.0 Introduction to composite materials	1
	1.1 Problem statement	4
	1.2 Objective of study	6
	1.3 Scope of study	7
	1.4 Research outcome	7
CHAPTER 2	LITERATURE REVIEW	
	2.0 Textile structure composite	8
	2.1 Natural fibers	9
	2.2 Textile structure composite manufacturing process	11
	2.3 Woven fabrics	15
	2.4 Effect of weave pattern in woven composite	17
	2.5 Numerical simulation system for woven	20

2.6	Finite element modeling of yarns and resin	23
2.7	Simulation method of damage development	25
2.8	Finite element analysis meshing dependency	29
CHAPTER 3	METHODOLOGY	
3.0	Introduction	33
3.1	Kenaf fiber data	35
3.2	Modeling of 2D woven kenaf composite using WISETEX	36
3.2.1	Fiber	37
3.2.2	Yarn	38
3.2.3	Weave pattern	41
3.3	Modeling finite element using FETEX	44
3.4	Finite element analysis using ANSYS	47
3.4.1	The ANSYS finite element model	47
CHAPTER 4	RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS	
4.0	Introduction	51
4.1	Modeling of woven kenaf composite	51
4.1.1	Development of woven kenaf composite model using WISETEX	52
4.1.2	Woven kenaf composite with same weave pattern for difference yarn size and yarn density	53
4.1.2.1	Summary of the analysis of difference yarn size and same weave pattern	71
4.1.3	Woven kenaf composite with difference weave pattern for same yarn size and yarn density	72

4.1.3.1	Summary of difference weave pattern with same yarn size	79
4.1.4	Limitation of yarns density in woven kenaf composite	80
4.1.5	The effect of crimp on deformation of kenaf composite	82
4.1.5.1	Summary for the effect on deformation of woven kenaf composite	88
4.2	Mechanical properties of woven kenaf composite in FETEX	90
4.2.1	Summary for woven kenaf composite same yarn size with different weave pattern for the mechanical properties	96
4.3	Meshing for woven kenaf composite	98
4.3.1	Summary of woven kenaf composite meshing	103
4.4	Woven kenaf composite stress and displacement	103
4.5	Summary of the research result	106
 CHAPTER 5		
	CONCLUSIONS	
5.0	Introduction	108
5.1	Conclusion	108
5.2	Recommendations for further work	110
	REFERENCES	

LIST OF TABLES

2.1	Classification of vegetable and cellulose fiber	10
2.2	Properties of principal fibers	11
2.3	Typical fiber-to-yarn strength translation efficiencies in various yarn structures	14
2.4	Properties of fibers and matrix E_L and E_T are axial and transverse Young Modulus, ν_{LT} Poisson ratio for longitudinal extensions, ϵ_t ultimate tension strength	20
2.5	Weave characteristics for the glass/epoxy woven fabric composites	20
2.6	Weave geometry parameters for the composites	20
2.7	Classification of damage mode	26
2.8	Mesh sensitivity study on Layer-to-Layer weave model	31
3.1	The properties of kenaf fiber	36
3.2	The properties of impregnated yarns	45
4.1	Fixed variable value in WISETEX	52
4.2	Independent and dependent variable in WISETEX	53
4.3	Model properties for Plain 1/1 with 3 yarns/cm	55
4.4	Model properties for Twill 1/2 with 3 yarns/cm	57
4.5	Model properties for Satin 5/2 with 3 yarns/cm	60
4.6	Model properties for Plain 1/1 with 5 yarns/cm	63
4.7	Model properties for Twill 1/2 with 5 yarns/cm	66
4.8	Model properties for Satin 5/2 with 5 yarns/cm	69
4.9	Model properties for 759 tex, 3 yarns/cm with difference weave pattern	73
4.10	Model properties for 759 tex, 5 yarns/cm with difference weave pattern	74

4.11	Model properties for 413.4 tex, 3 yarns/cm with difference weave pattern	75
4.12	Model properties for 413.4 tex, 5 yarns/cm with difference weave pattern	76
4.13	Model properties for 276 tex, 3 yarns/cm with difference weave pattern	77
4.14	Model properties for 276 tex, 5 yarns/cm with difference weave pattern	78
4.15	The mechanical properties of difference weave pattern with yarn size 276 tex and yarn density 3 yarns/cm	91
4.16	The mechanical properties of difference weave pattern with yarn size 276 tex and yarn density 5 yarns/cm	92
4.17	The mechanical properties of difference weave pattern with yarn size 413.4 tex and yarn density 3 yarns/cm	93
4.18	The mechanical properties of difference weave pattern with yarn size 413.4 tex and yarn density 5 yarns/cm	94
4.19	The mechanical properties of difference weave pattern with yarn size 759 tex and yarn density 3 yarns/cm	95
4.20	The mechanical properties of difference weave pattern with yarn size 759 tex and yarn density 5 yarns/cm	96

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1	Geometrical model of composite woven structure (woven reinforcement, matrix, composite)	3
1.2	Structure–property relationships for textiles and associated multi-scale modeling hierarchy	6
2.1	Preform/RTM parts in NH90	9
2.2	Hierarchical of textile structure composite	12
2.3	Different examples of idealized models of various yarn structures	13
2.4	Comparison of basic fabric structures	15
2.5	Comparison of most common woven fabric structures	17
2.6	Interlacing patterns for woven fabric composites (a) Plain weave (b) Twill weave (c) Satin weave	18
2.7	Load-displacement curves for the glass/epoxy composite DCB specimens (a) Plain weave 0^0 ; (b) Plain weave 90^0 (c) Twill weave 0^0 (d) Twill weave 90^0 (e) 8H-satin weave 0^0 (f) 8H satin weave 90^0	19
2.8	Positioning of the insert film in the interplay region for crack propagation along the fill and weft yarns (0^0 and 90^0 directions)	19
2.9	A practical numerical simulation system	21
2.10	Multi-scale modeling of woven composites with 3 scales	22
2.11	Geometrical modeling of 3D visual image by WiseTex program	23
2.12	Procedure of finite element model of woven fabric composites	24
2.13	Finite element modeling of twill fabric composites by MeshTex program	25

2.14	Anisotropic damage mode for fiber bundle	26
2.15	Numerical models for macro, meso, micro method	27
2.16	Damage development for meso model	28
2.17	Damage development for micro model	28
2.18	Comparison of stress-strain curves of experimental and numerical results	29
2.19	DST meshes: Mesh dependency study on Layer-to-Layer composite	31
3.1	General properties of Kenaf fiber	37
3.2	The mechanic properties for Kenaf fiber	38
3.3	The weft and warp yarn windows	39
3.4	d01 and d02 of yarns	40
3.5	Woven fabric data	41
3.6	Weave selection menu	42
3.7	The result of 'check it' option	43
3.8	Graphical editor of weave pattern (Plain 1/1)	43
3.9	3D image of weave pattern (Plain 1/1)	44
3.10	(a) Before (b) After applying section view and fit fabric to matrix box	45
3.11	(a) The number of elements N1 and N2 (b) The boundary condition of the matrix	46
3.12	Geometry file upload from FETex	47
3.13	The boundary conditions and load for the model	48
3.14	The finite element analysis result	49
3.15	Graph form the analysis	49
4.1	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 256, weave pattern Plain 1/1, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	54
4.2	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 413.4 tex, weave pattern Plain 1/1, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	54
4.3	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 759 tex, weave pattern Plain 1/1, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	54
4.4	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 276 tex, weave pattern Twill 1/2, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	56

