Interlaminar mechanical properties of carbon fiber reinforced plastic laminates modified with graphene oxide interleaf

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Abstract: By taking the advantage of the excellent mechanical properties and high specific surface area of graphene oxide (GO) sheets, we develop a simple and effective strategy to improve the interlaminar mechanical properties of carbon fiber reinforced plastic (CFRP) laminates. With the incorporation of graphene oxide reinforced epoxy interleaf into the interface of CFRP laminates, the Mode-I fracture toughness and resistance were greatly increased. The experimental results of double cantilever beam (DCB) tests demonstrated that, with 2 g/m² addition of GO, the Mode-I fracture toughness and resistance of the specimen increase by 170.8% and 108.0%, respectively, compared to those of the plain specimen. The improvement mechanisms were investigated by the observation of fracture surface with scanning electron microscopies. Moreover, finite element analyses were performed based on the cohesive zone model to verify the experimental fracture toughness and to predict the interfacial tensile strength of CFRP laminates.

1 Introduction

Owing to their high specific modulus and strength, carbon fiber reinforced plastic (CFRP) have attracted great scientific and industrial interest and are extensively used in many structural applications including aerospace, automobile, civil and marine structures where high performance and lightweight of structures are essential [1, 2]. However, as a laminated structure, CFRP laminates are extremely susceptible to crack initiation and propagation along the laminar interfaces. Delamination is one of the most prevalent life-limiting crack growth mode, causing severe reductions in in-plane strength and stiffness [3], and even catastrophic failure. Consequently, it is critical to develop new strategies to improve the interlaminar strength of CFRP.

In order to improve the interlaminar mechanical properties of CFRP laminates, various through-thickness reinforcement methods such as transverse stitching [4], z-pinning [5] and three-dimensional weaving [6] have been used, with proved effectiveness in alleviating delamination and subsequent buckling. However, the in-plane mechanical properties can be deteriorated to a certain extent.

With the advances in nanotechnology, nanofillers have been increasingly applied to the matrix, the surface of carbon fiber or the interlaminar interface of CFRPs to improve the interlaminar strength [7-12]. Among them, SiO₂ particle [13], carbon black (CB) [14], nanofibers such as carbon nanotube (CNT) [10, 15] and vapor grow carbon fiber (VGCF) [9, 11] have been widely practiced. Recently, graphene [16], due to its high specific area and excellent mechanical [17], electrical [18], and thermal [19] properties, is recognized as potential reinforcement for improving mechanical [20-22], electrical [23, 24] and thermal [25, 26] properties of nanocomposites. For example, Rafiee *et al.* [27] found only a small

amount (0.1 wt.%) graphene can remarkably increase the tensile strength and fracture toughness up to 40% and 53%, respectively in graphene platelets (GP)/epoxy nanocomposites. Zhao *et al.* [28] reported 150% increase of tensile strength and about 10 times increase of Young's modulus for graphene/poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) composites at a graphene loading of 1.8 vol.%. Currently, producing high purity monolayer graphene is very costly. In addition, it is still a technical challenge to disperse graphene evenly into polymers. On the other hand, graphene oxide, consisting of graphene and other functional groups such as hydroxyl, epoxide, carbonyl and carboxylic, is easy to fabricate at low cost and possesses many physical properties of graphene. The functionalities on the surface of graphene oxide can enhance the dispersion of graphene oxide in polymeric matrices and the interfacial interaction between graphene and polymeric matrices [29-31]. Extensive works have demonstrated that graphene oxide (GO) sheets are potentially effective reinforcements in polymer [32-37], ceramic [38-40] composites. However, up to date, GO as mechanical reinforcement nanofillers for FRPs laminates has not been fully explored. For example Mannov *et al.* [41] investigated the residual compressive properties of both CFRP and GFRP composites with thermally reduced graphene oxide (TrGO). The residual compressive strength was increased about 35% and 55% in the CFRP and GFRP laminates. Yavari *et al.* [42] introduced TrGO sheets into the GFRP composites and observed 1200-fold and 3-5 fold increase in flexural bending and uniaxial tensile fatigue life respectively. It was found that the fatigue life for the specimens with TrGO spray-coated onto the glass fibers was much longer than the corresponding specimens with TrGO uniformly dispersed in the epoxy resin. Zhang *et al.* [43] directly introduced graphene oxide sheets dispersed in the fiber sizing which is used to coat on the surface of individual

carbon fibers. They observed that the interfacial shear strength (IFSS) of those composites could obtain about 70.9% and 36.3% improvements compared with that of the virgin carbon fiber composites and the commercial sizing modified carbon fiber composites, respectively. In spite of the above mentioned progresses, to our best knowledge, there is no report about employing GO as interleaf inserted into the interlaminar interface of FRPs. Furthermore, its effects on the interlaminar fracture toughness were not investigated.

