Two-Phase Composite Modeling of Polyurea/Wood Interfaces

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ABSTRACT: The flexural modulus of oak and pine boards suffused with polymeric methylene diphenyl diisocyanate (pMDI) was measured as a function of the amount of pMDI imbibed. The resulting modulus values were compared to predicted values calculated by assuming a relationship between the composite phases. Specifically, the measured flexural moduli were compared to values obtained from a Kerner model, in which the composite phase consists of isolated and spherical particulate isotropically arranged in the major phase. Results were also compared to a Davies model, in which the two phases exist in a bonded co-continuous morphology. The measured data was shown to be well fit to the Kerner model and not well described by the Davies model, despite the fact that the Davies model is more physically descriptive of the filled wood pore structure. This incongruous result indicates that the pMDI/wood interface is weak, and the resulting tensile properties are not significantly different from the wood-air composite in the absence of pMDI. © 2009 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. J Appl Polym Sci 113: 1739–1744, 2009

Key words: adhesives for wood; two-phase composite modeling; polymeric isocyanate; wood composites; interfacial interactions

INTRODUCTION

Fundamental studies on wood adhesives and adhesion are characterized by uncertainty because of poorly characterized initial and final conditions.¹ Wood is a uniquely inhomogeneous substrate, and the interaction of a wood surface with an adhesive is inherently difficult to characterize. Isocyanates are very useful wood adhesives, and their utility for many wood-based applications is beyond question.² However, questions have arisen on the characteristics of isocyanate adhesive interactions with wood surfaces. Because isocyanates are intrinsically reactive with hydroxyl groups, which are abundant in $wood^{2}$, it is natural to speculate on the role these presumptive covalent bonds will play in composite wood adhesive properties. Covalent interactions are enhanced by the low viscosity of isocyanate adhesives and their demonstrated ability to wet and penetrate wood. However, difficulty with unambiguous evaluation of the adhesive interface has nonetheless created confusion. This confusion is exacerbated by the fact that the urethane bonds that isocyanates form with the wood surface can revert to more thermodynamically stable urea bonds in the presence of water and elevated temperature.3 Thus, it has been measured spectroscopically that urethane bonds that

are in abundance when isocyanates are cured with wood at 120° C will be undetectable when cured at 200° C.^{4,5}

The nature of isocyanate/wood interactions has been studied by other researchers, often with contradictory conclusions. Some previous studies have documented the formation of a composite wood/ isocyanate structure with polymeric methylene diphenyl diisocyanate and found urethane linkages by which the rigid polyurea bulk adhesive could supplement the wood carbohydrate structure.^{6,7} Evidence that the resulting composite would actually reinforce the structure was sometimes lacking. A recent article by Frazier and coworkers8 using model compounds suggests that NMR techniques may greatly overestimate the amount of polyurethane in wood isocyanate composites produced using industrially relevant techniques. Pizzi and Johns^{9,10} have argued forcefully that isocyanate does not ever form covalent bonds to the wood interface, and instead, it maintains adhesion only via secondary forces (i.e., polar, dispersion, and H-bonding). Sonnenschein et al.¹¹ have shown that the presence of any wood/isocyanate covalent bonds that may form is not detectable by adhesive strength measurements. This led to the conclusion that the most efficient use of adhesive is to minimize isocyanate penetration into the wood subsurface and maximize the interfacial surface area formed between adhered surfaces. This work was consistent with previous observations that improved dispersion of isocyanate droplets on a wood surface was substantially more efficient in optimizing bond

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formation than procedures which encouraged isocyanate penetration into the subsurface.¹²

This article will further explore the manifestations of isocyanate-to-wood bonding to determine if such interfacial covalent bonds that may exist can be detected via conventional materials science analytical techniques. Our previous studies^{11,12} suggest that in the limit of strong adhesion, such interactions may not be observable. However, the effect of a limited volume interfacial interaction may be more subtle and may evidence itself at much lower parts of the stress-strain curve. To explore this possibility, we present data from wood/isocyanate beams, where the flexural modulus is measured as a function of isocyanate loading, cure condition, and wood type. Electron micrographs are presented, which indicate interfacial interactions between the wood and isocyanate phases; however, HalpinTsai composite modeling of the tensile data strongly suggests that the composite phase's interactions may not be very strong. Although such two-phase composite modeling has been previously used to model oriented strandboard,¹³ we believe that this is the first example of composite modeling to distinguish mechanisms of adhesion in wood composites.

