

Out-of-autoclave manufacturing of GLARE panels using resistance heating

Muller, Bernhard; Palardy, Genevieve; de Freitas, S. Teixeira; Sinke, Jos

DOI

[10.1177/0021998317727592](https://doi.org/10.1177/0021998317727592)

Publication date

2017

Document Version

Accepted author manuscript

Published in

Journal of Composite Materials

Citation (APA)

Muller, B., Palardy, G., de Freitas, S. T., & Sinke, J. (2017). Out-of-autoclave manufacturing of GLARE panels using resistance heating. *Journal of Composite Materials*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0021998317727592>

Important note

To cite this publication, please use the final published version (if applicable). Please check the document version above.

Copyright

Other than for strictly personal use, it is not permitted to download, forward or distribute the text or part of it, without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), unless the work is under an open content license such as Creative Commons.

Takedown policy

Please contact us and provide details if you believe this document breaches copyrights. We will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Out-of-autoclave manufacturing of GLARE panels using resistance heating

Bernhard Müller, Genevieve Palardy, Sofia Teixeira De Freitas, Jos Sinke

Delft University of Technology, Klyverweg 1, 2629 HS Delft

Abstract

Autoclave manufacturing of fibre metal laminates, such as GLARE, is an expensive process. Therefore, there is an increasing interest to find cost-effective out-of-autoclave manufacturing processes without diminishing the laminate quality. The aim of this study is to evaluate the quality of fibre metal laminate panels adhesively bonded and cured using resistance heating. Three manufacturing processes are compared for different layups with an embedded steel mesh at the mid-plane: autoclave curing, resistance bonding of two (autoclave-cured) panels, and complete out-of-autoclave resistance curing of panels. Interlaminar shear strength tests and optical microscopy analysis showed that resistance bonding is a promising technique, leading to results comparable to autoclave curing. Resistance curing led to an interlaminar shear strength decrease of 30-60%. A study of the correlation between degree of cure and distance from the mesh revealed the potential of resistance bonding to be used for flexible embedded mesh geometries and on-site repairs.

Keywords: Out-of-autoclave, Resistance heating, Fibre metal laminates (FMLs)

1. Introduction

2 Fibre metal laminates (FMLs) were developed to reduce the weight and
3 increase the damage tolerance of metallic lightweight structures [1]. They are
4 composed of alternating metallic sheets and fibre-reinforced epoxy layers [2].

¹s.teixeiradefreitas@tudelft.nl

5 An FML currently used in the aircraft industry is glass laminate aluminium
6 reinforced epoxy, most commonly referred to as GLARE [3, 4].

7 The main advantage of GLARE, compared to monolithic aluminium struc-
8 tures, is its lower fatigue crack growth rate [5, 6]. In addition, what sets it
9 apart from pure glass fibre laminates is its advanced impact properties [7],
10 higher moisture- and UV-resistance [8], favourable bearing strength and light-
11 ning resistance [2, 4, 9].

12 Currently, autoclave manufacturing is the only process that delivers high
13 quality GLARE panels needed for aerospace applications. However, it is an
14 expensive process, especially when it comes to large parts [10, 11, 12]. More-
15 over, a second autoclave cycle is often needed to reinforce GLARE panels, for
16 instance in the vicinity of door holes in fuselage panels, in which GLARE dou-
17 blers or thin aluminium sheets are bonded to the original GLARE fuselage
18 skin [13]. Apart from the manufacturing costs, previous research has shown
19 that exposing cured GLARE panels to elevated temperatures and thermo-
20 cyclic loads, for example in a second autoclave cycle, can have a detrimental
21 effect on the material properties [14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20].

22 Research findings have been reported on out-of-autoclave techniques that
23 can allow localized curing and/or bonding of thermosets. Their common goal
24 is to reduce production costs and focus heating on specific areas. Microwave
25 radiation [21, 22, 23] and induction heating [24, 25, 26] have been investi-
26 gated to cure or adhesively bond glass and carbon fibre reinforced thermoset
27 composites. The resulting material properties were similar to those obtained
28 with traditional manufacturing techniques, **but in some cases, the presence**
29 **of defects, such as the amount of voids, increased and reached content values**
30 **up to 20% due to the lower pressure applied during curing.**

31 Another potential localized out-of-autoclave manufacturing technique is
32 resistance heating through the use of a metal mesh embedded at the bond-
33 line or in the laminates. This method has been employed extensively to weld
34 thermoplastic composite parts [27, 28, 29, 30, 31]. Those studies demon-
35 strated the potential of resistance heating for joining composites and showed
36 the effect of input parameters, materials and heater mesh on the quality of
37 joints. The same concept has also been investigated to cure thermoset adhe-
38 sives, resulting in high strength joints with potentially lower manufacturing
39 costs [32, 33, 34]. An important aspect that has been investigated is the iden-
40 tification of processing windows based on input parameters, such as heating
41 elements configuration, to accelerate the curing process with resistance heat-
42 ing [35, 36].

43 Using the concept of resistance heating to replace the autoclave curing
44 process of GLARE, or to eliminate a second curing cycle when reinforcing
45 GLARE panels, could lead to significant cost reductions. Autoclave manu-
46 facturing could be partly replaced by a less expensive, yet more adaptable
47 equipment, consisting mainly of a vacuum bag and a power supply. This
48 high flexibility brings new design opportunities for manufacturing innovative
49 parts, as well as for repair applications. For instance, the location, position
50 and shape of repair patches would be less restricted and on-site repairs using
51 GLARE patches could be made possible. The shape of the resistance heater
52 elements can be customizable and the temperature is generated only where it
53 is required. The main concern is how the heating elements (or mesh) would
54 affect the quality of the final laminate and how a uniform heating distribution
55 can be guaranteed.

56 Therefore, the aim of this study is to evaluate the quality of FMLs ad-
57 hesively bonded or cured using resistance heating. Three different manufac-
58 turing processes are compared: 1) autoclave curing of GLARE panels, 2)
59 resistance bonding of two autoclave-cured GLARE panels, and 3) resistance
60 curing of full GLARE panels (complete out-of-autoclave manufacturing). In
61 order to assess the effect of the different manufacturing techniques, a detailed
62 examination of the GLARE panels was carried out based on interlaminar
63 shear strength (ILSS) tests and optical microscopy of the cross-sections and
64 fracture modes.

65 2. Materials

66 Two types of GLARE laminates were used in this study: GLARE 3-4/3-
67 0.3 and GLARE 5-4/3-0.3. Both laminates consist of four 0.3 mm thick
68 2024-T3 aluminium layers, bonded together with glass fibre prepregs S2-
69 glass/FM94. The difference between GLARE 3 and GLARE 5 laminates lies
70 in the layup sequence of the prepregs. In GLARE 3, each glass prepreg
71 laminate between the aluminium plates is made of uni-directional (UD)
72 plies with a layup of [0/90]. In GLARE 5, the layup is [0/90/90/0]. The
73 complete layups of GLARE 3-4/3-0.3 and GLARE 5-4/3-0.3 are therefore
74 $[Al/0/90/Al/0/90/Al/90/0/Al]$ and $[Al/0/90/90/0/Al]_{2s}$, respectively.

75 Prior to bonding, the aluminium surfaces were pre-treated with chromic
76 acid anodizing and primed with BR 127 (Cytac Engineered Materials, Tempe,
77 Arizona, USA).

78 The specifications of the stainless steel heater mesh used in this study are
 79 listed in Table 1. It has a thickness of 0.8 mm and 200×200 mesh per linear inch
 80 (25.4 mm).