In this study, the GO sheets were first dispersed in the epoxy resin, and then the GO reinforced epoxy (GO-epoxy) was directly introduced into the interface of CFRP sublaminates to improve the interlaminar mechanical properties of CFRP laminates. Double cantilever beam (DCB) tests were performed to investigate the synergetic effect of GO and epoxy interleaf on the interlaminar fracture toughness of CFRP laminates. Moreover, to verify the experimental results, finite element analyses (FEA) was conducted and indicated the enhanced interlaminar tensile strengths. The toughening mechanisms were investigated in detail by the observation of fracture surfaces.

2 Experiments

2.1 Materials

Unidirectional CFRP prepregs (TOHO TENAX Co., Ltd, Japan) were employed to fabricate the CFRP laminates, where the diameter of carbon fiber (CF) was 7 μm , and the volume content of CF was 65%. Insulating bisphenol-F epoxy resin (JER806) was purchased from Japan Epoxy Resins Co., Ltd, Japan. GO used in this study was prepared by oxidation of graphite powder using a modified **Hummer's method** as reported in [44, 45], Scanning electron microscope (SEM) image of the GO flakes was shown in Figure 1(a), the

platelets were observed to be several to dozens of micrometers in size. Figure 1(b) shows the typical transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of the GO flakes. Figures 1(c) and 1(d) illustrate the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image and its FFT image of GO monolayer which reveals small ripple and honeycomb structure of GO monolayer. Note that the ripple structure in GO sheet could play an important role in enhancing mechanical interlocking and load transfer with the matrix [27]. Figure 1(e) presents the atomic force microscopic (AFM) image of GO flakes. The thickness of the as-prepared GO flakes were around 1-2 nm, which indicates that the as-prepared GO flakes were composed of 1-2 layers of individual GO sheet. The measured thickness of individual GO sheet used in this study was larger than the theoretical value of 0.35 nm [46] for single layer graphene which may be resulted from the oxygen-containing groups, such as epoxy and hydroxyl groups, on the GO surfaces. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), as shown in Figure 2, was employed to evaluate the quantification of the oxygen-containing functional groups on the surface of GO. The XPS spectra were taken by using an Axis Ultra DLD X-ray photoelectron spectrophotometer (Kratos Analytical Ltd) equipped with a mono Al K α X-ray source ($h\nu=1486.71$ eV), operated at a 75 W emission power and a 15 kV acceleration voltage. The base operating pressure in the XPS chamber was better than 10^{-9} Torr. The C1s XPS spectrum of GO was fitted and assigned into three corresponding carbon atoms components at different positions. The binding energies at 284.5 eV, 286.7 eV and 288.3 eV are assigned to C–C, C–O and C=O respectively. These assignments agree with previous works [47, 48]. The presence of various oxygen containing functional groups enables the obtained GO flakes to disperse well in polymeric matrices and enhances the interfacial interaction between GO and polymeric matrices.

Figure 1. Characterization of GO: (a) SEM image of GO flakes; (b) Bright-field TEM image of a typical GO flake deposited on a standard TEM grid; (c) and (d) HR-TEM image and its FFT image reveal small ripple and honeycomb structure of GO; (e) Typical AFM image of the GO sheet with a height profile.

Figure 2. XPS C1s spectrum of GO sheets

2.2 Fabrication of CFRP laminates toughened by GO-epoxy interleaf

The GO reinforced epoxy paste serving as reinforcing interleaf was first fabricated. The