4.5	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 413.4 tex, weave pattern Twill 1/2, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	56
4.6	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 759 tex, weave pattern Twill 1/2, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	57
4.7	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 276 tex, weave pattern Satin 5/2, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	59
4.8	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 413.4 tex, weave pattern Satin 5/2, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	59
4.9	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 759 tex, weave pattern Satin 5/2, yarn density 3 yarns/cm	60
4.10	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 276 tex, weave pattern Plain 1/1, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	62
4.11	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 413.4 tex, weave pattern Plain 1/1, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	62
4.12	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 759 tex, weave pattern Plain 1/1, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	63
4.13	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 276 tex, weave pattern Twill 1/2, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	65
4.14	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 413.4 tex, weave pattern Twill 1/2, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	65
4.15	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 759 tex, weave pattern Twill 1/2, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	66
4.16	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 276 tex, weave pattern Satin 5/2, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	68
4.17	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 413.4 tex, weave pattern Satin 5/2, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	68
4.18	Model of the woven kenaf composite for yarn size 759 tex, weave pattern Satin 5/2, yarn density 5 yarns/cm	69
4.19	Percentage of porosity and crimp for same weave pattern with 3 yarns/cm	71
4.20	Percentage of porosity and crimp for same weave pattern with 5 yarns/cm	72
4.21	Percentage of porosity and crimp for same yarn size with 3 yarns/cm	79

4.22	Percentage of porosity and crimp for same yarn size with 5 yarns/cm	80
4.23	The yarn density interface window	81
4.24	The warning message of tight structure	81
4.25	The direction of force in X and Y	82
4.26	The (a) early stage and (b) the final stage (rupture) of the woven kenaf composite model	82
4.27	Force versus percentage of deformation for yarn size 276 tex	83
4.28	Force versus percentage of deformation for yarn size 413.4 tex	84
4.29	Force versus percentage of deformation for yarn size 759 tex	85
4.30	Force versus percentage of deformation for weave pattern Plain 1/1	86
4.31	Force versus percentage of deformation for weave pattern Twill ½	87
4.32	Force versus percentage of deformation for weave pattern Satin 5/2	88
4.33	Force versus percentage of deformation for all models	89
4.34	Force versus percentage of crimp	89
4.35	The mechanical properties of impregnated yarn	97
4.36	The data of mechanical properties form (a) FETEX and (b) ANSYS	98
4.37	The interface for N1 and N2	99
4.38	The redundancy of the element for the woven kenaf composite model	100
4.39	The meshing of yarn in ANSYS (a) Twill ½ (b) Plain 1/1	100
4.40	The result of N1 and N2 of the element in model	101
4.41	The boundary condition of the matrix	101
4.42	The volume of model of woven kenaf composite in the ANSYS	102
4.43	Plot by (a) lines, (b) area, (c) nodes and (d) element	103
4.44	Stress versus displacement for 276 tex	104
4.45	Stress versus displacement for 413.4 tex	105
4.46	Stress versus displacement for 759 tex	106

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction to composite materials

Composite materials with woven fabric reinforcement have become increasingly popular for use in structural applications in recent years due to their advantages such as low fabrication costs, light weight, ease of handling and high adaptability, over tape laminates and several other engineering materials (Hallett, 2008).

As interest in the use of composite materials for structural applications continues to increase, alternative reinforcements to conventional pre-preg systems are being more widely considered. 3-D woven composites are gaining increased prominence due to their ability to produce near net shape preforms as well as integrated third direction reinforcement. The important characteristics of 3-D woven preforms that make them suitable for composites are high axial rigidity, flexibility, formability and stability. One of the barriers to their advancement and increased use is the difficulties associated with creating numerical models to predict their performance (Hallett, 2008).

Composite material performance is affected by the fiber architecture and fiber–matrix interface. Fiber architecture which consists of (i) fiber geometry (ii) fiber orientation (iii) packing arrangement and (iv) fiber volume fraction, controls many composite mechanical properties. (Paul et al, 2006). The interface between fiber and the matrix is also crucial in terms of composite performance. The interface serves to transfer externally applied loads to the reinforcement via shear stresses over the interface (Paul et al, 2006). Therefore, many researches are conducted to determine early prediction mechanical properties of composite material.

Finite element analysis and analytical methods are powerful tools for studying the mechanical properties of woven composite. However, the complexity of the microstructure is proportional to the number of parameters controlling the mechanical properties. So, various finite element techniques and assumptions have been proposed for simplifying the analysis. (Tan et al, 1997; Crookston et al, 2005). A Domain Superposition Technique (DST) has been previously proposed, which is able to overcome a number of traditional difficulties in creating finite element models of composites with complex internal architecture (Jiang et al, 2008). One of the fundamental difficulties faced in modeling the detailed unit cell is to build geometry free from interpenetration at tow crossovers. Another significant problem is that a very fine finite element mesh is required to deal with the degenerated volumes of the resin pockets between tows. This can lead to very large finite element models exceeding a million degrees of freedom to model a single unit cell, which is only a very small part of the structure. DST is successfully implemented for the development on 2D weave structures (Hallett, 2008). A mesh sensitivity study has been conducted showing that good results are still obtained even when a relatively coarse mesh is used.

Finite element analysis is based on the modeling of the composite material. Several methods were adopted for the mechanical modeling and analysis of the composite structures. A basic classification, according to the modeling method used, divides them into the analytical and numerical or computational approaches. The dominant engineering design culture played important role for the development and the succession of these approaches. Another essential classification of the modeling of the textile structures is made according to the scale of the model. There is micromechanical, meso-mechanical and the macro-mechanical modeling (Takano et al, 1999).

The micromechanical modeling stage focuses on the study of the yarns, tows even fabrics taking into account the structure, orientation and mechanical properties of the constituent fibers. The meso-mechanical modeling, on the other side, studies the mechanical characteristics of the fabric unit cell considering the yarns as homogenous structures. Finally the macro-mechanical modeling stage is referred to the prediction of mechanical performance of the composite in complex deformations, as drape, studying the composite as a continuum material (Bogdanovich, A.E, 2006;

Lomov et al, 2001). Thus the textile society implemented a modeling hierarchy based on three modeling scales: the micromechanical modeling of yarns, the meso-mechanical modeling of the fabric unit cell and the macro-mechanical modeling of the fabric sheet.

The first numerical studies is conducted to studies for the evaluation of the elastic properties of the plain woven composite structures based on a strain energy method applied to a one-direction undulation model using the FEM (Zhang, Y.C. and Harding, J. A, 1990). The studies consider of the tow undulation in one-direction that is a non-realistic assumption for woven fabrics. Research by Naik and Ganesh (1992), expanded the above approach taking into account the strand cross section geometry, possible gap between two adjacent strands and the two-direction undulation geometry with a detailed model of a large number of geometrical parameters to describe the undulation and varying thickness of the tow structure .

Whitcomb introduced the first 3D finite element model of plain woven composites to studied the effect of quadrature order, mesh density and material degradation on the predicted failure resulting from the in-plain loading (Whitcomb, J. and Srirengan, K, 1996). Figure 1.1 shows the 3D solid modeling of the composite structure consists in the generation of the volumes representing the woven unit cell and composite unit cell as an external volume. Finally the volume of the matrix material is the subtracting volumes of the woven structure from the external volume.



Figure 1.1: Geometrical model of composite woven structure
(woven reinforcement, matrix, composite) (Whitcomb, J. and Srirengan, K, 1996)

The prediction of the in plane elastic properties for the tow cross section (consideration of compressed hexagonal shape) of single layer 2/2 twill weave fabric composite was conducted by Ng et al (1998). The model approximately 52000 finite elements and 12000 nodes was generated using the finite element analysis software for modeling and mechanical analysis based on the 8-node solid elements with 3 degrees of freedom (translational) per node. The contact areas generated during the subtracting operation (for the generation of matrix material) were assigned to be shared entities for both the yarn and the matrix volumes, to ensure the transmission of loading.