METHODS

Polymeric methylene diphenyl diisocyanate (pMDI) was obtained from Dow Chemical (Midland, MI) under the trade-name PAPI. PAPI-94 is a nominally 2.3 functional MDI oligomer having a molecular weight of 290 g/mol and a specified viscosity of 50 cps. We measured 50 cps on our specific sample with an Ares liquid rheometer, using cone and plate geometry which is in line with the product specification (pMDI is known to undergo viscosity increase with time because of reaction and chain extension with adventitious water). Southern pine and oak boards were obtained from a local hardware store. Samples as purchased were planed and cut to size but not otherwise treated.

A polished surface across the area of interest on each sample was created using a Reichert–Jung Ultracut E microtome equipped with a sapphire knife at room temperature. Each sample was then mounted on a scanning electron microscope sample stub with conductive carbon paint and coated with a conductive and contrast enhancing layer of platinum. The samples were examined in a FEI Nova NanoSEM600 scanning electron microscope (S/N NPV 19/D8134) using secondary imaging at 5 or 10 keV. Observations were made, and images were recorded digitally. Average penetration depth was approximated using a wide view shot and calibrating with the scale marker. Error in estimating penetration depth was approximately $\pm 30\%$, due to uneven penetration across the front.

Sample preparation was performed by applying an excess of pMDI to the wood surface and then wiping the wood surface of nonpenetrating pMDI after a specified time. Wood edge surfaces were protected with a low tack sealant to prevent inadvertent infiltration of the pMDI by alternative routes. The sealant was removed before tensile testing. The wood specimens were 152.4-mm long, 12.2-mm wide, and 6-mm thick. Flexural modulus measurements were obtained using a three-point bend test (ASTM D 790). The flexural modulus of a beam¹⁴ is calculated by eq. (1):

$$E_b = \frac{PL^3}{4wyt^3} \tag{1}$$

where E is the flexural modulus, P is the normal force, L is the beam length, w is the beam width, t is the thickness, and y is the strain or deflection at load point in this case.

With all geometric factors kept constant, the flexural modulus will scale linearly with *P*, the normal force.

Control and isocyanate-treated specimens were aged in a temperature–humidity controlled room (25°C/50% humidity) for 7 days. Samples cured at elevated temperatures were placed in a calibrated convection oven at 150°C for 1 h and then allowed to equilibrate under ASTM conditions for 48 h prior to testing. Flexural moduli were measured on an Instron 4202 frame running Blue Hill software. The strain rate was 2.54 mm/min. Each sample is the average of at least five specimens, and the standard deviation of the data is provided in the tables.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In a previous article,¹¹ we showed the penetration of pMDI into a pine structure using scanning electron micrography (SEM). Although the pMDI had formed a penetration boundary front, it was clear that certain porous structures had not been filled by the pMDI, presumably because of a lack of pore continuity. Figure 1 shows this behavior even more dramatically with an oak sample. Figure 1(a) shows the structure of an oak specimen with no added pMDI. Figure 1(b,c) show a specimen in which pMDI had been allowed to penetrate the structure for 30 min before it was cured at 150°C. The low viscosity pMDI follows a path of least resistance in its penetration of the wood structure, often with surprising inhomogeneity. Interestingly, magnification of one of the vessels shows apparently inconsistent interfacial adhesion, disturbed sufficiently by the sectioning to result in some delamination.



(a)



(c)

Figure 1 (a) SEM of unmodified oak used in these experiments. (b) Oak with pMDI imbibed into the substructure for 30 min. (c) Magnification of (b). The arrow indicates region of possible delamination resulting from the sectioning process.

Treated beams were evaluated for approximate penetration depths as a function of penetration time. Figure 2 shows that penetration depth approximately follows a linear function with exposure time, though as Figure 1 reveals, the pMDI does not always form a regular front. We have observed that pine, having a somewhat more regular structure, also presents a more easily determinable penetration depth, and the present visually determined data is similar to the results obtained using a Raman scattering technique.¹¹ Error in this measurement decreases accuracy when quantifying the interaction between the wood and the isocyanate. However, as will be shown, this turns out not to be an issue.

Wood beams treated as described were tested for the effect of composite structure on flexural modulus. As composite properties may only reveal themselves at very low strains, we compiled modulus values at progressively increasing strain intervals. Table I shows that the flexural modulus was generally independent of the strain range at low strains. Clearly, the data shows some scatter with pMDI addition and cure conditions. However; given the error bars of the data, it would be difficult to suggest a convincing trend in modulus or maximum stress data. These results are consistent with previous results using double cantilever beam geometry.¹⁵

It could be argued that the pMDI addition levels in these experiments are too small to detect interphase effects; however, the very low strains probed should be most intensively sampling composite structure just beneath the wood surface, where there is the highest concentration of pMDI. Thus, it is reasonable that the current procedure should be sampling and reflecting composite structure and that comparison to noncomposite wood samples should detect differences if they are there to be seen. Furthermore, previous work has shown that even when the entirety of a wood sample is fully infiltrated with resin (usually achieved by submersion until such time as the wood does not float in the submersion medium), strength increase is on the order of





Figure 2 Penetration of pMDI into pine as a function of imbibed mass. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at www.interscience.wiley.com.]

