

A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

COPY RIGHT





2019 IJIEMR. Personal use of this material is permitted. Permission from IJIEMR must

be obtained for all other uses, in any current or future media, including reprinting/republishing this material for advertising or promotional purposes, creating new collective works, for resale or redistribution to servers or lists, or reuse of any copyrighted component of this work in other works. No Reprint should be done to this paper, all copy right is authenticated to Paper Authors

IJIEMR Transactions, online available on 23rd Dec 2019. Link

:http://www.ijiemr.org/downloads.php?vol=Volume-08&issue=ISSUE-12

Title: MECHANICAL BEHAVIOR OF SUGARCANE POWDER AND CHOPPED STRAND MATT FIBER REINFORCED POLYMER COMPOSITES

Volume 08, Issue 12, Pages: 179-187.

Paper Authors

K.DORATHI, B.N.V.SRINIVAS, N TULASI RADHA





USE THIS BARCODE TO ACCESS YOUR ONLINE PAPER

To Secure Your Paper As Per UGC Guidelines We Are Providing A Electronic

Bar Code



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

MECHANICAL BEHAVIOR OF SUGARCANE POWDER AND CHOPPED STRAND MATT FIBER REINFORCED POLYMER COMPOSITES

K.DORATHI¹, B.N.V.SRINIVAS², N TULASI RADHA³

^{1,2}Asst Prof, Department of Mechanical Engineering, Sri Vasavi Engineering College, Tadepalligudem, Andhra Pradesh, India

³Research Scholar, Department of Mechanical Engineering, GITAM University, Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh, India

dorathikare@gmail.com, bnvsrinu1@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

In this present work, an investigation was made on the mechanical properties of E-glass fiber reinforced epoxy composites filled with varying concentrations of Crushed sugar cane powder were fabricated by standard method and the mechanical properties such as ultimate tensile strength, flexural strength, impact strength and hardness of the fabricated composites were studied.

KEYWORDS

Composites; Fiber glass; Sugarcane powder; Mechanical Properties; Strength.

1. INTRODUCTION

Glass fiber is a material consisting of numerous extremely fine fibers of glass. throughout Glassmakers history experimented with glass fibers, but mass manufacture of glass fiber was only made possible with the invention of finer machine tooling. In 1893, Edward Drummond Libbey exhibited a dress at the World's Columbian Exposition incorporating glass fibers with the diameter and texture of silk fibers. Glass fibers can also occur naturally, as Pele's hair. Glass wool, which is one product called "fiberglass" today, was invented in 1932-1933 by Russell Games Slayter of Owens-Corning, as a material to be used as thermal

building insulation. It is marketed under the trade name Fiberglas, which has become a generalized trademark. Glass fiber when used as a thermal insulating material is specially manufactured with a bonding agent to trap many small air cells, resulting in the characteristically air-filled low-density "glass wool" family of products. Glass fiber has roughly comparable mechanical properties to other fibers such as polymers and carbon fiber. Although not as strong or as rigid as carbon fiber, it is much cheaper and significantly less brittle when used in composites. Glass fibers are therefore used as a reinforcing agent for many polymer



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

products, to form a very strong and relatively lightweight fiber-reinforced polymer (FRP) composite material called glass-reinforced plastic (GRP), also popularly known as "fiberglass". This material contains little or no air or gas, is denser, and is a much poorer thermal insulator than is glass wool. Glass fibers have been produced for centuries, but the earliest patent was awarded to the Prussian inventor Hermann Hammesfahr (1845–1914) in the U.S. in 1880.

The theoretical maximum strength of glass has been calculated by various researchers, as summarized by Sugarman, to within a range between 10 and 30 GPa. Experimentally-measured values do not approach this range even when dealing with strong glass fibers. Despite the long history of GF research and development, a full fundamental understanding of the strength performance of GF still eludes us. When discussing the strength of GF, one must primarily consider the effects of flaws, and it is important to make the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic flaws (and strengths). Extrinsic strength is controlled by the presence of flaws and their severity. Intrinsic flaws are regarded as structural defects that result from thermal fluctuation. It is known that the extrinsic flaws determine glass strength, but the effects of the intrinsic flaws on the glass strength are still unclear. In addition to intrinsic and extrinsic strengths, the difference between GF inert and fatigue strength must also be addressed.