1.1 Problem statement

In recent years, natural fiber is considerable attention as a substitute candidate for synthetic fibers. The application of natural fiber growing in many sectors such as automotive and construction due to their advantage compared to synthetics fiber. The advantages of natural fiber are low cost, low weight, less damage to processing equipment, improved surface finish, good relative mechanical properties and renewable resources (Chin CW, Yousif BF, 2012; Yousif BF, Ku H, 2012). Fiber construction in form of fabric can be construct in many ways such as woven, braided, stitched, and so forth can be used to form the fabric reinforcement. Woven composite offer a number of attractive properties compared to non woven. Woven composite is consists of microscopic scale (bundle of fiber in yarn), mesoscopic scale (sets of yarns in fabric) and macroscopic scale (fabric itself). The considerations of the mechanical properties of woven composite are tensile strength, impact properties, torsional stiffness, fatigue, vibration and flexural strength (Joshi SV et al, 2004; Velmurugan R and Manikandan V, 2007). Woven composites have many design parameters such as volume fraction of fiber, architecture of reinforced fibers, the mechanical properties etc. There are some problems as cost and protracted development period to perform reliability evaluation by experimental with real scale. Recently, many researchers have studied the finite element analysis to predict mechanical properties of textile composite and mechanical properties and failure

behaviors of plain weave composites have been estimated (Tang and Whitcomb, 2003).

Textile composite structures are still designed largely on the basis of experience, intuition and trial-and-error. Therefore, tracing any final product error is very complicated. Predictive modeling technique is used to minimize the need for physical testing, shorten design timescales and provide optimized designs. Approach of multi-scale modeling system is used to develop an energy-based argument combined with elastica methods to incorporate non-linear frictional behavior for yarn modeling. Yarn constitutive mechanical properties are computed at fiber-yarn scale. These material properties form an input to yarn–fabric scale simulations. The finite element method is employed at yarn–fabric scale, with the yarn modeled as a continuum (Tan et al, 1997).

Combined model is used if the mechanical properties of fabric are affected by surface treatment. Suitable model should include a description of both the effect of meso-friction (i.e., between the yarns) and the effect of micro-friction (i.e. between the fibers in a yarn), together taking into account of fiber distribution within yarns and yarn topologies within a fabric. The benefit using hierarchical method of multi scale modeling is: (1) it encourages a reduced reliance on costly trial and error. (2) increases the confidence that new materials will possess the desired properties when scaled up from the laboratory level, so that lead-time for the introduction of new technologies is reduced, (3) the multi-scale modeling system lowers the likelihood of conservative or compromised designs that might have resulted from reliance on less-than-perfect materials. There are many challenges for development of multi-scale modeling approach without loss of intrinsic structural information for such a complicated structure material as shown in Figure 1.2.

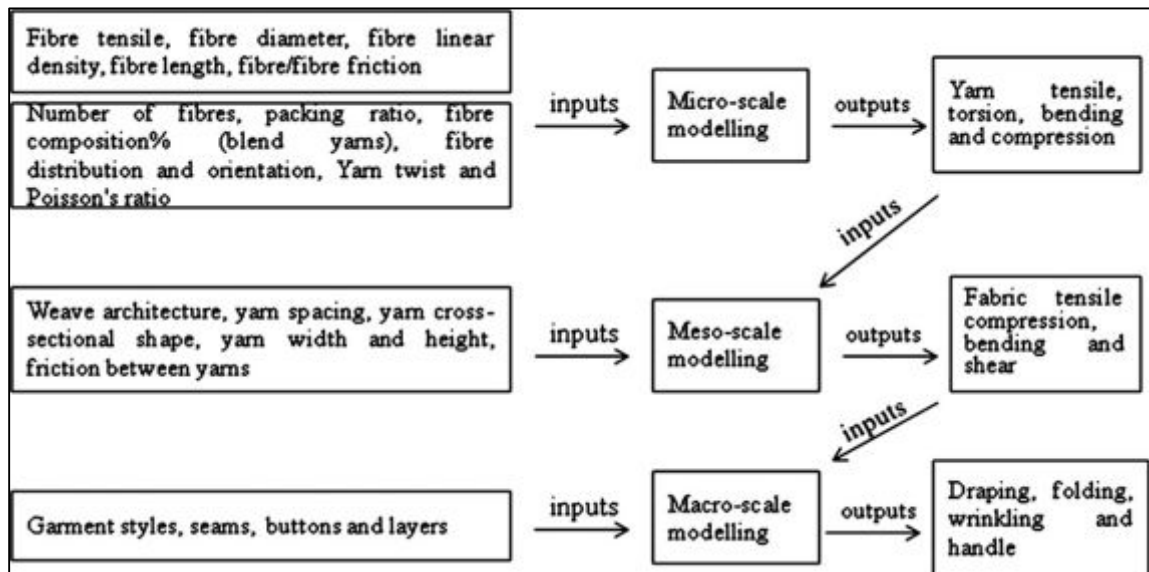


Figure 1.2: Structure–property relationships for textiles and associated multi-scale modeling hierarchy (H.Lin et.al, 2012).

Finite element analysis is used to predict the mechanical properties of the woven composite by using the finite element analysis and modeling software to do the modeling of the woven fabric in different fabric weave structures. The finite element modeling solution process consists of the following steps (H.Lin et.al, 2012):

- i. Divide structure into piece elements with nodes (discretization / meshing)
- ii. Connect (assemble) the elements at the nodes to form an approximate system of equations for the whole structure (forming element matrices)
- iii. Solve the system of equations involving unknown quantities at the nodes
- iv. Calculate desired quantities (e.g., strains and stresses) at selected elements.

1.2 Objective of study

- i. To analyze the mechanical properties of woven kenaf composite with different yarn sizes (759 tex, 413.4 tex, 276 tex)
- ii. To analyze the mechanical properties of woven kenaf composite with different 2D weave patterns (Plain 1/1, Twill 1/2, Satin 5/2)
- iii. To optimize the fabric structure of plain 1/1, Twill 1/2, Satin 5/2

1.3 Scope of study

In order to achieve the objective, the scope of research was to analyze the mechanical properties of woven kenaf composite with different yarn size, different 2D weave pattern and to optimize the fabric structure. The yarn size use in this research is 759 tex, 413.4 tex and 276 tex for difference 2D weave pattern; Plain 1/1, Twill ½ and Satin 5/2. Furthermore, effect of using the combination for optimum mechanical properties of woven kenaf composite was investigated.

1.4 Research outcome

- i. The effect of different yarn size to the mechanical properties of the woven kenaf composite.
- ii. The effect of different 2D weave pattern to the optimum value of mechanical properties.
- iii. The optimum value for the mechanical properties depends on the combination of yarn size and weave pattern.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Textile structure composite

Composites can be defined as a combination of dissimilar material with a specific internal structure and internal shape. This combination lead to singular mechanical properties and increase the performance characteristic compared to the material alone. Additionally, composite materials give superior strength to weight basis compare to other materials (e.g. metal). Based on the advantages of composite, the range of application for composite material appears to be limitless (Paul et al, 2006).

Textile structure composites represent of advanced material which are reinforced with the textile for structural or load bearing applications. Textile structure composites are part of larger category of textile composite. Textile composite is the combination of a resin with a textile fiber, yarn or fabric in form of flexible or rigid body. Flexible textile composite includes the heavy duty conveyer or the inflatable life rafts. Besides that, textile structural composite are also use as the structural materials to resist heavy loads in the basic framework for buildings, vehicles, etc. The majority of textile composites are fiber reinforced plastic (FRP). FRP made of a textile composite perform embedded with a resin, metal or ceramic matrix. The matrix provides rigidity and holds the textile reinforcement material in prescribed orientation and position in the composite (fibers, yarns or fabrics) (Poe, C. C., and Harris, C.E, 1995).

