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Research Article

Preparation and Characterization of Some Hyperbranched Polyesteramides/Montmorillonite Nanocomposites

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Different polyesteramides hyperbranched polymers (HPEA1-6)/montomorillonite clay (MMT) nanocomposites were prepared with three different loading contents of clay (4, 10, and 15 wt%). The obtained nanocomposites were characterized via XRD, thermal analyses, and TEM. Generally, intercalation behavior was observed. The hyperbranched polyesteramides (HPEA1-6) were originally prepared by the bulky reaction between maleic anhydride (MAn), succinic anhydride (ScAn), and phthalic anhydride (PhAn) with either diethanolamine (DEA) or diisopropanolamine (DiPA). The resulting hyperbranched polyesteramides (HPEA1-6) were characterized by GPC, IR, 1 H-NMR, TGA, and DSC.

1. Introduction

Recently, polymer/clay nanocomposites have been considered as rising area of research from both scientific and industrial perspectives where they result from the interaction between the organic polymer phase and the inorganic clay phase. Therefore, polymer/clay nanocomposites combine both the properties of inorganic phase such as rigidity, high stability, and the properties of organic phase such as flexibility, dielectric, ductility, and processability [1–4]. Layered silicates such as montmorillonite are the most versatile member of the nanofillers used in manufacturing polymer/clay nanocomposites. The nanoparticles improve the polymer performance over conventional fillers with a smaller loading content [5]. The advantages of nanocomposites include enhanced mechanical properties such as elastic modulus [6] and tensile strength [7, 8].

Additional enhancements are expected in coefficient of linear thermal expansion, heat distortion temperature, flammability resistance, ablation performance, gas barrier properties, and others [9–12]. Generally, polymer/clay nanocomposites have been widely used in many fields, such as automobile and tire industries, construction fields, food packaging, electrical fields, antimicrobial agents, and other potential applications [13–17]. Several polymers are involved

in producing such nanocomposites as vinyl polymers [18, 19], condensation polymers [20, 21], polyolefins [22, 23], and others [24, 25]. Hyperbranched polymers have been lately used in such nanocomposites due to their brilliant physical and chemical properties to obtain nanocomposites with excellent properties that can be invested in different applications [26, 27]. Hyperbranched polymers belong to the dendritic polymers; however, they are prepared via several easy preparative methods in one-pot reaction which is considered as merit over the dendrimers themselves especially in the industry where dendrimers are labor-intensive materials. Hyperbranched polymers with numerous different functional groups can be obtained due to the easy-end groups' modification, for example, esters, carboxylic acids, and tertiary amines [28]. The hyperbranched polyesteramides represent important category of the functional and widely applicable hyperbranched polymers which were firstly developed in an industrial viable route by van Bentherm and others [29]. Thereby, the produced hyperbranched polymers had improved flow and air-drying properties for use in combination with alkyd resins. Those products were tested for plastics-additives applications [30]. Generally, hyperbranched polyesteramides (HBPAs) were synthesized by the bulk polycondensation of a trifunctional dialkanolamine (DAA) as bB2 monomer, where b and B2 represent the

secondary amine and the two alcohol functional groups, respectively, and a difunctional cyclic anhydride (CAn), as an Aa monomer, where Aa represents the anhydride functional group [31]. The hyperbranched polyesteramides—because of the special shape and the large number of end groups of highly branched structures—have several applications in coatings, surface modifiers, biomedical applications, and others [32, 33]. Consequently, in the current publication, members of hyperbranched polyesteramides were chosen to be involved in forming some nanocomposites with montomorillonite clay to be used in the future in our research group in several applications specifically in the biomedical ones.

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals. Maleic anhydride (MAn) (98%), succinic anhydride (ScAn) (98%), and diisopropanolamine (DiPA) (98%) were provided by Fluka, Germany. Phthalic anhydride (PhA $_n$) (99.98%) was purchased from Arab lab, Dubai, UAE. Diethanolamine (DEA) (99%) was from analytical Rasayan, India. Montmorillonite (MMT) clay was provided by Southern clay products, TA, USA.