Parameter	Dimension	Unit
Mesh per linear inch	200×200	inch
Thickness	0.8	mm
Wire diameter	0.041	mm
Width of opening	0.089	mm
Open area	46	%
Material	AISI 304L	-

Table 1: Steel heater mesh specifications [37]

81 3. GLARE panels manufacturing

82 3.1. Manufacturing methods

83 3.1.1. Reference method: autoclave curing

84 The standard autoclave cycle for GLARE panels manufacturing is shown
 85 in Figure 1. The panels are cured at a temperature (T) of 120°C for one
 86 hour, with heating and cooling rates of $2^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$. The autoclave (P) and
 87 vacuum bag (V) pressures are maintained at 6 bar and 1 bar, respectively.
 88 In order to evaluate the effect of the steel mesh on the quality of the pan-
 89 els, independently of the manufacturing process, the autoclave was used to
 90 manufacture panels with and without a mesh, as schematically illustrated in
 91 Figures 2 (a) and (b).

92 3.1.2. Resistance bonding and curing

93 The work presented in this paper distinguishes between resistance bond-
 94 ing (RB) and resistance curing (RC) of GLARE panels. In the case of the
 95 resistance bonding method, firstly, two separate GLARE panels are cured in
 96 the autoclave. Secondly, the two panels are brought together with an adhe-
 97 sive layer or glass prepreg layer in between. This layer is subsequently cured
 98 using resistance heating (out-of-autoclave secondary bonding), as shown in
 99 Figure 2 (c). In the case of resistance curing, all prepreg layers through the
 100 thickness are cured out-of-autoclave using resistance heating, as shown in
 101 Figure 2 (d).

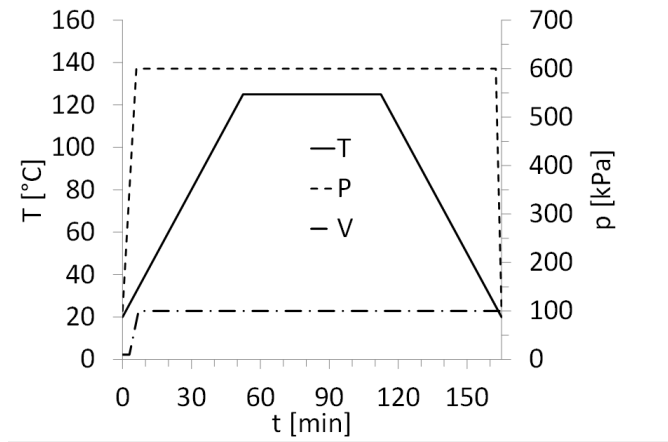


Figure 1: Standard manufacturing conditions for GLARE panels during the cure cycle: Temperature (T), pressure in the vacuum bag (V) and pressure in the autoclave (P).

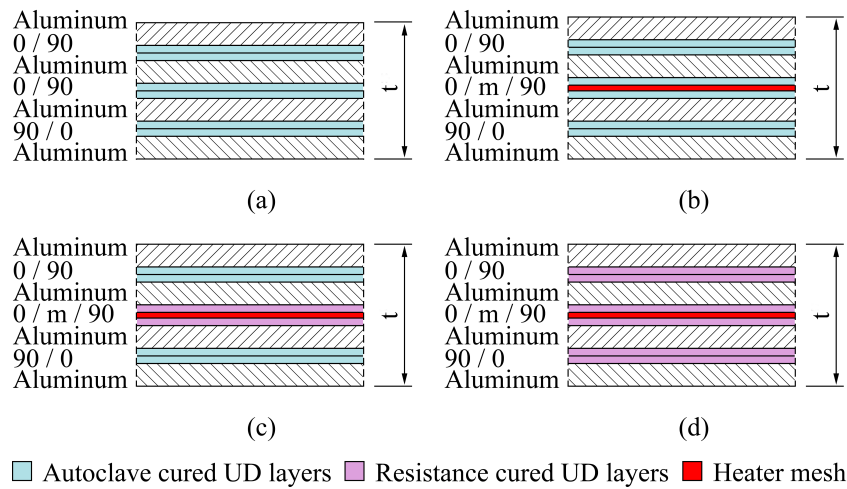
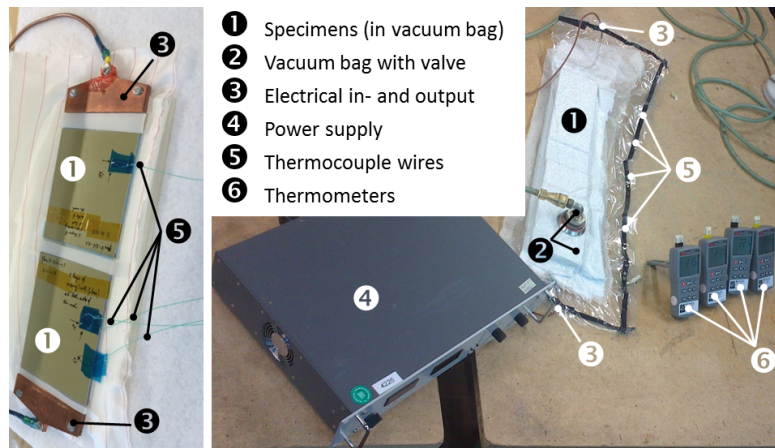


Figure 2: Overview of the investigated manufacturing techniques by means of a GLARE 3-4/3-0.3 layup: Fully autoclave cured (a) without and (b) with mesh, (c) resistance bonded and (d) fully resistance cured.

102 During both techniques, a voltage is applied to the metal mesh, which
 103 heats up due to its electrical resistance. By following the temperature set
 104 points given in the standard autoclave cycle (see Figure 1), it is possible to
 105 cure the thermoset layers close to the mesh. Therefore, for both methods,
 106 heat is generated from inside the panel, while in autoclave manufacturing, it
 107 comes from outside. Another difference compared to autoclave curing is the
 108 lower pressure, solely applied with a vacuum bag during the process.

109 The presence of the epoxy layers ensures electrical isolation between the
 110 heater mesh and the aluminium layers. In addition to this, the protective
 111 liner which is applied to each single aluminium layer has a very low electrical
 112 conductivity. Consequently, the chance of short circuits are reduced during
 113 manufacturing.

114 Figure 3 shows the setup used for resistance bonding and curing of GLARE
 115 panels. The main components are (1) the panels, (2) a vacuum bag with a
 116 valve, (3) an electrical in- and output, (4) a power supply, (5) four thermo-
 117 couples and (6) thermometers. Two panels with the same layup were cured
 118 simultaneously to reduce manufacturing time and to investigate the possible
 119 differences in the process.



(a) (b)
 Figure 3: Photo of (a) panels before the curing process and (b) the setup for the out-of-autoclave bonding/curing of GLARE panels.

120 The direct voltage (DC) was provided by the power supply and controlled
 121 manually in order to follow the temperature set point shown in Figure 1.
 122 Three millimeter-thick copper clamps were used for the electrical in- and

123 output to ensure equal distribution of the current. The vacuum bag was
124 used to generate a pressure of one bar. Thermocouples TC1 to TC3 were
125 embedded in one panel and TC4, in the other. It was assumed that tem-
126 perature profiles would be similar in both panels and that therefore, one
127 thermocouple would be sufficient to monitor the process in the second panel.

128 *3.2. GLARE panels layups*

129 Two types of GLARE panels were manufactured: (1) “Full surface mesh”-
130 panels and (2) “Mesh stripe”-panels. In the first, the steel mesh area covers
131 the complete surface area of the GLARE panel. For this type, panels were
132 manufactured using the three different methods mentioned in Section 3.1. In
133 the second one, two autoclave cured GLARE panels were bonded using only
134 a mesh stripe, 12.5 mm wide, positioned at the center of the panels. The aim
135 was to assess the surface area of the embedded mesh needed to guarantee a
136 certain degree of cure.