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		TABLE I	
Flexural Modulus Data for Pine	and Oak pMI	OI Composites as a Functi	on of Imbibed pMDI and Cure Condition

Pine 0 6860 ± 376 6580 ± 217 61 ± 6.8	1.4 ± 0.2
Oak0 8781 ± 0.022 8590 ± 577 99 ± 8.8	1.7 ± 0.2
Pine 0.006 7895 ± 1273 7430 ± 0.025 62 ± 2.6	1.4 ± 0.17
Oak 0.002 8996 ± 524 8586 ± 342 94 ± 4.8	1.6 ± 0.13
Pine 0.015 7953 ± 1662 7480 ± 1326 61 ± 3.6	1.2 ± 0.27
Oak 0.0036 9136 ± 117 8896 ± 154 99 ± 2.8	1.7 ± 0.11
Pine 0.024 6635 ± 785 6566 ± 813 62 ± 5.8	1.3 ± 0.23
Pine 150°C07867 \pm 13707513 \pm 115179 \pm 13.5	1.6 ± 0.44
Oak 150°C 0 8380 ± 828 8645 ± 368 98 ± 8.3	1.4 ± 0.1
Pine 150°C 0.0073 7099 ± 1600 7238 ± 1606 72 ± 24	1.2 ± 0.3
Oak 150°C 0.0014 8963 ± 0.08 9139 ± 0.00 94 ± 7.6	1.2 ± 0.07
Pine 150°C 0.0146 9009 ± 1987 9406 ± 1998 95.6 ± 22	1.4 ± 0.13
Oak 150°C 0.0038 8740 ± 536 9045 ± 617 98.3 ± 11	1.3 ± 0.11
Pine 150°C 0.0211 8244 ± 1707 8774 ± 1345 92.4 ± 8.6	1.3 ± 0.05

20%, suggesting minor influence of resin on the stress-bearing structure.^{16,17}

The relationship of isocyanate and wood phases can be further probed if the results of flexural modulus measurements are compared to composite model results in which no phase continuity is assumed or ones in which co-continuity of the phases is assumed.¹⁸ Two models that allow us to see how close the current results are to one or the other assumption are the modified Kerner equation and the Davies equation.¹⁹ The Kerner equation can be employed for simple systems in which reinforcement is achieved by bonding of a spherical noncontinuous filler phase to a different major phase. The Davies equation is more often applied to composite reinforcement obtained by a filler phase having strong bonding between two co-continuous phases. Thus, the data will be well modeled by the Kerner equation in the event of local interactions between the pMDI and the wood, whereas a strong and long-range relationship between the phases will be more closely modeled by the Davies equation. A scenario intermediate between these two extremes will likely fall between the model derived modulus values.

Evaluation of the model equations requires some empirical inputs and some simplifying approximations which should not significantly affect the final results. Table II provides the initial inputs.

To evaluate each of the two models, a three-step process was used:

1. The modulus of the solid part of the wood was extracted from the wood modulus (as determined by the test on the unfilled specimens) by assuming that the wood was a composite material with air (modulus = 0) as a filler.

- 2. A modulus was predicted for the glue-filled wood using the solid wood modulus obtained above with a PAPI (polyurea) filler modulus.
- 3. The flex modulus of the wood with surface layers of glue-filled pores was computed using standard equations for bending of laminated beams.

The Kerner equation, which models two phase composites describing spherical inclusions bonded randomly to a majority phase, is shown below, using air as the filler in a matrix of solid wood polymer. In the equation, E_{air} is the modulus of air, E_w is the modulus of wood, E_{sw} is the modulus of the solid wood, and φ_{sw} and φ_{air} are the volume fractions of solid wood and air, respectively.

$$E_{w} = \frac{E_{\rm sw}E_{\rm air} + A(E_{\rm sw}\varphi_{\rm sw} + E_{\rm air}\varphi_{\rm air})}{A + E_{\rm sw}\varphi_{\rm air} + E_{\rm air}\varphi_{\rm sw}}$$
(2)

$$A = E_{\rm sw} \frac{(7 - 5\upsilon_{\rm sw})}{(8 - 10\upsilon_{\rm sw})}$$
(3)

These equations can be inverted to extract the modulus of the solid wood by setting $E_{air} = 0$, $v_{sw} = 0.4$ and simplifying. The result is