2.2. Instrumentation. Gel permeation chromatography (GPC) was used to determine number-average molecular weight (\overline{M}_n) and polydispersity $(D = \overline{M}_w/\overline{M}_n)$ of the polymers by using Agilent-1100 GPC technologies with refractive index detector where polystyrene (PS) and N, N'-dimethyl formamide (DMF) were used as standard and eluent, respectively. Infrared spectra (IR) were recorded via Pye-Unicum SP-1100 in the range of 400–4000 cm⁻¹ using KBr pellets.

Nuclear magnetic resonance (1 HNMR) was measured via Jeol JNM-EX 270 MHZ using tetramethylsilane (TMS) as internal standard and DMSO- d_{6} as the deuterated solvent.

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on TGA Q 5000 TA instrument, in the range from 40 to 750°C with heating rate 10 K/min under nitrogen. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) was conducted to determine the glass transition temperatures (T_g) by using differential scanning calorimeter Q 1000 TA from -80° C to 150°C with scanning rate of 20 K/minutes under nitrogen. The morphology of the nanocomposites was investigated via transmission electron microscopy (TEM) JEOL-JEM-1230 at 100 KV by drop casting the suspended sample onto carbon-coated copper grids, followed by evaporation of the solvent in air.

2.3. General Preparative Method of Anhydride-Based Hyperbranched Polyesteramides [28, 33]. The hyperbranched polyesteramides (HPEA₁₋₆) were prepared by introducing (0.115 mol) of DiPA or DEA into three-necked flask equipped with a mechanical stirrer, thermometer, and a vacuum pump and placed at thermostated oil bath. Then, 0.10 mol of anhydride was added to the flask. The reaction mixture was gradually heated to 70°C, with continuous stirring, and then more slowly to 170°C. Vacuum was applied during heating to remove the condensates. The formed hyperbranched polymer

was washed with acetone, filtered, and dried at 50°C for 24 hours.

2.4. Preparation of Polymer/Clay Nanocomposites. For synthesis of polymer/clay nanocomposites, 0.45, 0.3, and 0.12 gm of untreated MMT corresponding to three percent of clay (e.g., 15, 10, and 4 wt%, resp.) were used individually with the equivalent amounts of 9.35 \times 10 $^{-5}$ mol of HPEA $_{1-6}$. The used amount of MMT was dispersed in 60 mL distilled H $_2$ O for 24 h at 60 $^{\circ}$ C. The hyperbranched polymer was dissolved separately in 40 mL distilled H $_2$ O for 3 h at the same temperature. Then, the hyperbranched polymer solution was added to the dispersed clay with stirring for 24 h at 60 $^{\circ}$ C. The formed precipitate was filtered and dried. The resulting nanocomposites were characterized by XRD, TGA, DSC, and TEM.

3. Results & Discussion

Polymer/clay nanocomposites are good example on organic/inorganic hybrids gathering the advantages of both sides which are widely invested in numerous applications [13–17]. Hyperbranched polymers represent relatively new polymeric member in this category of composite materials [26, 27]. Accordingly, herein, hyperbranched polyesteramides (HPEA $_{1-6}$, Figure 1) were subjected to form nanocomposites with clay to be progressively applied in current work at our laboratories that will be published later.