137 *3.2.1. Full surface mesh*

138 A “Full surface mesh” panel indicates that the embedded mesh covered
139 the entire surface area. In total, eight GLARE 3-4/3-0.3 and eight GLARE 5-
140 4/3-0.3 panels were manufactured according to the layups listed in Tables 2
141 and 3, respectively. A total of four panels were manufactured with an em-
142 bedded mesh for each technique: autoclave (A3, A4, A7 and A8), resistance
143 bonding (RB1-RB4) and resistance curing (RC1-RC4). Additionally, four
144 reference samples were cured in the autoclave without mesh (A1, A2, A5
145 and A6) to investigate its effect on the mechanical performance and quality
146 of the panels. To examine the influence of the glass fibres on the impreg-
147 nation of the heater mesh, panels with pure epoxy layers adjacent to the
148 mesh were manufactured for the GLARE 3 and GLARE 5 layups (A3, A7,
149 RB1, RB3, RC1, RC3). Figure 4 depicts the geometry of the panels and
150 the position of the thermocouples during manufacturing of GLARE 3 and
151 GLARE 5.

152 *3.2.2. Mesh stripe*

153 One “mesh stripe” panel was manufactured according to the following
154 procedure: two GLARE 5 panels were first cured in the autoclave, then
155 bonded using resistance heating with a 12.5 mm wide mesh stripe. Figure 5
156 shows the panel and mesh stripe dimensions, as well as the positions of
157 five thermocouples (TC I to TC V) positioned on the outside surface of the

Abbr.	Manufacturing method	Layup
A1	Autoclave	Al/0/90/Al/PE/PE/Al/90/0/Al
A2	Autoclave	Al/0/90/Al/0/90/Al/90/0/Al
A3	Autoclave	Al/0/90/Al/PE/m/PE/Al/90/0/Al
A4	Autoclave	Al/0/90/Al/0/m/90/Al/90/0/Al
RB1	Res. bonding	Al/0/90/Al/ <u>PE</u> /m/ <u>PE</u> /Al/90/0/Al
RB2	Res. bonding	Al/0/90/Al/0/m/ <u>90</u> /Al/90/0/Al
RC1	Res. curing	Al/0/ <u>90</u> /Al/ <u>PE</u> /m/ <u>PE</u> /Al/ <u>90</u> /0/Al
RC2	Res. curing	Al/0/ <u>90</u> /Al/0/m/ <u>90</u> /Al/ <u>90</u> /0/Al

Table 2: Layups for the GLARE 3-4/3-0.3 panels. Underlined layers indicate they were cured using resistance (res.) heating. (*PE* and *m* are pure epoxy and mesh layers, respectively.)

Abbr.	Manufacturing method	Layup
A5	Autoclave	Al/0/90/90/0/Al/PE/PE/PE/PE/Al/0/90/90/0/Al
A6	Autoclave	Al/0/90/90/0/Al/0/90/90/0/Al/0/90/90/0/Al
A7	Autoclave	Al/0/90/90/0/Al/PE/PE/m/PE/PE/Al/0/90/90/0/Al
A8	Autoclave	Al/0/90/90/0/Al/0/90/m/90/0/Al/0/90/90/0/Al
RB3	Res. bonding	Al/0/90/90/0/Al/ <u>PE</u> / <u>PE</u> /m/ <u>PE</u> / <u>PE</u> /Al/0/90/90/0/Al
RB4	Res. bonding	Al/0/90/90/0/Al/0/ <u>90</u> /m/ <u>90</u> /0/Al/0/90/90/0/Al
RC3	Res. curing	Al/0/ <u>90</u> / <u>90</u> /0/Al/ <u>PE</u> / <u>PE</u> /m/ <u>PE</u> / <u>PE</u> /Al/0/ <u>90</u> / <u>90</u> /0/Al
RC4	Res. curing	Al/0/ <u>90</u> / <u>90</u> /0/Al/0/ <u>90</u> /m/ <u>90</u> /0/Al/0/ <u>90</u> / <u>90</u> /0/Al

Table 3: Layups for the GLARE 5-4/3-0.3 panels. Underlined layers indicate they were cured using resistance (res.) heating. (*PE* and *m* are pure epoxy and mesh layers, respectively.)

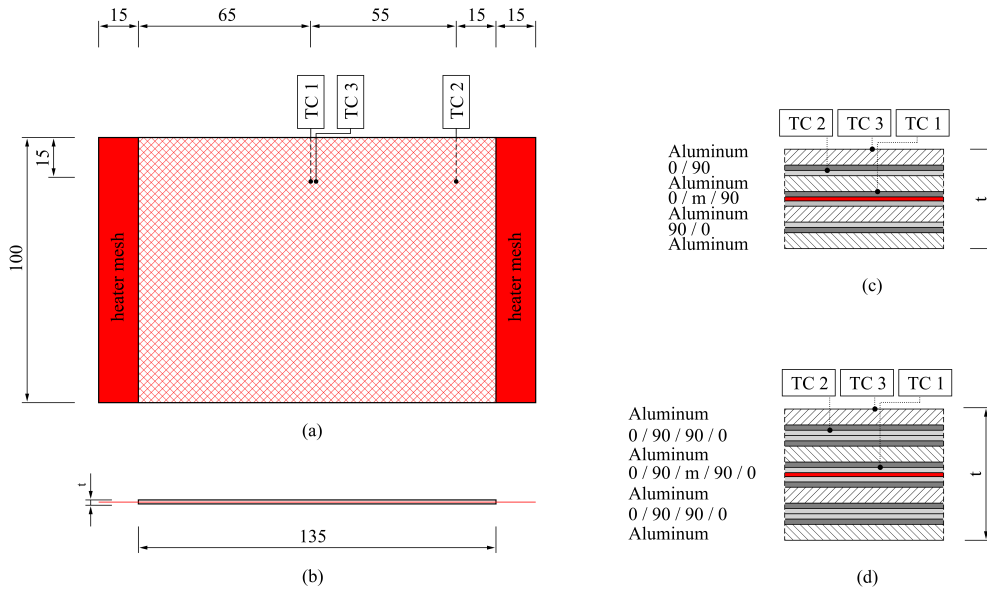


Figure 4: Dimensions of the full surface mesh panels: (a) Top view, (b) side view, details of (c) GLARE 3-4/3-0.3 and (d) GLARE 5-4/3-0.3 cross-sections with an integrated mesh (m). Units are in millimetres.

158 GLARE panels. The layup of the panel is the same as the RB3 panel listed
 159 in Table 3.

160 The electrical current was controlled in such a way that the temperature
 161 at the surface of the panel above the mesh was between 120°C and 140°C
 162 - controlled by thermocouple I (TCI). This was done in order to increase
 163 the overall temperature in the vicinity of the heater mesh to insure a higher
 164 degree of cure could be reached.