Gupta describes inert strength as that measured in the absence of fatigue, for

instance by testing at very low temperature where the rate of the fatigue reaction may be neglected. Conversely, fatigue strength is measured at a higher temperature (room temperature for example) and at some known level of humidity. A constant and moderate strain rate should be used. For composite reinforcement purposes, the term glass fiber strength commonly refers to the extrinsic fatigue strength. Shah et al (1981) evaluated the mechanical properties of unidirectional jute and glass fibers singly and in combination as a hybrid reinforced in polyester and epoxy resins. Their results showed that the jute-reinforced polyester laminates have much better properties than the resins alone; but the properties are inferior to those of glass-reinforced plastics have marginally lower properties. Jayamol et al (1995) evaluated the influence of fiber length, fiber loading, and orientation on the mechanical properties of short pineappleleaffiber-(PALF)- reinforced low-density polyethylene (LDPE) composites under optimum conditions. Devi et al (1997) analyzed the influence of fiber length, fiber loading and coupling agents on tensile, flexural and impact properties of pineapple leaf fiber (PALF) reinforced polyester composites. Fiber length was increased from 5 mm to 10, 20, 30 and 40 mm maintaining the total fiber content 30 wt%. They found that the mechanical properties increase with the increase in fiber length upto 30 mm. Similarly fiber content was varied from 0 wt% to 10, 20, 30 and 40 wt%, maintaining the fiber length as 30 mm. They found that the tensile and flexural properties are



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

maximum for fiber content of 40 wt% and 30 wt% respectively. Gassan and Bledzki (1999) found that, at alkali treatment under isometric condition (20 minutes at 20oC in 25% NaOH solution), the tensile and properties of unidirectional flexural jute/epoxy composites are considerably improved (upto 60% with 0.40 fiber volume fraction). The Young's modulus of untreated jute/epoxy composites is 50% lower than glass fiber-epoxy composites, whereas for alkali treated jute fiber- epoxy composites, it is 30% lower. Clark and Ansell (1986) conducted tensile test, fracture toughness test, environmental test and fractography studies on jute-glass composites with various stacking sequences using jute in the form of randomly oriented chopped strand mat and glass in the form of plain and twill weave fabric. They concluded that five ply laminate PJPJP (P-plain weave glass, J-jute) with glass with its protective outer glass plies has a most balanced set of properties compared on cost basis with other arrangement. Pavithran et al (1991)determined the work of fracture by impact testing on sisal-glass hybrid composites with two arrangements, one with sisal shell and glass core and the other with glass shell and sisal core. They showed that the sisal shell laminate has the higher work of fracture compared with glass shell hybrid laminates of equivalent volume fraction of sisal and glass fibers.

2. EXPERIMENTATION

2.1 Preparation of Composite

The polymer used in the preparation of composite is EPOXY. It is a thermosetting

polymer. Because of its high strength, low viscosity and low flow rates, it allows good wetting of fibers and prevents misalignment of fibers during processing. Following are the most outstanding characteristics of epoxy for which it is used. Low volatility during cure. Available in more than 20 grades to meet specific property and processing requirements. Excellent adhesion to different materials. Great strength and toughness resistance. Chemical and moisture resistant. Excellent electrical insulating properties. Low shrink rates. Composites filled with varying concentrations (0gm, 5gm, 10gm, 15gm and 20 gm) of crushed sugar cane were fabricated by standard method and the mechanical properties such as ultimate tensile strength, impact strength and hardness of the fabricated composites were studied. The base material E-glass fiber 600 mat is prepared required dimension in of 300mm*170mm*5mm.The required with specimens the variations concentrations are prepared by Hand lay-up process.

