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### Polyethylene Nanocomposites Obtained from *in-situ* Polymerization Using Supported Ziegler-Natta Catalyst System

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# Polyethylene Nanocomposites Obtained from *in-situ* Polymerization Using Supported Ziegler-Natta Catalyst System

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The polyethylene nanocomposites were prepared by *in-situ* polymerization method using the Ziegler-Natta catalyst supported on the organoclay/MgCl<sub>2</sub> bisupport in the presence of AlEt<sub>3</sub> as the cocatalyst. The organoclay used is commercial Claytone APA. With XRD and TEM, the exfoliation of the layered silicate gallery of Claytone APA was confirmed. For the resulting polyethylene nanocomposites, the melting and crystallization behaviors were investigated by DSC, and their thermal property was examined in thermal oxidation condition.

**Keywords:** polyethylene; nanocomposites; clay; *in-situ* polymerization; melting; crystallization; thermal stability

## 1 Introduction

Polyolefins such as polyethylene (PE) and polypropylene (PP) are major plastics in the world-wide polymer industry. These commodity polymers have been produced with the Ziegler-Natta type or metallocene type organometallic coordination catalysts. In recent years, special interest has been devoted to develop their nanocomposites with layered silicates. It is well known that such materials have a pronounced increase in the properties such as tensile strength and heat resistance when compared to virgin polymer (1, 2). In order to obtain the polyolefin nanocomposite materials, several approaches including solution blending (3), melting intercalation (4–6) and *in-situ* polymerization (7–10) have been adopted.

In this work, we developed an *in-situ* exfoliation method for the preparation of the PE nanocomposites. Different from the intercalation-exfoliation strategy, the Ziegler-Natta catalyst components were first supported on the commercial organoclay (Claytone APA) to subsequently initiate the polymerization of ethylene on the organoclay surface. The structural characterization, melting and crystallization behavior, and the thermal oxidation property of the prepared PE nanocomposites are described here.

## 2 Experimental

### 2.1 Materials

The commercial organoclay was obtained from Southern Clay Products Inc. (Gonzales, Texas) under the trade name of Claytone APA. It was received as a fine particle powder. According to Salahuddin and Shehata, (11) the modified silicate was produced by a cation exchange reaction between the silicate and dimethyl benzyl hydrogenated tallow ammonium chloride, and the percentage of organic content (dimethyl benzyl hydrogenated tallow ammonium chloride) was 24%. Compared with common Cloisites organoclay, Claytone APA is characteristic of high efficiency and can be used in high nonpolarity systems. Before preparing the supported catalysts, the organoclay was dried in vacuum for 24 h. Triethyl aluminum (AlEt<sub>3</sub>) was taken as 400 g/l solutions in heptane. Ethanol, tetrahydrofuran (THF) and heptane were distilled and dried over molecular sieves before use. TiCl<sub>4</sub> and MgCl<sub>2</sub> were used as received without further purification.

### 2.2 Preparation of Supported Catalysts

In a typical experiment, 1.0 g of anhydrous MgCl<sub>2</sub> was introduced into a glass reactor equipped with a magnetic stirrer, then 20 ml tetrahydrofuran (THF) and 1.5 ml absolute ethanol were added. The mixture was heated to 45°C and stirred overnight until the MgCl<sub>2</sub> was completely dissolved. 3.0 g of the organoclay was then introduced and was uniformly dispersed in the solution under magnetic stirring. After being stirred at 45°C for 2 h, the agglomerated particles

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were separated by decanting, washed with heptane and dried under vacuum at 60°C for 2 h. The calculated amount of  $\text{TiCl}_4$  was then added to the above support suspended in 15 ml of heptane. The suspension was stirred at 45°C for 2 h. After decantation, the solid was washed with heptane several times, and then dried under vacuum. The supported complex was obtained as solid, yellow particles.