165 3.3. Process parameters

166 3.3.1. Full surface mesh

167 The temperature, electrical voltage and current curves were recorded dur-
 168 ing the out-of-autoclave manufacturing of GLARE panels using a full surface
 169 mesh. A representative example of the curves for resistance bonded GLARE 3
 170 panels is shown in Figure 6 (a). The heating ramp rate and hold temperature
 171 of the four thermocouples, TC1 to TC4, closely follow the autoclave cycle.
 172 The cooling rate, however, slightly deviates from $2^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ as no external
 173 cooling source was used. The electrical voltage was increased and adjusted

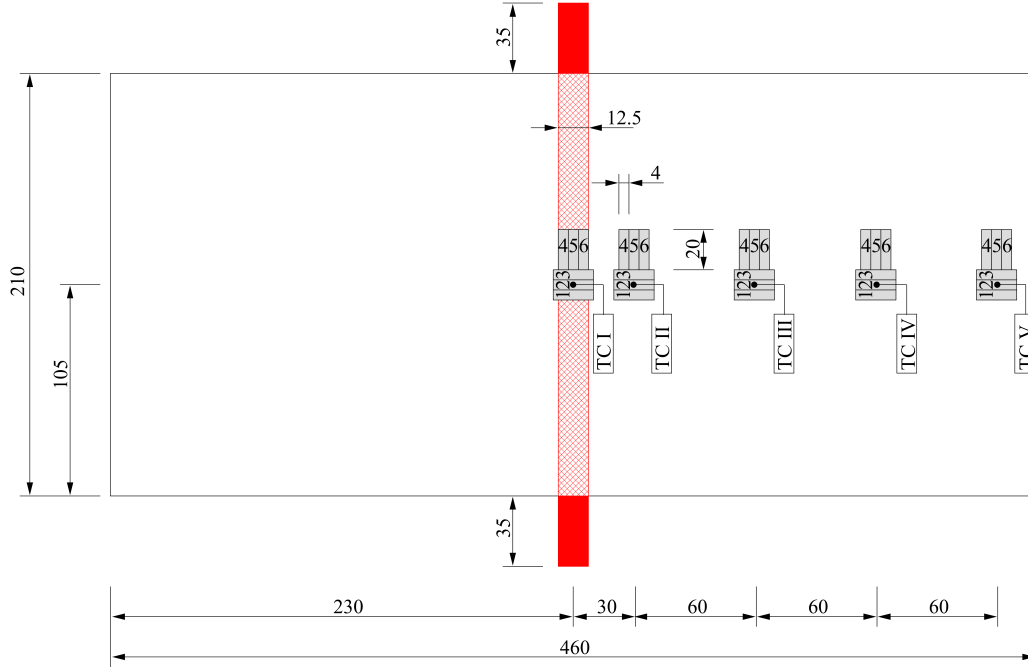


Figure 5: Dimensions of the mesh stripe panel, including the heater mesh (red), the positions of the thermocouples TC I to TC V and the ILSS specimens (grey). Units are in millimetres.

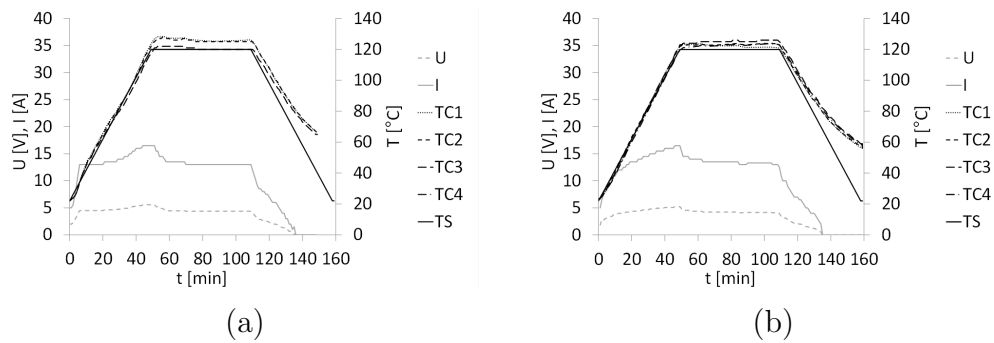


Figure 6: Temperature set point of autoclave cycle (TS), measured temperatures (TC1 to TC4), electrical voltage (U) and current (I) during (a) resistance bonding and (b) resistance curing of GLARE 3 panels with a full surface mesh.

174 during the cycle to keep the heating rate and hold temperature as constant
175 as possible.

176 Representative curves for resistance cured GLARE 3 panels are shown in
177 Figure 6 (b). They follow a pattern similar to those for resistance bonded
178 panels. Comparable curves were recorded during the manufacturing of the
179 GLARE 5 panels.

180 3.3.2. Mesh stripe

181 Figure 7 shows the temperature, electrical voltage and current curves
182 measured during resistance bonding of a GLARE 5 panel using a mesh stripe.
183 The temperature profiles at the locations near the mesh, TC I and TC II,
184 closely followed that of the autoclave cycle (TS). As expected, thermocouples
185 placed further away from the mesh, TC III to TC V, displayed a significant
186 drop in temperature, compared to TC II. The maximum temperature at
187 those locations reached values between 50°C and 80°C.

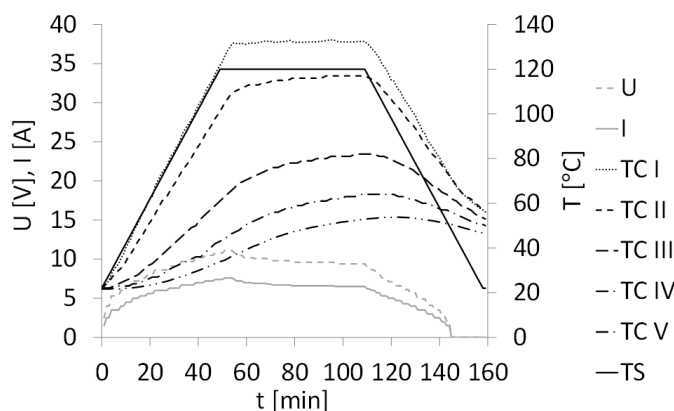


Figure 7: Temperature set point (TS), measured temperatures (TC I to TC V), electrical voltage (U) and current (I) during resistance bonding of the GLARE 5 panels with a mesh stripe.

188 4. Experimental methods

189 In order to evaluate the performance of the out-of-autoclave manufactur-
190 ing methods proposed in this work, interlaminar shear strength (ILSS) tests
191 were performed. It is expected to provide insights into manufacturing quality
192 and the effect of degree of cure on shear strength and adhesion of the epoxy
193 layers.

194 For each full surface mesh panels – listed in Tables 2 and 3 – six ILSS
195 specimens, 10 mm wide and 20 mm long, were cut from the GLARE panels.
196 Three specimens were tested with the length in the 0° direction and three
197 specimens in the 90° direction.

198 In the case of the mesh stripe panel, a total of six ILSS specimens in the
199 0° and 90° directions were tested for each thermocouple position in order
200 to investigate the correlation between the distance from the mesh and the
201 resulting effect on the ILSS values (see positions in Figure 5). The specimen
202 dimensions were 4 mm \times 20 mm to focus more specifically on locations
203 where different degrees of cure were expected.

204 The ILSS tests were performed according to the ASTM D2344 standard
205 for short-beam strength of polymer matrix composite materials and their
206 laminates [38]. A schematic figure of the setup is given in Figure 8. The
207 loading span length-to-specimen thickness ratio was kept to 4.0 as recom-
208 mended by the ASTM standard. In both cases, all ILSS tests were conducted
209 on a 25 kN press with a test speed of 1 mm/min. During tests, the load-
210 displacement curves were recorded. After testing, the failure mode of the
211 ILSS specimens was examined with a high-resolution Keyence stereomicro-
212 scope. Furthermore, the manufacturing quality of the panels was assessed
213 through cross-sectional microscopy.