3.1. Characterization of the Hyperbranched Polymers HPEA₁₋₆. HPEA₁₋₆ polymers were prepared via one-pot reaction between anhydrides (Aa) and dialkanolamines (bB₂) [28, 33]. Three different anhydrides were used such as maleic anhydride, succinic anhydride, and phthalic anhydride. Diethanolamine (DEA) and diisopropanolamine (DiPA) were involved in such condensation preparative reactions. HPEA_{1,3,5} resulted from the reaction of maleic, succinic and phthalic anhydrides, respectively, with diethanolamine (DEA). HPEA_{2,4,6} resulted from similar reaction of the same anhydrides with diisopropanolamine (DiPA). The prepared parent hyperbranched polymers (HPEA₁₋₆) were characterized via GPC, IR, and ¹HNMR to confirm their structures [34-36]. Accordingly, GPC of HPEA₁₋₆ recorded \overline{M}_n and D values for each hyperbranched polymer. \overline{M}_n and PDI values were found to be 2000 g/mol & 3.53 for HPEA₁, 3500 g/mol & 2.54 for HPEA₂, 1400 g/mol & 1.43 for HPEA₃, 1800 g/mol & 1.56 for HEA₄, 2100 g/mol & 1.27 for HPEA₅, and 2400 g/mol & 1.64 for HPEA₆. Further evidence on formation of the former $\mbox{HPEA}_{\mbox{\scriptsize 1-6}}$ was provided via IR where IR spectra of HPEA₁₋₆ showed several supportive bands for the structures. Thereby, IR of HPEA₁ and HPEA₂ (KBr, $\nu \text{ cm}^{-1}$): 3432–3421 (O–H), 1643–1641 ($\nu \text{ C=O}$ in amide groups), 1734–1731 (ν C=O for α -unsaturated carbonyl of ester groups), two bands at 2978-2940 and 2934-2876 (C-H stretching), bands at 1494-1487 & 1451-1450 (CH₂) bending), 1377 (CH₃ bending), 943-856 and 1066-1050 (=CH bending). The bands at 1129-1125, 1184-1175, and 1276-1269 were ascribed to C-O and C-N stretching. IR of HPEA₃

$$\begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & &$$

HPEA_{3,4}: R = H, CH₃, C = succinic anhydride,

Where $HPEA_{1,2}$: R = H, CH_3 , C = maleic anhydride,

 $HPEA_{5,6}$: R = H, CH₃, C = phthalic anhydride

FIGURE 1: Representation of molecular structure of hyperbranched polyesteramides.

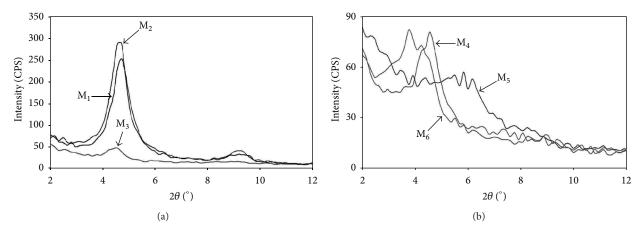


Figure 2: XRD of M_1 to M_6 .

and HPEA₄ (KBr, $\nu \, \text{cm}^{-1}$): 3441–3396 ($\nu \, \text{O-H}$), 1624–1622 (ν C=O in amide groups), 1727–1724 (ν C=O in ester groups), 2979-2953 (C-H stretching), 1416 (CH₂ bending), 1260-1234 (C-O stretching), and 1074-1064 (C-N stretching). IR of HPEA₅ and HPEA₆ (KBr, $\nu \, \text{cm}^{-1}$): 3401–3392 ($\nu \, \text{O}$ –H), 1623-1612 (ν C=O in amide groups), 1721-1720 (ν C=O in ester groups), 2976-2955 (C-H stretching), 1430-1432 (CH₂ bending), 1377 (CH₃ bending), 1276–1269 (C–O stretching), and 1065-1064 (C-N stretching). Lastly, ¹HNMR of the

previously prepared hyperbranched polymers (HPEA₁₋₆) was carried out to confirm the polymer structures. ¹H-NMR for HPEA₁ (DMSO-d₆), the chemical shifts (δ , ppm): 2.9-3.29 (O=CN-C \underline{H}_2), 3.39-4.19 (O=CO-C \underline{H}_2), 5.78-6.31 $(C\underline{H}=)$, and 6.4 $(O\underline{H})$. ¹H-NMR for HPEA₂ (DMSO-d₆), δ (ppm): 1.03-1.11 (CH₃), 2.6-3.32 (CH₂), 3.88-4.47 (CH), 5.1(OH), and 6.02-6.8 (CH=).

 1 H-NMR for HPEA₃ (DMSO-d₆), δ (ppm): 3.59– $4.08 \text{ (CH}_2-N-C=O), \text{ (CH}_2-O-C=O) and (-CH_2OH), 4.2$

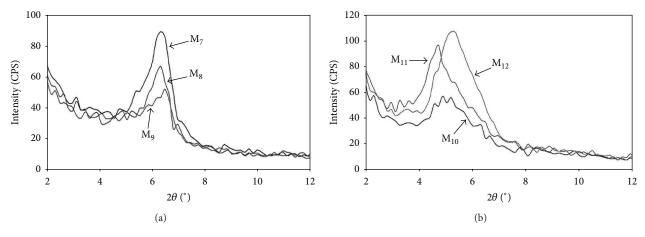


FIGURE 3: XRD of M_7 to M_{12} .