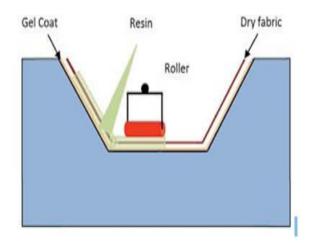


Fig1: Hand lay-up Process



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

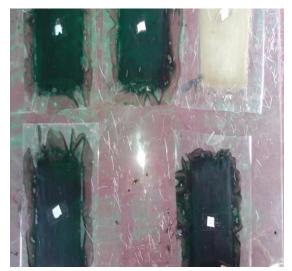


Fig 2: Varying composition of Sugarcane powder



Fig 3. Sugarcane E-Glass Fiber

2.2 Testing Procedure

2.2.1 Tensile Testing: The most common testing machine used in tensile testing is the universal testing machine. This type of machine has two crossheads; one is adjusted for the length of the specimen and the other is driven to apply tension to the test specimen

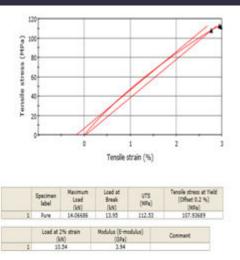


Fig 4: Tensile test graph for pure specimen

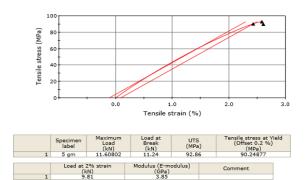
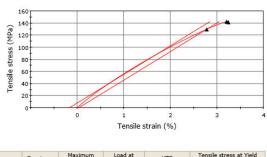


Fig 5: Tensile test graph for 5gm specimen



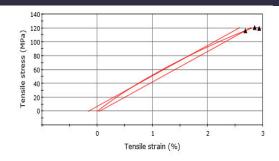
	Specimen label	Maximum Load (kN)	Load at Break (kN)	UTS (MPa)	Tensile stress at Yield (Offset 0.2 %) (MPa)
1	10 gm	17.78695	17.68	142.30	129.69369
	Load at 2		Modulus (E-mo	odulus)	Comment
1	12.	58	4.72		

Fig 6: Tensile test graph for 10 gm specimen



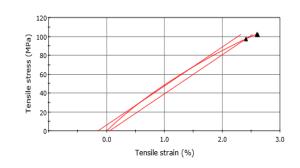
A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org



	Specimen label	Maximum Load (kN)	Load at Break (kN)	UTS (MPa)	Tensile stress at Yield (Offset 0.2 %) (MPa)
1	15 gm	15.07540	14.92	120.60	116.01720
	Load at 2 (k		Modulus (E-me (GPa)	odulus)	Comment
1	11.	61	4.38		

Fig 7: Tensile test graph for 15 gm specimen



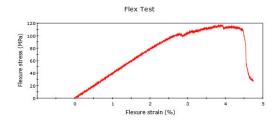
	Specimen label	Maximum Load (kN)	Load at Break (kN)	UTS (MPa	1)	Tensile stress at Yi (Offset 0.2 %) (MPa)	eld
1	20 gm	12.78473	12.76	102.2	28	97.48979	
		Load at 2% strain (kN)		odulus)		Comment	
1	10	.66	4.12				

Fig 8: Tensile test graph for 20 gm specimen

2.2.2 Flexural or Bending Testing:

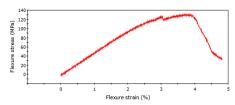
Keep the bending table on the lower table in such a way that the central position of the bending table is fixed in the central location value of the lower table. The bending supports are adjusted to required distance. Stuffers at the back of the bending table at different positions. Then place the specimen on bending table & apply the load by bending attachment at the upper stationary head. Then perform

the test in the same manner as described in tension test.