Aircraft and automotive manufacturers have been focus in the application of textile composites structure for more than two decades. Woven carbon fiber is use as the textile structure composite in the component part is shown in Figure 2.1. The

composites structure offer competitive cost reduction and improve structural performance compare to current metallic materials. Numerous micromechanical models have been developed to predict the effective strengths and stiffness. Finite element analysis is use to predicted the textile mechanical properties even though they are based on simplifying assumptions but it's provide good approximation to extensive testing. (Poe, C. C., and Harris, C.E, 1995)



Figure 2.1: Preform/RTM parts in NH90 (Dumont et al, 2008)

2.1 Natural fibers

Natural fiber can be divided into vegetables, animal and mineral fibers. Vegetables fiber can be classified either wood or non-wood. Bast and leaf fibers are example of non-wood fibers. Due to environmental awareness, the fiber use to build the textile structure composite previously focuses for natural fiber like cotton, flax, hemp and

kenaf (Paul et al, 2006). The selection of suitable fibers is determined by the values of the stiffness and tensile strength of the composite. Other criteria for the choice of reinforcing fibers are elongation of failure, thermal stability, adhesion of fiber and matrix, dynamics and long term behaviors, price and processing costs (Paul et al, 2006). Hemp and flax fiber can compete with E-glass fiber due to the tensile strength, elasticity and elongation at failure. Table 2.1 shows the classification of vegetable and cellulose fiber.

Table 2.1: Classification of vegetable and cellulose fiber (Paul et al, 2006)

Bast	Leaf	Seed	Fruit	Stalk	Wood Fibers
Flax	Sisal	Cotton	Coconut	Bamboo	Hardwood
Hemp	Manila	Kapok		Wheat	Softwood
Jute	Curaua			Rice	
Kenaf	Banana			Grass	
Ramie	Palm			Barley	
Banana				Corn	
Rattan					

Kenaf fibers can be use because of the properties which are low cost, lightweight, renewability, biodegradability and high specific mechanical properties as shown in Table 2.2. It has superior flexural strength and excellent tensile strength which make kenaf a good candidate for many applications. Kenaf fibers also have high absorption in moisture (hydrophilic) which can affect the mechanical properties whereas most common polymer matrix is hydrophobic but with certain treatment the adhesion can be overcome. The strength of kenaf is quite low compare to carbon and glass fiber but due to its low density it can compete with those synthetic fibers (I.S Aji et al, 2009).

Table 2.2: Properties of principal fibers (I.S Aji et al, 2009)

	Diameter µm	Ultimate Stress Mpa	Strain %	Modulus Gpa	Density Kg/m³	Specific Stress (Mpa*m³/Kg)	Cellulose/ lignin	Microf. Angle 0°
Ramic	16-120	800-1000	1.7-3	50-80	1560	0.51-0.64	70-80/0.5-1	6.0-10.0
Pincapple	20-80	400-1000	0.8-1.6	34-82	1440	0.28-0.69	84-5/12-7	14-80
Banana	80-250	500-700	2-3.5	7.7-20.8	1350	0.37-0.52	63-64/5	11
Palmyra	70-1300	95-220	3.2-11	3.3-7.0	1090	0.09-0.20		30
Sisal	50-300	500-600	3.0-7.0	9.4-16	1450	0.34-0.41	66-72/14-10	18-22
Coir	12.0-24.0	100-200	15-20	4.0-6.0	1150	0.09-0.17	32-43/40-45	30-49
Jute	25-120	400-700	1.5-2	2.5-15	1450	0.28-0.48	63-70/12	7.0-9.0
Hemp	16-50	400-700	1,6-2,5	35	1480	0,27-0,47	70-88/3-4	6,0-10,0
Kenaf	15-30	350-600	2.5-3.5	40	1500	0.22-0.40	75-90	9.0-1.0
Cotton	15-25	300-600	5.0-8.0	4.0-12.0	1520	0.20-0.39	90-95/0	20-30
Flax	12.0-30.0	900-1200	2.0-3.0	100	1540	0.58-0.80	71/2.2	6.0-10.0
Carbon	6-10.5	1700-2400	1.4-1.8	180-415	1880	0.90-1.28		
Glass	2.5-15	1400-2500	2.5-5	68-96	2540	0.57-0.98		

2.2 Textile structure composite manufacturing process

Textile structural composites can be studied in their hierarchical manufacturing process. There are usually four important levels in the manufacturing process for textile composite as shown in Figure 2.2.

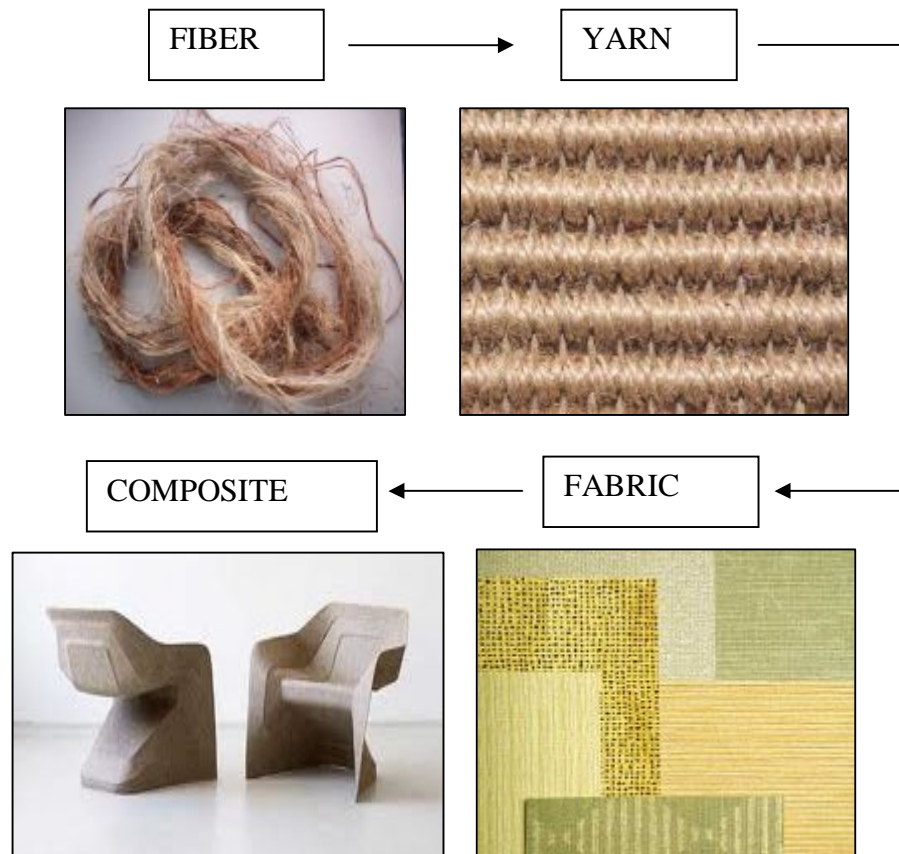


Figure 2.2: Hierarchical of textile structure composite (Scardino, F, 1989)

First step is the choice of the high modulus fibers to resist high loads in structural applications. Second step of the manufacturing process is grouping together the fibers (or filaments) in a linear assemblage to form a continuous strand having textile-like characteristics. After that, a group of filaments is then impregnated with resin (for non-hybrid fabrics, the resin is the same for all the strands and usually the same for the preform) and the resulting a tubular form called yarn (Scardino, F, 1989). As shown in Figure 2.3, yarns may be composed of one (a) or more (b) continuous filaments, or even discontinuous chopped fibers (c). Finally, two or more single yarns can be twisted together to form ply or plied yarns (d and e). The manufacturing process of yarns itself can involve rather complicated shapes.