TABLE IIMaterial Properties Used for Evaluation of theTwo-Phase Composite Models Used in This Work

Inputs	Symbol	Values	Units
Polyurea modulus	E_u	4000	MPa
Density PAPI	d_p	1	g/cm ³
Porosity wood	ϕ_w	0.5	
Wood thickness	t_w	0.7	cm
Wood core thickness	t_c		cm
Poisson ratio solid wood	$\upsilon_{\rm sw}$	0.4	

$$E_{\rm sw} = E_w \times \frac{(\phi_{\rm sw} + 1.25)}{1.25(1 - \phi_{\rm sw})} \tag{4}$$

Once the solid wood modulus is known, the wood–polyurea composite modulus can be predicted by again applying the Kerner equation.

$$E_{\rm wck} = \frac{E_{\rm sw}E_u + (A(E_{\rm sw}\varphi_{\rm sw} + E_u\varphi_u))}{A + E_{\rm sw}\varphi_u + E_u\varphi_{\rm sw}}$$
(5)

In this equation, E_u is the modulus of polyurea, E_{sw} is the modulus of solid wood, E_{wck} is the modulus of the wood–polyurea composite, and φ_{sw} and φ_u are the volume fractions of solid wood and polyurea, respectively.

The composite flex modulus of the beam geometry, including an unfilled core section, is given by eq. (6):

$$E_{\rm fck} = \frac{E_w t_c^{\ 3} + (E_{\rm wck}(t_w^{\ 3} - t_c^{\ 3}))}{t_w^{\ 3}} \tag{6}$$

where the *t* values compensate for the partial filling of the wood with pMDI into a composite and unfilled wood core (t_w represents the total beam thickness; t_c is the thickness of the unfilled core).

The Davies equation assumes a somewhat simpler form, invoked commonly for systems that achieve co-continuous network structures, and is well applied to composites with phases that are of similar modulus. In this formalism (using the same variable labels as before),

$$E_w = (\phi_{\rm sw} E_{\rm sw}^{1/5} + \phi_{\rm air} E_{\rm air}^{1/5})^5$$
(7)

This equation can be solved as before to give an equation for the modulus of the wood solid matrix:

$$E_{\rm sw} = \frac{E_w}{\varphi_{\rm sw}^5} \tag{8}$$

The resulting filled composite modulus would then be

$$E_{\rm wcd} = (\phi_u E_u^{1/5} + \phi_{\rm sw} E_{\rm sw}^{1/5})^5 \tag{9}$$

And finally, the flex modulus is

$$E_{\rm fcd} = \frac{E_w t_c^3 + (E_{\rm wcd}(t_w^3 - t_c^3))}{t_w^3}$$
(10)

The calculated results from eqs. (6) and (10) compared to the measured flex modulus values are shown in Figure 3. These results show the flexural moduli to be well predicted by the Kerner twophase composite equations, implying a discontinuous spherical composite topography. While the urea composite phase should be, and clearly is, spherical, it should not be isolated and should represent a co-continuous reinforcement. The wood structure is



Figure 3 Comparison of measured and calculated flexural modulus values. Measured values are well predicted by the Kerner equation. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at ww.interscience.wiley. com]

well known to be foam-like, with interconnecting and co-continuous phases. Figure 1 and previous images¹¹ illustrate this structure. However, the composite modeling unambiguously supports an isolated composite structure, implicitly describing the woodurea composite as insignificantly different from a wood-air composite. The results suggest that the urea phase is poorly bonded to the wood phase, and even at low strains, there is significant slippage between the phases.

These results do not by themselves preclude the existence of a covalent bonded interphase between wood and a polyurea.⁹ However, they do suggest, as previous NMR work has suggested, that its role in wood composite formation may be minimal.⁸ The results furthermore validate a view that the most efficient use of pMDI in wood bonding is in that method which most widely and uniformly coats the wood surface with a minimum of wood penetration.^{11,15,20}

CONCLUSION

This article presents data measuring the flexural modulus of beams made of pine and oak in composite with pMDI. The results were measured as a function of strain in the linear elastic range and as a function of volume fraction pMDI within the composite. The measured flexural moduli were then compared to the calculated values using two-phase composite models. The measured values were well predicted by a Kerner model, in which the polyurea phase is implicitly spherical and isolated. The data was not well predicted by a Davies model, which presupposes that the phases are co-continuous, even though this model is demonstrably relevant to the wood-polyurea composite morphology. The mismatch between model results and correct physical description is interpreted to mean that the polyurea phase has weak interactions with the wood

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carbohydrate structure. The results also provide additional support to the hypothesis that the most effective use of pMDI when making wood composites is in that method which most enhances surface coverage and mitigates penetration below the surface.

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