corresponding fabrication process is illustrated in Figure 3. The prepared GO aqueous solution was dispersed into the polar aprotic solvent, *N,N*-Dimethylformamide (DMF, Wako Pure Chemical Industries Co., Ltd., Japan), using an ultrasonic dispersion machine (UH-600 SMT Co., Ltd., Japan) for 15 min. Then, epoxy was poured into the GO and DMF solution, and the solution was stirred by a planetary centrifugal mixer at 2000 rpm for 10 min. After that, the mixture was further processed by ultrasonic vibration for 15 min and mechanically stirred by planetary centrifugal mixer at 2,000 rpm for 10 min respectively to achieve a better GO dispersion. After heating the final mixture in a vacuum oven (AVO-250N, AS ONE Co., Ltd., Japan) at 90 °C for 12 h to remove the DMF solvent, the GO-epoxy paste was obtained. 24 pieces of CFRP prepregs were stacked together through a lay-up process to form two pieces of $[0^\circ]_{12}$ CFRP sublaminates. The obtained paste was evenly spread at one surface of each sub-laminate using a metallic roller. A polyimide film (Kapton, Toray Inc.) of 25 μm thickness was put on one side of one sublaminate to create an initial crack. Finally, the above two sublaminates were bonded together at the GO-epoxy painted side by curing them in the hot press (SA-302, TESTER SANGYO Co., Ltd, Japan) at 130 °C and 0.7 MPa for 4 h, and then CFRP laminates reinforced by GO-epoxy interleaf were obtained.

To systematically investigate the effects of GO interleaf on the fracture toughness of CFRP laminates, 4 types of CFRP laminates with GO-epoxy interleaf were prepared, where the area density of GO was varied from 0 g/m^2 to 3 g/m^2 but the area density of epoxy was kept as a constant, i.e., 215 g/m^2 . For simplicity, these CFRP laminates with GO-epoxy interleaf are referred as GO0, GO1, GO2 and GO3 respectively, where “GO” denotes the addition of GO-epoxy interleaf at the interface between two CFRP sublaminates, and the

numbers, i.e., “0, 1, 2 and 3” represent the corresponding area density of GO in the unit of g/m^2 . Moreover, CFRP laminates without interleaf, i.e., “Plain”, was also prepared for reference. The average thicknesses of various CFRP laminates were listed in Table 1 which shows that the thickness of CFRP laminates increases only slightly with increasing addition of GO.

Figure 3. Schematic illustration of specimen fabrication process

Table 1. Average thicknesses of various CFRP laminates

Specimen	Plain	GO0	GO1	GO2	GO3
Average thickness (mm)	3.131	3.134	3.138	3.143	3.148

2.3 DCB tests

To evaluate the Mode-I interlaminar fracture toughness, DCB test was performed using a universal material testing machine (5982, Instron Co., United States) at room temperature according to a Japanese Industrial Standard (JIS K 7086) [49].

As schematically illustrated by Figure 4, DCB specimens were cut from the above fabricated laminates. For each type of laminate, three specimens were prepared. Here, L , H and B are the length, half height and width of the specimen, respectively. Initial crack length a_o indicates the distance between initial crack tip and loading point in the longitudinal direction. Crack increment Δa denotes crack propagation, which can be measured by using the mark lines painted on the side surface of the specimen. Two aluminum tabs were attached to one end of the specimen to impose tensile load with a special apparatus through universal joints. The tensile load was applied at a crosshead speed of 0.5 mm/min. Tests were stopped when the increment of crack length Δa reaches 40 mm. The applied load P and the crack opening displacement (COD) δ were recorded.

$L=150$ mm; $B=20$ mm; $2H=3.13\sim$ mm, Initial crack length $a_o=34$ mm, $a_f=40$ mm

Figure 4. Schematic illustration of specimen for DCB tests

By using the compliance calibration method in classical fracture mechanics, Mode-I interlaminar fracture toughness can be calculated by the following equation [49].

$$G_{IC} = \frac{3}{2(2H)} \left(\frac{P_C}{B} \right) \frac{(B\lambda_0)^{\frac{2}{3}}}{a_1} \quad (1)$$

Here, P_C is the critical load at the initialization of crack growth. λ_0 is the compliance of load-COD curve at crack initiation point. By using the experimental relationship between the crack length a and the compliance λ , a_1 and a_0 can be fitted from the following equation,

$$\frac{a}{2H} = a_1(B\lambda)^{\frac{1}{3}} + a_0 \quad (2)$$

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Mode-I interlaminar fracture toughness

Representative Mode-I load-COD curves of five types of CFRP specimens (i.e., Plain, GO0, GO1, GO2, and GO3) are shown in Figure 5. The tensile load P in the initial stage increases rapidly in a linear manner, then a sudden drop occurs due to crack propagating at the critical load point, followed by a nonlinear increase before the peak, and final decrease. The critical loads P_C in load-COD curves of the above laminates are summarized in Figure 6. Obviously, the P_C of all the specimens with insertion of GO-epoxy interleaf (i.e., GO0, GO1, GO2 and GO3) are higher than that of the plain specimen except the GO0 specimen, which indicates the reinforcement effect of GO-epoxy interleaf. Moreover, with increasing GO addition at the interleaf, the P_C increases initially to a peak, and then decreases. The highest P_C is observed in GO2 specimen with 2 g/m² GO addition in the interleaf, which is about 74.05% higher than that of Plain specimen. Note that the critical load P_C may not be

the maximum load (see Figure 5), the maximum loads of the specimen with GO-epoxy interleaf are also much higher than that of the Plain specimen.