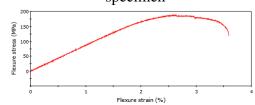
	Specimen label	(N) (MPa)		Load at Maximum Flexure load (kN)	
1	plane	374.70972	116.91	-0.37471	
Mean		374.70972	116.91	-0.37471	
Standard Deviation					
Minimum		374.70972	116.91	-0.37471	
Maximum	7	374,70972	116.91	-0.37471	
	Flexure stress at	Flexure load at Maxim			
	Maximum Flexure load (MPa)	Flexure stress (kN)	Comm	nent	
1	Maximum Flexure load (MPa) 116.90943	Flexure stress (kN) 0.37471		nent	
	Maximum Flexure load (MPa)	Flexure stress (kN)		nent	
Mean Standard	Maximum Flexure load (MPa) 116.90943	Flexure stress (kN) 0.37471		nent	
1 Mean Standard Deviation Minimum Maximum	Maximum Flexure load (MPa) 116.90943 116.90943	Flexure stress (kN) 0.37471 0.37471		nent	

Fig 9: Flexural test graph for pure specimen



	Specimen label	Maximum load (N)	Maximum Stress (MPa)	Load at Maximum Flexure load (kN)	
1 SU 5gm		419.37213 130.84		-0.41937	
Mean		419.37213	130.84	-0.41937	
Standard Deviation					
Minimum		419.37213	130.84	-0.41937	
Maximum		419.37213	130.84 -0.4193		
	Flexure stress at Maximum Flexure load (MPa)	Flexure load at Maxim Flexure stress (kN)	um Comr	nent	
1	Maximum Flexure load (MPa) 130.84410	Flexure stress (kN) 0.41937		nent	
Mean	Maximum Flexure load (MPa)	Flexure stress (kN)		nent	
Mean Standard Deviation	Maximum Flexure load (MPa) 130.84410 130.84410	Flexure stress (kN) 0.41937 0.41937		ment	
Mean Standard	Maximum Flexure load (MPa) 130.84410 130.84410	Flexure stress (kN) 0.41937 0.41937		nent	

Fig 10: Flexural test graph for 5 gm specimen



	Specimen label	Maximum load (N)	(N) (MPa)		Load at Maximum Flexure load (kN)	
1	Su 15am	602.76752	1	.88.06	-0.60277	
Mean		602.76752	1	.88.06	-0.60277	
Standard Deviation						
Minimum		602,76752	1	.88.06	-0.60277	
Maximum		602.76752	1	88.06	-0.60277	
	Flexure stress Maximum Flexure (MPa)	load Flexure s (kN)	tress	Comm	ent	
1	188.06346	0.602				
Mean	188.06346	0.602	77			
Standard Deviation						
Minimum	188.06346	0.602				
Maximum	188.06346	0.602				

Fig 11: Flexural test graph for 15 gm specimen



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

2.2.3 Hardness Testing: Hardness testing of the composite is done by Rockwell Hardness testing procedure.

Table 1: Rockwell hardness test results

S.NO	%OF	INDE	LO	DIAL	SCA	R.H.S
	sugar	NTOR	AD		LE	
	cane					
	powd					
	er					
1	0	DIAM	60	BLA	A	40.5
		OND		CK		
2	5	DIAM	60	BLA	A	42
		OND		CK		
3	10	DIAM	60	BLA	A	43.5
		OND		CK		
4	15	DIAM	60	BLA	A	45
		OND		CK		
5	20	DIAM	60	BLA	A	48
		OND		CK		

2.2.4 Izod Impact Testing: In the Izod impact test, the test piece is a cantilever, clamped upright in an anvil, with a V-notch at the level of the top of the clamp. The test piece is hit by a striker carried on a pendulum which is allowed to fall freely from a fixed height, to give a blow of 120 ft lb energy. After fracturing the test piece, the height to which the pendulum rises is recorded by a slave friction pointer mounted on the dial, from which the absorbed energy amount is read where the size of the specimen is 75mm*10mm*10 mm.