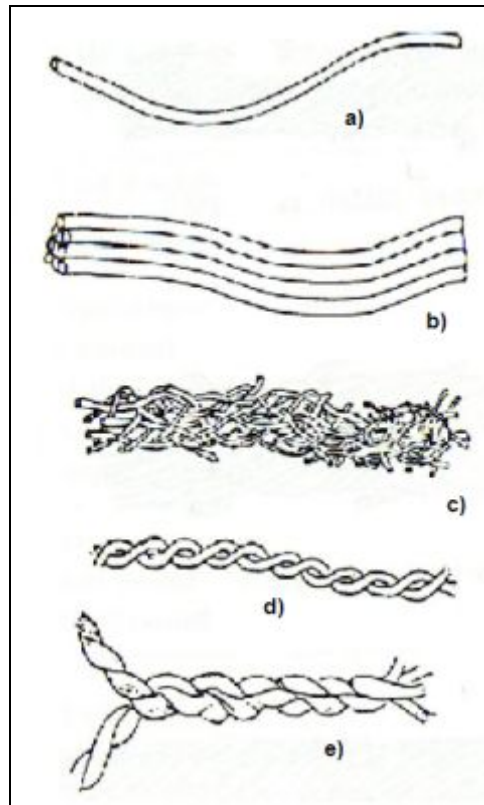


Figure 2.3: Different examples of idealized models of various yarn structures
(Scardino, F, 1989)

Yarn structural features can be characterized by several geometrical parameters such as number of filaments, the diameter of the filaments (assuming the fibers have a cylindrical shape), and the yarn packing density, defined as the ratio of the fiber volume to the yarn overall volume. Yarn structure plays a dominant role in the translation of fiber properties into yarn properties. Table 2.3 listed the typical fiber-to-yarn strength translation efficiencies in various yarn structures for ordinary textile composites.

Table 2.3: Typical fiber-to-yarn strength translation efficiencies in various yarn structures (Scardino, F, 1989)

Yarn Structure	Strength translation efficiency (%) ^a
<i>Monofilament</i>	100
<i>Multifilament</i>	
Untwisted	98
Slightly Twisted	95
Air jet texturized	85
Stretch texturized	85

The mechanical properties of the yarns are mainly affected by the fiber orientation relative to the yarn axis and the fiber entanglement in the various structural forms. Multifilament untwisted yarn structures, the strength translation efficiency ratio is 98% close to 100%, therefore the behavior of these yarns are very close to that of the fibers themselves. The loss of strength in the fiber direction is due mostly to degradation during yarn processing and lack of toughness. The fibers are also assumed to be transversely isotropic and the resin isotropic, such that untwisted yarns can be considered as transversely isotropic.

The third step consists of bonding and interlocking the yarns together to produce a flat sheet with a specific pattern. Fabric types are categorized by the orientation of the yarns used, and by the various construction methods used to hold the yarns together. The periodicity of the repeating pattern in a textile fabric can be taken as a small repeating unit cell (RUC) which is sufficient to describe the fabric architecture. Figure 2.4 shows the four basic fabric structure categories are wovens, knits, braids, and nonwovens.





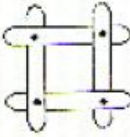



	Woven	Knitted	Braided	Nonwoven
Geometry				
Cell model				
Composition	yarn	yarn	yarn	fibers
Formation	interlace	interloop	intertwine	bond

Figure 2.4: Comparison of basic fabric structures (Scardino, F, 1989)

The interlacing of the yarns in a fabric leads to yarn crimp and give a critical influence on the composite stiffness and strength properties. Other factors such as the ability of a fabric to conform to a complex surface, stability, or porosity are also very important for the manufacturer.

2.3 Woven fabrics

Conventional woven fabrics consist of two sets of yarns mutually interlaced into a textile fabric structure. The threads that run along the length of the fabric are called warp or ends. The threads that run along the width of the fabric from edge to edge of fabric are referred as weft or picks. Warp and weft yarns are positioned under the angle of 90° . Warp and weft density is the number of warp and weft yarns per unit length. The warp and weft yarns in a woven fabric could be interlaced in various ways that is called a weave structure. The ratio of the yarn actual length to the length of the fabric it traverses is called crimp. The fiber volume fraction, fabric thickness and fabric mechanical properties influence by the crimp (J. W. S. Hearle et al, 1969). A cover factor is the fraction of the total fabric area that is covered by the component

yarn. The strength, thickness, stiffness, stability, porosity, filtering quality and abrasion resistance of fabrics will be influenced by fabric area density and cover factor (J. E. Booth, 1997).

Plain weave is the structure where warp yarns alternatively lift and go over across one weft yarn and vice versa is the simplest woven structure (Figure 2.5a). Twill is a weave that produces diagonal lines on the face of a fabric (Figure 2.5b). The direction of the diagonal lines viewed along the warp direction can be from upwards to the right or to the left making Z or S twill. Twills have longer floats, fewer intersections and a more open construction compared to plain weave of the same cloth parameters. There are many variations of twill construction (the smallest repeat is three in warp and weft direction) but the technical application of twills is restricted to simple twills.

A weave where binding places are arranged to produce a smooth fabric surface free from twill lines is called satin (Figure 2.5c) whereas the distribution of interlacing points must be as random as possible to avoid twill lines. The most popular are satins of 5 and 8 repeats and the smallest repeat of satin weave is 5. These 5 ends satin is most frequently used for technical applications for providing firm fabric although having moderate cover factor (A. Bogdanovic & K. Pastore, 1998). Mechanical properties of woven fabrics for technical textile depend on a) type of raw materials b) type and count of warp and weft yarns c) yarn density and d) the type of weave structure.

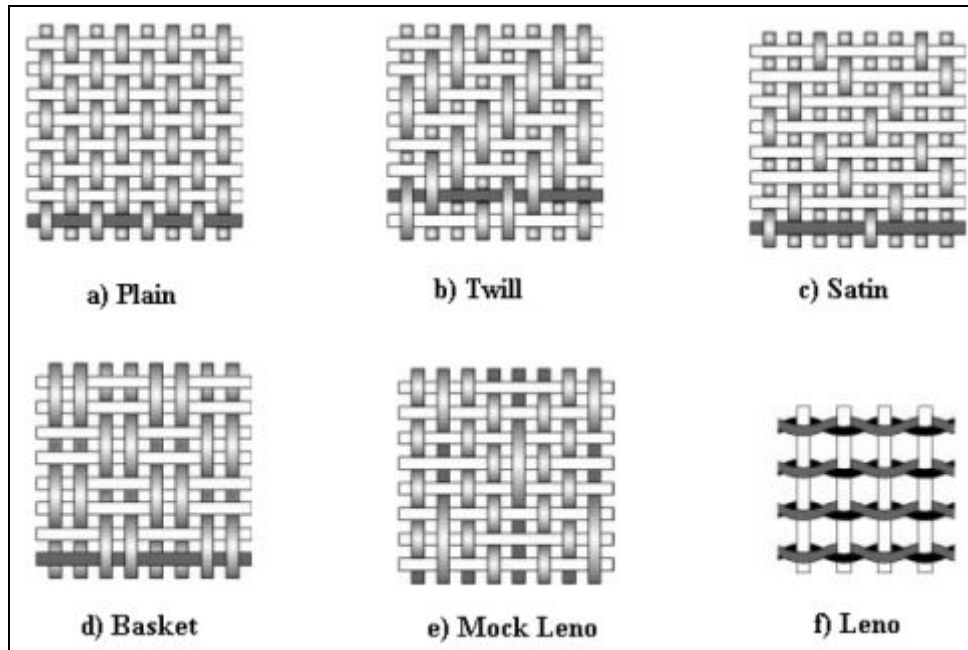


Figure 2.5: Comparison of most common woven fabric structures (David Cripps , 2002)

2.4 Effect of weave pattern in woven composite

Identification of woven fabric composites is based on their microstructure called unit cell (UC) (Alif N, et al. 1998). The interlacing of weave pattern and unit cell for orthogonal plain weave, twill weave and satin weave is shown in Figure 2.6. The interlacing counts between the fill and weft yarn determine by the index, n_g . The index for plain weave is two ($n_g = 2$), twill weave is three ($n_g = 3$) and satin weave is four or greater ($n_g = 4$). The research by Nidal Alif et al. using the two woven fabric composite system (glass/epoxy and carbon/epoxy), three weave pattern of glass/epoxy composite (plain weave, twill weave) and carbon/epoxy composite (5-harness satin weave, 8-harness satin weave). Figure 2.7 shows representative load-displacement ($P-\delta$) curves for the Double Cantilever Beam (DCB) mode I fracture specimen (ASTM D5528) for glass/epoxy (Alif N, et al. 1998).