Figure 5. Representative load-COD curves for all kinds of specimens

Figure 6. Critical load P_C for various specimens

The relationship between fracture toughness and crack increment (i.e., R -curves) for all the tested laminates is illustrated in Figure 7. It can be found that the Mode-I fracture toughness increases with the crack length Δa which is mainly attributed to fiber bridging on the fracture surface. The corresponding Mode-I fracture toughness G_{IC} and fracture resistance G_{IR} are shown in Figure 8. Note that G_{IC} was obtained from the crack initiation point of R -curve and G_{IR} was averaged by the values of 5 points when Δa increases from 20 mm to 40 mm. In Figure 8, the similar changing trend of fracture toughness with that of P_C can be found. Both G_{IC} and G_{IR} initially increase until to a maximum value and then decrease with the increasing addition of GO. The largest G_{IC} and G_{IR} are also observed in GO2 with 2 g/m² GO addition in the interleaf, which are remarkably 170.8% and 108.0% higher than those of Plain, respectively (see Figure 9). It should be noted that, for the GO0 specimens with only epoxy in the interleaf, the P_C , G_{IC} and G_{IR} were obtained as 39.83 N, 0.163 and 0.443 KJ/m², respectively, which were almost the same as those of the Plain specimen. This phenomenon is similar to that in [50].

Figure 7. Comparison of R -curves for various specimens

Figure 8. Comparison of Mode-I fracture toughness and resistance for various specimens

Figure 9. Increasing rates of fracture toughness and critical load for all kind of specimens.

The reinforcement effects of GO-epoxy interleaf on the Mode-I fracture toughness of CFRP laminates are compared with that of the other nanofillers as show in Table 2. It can be found that the increasing rate of G_{IC} in the present work is the highest one compared with the other results used, i.e., SiC whiskers [51], CSCNTs [52] and carbon black [53]. This value is even better than the best value of our previous work using VGCF [9], and is much

better than carbon black using the same fabrication process. This demonstrates the remarkable reinforcement effects of GO-epoxy interleaf.

Table 2. Comparison of G_{IC} and G_{IR} for GO2 and other literatures.

Reinforced filler	G_{IC} (KJ/m ²)		G_{IR} (KJ/m ²)		Increasing rate (%)	
	before	after	before	after	G_{IC}	G_{IR}
GO (2[g/m ²])	0.161	0.436	0.413	0.859	170.8	108.0
CB (15[g/m ²]) [53]	0.161	0.242	0.413	0.779	50.3	88.6
VGCF (20[g/m ²]) [9]	0.221	0.432	0.489	0.616	95.5	26.0
SiC whisker [51]	0.140	0.215	0.174	0.202	53.6	16.1
CSCNT (1.8wt%) [52]	0.076	0.125	0.086	0.170	64.5	97.7

3.2 Interlaminar tensile strength with FEA

Finite element analysis was also employed to investigate the interlaminar mechanical properties of CFRP toughened by GO-epoxy interleaf. As shown in Figure 10(a), two-dimensional (2D) FEA model was built up using ABAQUS to simulate the processes of crack initialization and subsequent propagation in DCB specimens. The CFRP laminate was modeled by first-order plane strain element (CPE4I) with incompatible modes, which can not only overcome the shearing locking problem in the simulation of bending deformation when using the first-order element but also save computational cost compared to the second-order element. The interface between two sublaminates was modelled by zero thickness cohesive elements (COH2D4). To overcome strong numerical instabilities in crack propagation simulations, the cohesive element size along the length direction of beam was controlled to be smaller than 0.5 mm [54-56]. The total number of elements in the models was 2100 for DCB specimen. Table 3 shows the detailed material parameters of CFRP laminates in simulations. Table 4 lists material properties of cohesive element. Here,

K is the initial stiffness of cohesive elements before crack propagation. G_{IC} is critical fracture toughness obtained in DCB experiment tests. N denotes the interlaminar tensile strength which is obtained through an inverse identification process. By matching the slope of the initial straight line and the peak load of the numerical load-COD curves to the experimental ones, the tensile strength of the CFRP laminates can be determined.