Table 2: Izod impact test results

S.NO	% of SUG ARC ANE POW DER	SCAL E REA DING WIT HOU	SCAL E REA DING AFTE R	IMPA CT (V1- V2) JLS
	(gm)	T SPEC	SPEC IMEN	
		IMEN	(V2)	
		(V1)	JLS	
		JLS		
1	0	180	8	172
2	5	180	10	170
3	10	180	10	170
4	15	180	12	168
5	20	180	15	165

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this work first we have done the tensile test on the components having five different ratios of sugar cane powder with chopped strand mat. We have observed that, by increasing the ratio of sugarcane powder the tensile stress are decreasing .so we concluded that this fibre will not resist to heavy tensile loads.

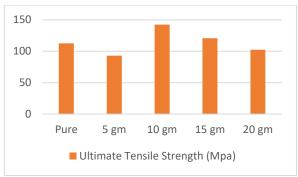


Fig 12: Graph for Ultimate Tensile Strength



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

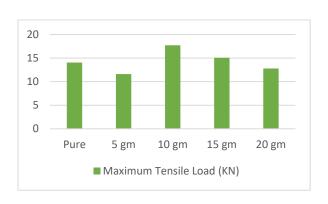


Fig 13: Graph for Maximum Tensile Load

For bending test also we have taken the five different ratios of sugarcane powder with chopped strand mat. We have observed that, by increasing the ratio of sugarcane powder the flexural stresses are also increasing. Hence we concluded that this fibre will resist to heavy flexural loads.

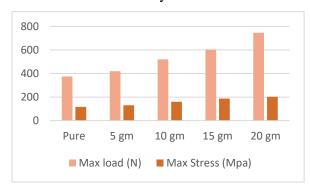


Fig 14: Graph for Maximum Load and Stress

For Rockwell hardness test we have taken the components of five different ratios of sugarcane powder .we have observed that by increasing the sugarcane composition the hardness values are also increasing. So we concluded that these components have good hardness property.

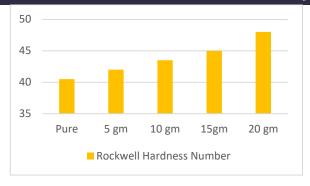


Fig 15: Graph for Rockwell Hardness
Number

For Izod impact test we have taken the components of five different compositions of sugarcane powder with dimensions according to ASTM standards. We have observed that by increasing the composition the impact loads are decreasing. Hence concluded that these components will resist to heavy impact loads.

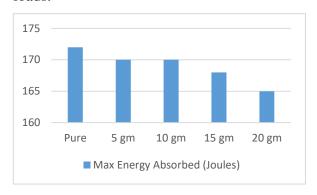


Fig 16: Graph for Max Energy Absorbed

4. CONCLUSIONS

Due to the addition of sugarcane powder to the chopped strand fiber with different compositions the properties like hardness, toughness increases and tensile strength decreases. We found that, the composition of sugarcane powder with chopped strand mats



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

will have the ability to resist to heavy flexural loads and heavy impact loads and having good hardness property .so we can use these fibers in several applications like automobile bodies, house roofing, airplanes, interiors etc. These fibers will be available at cheap costs having good strengths and are pollution free and ecofriendly .so composite fibers will have great demand in feature.

REFERNCES

[1]Adekunle K, Akesson D and Skrifvars M (2010), "Biobased Composites Prepared by Compression Molding with a Novel Thermoset Resin from Soybean Oil and a Natural-Fiber Reinforcement", Journal of Applied Polymer Science, Vol. 116, pp.1759-1765.

[2]. Alix S, Philippe E, Bessadok A, Lebrun L, Morvan C and Marais S (2009), "Effect of Chemical Treatments on Water Sorption and Mechanical Properties of Flax Fibres", Bioresource Technology, Vol. 100, p.4742.