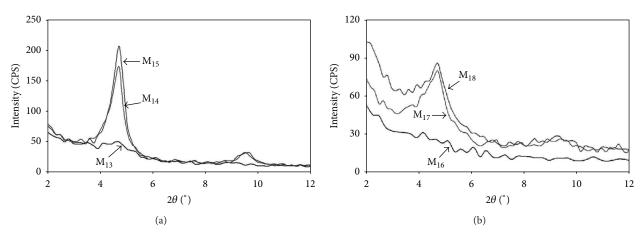


Figure 4: XRD of M_{13} to M_{18} .

(O<u>H</u>). ¹H-NMR for HPEA₄ (DMSO-d₆), δ (ppm): 0.95–1.14 (C<u>H</u>₃), 2.26–2.37 (C<u>H</u>₂CON), 2.6–2.9 (C<u>H</u>₂COO), 3.26–3.57 (–C<u>H</u>₂NCO), 3.6 (C<u>H</u>) and 5.01 (O<u>H</u>). ¹H-NMR for HPEA₅ (DMSO-d₆), δ (ppm): 2.97–3.38 (O=CN–C<u>H</u>₂), 3.62–3.90 (O=CO–C<u>H</u>₂), 4.48 (O<u>H</u>), 7.15–8.17 (ph). ¹H-NMR for HPEA₆ (DMSO-d₆), δ (ppm): 0.78–1.31 (C<u>H</u>₃), 2.73–3.02 (CH₂), 3.56 (CH), 5.12–5.43 (OH) and 7.24–8.16 (ph).

Hyperbranched Polymers/MMT Nanocomposites. HPEA₁₋₆ formed nanocomposites with untreated MMT depending on the high degree of functionality of the parent hyperbranched polymers. Such kind of functional polymers needs no further modification of clay. Three percent of clay (4%, 10%, and 15%) was tested in forming such hyperbranched polymers/clay nanocomposites to determine the proper percent for further applications for the expected nanocomposites. The samples M_{1-3} , M_{4-6} , M_{7-9} , M_{10-12} , M_{13-15} , and M_{16-18} were referred to HPEA₁, HPEA₂, HPEA₃, HPEA₄, HPEA₅, and HPEA₆, respectively (Table 1). The resulting nanocomposites were characterized by XRD where the presence of hyperbranched polymers generally widened the d-spacing inside the internal gallery of clay as seen in Table 1 and (Figures 2, 3, and 4) causing intercalation morphology of the expected nanocomposites. However, the best situation of inclusion of polymers through the clay platelets was observed with respect to M_1 , M_4 , M_7 , M_{10} , M_{13} , and M_{16} in case of lower clay loading contents (4%) where the highest d-spacing values were recorded at low intensity values more than that in case of the other samples with percent (10% or 15%). Thereby, the d-spacing increased from 1.226 nm for pristine MMT (33) to 1.935, 2.143, 1.384, 1.856, and 1.865 nm for HPEA $_{1-5}$ samples at 4% clay contents. Also, exfoliation behavior was recorded in case of HPEA $_6$ at the same percent of clay. That behavior was attributed to the high degree of functionalities and hence bulkiness of these polymers which led to the relative destruction of the clay ordering.

The hyperbranched polymers/MMT nanocomposites formed at 4% clay (i.e., M_1 , M_4 , M_7 , M_{10} , M_{13} , and M_{16}) were further analyzed and characterized via TGA and DSC. For complete comparison, thermal behavior of the parent hyperbranched polymers (HPEA $_{1-6}$) was also studied via TGA and DSC. TG thermograms of M_1 , M_4 , M_7 , M_{10} , M_{13} , and M_{16} samples are indicated with respect to their parent hyperbranched polymers as in Figures 5–7 [34–36].