The comparison of numerical simulation and experimental test results is shown in Figures 10b and 10c. Good consistence between numerical and experimental results can be observed. Moreover, as listed in Table 4, N is enhanced with addition of GO-epoxy interleaf. The largest N is also observed in GO2 specimen with 2 g/m² GO addition, which is 66.7% higher than that of Plain. Therefore, the above experimental and numerical investigations provide clear evidences for the toughening effect of GO-epoxy interleaf on the Mode-I interlaminar mechanical properties of CFRP laminates including both interlaminar strength and fracture toughness.

Table 3. Material properties of CFRP laminates

E_{11}	$E_{22}=E_{33}$	$G_{12}=G_{13}$	G_{23}	$\nu_{12}=\nu_{13}$	ν_{23}
138 GPa	10 GPa	6.0 GPa	3.7 GPa	0.27	0.45

Table 4. Material properties of cohesive element

Fracture mode	Specimen	K [GPa/mm]	G_{IC} [KJ/m ²]	N [MPa]
Mode-I	Plain	350	0.161	30
	GO2	350	0.436	50

Figure 10. FEA details: (a) FEA models of DCB specimen; (b) and (c) Comparison of numerical and experimental load-COD curves of Plain specimen and GO2 specimen.

3.4 Improvement mechanism

It is well known that the fracture toughness of CFRP laminates is mainly determined by two key points, i.e., the toughness of matrix and the interfacial strength between carbon fiber and matrix. We will explore them in the following.

For the first point, many studies have demonstrated that GO can effectively improve the toughness of epoxy resin at low weight fractions of GO (usually less than 1.0 wt%) [36, 57, 58]. For example, Wan *et al.* [36] found that there was 26% improvement in K_{IC} value for epoxy composite with the optimal addition of 0.25 wt% of GO. Bortz *et al.* [58] reported the enhancement of 105.4% in Mode-I fracture toughness through the addition of 0.5 wt% of GO to an epoxy system. They also found that doubling the GO addition to 1.0

wt% revealed a saturation of the toughening effect. The weight fractions of GO in the GO-epoxy paste in this study are 0.465 wt%, 0.93 wt% and 1.395 wt% for GO1, GO2 and GO3 specimens respectively which are reasonable compared with that in [58]. Note that, the epoxy resin would also leak into the GO-epoxy interleaf from the CFRP prepregs during the CFRP curing process, therefore, the weight fractions of GO in the GO-epoxy interleaf could be further lower than that in the GO-epoxy paste. Consequently, the epoxy matrix of CFRP laminates near the interleaf will be toughened by the addition of GO with a fracture stress reaching to 63 GPa as predicted by Monte Carlo simulations in [59]. The intrinsic excellent mechanical properties, the large surface area and specific wrinkled surface of the GO sheets combined with their anticipated strong interfacial bonding between GO and epoxy can be ascribed to the toughening mechanism. In addition, the functional groups on the surface of GO sheets also play a critical role in good dispersion of GO sheets in epoxy matrices and in enhancement of the interfacial interaction between GO and epoxy matrices [29]. As shown in Figure 11, a lot of H-bonds can be formed in the GO reinforced epoxy composites both between epoxy and the hydroxyl functional groups (Figure 11(a)) and intra- , inter-layer of GO sheets (Figure 11(b)). Those formed H-bond networks play a critical role to strength the interfacial interactions between GO and epoxy. Therefore, as highlighted in [30], a higher density of oxygen-containing groups on the surface of GO sheets leads to the decrease of elastic modulus of individual GO sheets, however, the groups also result in the increased bonds between the GO sheets and polymer molecules, and consequently the increase in overall mechanical properties.

Figure 11. Schematic of various configurations of H-bonds formed: (a) Interface between GO sheet and epoxy molecule; (b) Intra-layer and inter-layer of GO sheets. (The horizontal gray lines denote the graphene sheet, while oxygen and hydrogen atoms are shown as red and white spheres, respectively. The H-bonds are denoted by dashed blue lines.)