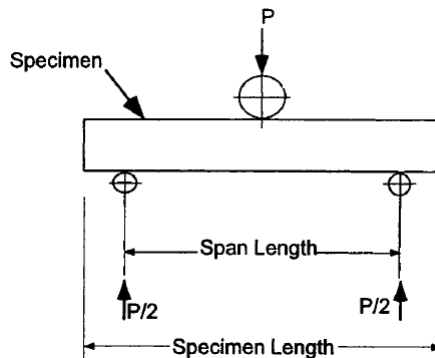


Figure 8: Schematic representation of the ILSS setup [38].

214 **5. Experimental results**

215 *5.1. Full surface mesh panels*

216 *5.1.1. Mechanical performance*

217 Figure 9 shows representative force-displacement ($F - \delta$) curves of the
218 ILSS tests for GLARE 3 samples manufactured by all three methods de-
219 scribed in Section 3.1 – for the complete layup of the panels please see Ta-
220 bles 2 and 3. The autoclave specimens manufactured without a mesh (A1)
221 displayed the steepest slope, followed by a sharp decrease in the load when
222 fracture occurred. The slope of the curves, proportional to the stiffness of the
223 specimens, slightly decreased when a mesh was placed at the interface (A3
224 and RB1). For A3 and RB1 layups, the curves followed a similar trend and
225 reached a maximum force close to A1, but at a higher displacement value.
226 The RC1 layup deviated from the other samples and presented a lower stiff-
ness and maximum load.

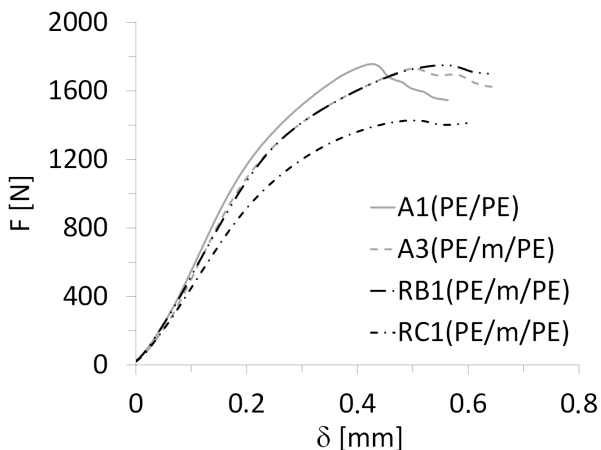


Figure 9: Typical force-displacement curves of ILSS tests on GLARE 3 specimens manufactured by autoclave, resistance bonding and resistance curing when using a full surface mesh.

227

228 Figure 10 (a) schematically depicts the main failure modes observed in
229 ILSS specimens for GLARE 3 panels. Intralaminar failure in the prepreg
230 layer, close to the aluminium layer (Figure 10 (b)) mainly occurred for
231 autoclave-cured samples without and with a mesh, A1 to A4 (Table 2),
232 as well as for resistance bonded specimens with pure epoxy layers at the
233 mesh (RB1). On the other hand, failure at the mesh interface (Figure 10 (c))

234 was only observed for resistance bonded panels when prepreg layers were
 235 placed at the interface (RB2 layup). For resistance cured specimens (RC1
 236 and RC2), fracture took place in the outer prepreg layers, as shown in Fig-
 237 ure 10 (d). It is to be noted that similar failure modes were found for
 238 GLARE 5 samples.

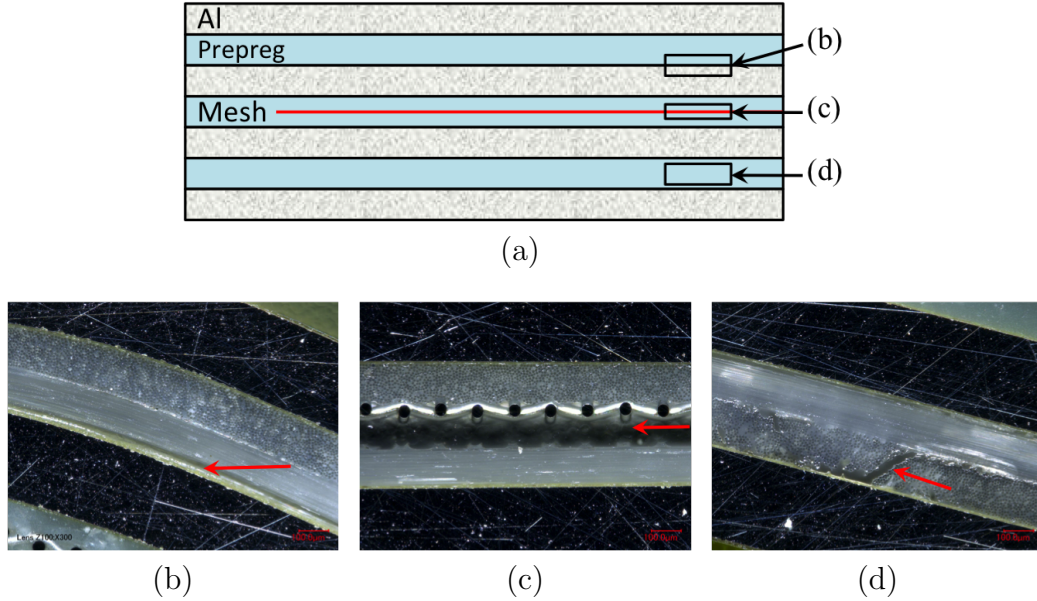


Figure 10: Typical failure modes: (a) Schematic GLARE cross-section with failure mode locations (red arrows) and representative cross-sectional microscopy images of (b) intralaminar failure in prepreg layer close to aluminium layer, (c) failure at the mesh interface, (d) intralaminar failure in the outer prepreg layers. Scale: 100 μm .

239 The interlaminar shear strength was calculated based on the maximum
 240 force measured in the force-displacement curves (Figure 9), as given by the
 241 ASTM D2344 standard:

$$\tau_{ILSS} = \frac{0.75 F_{max}}{W L} \quad (1)$$

242 where F_{max} is the maximum load, and W and L are the width and length
 243 of the specimen, respectively. Figure 11 and Table 4 summarize the ILSS
 244 values for (a) GLARE 3 and (b) GLARE 5 specimens manufactured by au-
 245 toclave, resistance bonding and resistance curing methods. The figure shows
 246 the average values and the scatter range of the five ILSS tests conducted for
 247 each configuration as listed in Tables 2 and 3.

248 For both GLARE 3 and GLARE 5 samples manufactured in the autoclave
 249 (A1 to A8), the heater mesh did not have a significant effect on the ILSS
 250 values, remaining within scatter range. Resistance bonded specimens (RB1
 251 to RB4) displayed similar shear strength values to the autoclave panels, with
 252 the exception of RB2, which dropped to 47.7 MPa. This is consistent with
 253 the failure mode presented in Figure 10 (c), which is located at the mesh
 254 interface, likely due to poor resin impregnation because of the prepreg layers.
 255 When the panels were resistance cured, their average ILSS decreased by 27%
 256 to 31% for RC1 and RC2, and by 55% to 64% for RC3 and RC4, with
 257 comparison to the panels manufactured by autoclave with a mesh.