### 2.3 Ethylene Polymerization

50 ml of toluene, and a solution of  $\text{AlEt}_3$  were introduced into a 100 ml glass reactor equipped with a magnetic stirrer in succession. After that, the supported catalyst was added and the  $[\text{Al}]/[\text{Ni}]$  molar ratio was kept to be 100. The polymerization was carried out under a constant ethylene pressure of 106.7 kPa at 50°C for a given reaction time, and then terminated with acidified ethanol. The precipitated products were washed up with ethanol and dried under vacuum at 60°C for 6 h. Polyethylene nanocomposites with various organoclay loadings, namely PEC1 (2.29 wt% organoclay), PEC2 (5.50 wt% organoclay), PEC3 (8.73 wt% organoclay), were obtained by controlling the polymerization time. The organoclay loading (wt%) in the nanocomposites was determined by TGA in nitrogen. For a comparative study, the pure polyethylene was obtained by using the Ziegler-Natta catalyst, only supported on  $\text{MgCl}_2$  under the same polymerization conditions.

### 2.4 Characterization

A Rigaku (Japan) D/max-RB wide-angle X-ray diffractometer (WAXD) was used to characterize the layer structure of the clay in the nanocomposites. The operation parameters were  $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$  radiation at a generator voltage of 40 kV and a current of 100 mA. The scanning rate was 2/min at an interval of 0.02°. The nanoscale dispersion of the clay platelet was investigated by a JEM-100CX II transmission electron microscopy with an acceleration voltage of 100 kV. The ultrathin slides were obtained by sectioning the compression-molded sample along a direction perpendicular to the compression under cryogenic condition. The thermal stability was investigated by thermogravimetric analysis using NetzschTG-209 in air at a purge rate of 50 ml/min. The heating rates were set as 10, 20, and 30°C/min and the scanning temperature was in the range from 50°C to 700°C. The melting and crystallization behaviors of the PE and its nanocomposites were studied using a Perkin-Elmer DSC-7 under a nitrogen atmosphere. In order to eliminate the influence of thermal history and the effect of thermal treatment on the crystalline structure of polyethylene, all samples were first heated to 160°C for 5 min, then cooled to 50°C and reheated to 160°C, all at a rate of 20°C/min.

## 3 Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Microstructure Characteristics

The FTIR spectra of PE and its nanocomposites are illustrated in Figure 1. The spectrum of the PE nanocomposites clearly exhibits the characteristic absorptions attributed to both the polyethylene and the clay. The IR absorption bands at 2912  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 2850  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  represent  $\text{CH}_2$  stretching vibrations, and the bands at 1462  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 717  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  correspond to the bending and rocking vibration of  $\text{CH}_2$ , respectively. The absorption bands at 3640  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , 1047  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , 521  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 460  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are O-H stretching, Si-O stretching, Al-O stretching and Si-O bending vibrations for the organoclay, respectively. These FTIR assignments verify that the organoclay has been doped into the polyethylene matrix during the polymerization process.

Figure 2 displays the XRD patterns of the organoclay and the PE nanocomposites. The characteristic X-ray peak (001) of claytone APA was around 4.72°, which corresponds to a basal spacing of 1.87 nm and is identical to that reported by Salahuddin and Shehata (11). In contrast, the XRD patterns of the PE nanocomposites did not include any 001 diffraction peak, which means either that an exfoliated nanocomposite has been produced or that the long-range-ordered structure of clay had been destroyed during the preparation process.

The morphology of the PE nanocomposites was studied by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Figure 3 shows the TEM micrographs of PEC2, which contains 5.50 wt% of the organoclay. The white areas represent the PE matrix and the black ones the organoclay. From the higher magnification TEM image, the individual silicate layer was observed, as indicated by the dark arrow. From lower magnification TEM image, it was found that the organoclay platelets could be well dispersed in the PE matrix and no obvious aggregation occurred. These facts demonstrate that the obtained PE nanocomposite has an exfoliated structure.