For the second point, in order to investigate the interfacial strength between carbon fiber and epoxy matrix, fracture surfaces of the DCB tested laminates at the crack initiation position were observed by a scanning electron microscope (SEM) (JSM-6510A, JEOL Ltd.). Figure 12 shows the SEM fracture surface images of 4 types of laminates (i.e., Plain, GO1, GO2, GO3) after DCB tests under Mode-I loading. As shown in Figure 12(a), after fracture, many CFs were exposed with less epoxy resin covering them. The delamination of CF and epoxy matrix and the brittle fracture indicate the weak bonding between CF and epoxy matrix, and explains the relatively low Mode-I fracture toughness in Plain specimen. After addition of GO-epoxy interleaf, as shown in Figures 12(b), 12(c) and 12(d), CFs were embedded in GO reinforced epoxy resin and tightly bonded with it after fracture. This indicates that stronger interfacial adhesion between CF and epoxy resin for GO1, GO2 and GO3 specimens was realized after toughened by GO-epoxy interleaf. Better interfacial adhesion between epoxy resin and CF contributes to the improvement of Mode-I fracture toughness. This is also confirmed by high magnification SEM images which is performed

at the typical region denoted by red dotted line in Figure 12. The high magnification SEM images clearly show that the interfacial strength of GO2 and GO3 are better than GO1. And GO2 possesses the best bonding strength between CF and epoxy matrix which are coincided with the fracture toughness results obtained in previous experiment tests. Moreover, more irregular and rough fracture surface also can be observed in the specimen toughened by GO-epoxy interleaf, this indicates that larger fracture area was created due to the crack deflection and plastic deformation during crack propagation. Furthermore, many small irregular dimple structures can be observed in the fracture surfaces of the specimens with GO interleaf. The dimple structure is formed by the process in which an initial crack tilts and twists when it encounters a rigid GO. This leads to an increase in the total fracture surface area, requires higher driving force and consumes larger energy during crack propagation. All of these indicate the synergistic effect of both interleaf and CFRP laminates, and therefore support the higher Mode-I fracture toughness of GO1, GO2 and GO3 compared to that of Plain.

The fracture toughness of GO3 is slightly lower than that of GO2, which may be ascribed to the saturation of toughening effect of GO at high concentration. The overdose of GO may result in nanofiller aggregation in epoxy resin. As such aggregations will cause local stress concentration and detrimental to the toughness of epoxy and the adhesion strength between epoxy resin and CF. Therefore, the Mode-I fracture toughness of GO3 is lower than that of GO2 specimen. This is confirmed by Figure 13 which shows the high resolution SEM graphs of the fracture surface morphologies in different CFRP specimens. As shown in Figure 13, epoxy-coated GO flakes protruding out of the fracture surface can be clearly observed as indicated by the arrows in Figure 13, and they cause the formation of

dimple structure in the fracture surface of GO reinforced specimen. The dispersion of GO can be roughly predicted. Obviously, the epoxy-coated GO flakes are evenly distributed on the fracture surface of GO1 and GO2 specimens, indicating good dispersion of GO in these specimens (Figures 13(a), (b)). However, for GO3 (Figure 13(c)), when the area density of GO in the interleaf increases to 3 g/m^2 , aggregations of epoxy-coated GO flakes can be observed as marked by circles, suggesting the relatively poor dispersion of GO in the GO3 specimen. Therefore, the fracture toughness of GO3 tends to decrease compared to GO2.

Figure 12. Fracture surfaces of Mode-I CFRP laminates: (a) Plain; (b) GO1; (c) GO2; (d) GO3

Figure 13. Graphene oxide dispersion condition: (a) GO1; (b) GO2; (c) GO3

4. Conclusions

In this study, the effect of GO reinforced epoxy interleaf on the interlaminar mechanical properties of CFRP laminates was systematically investigated. The experimental results of DCB tests demonstrated that the Mode-I fracture toughnesses of CFRP laminates can be improved significantly with introduction of GO reinforced epoxy interleaf into the interlaminar interfaces. Generally, as the GO loading increases, the fracture toughness initially increases up to a peak, and then decreases. The optimum area density of GO is 2 g/m^2 , which brings about remarkable 170.8% and 108.0% increases in Mode-I fracture toughness and resistance, respectively. Furthermore, numerical simulations verified the experimental fracture toughness and successfully predicted the interfacial tensile strengths of the CFRP laminates. The observation of the fracture surfaces provided useful information about the toughening mechanisms.

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