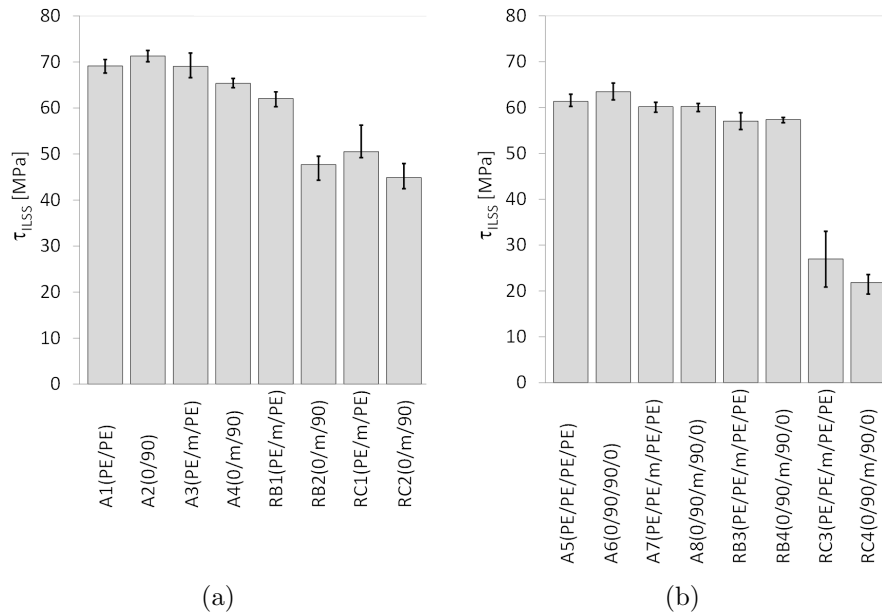


Figure 11: Average ILSS values for (a) GLARE 3 and (b) GLARE 5 specimens manufactured by autoclave, resistance bonding and resistance curing, according to the layups listed in Tables 2 and 3. The error bars show the scatter range with minimum and maximum ILSS values for each group of specimens.

258 5.1.2. Optical microscopy analysis

259 Cross-sections of the panels manufactured according to the methods and
 260 layups presented in Tables 2 and 3 were observed by optical microscopy
 261 to provide insight regarding the mechanical performance presented in Sec-

GL3	τ_{ILSS} [MPa]	GL5	τ_{ILSS} [MPa]
A1	69.2	A5	61.3
A2	71.3	A6	63.5
A3	69.1	A7	60.2
A4	65.3	A8	60.3
RB1	62.1	RB3	57.1
RB2	47.7	RB4	57.4
RC1	50.5	RC3	27.0
RC2	44.9	RC4	21.9

Table 4: Average ILSS values τ_{ILSS} for the GLARE 3 (GL3) and GLARE 5 (GL5) specimens.

262 tion 5.1.1. Figure 12 shows representative images of GLARE 3 panels man-
263 ufactured by all three methods and compares the heater mesh impregnation
264 when using pure epoxy layers as the middle plies (A3, RB1 and RC1). Au-
265 toclave cured panels (Figure 12 (a)) exhibited the highest quality of mesh
266 impregnation and the thinnest resin layer due to the higher pressure ap-
267 plied during manufacturing. It was observed that the presence of voids at
268 the interface generally increased from resistance bonded (Figure 12 (b)) to
269 resistance cured (Figure 12 (c)) panels. For the layups using prepreg lay-
270 ers only (A4, RB2 and RC2), the mesh impregnation significantly decreased
271 compared to the use of pure epoxy layers, due to the lower resin content
272 (Figure 13). Similarly to Figure 12, the presence of voids increased from
273 autoclave (Figure 13 (a)), to resistance bonded (Figure 13 (b)), to resistance
274 cured (Figure 13 (c)) panels. For the latter, a clear gap between the layers
275 on both sides of the mesh was noticed.

276 The quality of the outer prepreg layers for GLARE 3 specimens man-
277 ufactured by resistance bonding and curing is compared on Figures 14 (a)
278 and (b), respectively. For resistance cured panels, several voids are present,
279 especially at the aluminium-prepreg interface (Figure 14 (c)), possibly as a
280 result of the lower pressure applied during out-of-autoclave manufacturing.

281 These observations can explain the failure modes witnessed in Figure 10.
282 For resistance bonded specimens with prepreg layers (RB2), failure occurred
283 at the mesh interface because of poor impregnation. The use of pure epoxy
284 layers in the RB1 layup eliminated this weakness and therefore, this resulted
285 into intralaminar failure, as seen in Figure 10 (b). For resistance cured

286 samples, fracture was noted in the outer prepreg layers, likely due to their
287 lower quality compared to the mesh impregnation. It is also possible that
288 residual stress concentrations developed during the curing process may have
289 contributed to crack initiation.

290 For GLARE 5 panels, the use of four pure resin layers at the mesh in-
291 terface (Figure 15) led to comparable impregnation to the GLARE 3 speci-
292 mens (Figure 12). It can be inferred that using only two pure epoxy layers
293 are sufficient for proper impregnation and quality.

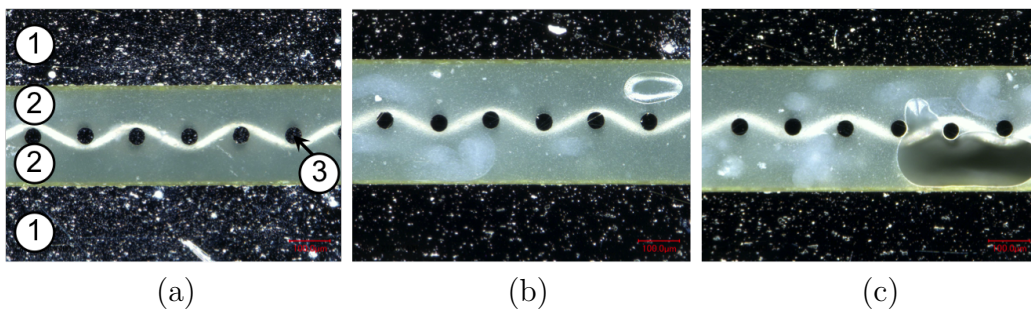


Figure 12: Cross-sectional microscopy images of GLARE 3 panels with embedded heater mesh between pure epoxy layers: (a) Autoclave manufacturing, (b) resistance bonding and (c) resistance curing. Legend: (1) aluminium layers, (2) pure epoxy layers and (3) heater mesh. Scale: 100 μm .

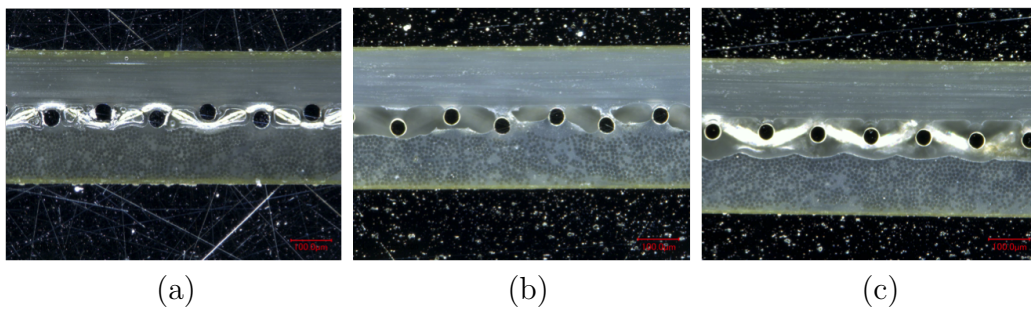


Figure 13: Cross-sectional microscopy images of GLARE 3 panels with embedded heater mesh between prepreg layers: (a) autoclave manufacturing, (b) resistance bonding and (c) resistance curing. Scale: 100 μm .