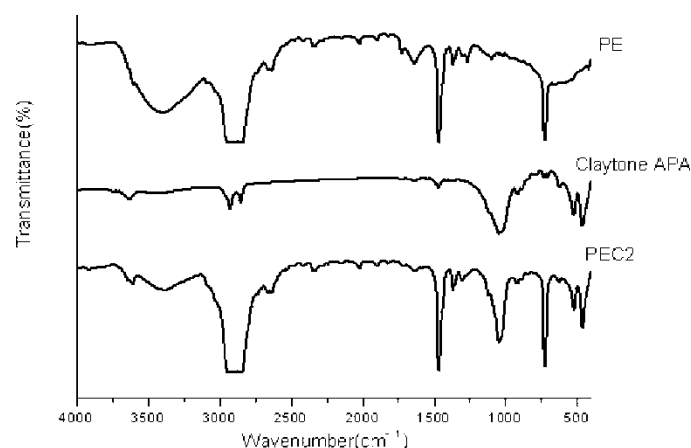
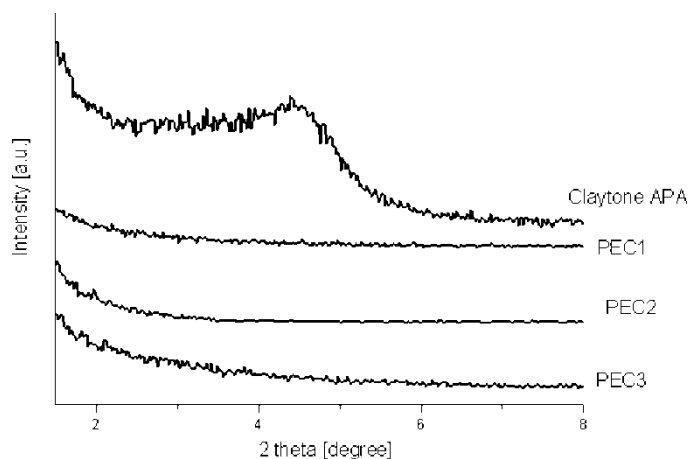


Fig. 1. The IR spectra of PE, claytone APA and PEC2.



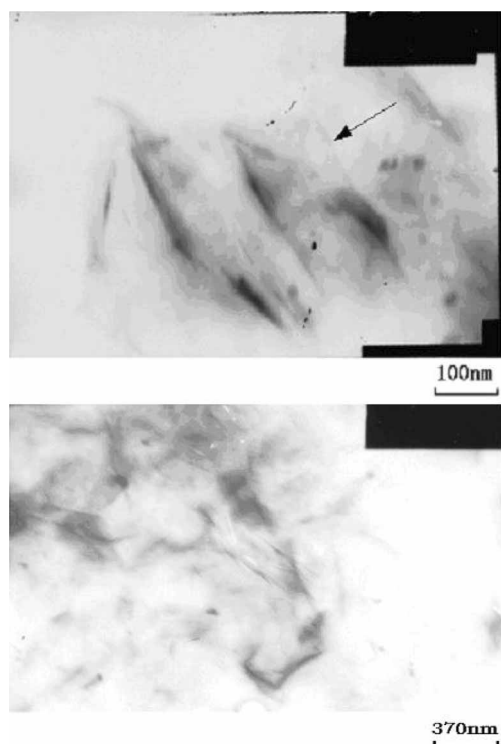
**Fig. 2.** XRD patterns of claytone APA and the polyethylene nanocomposites.

### 3.2 Melting and Crystallization Behavior

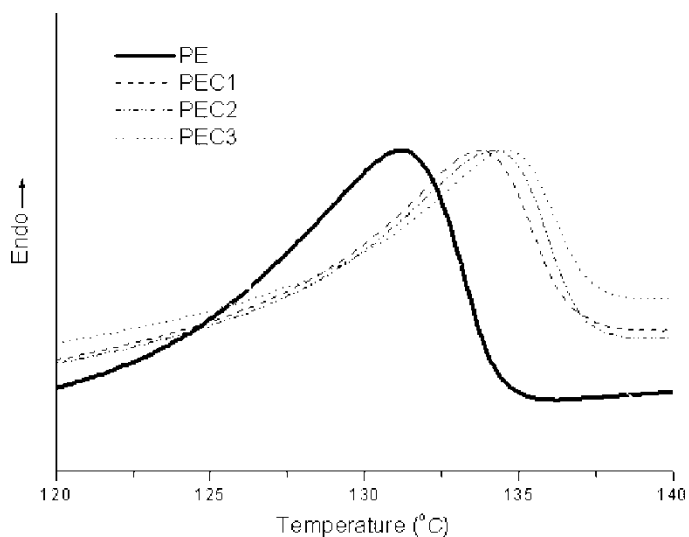
The non-isothermal crystallization exothermic and endothermic curves of PE and its nanocomposites are illustrated in Figures 4 and 5, respectively. The values of the peak melting temperature ( $T_m$ ), the heat evolved during crystallization ( $\Delta H_m$ ), the degree of crystallinity ( $X_c$ ) and the peak crystallization temperature ( $T_c$ ) at a cooling rate of 20°C/min for PE and its nanocomposites are listed in Table 1. The degree of crystallinity ( $X_c$ ) can be calculated