Firstly, with respect to M_1 , M_4 , and their pristine hyperbranched HPEA $_{1,2}$ polymers (Figure 5), it was observed that only 21.35% and 17.4% weight loss was recorded for

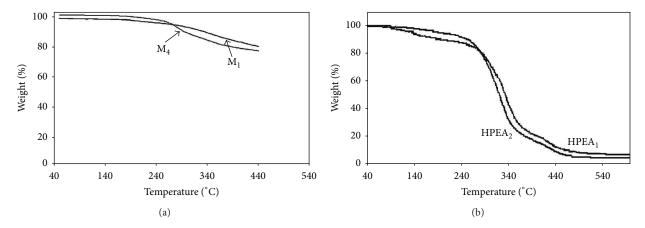


FIGURE 5: TGA of M₁, M₄, HPEA₁, and HPEA₂.

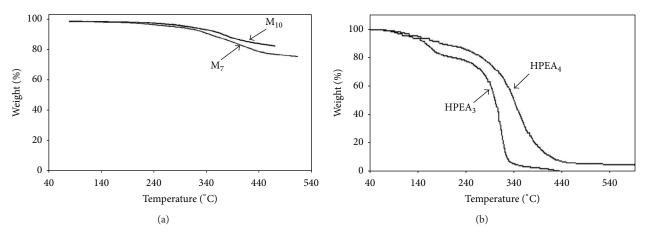


FIGURE 6: TGA of M₇, M₁₀, HPEA₃, and HPEA₄.

 $\rm M_1$ and $\rm M_4$ nanocomposites up to 440°C. However, 10% and 5% weight loss was recorded for HPEA $_1$ and HPEA $_2$, respectively up to 190°C, and then sharp decomposition of both samples began at 290°C. On the other hand, although $\rm M_7$ and $\rm M_{10}$ nanocomposites lost 20.45 and 14.87% of their weights approaching 440°C, and HPEA $_3$ and HPEA $_4$ lost 11.5% and 7.4% of their samples weights up to 165°C, then the loss approaching 18% for HPEA $_3$ (Figure 6). TG curves of HPEA $_3$ and HPEA $_4$ descended for complete decomposition of samples at 300°C and 310°C, respectively.

The weight loss with respect to $\rm M_{13}$ and $\rm M_{16}$ nanocomposites reached 18% and 10% of the samples' initial weights approaching the same temperature range (440°C). Slight weight loss was detected for HPEA₅ and HPEA₆ till 180°C (i.e., 6% HPEA₅ and 3% HPEA₆) (Figure 7). Both samples began their final degradation at 280–340°C.

From the previous results, the diethanolamine-based hyperbranched polymers and their nanocomposites demonstrated less thermal stability than that of the diisopropanolamine-based ones. That was strongly ascribed to the larger number of carboxyl groups in the first DEA-based hyperbranched polymers more than that in the second DIPA-based ones which probably reacted with alcohol groups to from easily evaporated water molecules.

DSC measurements indicated obvious changes in T_g (°C) values of M_1 , M_4 , M_7 , M_{10} , M_{13} , and M_{16} nanocomposites with respect to their pristine hyperbranched polymers HPEA $_{1-6}$, where the T_g values transformed from –24, 30, –32, –14, –19, and 42°C for HPEA $_{1,2,3,4,5,6}$ parents hyperbranched polymers to 81, 1877, 63.6, 75, 74.7, and 188°C for M_1 , M_4 , M_7 , M_{10} , M_{13} , and M_{16} nanocomposites. Therefore, compared to the parent hyperbranched polymers, the nanocomposites demonstrated higher thermal stability referring to the influence of clay.

The morphology of the resulting nanocomposites was studied via TEM (Figure 8). Irregular ordering of clay platelets including areas of destructed ones revealing intercalation to semiexfoliation structure. However, in case of $\rm M_{16}$, complete regions of destructed clay platelets appeared led to exfoliation behavior.