The load-displacement curves for the plain weave composite are similar in both directions (Figure 2.7(a) and (b)). For the twill and satin weaves, however, crack propagation in the 90° direction, i.e. along the weft yarns (Figure 2.8), requires

significantly larger loads than propagation in the 0° direction. As the weave index, n_g increases the fracture toughness increase. The fracture resistance of the plain weave composite is almost independent of direction. The small difference in toughness between the two directions may be due to a fill-to-weft ratio other than 1 shown in Table 2.5. The resistance curves for the plain weave composite are almost horizontal indicating no change in the fracture mechanisms after precracking. The twill and satin weave composites it is observed that crack propagation in the 90° direction is associated with greater resistance than that in the 0° direction. No oscillations happen in the fracture resistance curves which might be influenced by the small tow width (Table 2.6). The reason for the stable growth observed may be the matrix ductility as reflected by the large failure elongation of the LY1802 epoxy (Table 2.4). The resistance curves for all glass/epoxy composites in a steady state without much of an increase in toughness. Steady-state fracture toughnesses for the glass/epoxy woven fabric composites are about: 425 (0°), 450 (90°), (plain), 525 (0°), 620 (90°), (twill), and 775 (0°) and 925 (90°) (8H-satin) in units of J/m^2 (Alif N, et al. 1998).

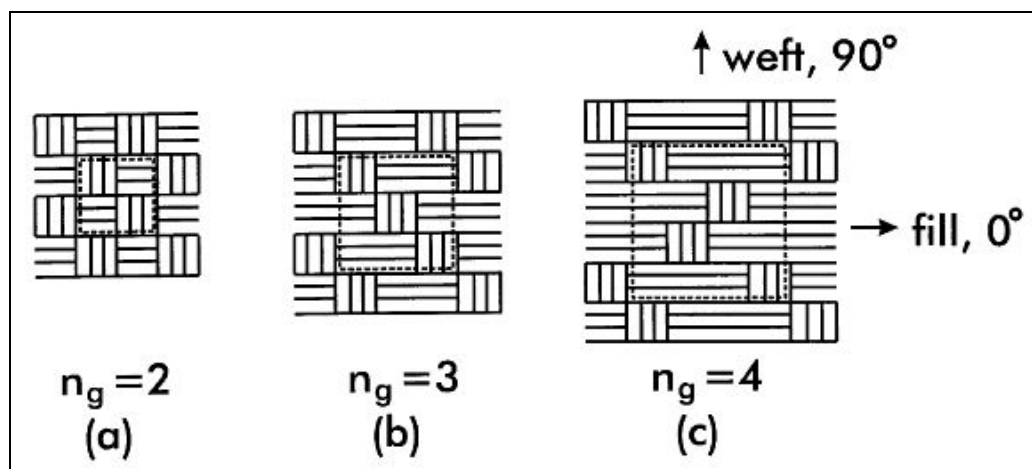


Figure 2.6: Interlacing patterns for woven fabric composites (a) Plain weave
(b) Twill weave (c) Satin weave (Alif N, et al. 1998)

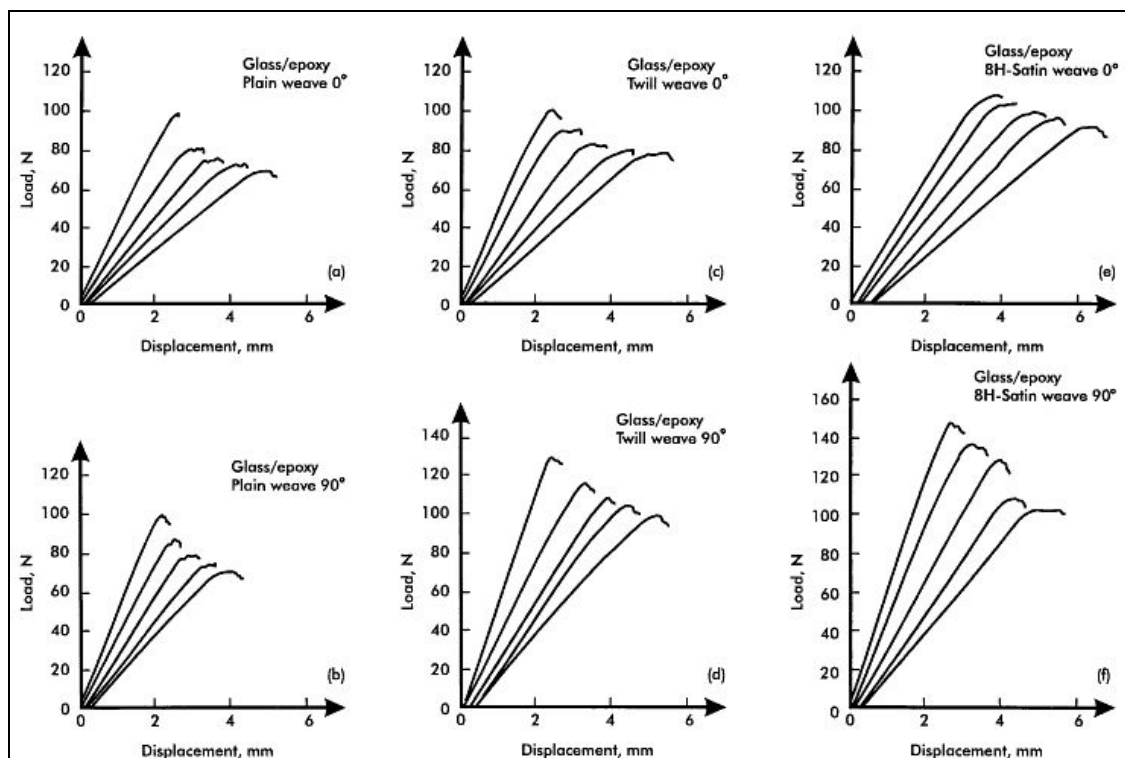


Figure 2.7: Load-displacement curves for the glass/epoxy composite DCB specimens
 (a) Plain weave 0° ; (b) Plain weave 90° (c) Twill weave 0° (d) Twill weave 90°
 (e) 8H-satin weave 0° (f) 8H satin weave 90° (Alif N, et al. 1998)

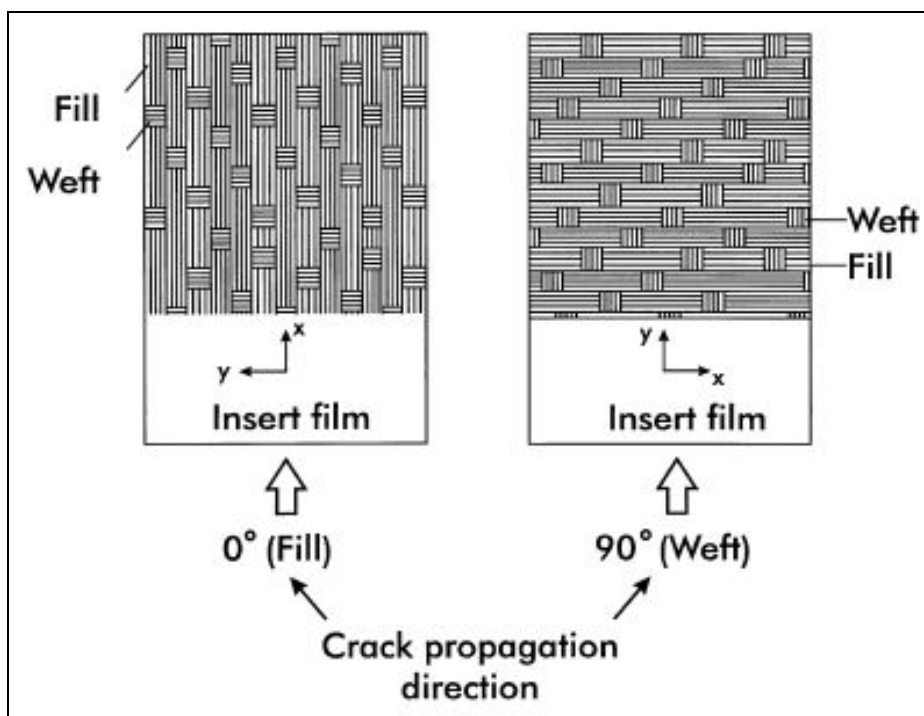


Figure 2.8: Positioning of the insert film in the interplay region for crack propagation along the fill and weft yarns (0° and 90° directions) (Alif N, et al. 1998)