$$X_c (\%) = \frac{\Delta H_m}{(1 - \Phi)\Delta H_m^0} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

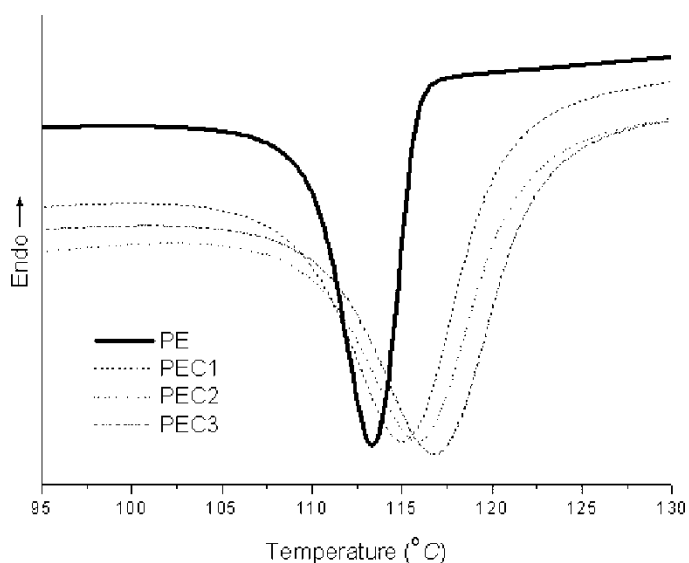
from the heat evolved during crystallization ( $\Delta H_m$ ) with the following relation: where  $\Delta H_m^0$  is the heat of fusion for 100% crystalline polyethylene and  $\Phi$  is the weight fraction of the filler in the nanocomposites. The heat of fusion for 100% crystalline of polyethylene is taken as 286 J/g. The results show that both  $T_m$  and  $X_c$  decreased significantly upon the exfoliation of the clay layers. This decrease may be attributed to a higher interfacial area and adhesion between the PE and the nano-scale clay layers, which would act to reduce the mobility of