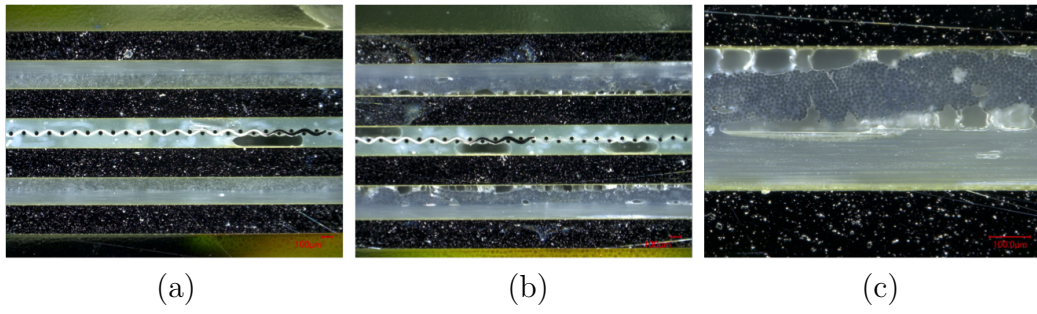


Figure 14: Cross-sectional microscopy images of GLARE 3 panels comparing the quality of the outer prepreg layers: (a) Resistance bonded panel, (b) resistance cured panel and (c) higher magnification image of bottom plies in (b). Scale: 100 μm .

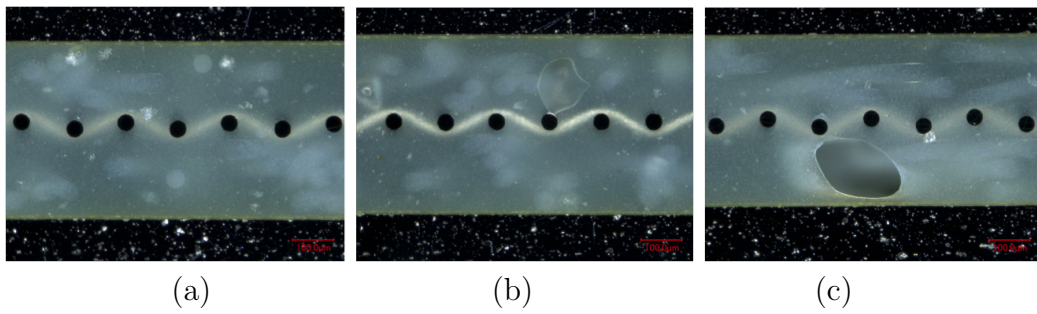


Figure 15: Cross-sectional microscopy images of GLARE 5 panels with embedded heater mesh with four pure resin layers: (a) Autoclave manufacturing, (b) resistance bonding and (c) resistance curing. Scale: 100 μm .

294 5.2. Mesh stripe panel

295 5.2.1. Mechanical performance

296 Figure 16 shows representative $F - \delta$ curves of the ILSS tests at the five
 297 (thermocouple) positions (see Figure 5). The ILSS specimens for positions
 298 TC I and TC II display the steepest $F - \delta$ curve slopes, followed by a drop
 299 in the load after failure. These positions also display the highest maximum
 300 load when compared to the remaining positions (TC III, TC IV and TC V).

301 The $F - \delta$ curves of the ILSS specimens from the positions TC III, TC IV
 302 and TC V are significantly different. They approximate to a bi-linear be-
 303 haviour – see Figure 16 for TC III-1. The initial slope is lower than for
 304 positions TC I and TC II. After this initial slope, a significant plastic de-
 305 formation plateau is followed before final failure. Although also present, the
 306 change of slope and the plastic deformation in positions TC I and TC II is
 307 almost insignificant when compared with positions TC III, TC IV and TC V.

308 As for the failure modes, positions TC I and TC II fail similarly as the
 309 specimens for full surface mesh resistance bonding using pure epoxy (RB1
 310 and RB3): intralaminar failure in the prepreg layer close to the aluminium
 311 layer (Figure 10 (b)). This indicates a good adhesion on the curing process
 312 of the resistance bonded layers. In fact, the $F - \delta$ curves of positions TC I
 313 and TC II are more comparable with the ones presented for the full surface
 314 mesh specimens in Figure 9 than with the positions TC III to TC V.

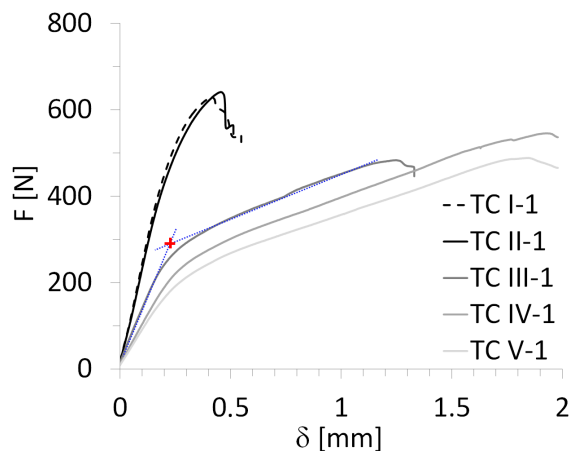


Figure 16: Representative force-displacement curves of ILSS tests on mesh stripe specimens – ‘+’ represents the bilinear intersection of the slopes.

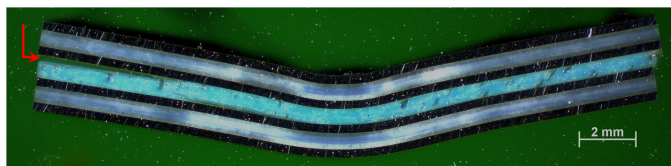


Figure 17: Cross-sectional microscopy image of a representative ILSS specimen at locations TC III, TC IV and TC V. The red arrow indicates the crack initiation.

315 The failure mechanism was significantly different for positions TC III,
 316 TC IV and TC V. Figure 17 shows the typical failure mode of these speci-
 317 mens. The final failure typically occurred at the interface between the pure
 318 epoxy layers and the adjacent aluminium layers. This indicates a poor ad-
 319 hesion quality during the curing process of those layers. In addition to this,
 320 a significant permanent plastic deformation can be observed after failure.

321 This interface failure justifies the different $F - \delta$ behaviour of the speci-
 322 mens at positions TC III, TC IV and TC V when compared to TC I and
 323 TC II. The (not-fully-cured) pure epoxy layer could not take significant longi-
 324 tudinal shear stress and therefore could not guarantee the continuous strain
 325 distribution through the laminate thickness. This discontinuity in strains
 326 results in significantly higher normal stresses at the aluminium layers when
 327 compared to the situation of continuous longitudinal strains through the lam-
 328 inate thickness for the same load - as in the case of positions TC I and TC II.
 329 Therefore, the aluminium layers yield at mid span at a much lower load level
 330 for positions TC III, TC IV and TC V, as seen in Figure 16. The displace-
 331 ment plateau shown at these curves corresponds probably to the aluminium
 332 ductility after yield.

333 Figure 18 and Table 5 show the average ILSS values for the five positions,
 334 both longitudinal direction (specimens 1 to 3) and transverse direction (speci-
 335 mens 4 to 6). For positions TC I and TC II, the ILSS values were determined
 336 using the maximum load value, as was the case for full surface mesh samples
 337 (Section 5.1.1). For positions TC III, TC IV and TC V, the ILSS values were
 338 determined using a bilinear intersection - marked as ‘+’ in Figure 16. There
 339 are two main reasons to use the intersection values for the latter positions.
 340 Firstly, the $F - \delta$ curve and the failure mechanics show that the aluminium
 341 starts to yield at the onset load values. This is considered to be the failure
 342 of the specimens for position TC III to TC V. Secondly, the ILSS formula
 343 shown in section 5.1 is only valid in the linear elastic regime. The maximum

Position	unit	TC I	TC II	TC III	TC IV	TC V
$\tau_{ILSS}(1-3)$	[N/mm ²]	47.6	50.5	23.7	18.3	17.9
$\tau_{ILSS}(4-6)$	[N/mm ²]	49.0	50.9	25.0	18.6	18.1

Table 5: Average ILSS for GLARE 5 specimens manufactured by resistance bonding with a mesh stripe.