4. Conclusion

Polyesteramide-hyperbranched polymers successfully formed nanocomposites with untreated montomorillonite clay (MMT) relying on their high number of polar end groups. Three percent of clay were used such as (4, 10,

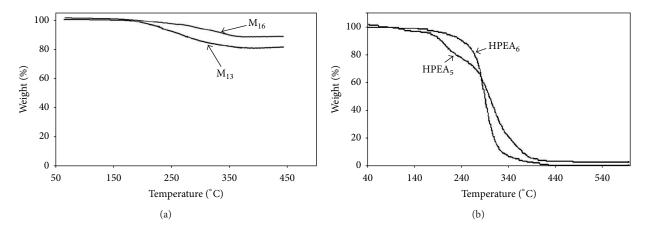


FIGURE 7: TGA of M₁₃, M₁₆, HPEA₅, and HPEA₆.

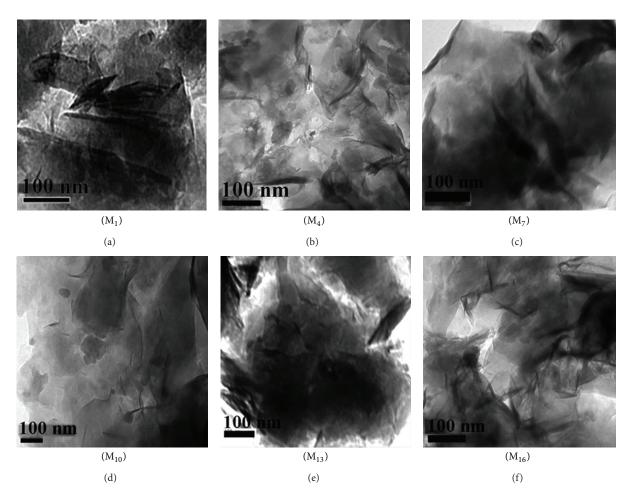


Figure 8: TEM of HEPA at 4% MMT.

15 wt%). However, the low loading content of clay (4%) presented obvious higher displacement of the clay layers than other percents and caused intercalated nanocomposites with the hyperbranched polymers in most cases. Phthalic anhydride-based hyperbranched polymers with DIPA

showed exfoliated morphology for its nanocomposite at 4% clay. Also, referring to the thermal studies (TGA and DSC data), it was elucidated that the nanocomposites based on the hyperbranched polymers derived from the reaction of the anhydrides and DEA (M_1 , M_7 , and M_{13}) were less thermally

Table 1: Formation of HPEA₁₋₆/clay nanocomposites at different clay (MMT) percent.

Entry	Conditions	d (XRD) nm
M ₁	HPEA ₁ -MMT (4%)	1.935
M_2	HPEA ₁ -MMT (10%)	1.879
M_3	HPEA ₁ -MMT (15%)	1.850
M_4	HPEA ₂ -MMT (4%)	2.143
M_5	HPEA ₂ -MMT (10%)	1.913
M_6	HPEA ₂ -MMT (15%)	1.531
M_7	HPEA ₃ -MMT (4%)	1.384
M_8	HPEA ₃ -MMT (10%)	1.372
M_9	HPEA ₃ -MMT (15%)	1.344
M_{10}	$HPEA_4$ - MMT (4%)	1.856
M_{11}	HPEA ₄ -MMT (10%)	1.731
M_{12}	HPEA ₄ -MMT (15%)	1.661
M_{13}	$HPEA_5$ - MMT (4%)	1.865
M_{14}	HPEA ₅ -MMT (10%)	1.857
M ₁₅	HPEA ₅ -MMT (15%)	1.846
M_{16}	$HPEA_6$ - MMT (4%)	Exfoliation
M ₁₇	HPEA ₆ -MMT (10%)	1.850
M ₁₈	HPEA ₆ -MMT (15%)	1.840

 ${\rm HPEA_{1,\,3,\,5}}$ are DEA-based hyperbranched polymers. ${\rm HPEA_{2,\,4,\,6}}$ are DIPA-based hyperbranched polymers.

stable than that resulted from DIPA-based ones (M_4 , M_{10} , and M_{16}). Generally, hyperbranched polyesteramides/MMT nanocomposites displayed higher thermal stability than the original hyperbranched polymers. TEM confirmed the intercalated morphology in almost all cases.

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