**Fig. 3.** TEM micrographs of PEC2.



**Fig. 4.** Heating scans for neat PE and its nanocomposites.

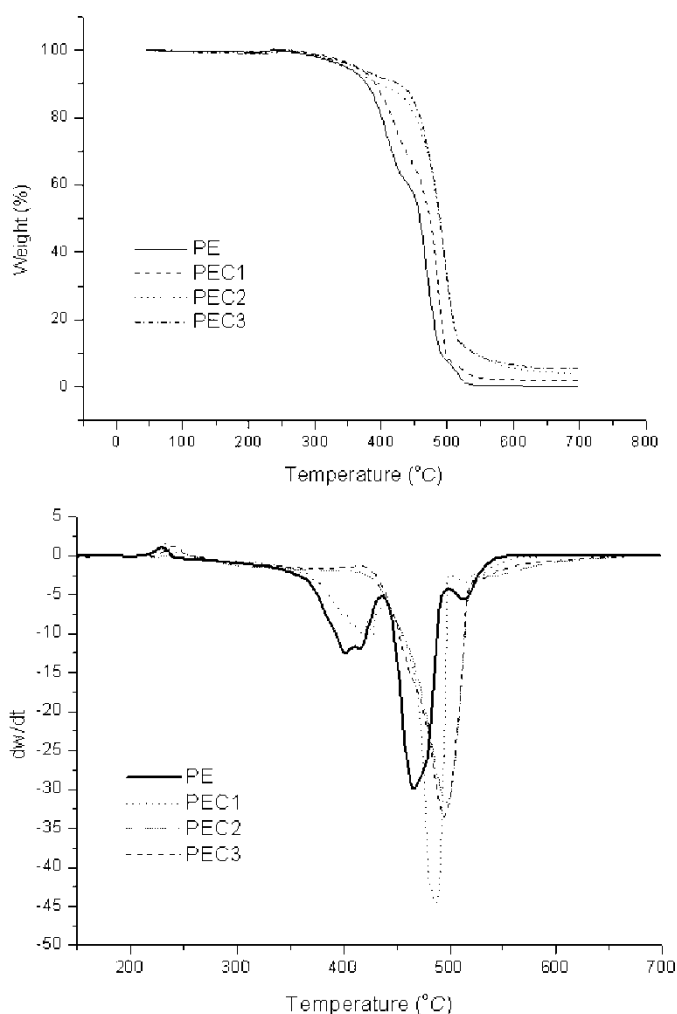
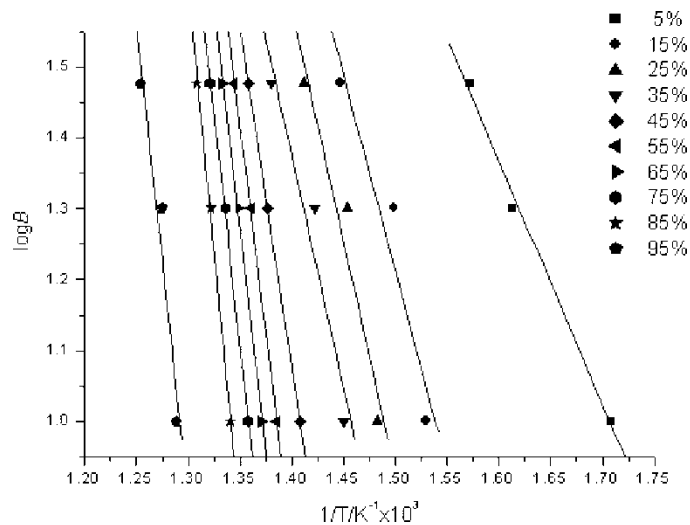


**Fig. 5.** Cooling scans for neat PE and its nanocomposites.

**Table 1.** Values of  $T_m$ ,  $\Delta H_m$ ,  $X_c$  and  $T_c$  for PE and its nanocomposites

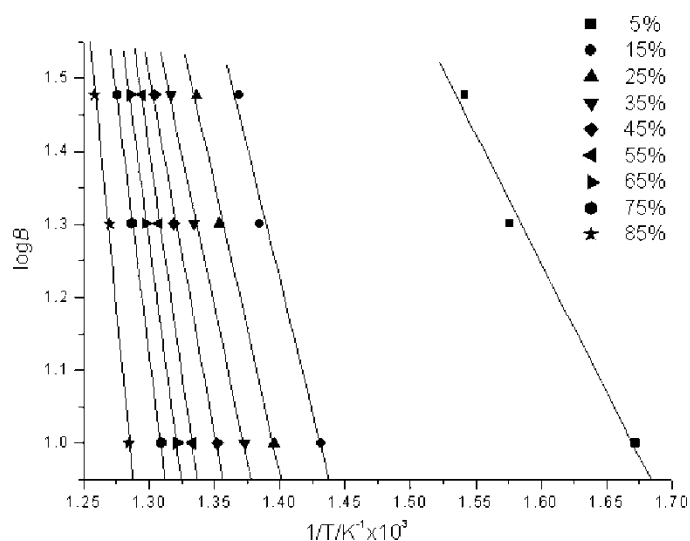
Sample	$T_m$ (°C)	$\Delta H_m$ (J/g)	$X_c$ (%)	$T_c$ (°C)
PE	131	186.63	65.3%	113
PEC1	133	161.66	56.5%	115
PEC2	134	113.69	39.8%	116
PEC3	135	116.18	40.2%	117

crystallizable chain segments. On the other hand,  $T_c$  of all nanocomposites is higher than that of neat PE. This phenomenon could be explained by the heterogeneous nucleation effect of the organoclay nanoparticles on the PE macromolecule segments, which leads to the crystallization of PE macromolecule segments at a higher crystallization temperature.