Table 2.4: Properties of fibers and matrix E_L and E_T are axial and transverse Young Modulus, V_{LT} Poisson ratio for longitudinal extensions, ϵ_t ultimate tension strength (Alif N, et al. 1998)

Material	E-glass	IM7 Carbon	LY 1802 Epoxy	8551-7 epoxy
E_L	72	276	2.8	4.1
E_T	72	56	2.8	4.1
V_{LT}	0.3	0.25	0.36	0.37
ϵ_t (%)	2.4	1.81	4.5	1.93
ρ (g/cm ³)	2.54	1.77	1.18	1.372

Table 2.5: Weave characteristics for the glass/epoxy woven fabric composites (Alif N, et al. 1998)

Weave-type	Fiber diameter (μm)	Fill-to-weft ratio	Sizing
Plain	9	1.3	Volan A03
Twill	7	1.1	OSI A-1100
8H-satin	6	1.0	Volan A03

Table 2.6: Weave geometry parameters for the composites (Alif N, et al. 1998)

Composite	Repeat unit (n_g)	Tow width (mm)	Gap (mm)	Unit cell dimensions (mm)
Glass/epoxy (plain)	2	0.56	0.02	1.21 x 1.35
Glass/epoxy (twill)	3	0.51	0.02	1.54 x 1.55
Glass/epoxy (8H)	8	0.46	0.06	3.8 x 3.7
Carbon/epoxy (5H)	5	2.4	0.22	11.8 x 12

2.5 Numerical simulation system for woven

Woven composites have many design parameters such as volume fraction of fiber, architecture of reinforced fibers, the mechanical properties, etc. Therefore, there are some problems involved cost and development period for air planes and vehicles that must perform reliability evaluation by experiments with the real scale (Tetsusei Kurashiki et. al, 2007). Sherburn.M et al (2005) and Tang. X et al (2003) has

conducted a research using finite element analysis to predicted the mechanical properties of textile composite, mechanical properties and failure behaviors of plain weave composites. From the research, local delamination appears in resin region of crossing parts of yarns but there is no consideration for effect of resin region and damage development. Therefore, Lomov et al (2007) proposed numerical simulation system in multi-scale simulation to evaluate the damage development of woven composites shown in Figure 2.9. The step for the multi-scale simulation consists of macro, meso and micro model of woven composite is shown in Figure 2.10 (Verpoest, I. and S. V. Lomov , 2005).

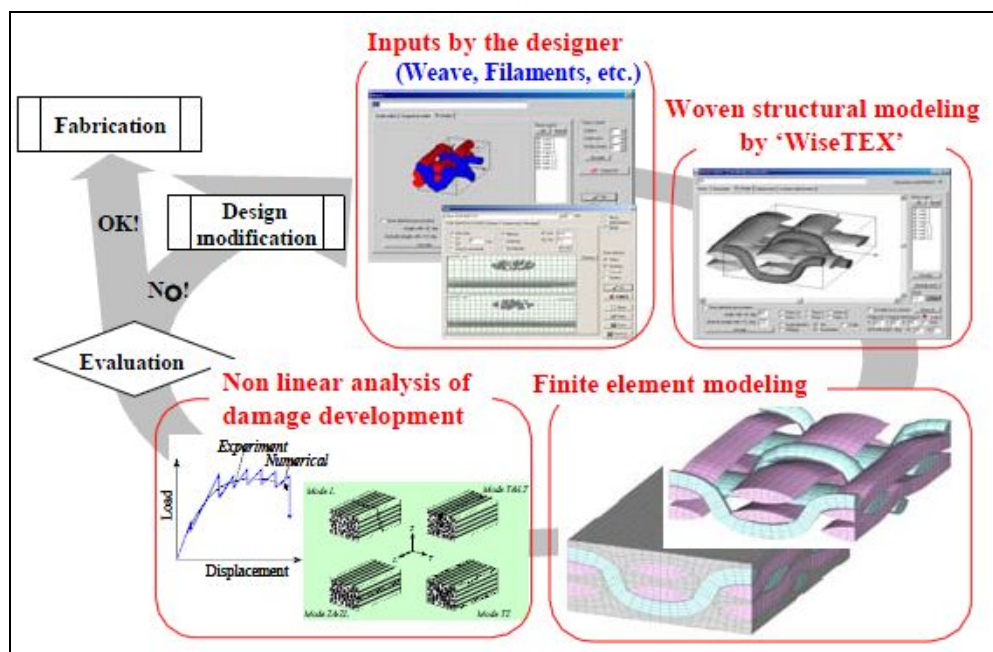


Figure 2.9: A practical numerical simulation system (Tetsusei Kurashiki et. al, 2007)

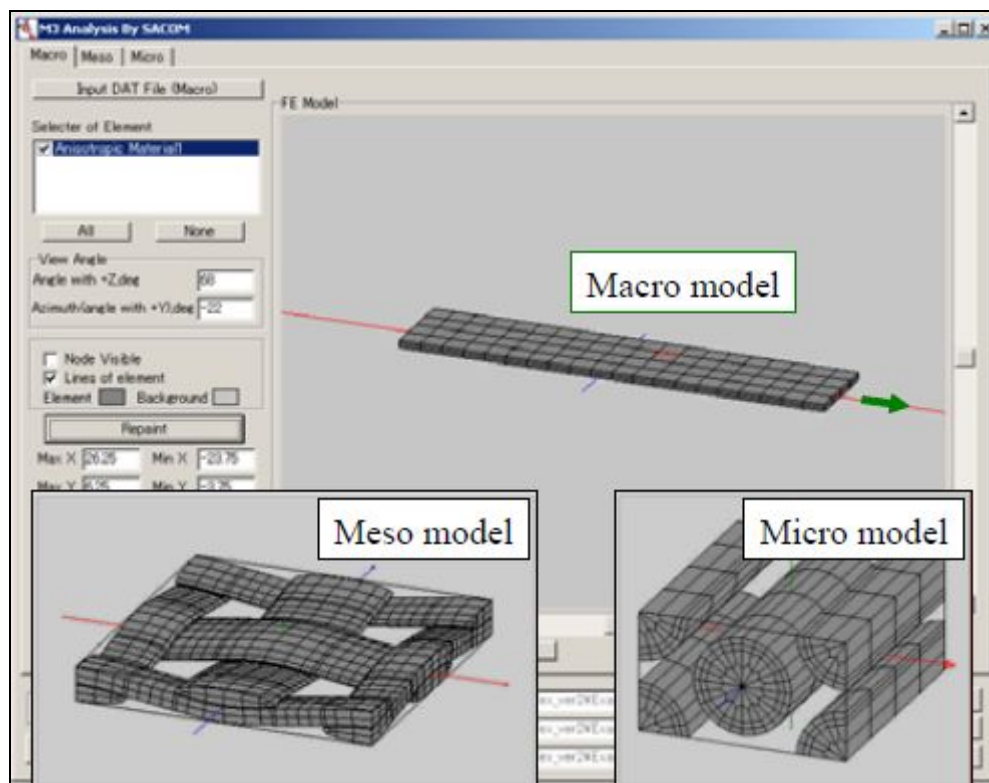


Figure 2.10: Multi-scale modeling of woven composites with 3 scales
(Tetsusei Kurashiki et. al, 2007)

The input data for a filament diameter, architecture of strand, etc will determine the topology of weave architecture and the structural model of internal geometry of the fabrics is generated. Numerical modeling program will generate hexahedron element for finite element model with yarns and matrix (Tetsusei Kurashiki et. al, 2007). The modeling simulation has a function to create 3D visual image of woven structure from weave diagram, etc. and also can determine the trajectory of the yarn in the stable state using the bending energy minimum theory within the software. The numerical modeling program not only generates the 2- dimensional textiles such as a plain weave and twill, but 3D woven or knitting can be corresponded and a structural image of a 3D fabric can be visualized by using the input information on the arrangement of weave yarns shown in Figure 2.11.