[3]. Alman D E (2001), "Properties of Metal Matrix Composites", in ASM Handbook, 21: Composites, pp. 838-858, ASM International,

Metals Park, Ohio.

[4]. Arya V K, Debonath K K and Bhatnagar N S (1983), "Creep Analysis of Orthotropic Cylindrical Shells", Int. J. of Pressure Vessels and Piping Technol., Vol. 11, pp.167-190.

[5]. Autar K Kaw (1997), Mechanics of Composites Materials, pp. 2-18, CRC Press, Boca Raton, NewYork.

[6]. Baley C, Busnel F, Grohens Y and Sire O (2006), "Influence of Chemical Treatments on Surface Properties and

Adhesion of FlaxFibre- Polyester Resin", Composites Part A: Applied Science and Manufacturing, Vol. 37, pp. 1626-1637.

[7]. Bhatnagar N S and Arya V K (1974), "Large Strain Creep Analysis of ThickWalled Cylinder", Int. J. of Non-Linear Mech., Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 127-

140.[8]. Bhatnagar N S, Arya V K and Debonath K K (1980), "Creep Analysis of Orthotropic Rotating Cylinder", J. of Pressure Vessel

Technol., Vol. 102, pp. 371-377.

[9]. Boresi A P and Schmidt R J (2003), Advanced Mechanics of Materials, Wiley, NewYork

[10]. Bourmaud A and Baley C (2009), "Rigidity Analysis of Polypropylene/Vegetal Fibre123 Int. J. Mech. Eng. & Rob. Res. 2013 Vijay Kumar Bhanot et al., 2013

[11].Composites After Recycling", Polymer Degradation and Stability, Vol. 94, pp. 297-305.

[12]. Cicala G, Cristaldi G, Recca G, Ziegmann G, El-Sabbagh A and Dickert M (2009), "Properties and Performances of Various Hybrid Glass/Natural Fibre Composites for Curved Pipes", Materials and Design, Vol. 30, pp. 2538-2542.

[13]. Danilova I N (1959), "On Calculation of the Stresses State in a Rotor During Transient Creep, IZV, ANSSAR.OTN", Mechanics and Engineering, Vol. 5.

[14]. Davis E A and Connelly F M (1959), "Stress Distribution and Plastic Deformation in Rotating Cylinders of Strain-Hardening Material", J. Appl. Mech., Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 25-30.



A Peer Revieved Open Access International Journal

www.ijiemr.org

[15]. Dieter G E (1988), Mechanical Metallurgy, McGraw-Hill, London.

[16]. Eichhorn S J and Young R J (2004), "Composite Micromechanics of Hemp Fibres and Epoxy Resin Microdroplets", Composites Science and Technology, Vol. 64, pp. 767-772.

[17]. Gupta V K, Singh S B, Chandrawat H N and Ray S (2005), "Modeling of Creep Behaviour of a Rotating

Disc in Presence of Both Composition and Thermal Gradients", J. Engng. Mater. Technol., Vol. 127, No. 1, pp. 97-105.

[18]. Haq M, Burgueno R, Mohanty A K and Misra M (2008), "Hybrid Bio-Based Composites from Blends of Unsaturated Polyester and Soybean Oil Reinforced with Nanoclay and Natural Fibers", Composites Science and Technology, Vol. 68, pp. 3344-3351.

[19]. Hepworth D G, Hobson R N, Bruce D M and Farrent J W (2000), "The Use of Unretted Hemp Fibre in Composite Manufacture", Composites Part A: Applied Science and Manufacturing, Vol. 31, pp. 1279-1283.

[20]. Kraus H (1980), Creep Analysis, Wiley, New York.

[21]. Kunanopparat T, Menut P, Morel M H and Guilbert S (2008), "Plasticized Wheat Gluten Reinforcement with Natural Fibers: Effect of Thermal Treatment on the Fiber/ Matrix Adhesion", Composites Part A: Applied Science and Manufacturing, Vol. 39, p. 1787.