**Fig. 6.** TG and DTG curves for PE and its nanocomposites under an air atmosphere.**Fig. 7.** Plot of  $\log\beta$  vs.  $1/T$  for PE.

### 3.3 Thermal Oxidation Stability

Figure 6 shows the TG and DTG curves from the thermal degradation of PE and its nanocomposites under an air atmosphere at a scan rate of 20°C/min. With the increase of the organoclay loading, the number of degradation stages decreased. When 30% wt loss was selected as a point of comparison, the thermal-oxidative decomposition temperatures for PE, PEC1, PEC2 and PEC3 were found to be 417, 438, 469 and 471°C, respectively. This fact showed that the thermal oxidation property of the PE nanocomposites was better than that of neat PE, and could be improved with the increase of the organoclay loading. In order to obtain a better insight into the thermal-oxidative stability of the PE nanocomposites, the kinetics of the thermo-oxidation degradation process were analyzed. For this purpose, the following

**Fig. 8.** Plot of  $\log\beta$  vs.  $1/T$  for PEC3.

**Table 2.** The  $E_a$  values for PE and its nanocomposites and the corresponding determination

Weight loss (%)	PE		PEC1		PEC2		PEC3	
	$E_a$ (kJ · mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$R$	$E_a$ (kJ · mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$R$	$E_a$ (kJ · mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$R$	$E_a$ (kJ · mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$R$
5	62.6	0.997	63.4	0.992	43.2	0.982	64.4	0.993
15	100.5	0.955	86.7	0.984	99.1	0.989	133.0	0.990
25	119.4	0.967	96.6	0.985	156.7	0.981	144.2	0.997
35	119.8	0.966	152.3	0.998	223.1	0.998	153.1	0.998
45	175.3	0.999	222.6	0.996	294.4	0.995	179.8	0.998
55	212.0	0.999	267.1	0.985	299.6	0.998	224.7	0.999
65	228.3	0.997	286.1	0.977	332.7	0.995	241.4	0.999
75	237.8	0.999	265.2	0.989	264.8	0.999	257.2	0.998
85	271.5	0.998	247.1	0.995	295.8	0.999	333.4	0.996
Average	169.5		187.2		223.3		194.3	

Flynn–Wall–Ozawa equation (12) was used:

$$\log \beta = \log \left[ \frac{AE}{g(\alpha)R} \right] - 2.315 - 0.457 \frac{E}{RT} \quad (2)$$

where  $g(\alpha)$  is the conversion functional relationship,  $A$  is the preexponential factor (min<sup>-1</sup>),  $E_a$  is the activation energy (kJ/mol),  $R$  is the gas constant,  $\beta$  is the heating rate (°C/min), and  $T$  is the absolute temperature (K).  $E_a$  could be calculated from the slope of the straight line obtained by drawing the dependence  $\log \beta$  vs.  $1/T$  at different conversion degrees. Figures 7 and 8 give the respective plots of  $\log \beta$  vs.  $1/T$  for PE and PEC3 at some fixed weight loss. The  $E_a$  values calculated from the slopes of the straight lines for PE and its nanocomposites are listed in Table 2. The average  $E_a$  values for PE, PEC1, PEC2 and PEC3 were determined to be 169.5, 187.2, 223.3 and 194.3 kJ/mol, respectively. These results show that the presence of the exfoliated clay nanolayers increases the  $E_a$  of the thermo-oxidative degradation process of the PE matrix.

#### 4 Conclusions

PE nanocomposites could be obtained by in-situ polymerization method using the Ziegler-Natta catalyst supported on the organoclay/MgCl<sub>2</sub> bisupport in the presence of AlEt<sub>3</sub> as the cocatalyst. Their exfoliation structure was confirmed by XRD and TEM. The addition of nanoscale clay particles influences significantly the melting and crystallization behavior of the PE matrix. In addition, the nanoscale dispersion of clay platelets in the PE matrix improved the thermal oxidation stability.

#### 5 Acknowledgements

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