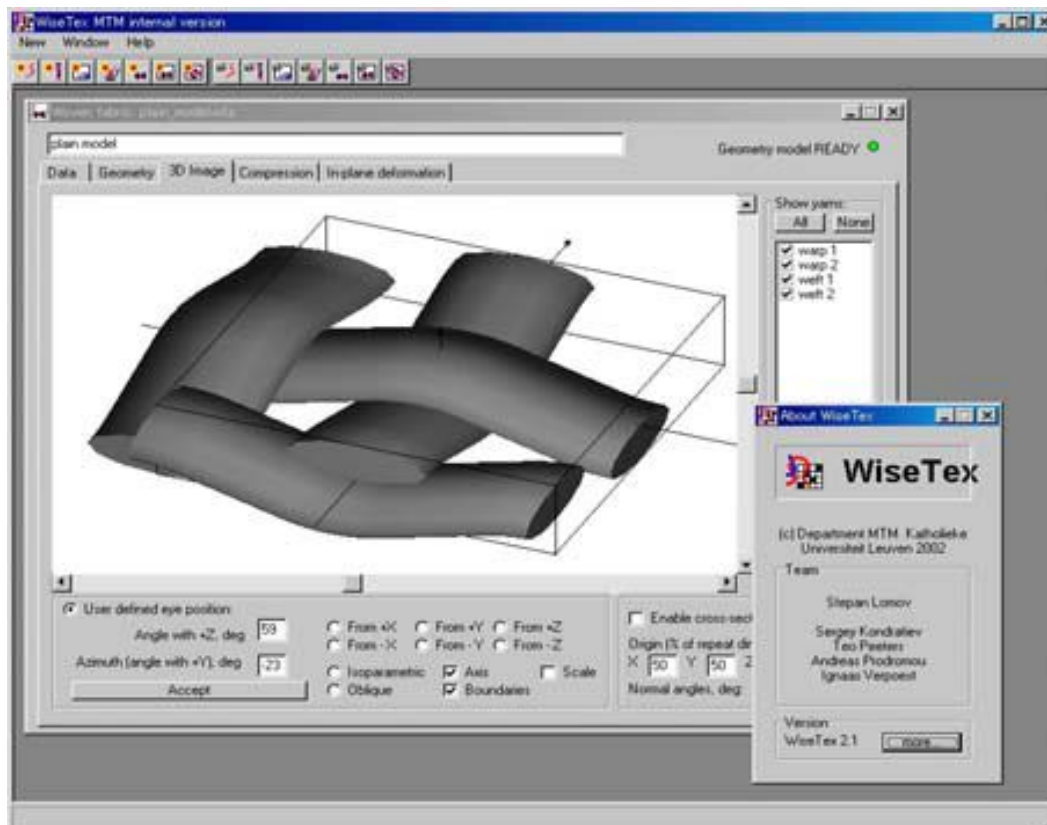


Figure 2.11: Geometrical modeling of 3D visual image by WISETEX program

(Tetsusei Kurashiki et. al, 2007)

2.6 Finite element modeling of yarns and resin

Hexahedron is used as a shape of a finite element of a yarn and the element is regularly generated so that an element coordinate system and the direction of a fiber may become equal. Figure 2.12 shows all the procedure for the finite element modeling. Figure 2.12(a) shows the position and direction of the cross sections from the WiseTex data. Delaunay method is used to generate the mesh of a cross section and the cross-sectional elements are combined to the neighbor element of another cross section. Figure 2.12(b) shows the repeated procedure in order to create the hexahedron elements of a yarn. Matrix cracks and delamination at the crossover parts of fiber bundle will influence the estimation of damage development of woven fabric composites and it may lead to complicated fracture modes in comparison with unidirectional fiber reinforced composites. Figure 2.12(b) show the yarn element was

generated, the finite elements of matrix parts are generated on the circumference of a yarn shown in Figure 2.12(c).

Figure 2.12(d) shows the hexahedron elements are generated to connect the warp and weft yarns. Finally, finite elements in the upper and the lower parts of matrix are generated, and finite element model with yarns and matrix by the hexahedron element can be obtained as shown in Figure 2.12(e).

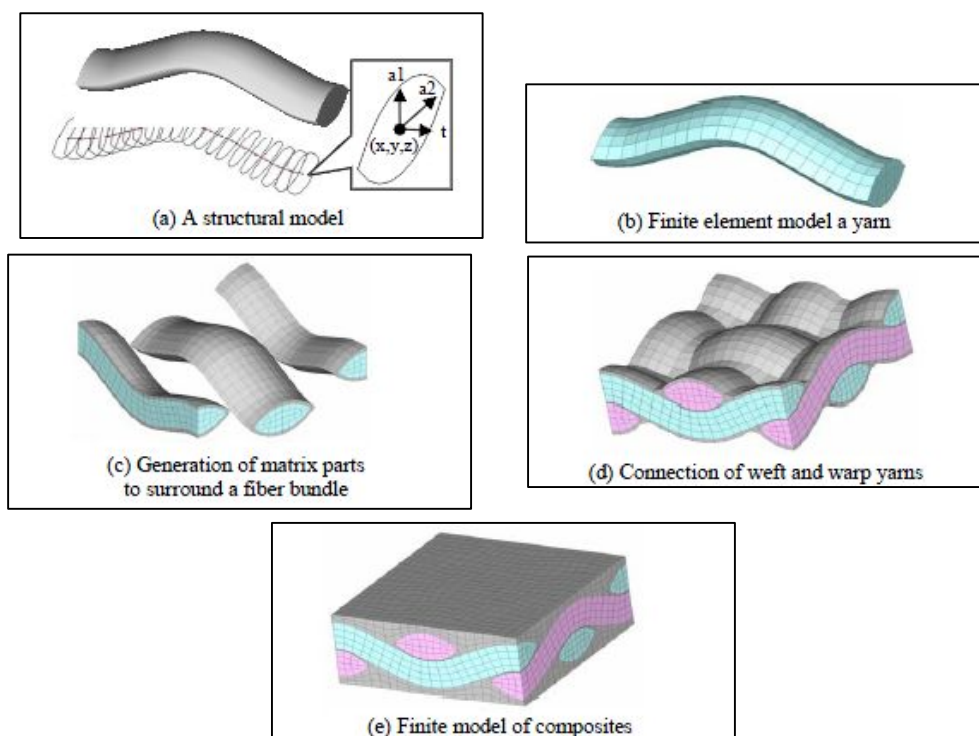


Figure 2.12: Procedure of finite element model of woven fabric composites

(Tetsusei Kurashiki et. al, 2007)

Figure 2.13 shows typical examples of finite element models with several fabric architectures based on the developed program MeshTex. Finite element models of a twill fabric and 3D fabric composites considering resin parts on the circumference of a yarn and 3 dimensional architecture of a yarn can be obtained easily using MeshTex.