344 load of positions TC III to TC V occurs after significant plastic deformation
 345 and therefore, the formula is no longer valid.

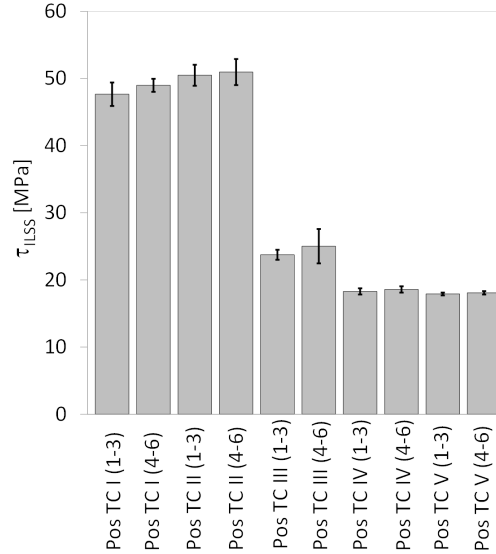


Figure 18: Average ILSS values τ_{ILSS} at the positions indicated in Figure 5. The error bars show the scatter range with minimum and maximum ILSS values for each group of specimens.

346 The average ILSS value of position TC I(1-3), where the mesh stripe was
 347 located, was 47.6 MPa. Specimens adjacent to the mesh, TC II (1-3) – 30
 348 mm from the centre of the mesh, had similar ILSS values (50.5 MPa). At
 349 distances farther away from the mesh, the average shear strength decreases
 350 significantly: at 90 mm distance by 50% (TC III) and from 150 mm on by
 351 60% (TC IV and TC V). ILSS specimens tested in the transverse direction
 352 showed similar shear strength values as in the longitudinal direction.

353 The ILSS values of positions TC I and TC II (47.6 to 50.9 MPa) are of the
 354 same order as the one obtained for RB3 specimens (see Table 4, 57.1 MPa).

355 Both have the same layup. The significant decrease in ILSS values for posi-
356 tions TC III to TC V is related with the different bending behaviour shown
357 by the $F - \delta$ curve and failure mechanics (significant yield of the aluminium
358 before debonding of the aluminium layers), likely due to low degree of cure.

359 5.2.2. *Optical microscopy analysis*

360 In order to assess the mesh impregnation quality and explain the results
361 presented in Section 5.2.1, cross sections were observed by optical microscopy,
362 as was the case for full surface mesh panels. Figure 19 shows cross-sectional
363 images of the panel manufactured by resistance bonding. Locations TC I to
364 TC III, based on Figure 5, are shown from (a) to (d). Good mesh impregna-
365 tion was observed, even at the transition from TC I to TC II. For location
366 TC III, the presence of large voids in the pure epoxy layers was significant.
367 These voids were also observed at locations further away from the mesh,
368 TC IV to TC V.

369 These observations can justify and support the significant difference in
370 the mechanical behaviour of the specimens close to the mesh – Positions TC I
371 and TC II, and far from the mesh – Positions TC III, TC IV and TC V. The
372 large voids observed in the latter confirm the poor manufacturing quality and
373 corresponding poor mechanical performance observed at those locations.

374 6. Discussion

375 6.1. *Comparison: Autoclave – Resistance bonding – Resistance curing*

376 Based on the ILSS and microscopy results presented in Section 5.1 for
377 the autoclave cured, resistance bonded and resistance cured specimens, three
378 main observations can be highlighted.

379 Firstly, for the autoclave cured specimens, there were minor to no changes
380 in the quasi-static behaviour and in the cross section quality without (A1,
381 A2, A5 and A6) and with (A3, A4, A7 and A8) an embedded stainless steel
382 mesh (see Figures 9 and 11). The most significant difference was noted when
383 comparing the GLARE 3 panels without (A2) and with (A4) an embedded
384 heater mesh when prepreg layers were placed adjacent to the mesh. This was
385 the result of poorer impregnation of the mesh due to lower epoxy volume
386 content (see Figures 12 and 13).

387 Secondly, the ILSS values, failure modes and corresponding cross sec-
388 tion quality were comparable for the autoclave cured and resistance bonded
389 GLARE 3 and GLARE 5 panels. The exception which did not follow this

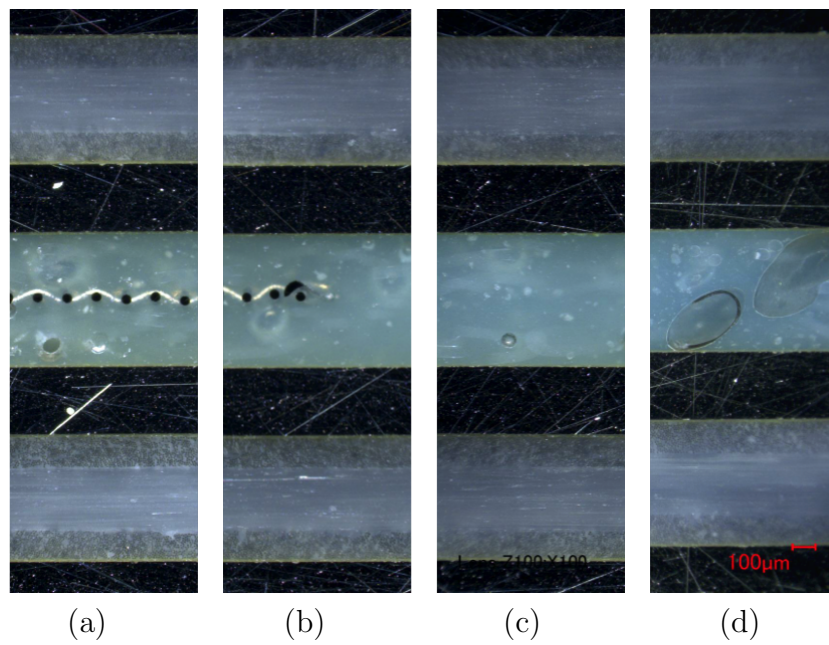


Figure 19: Cross-sectional microscopy images of GLARE 5 panels resistance bonded with a mesh stripe at different locations from the mesh: (a) TC I, (b) Mesh transition between TC I and TC II, (c) TC II, and (d) TC III. Scale: $100 \mu\text{m}$.

390 trend was, similarly to the autoclave cured panels, the resistance bonded
391 GLARE 3 panel with prepreg layers adjacent to the mesh (RB2 panel). It
392 is assumed that the epoxy volume content was not sufficient to impregnate
393 the heater mesh properly. Therefore, the crack initiated at the epoxy-heater
394 mesh interface for RB2 specimens (Figure 10 (c)).

395 Finally, the resistance curing method produced panels of distinctively
396 lower quality with an increased presence of voids in all prepreg layers (in-
397 cluding the ones adjacent to the heater mesh). This led to a decrease in
398 the ILSS values and the onset of failure in the outer prepreg layers. As
399 voids disrupt the homogeneity of the material and act as crack initiators,
400 a higher void content consequently increases the chance of failure at lower
401 stress values and thus, leads to a decrease of the (static) strength. However,
402 this behaviour was more noticeable for the GLARE 5 specimens, compared
403 to GLARE 3, as the void content was likely higher with a lower aluminium
404 surface area over the cross-section (see Section 2).

405 *6.2. Degree of cure vs ILSS – Resistance bonding with mesh stripe*

406 Using a mesh stripe instead of a full surface mesh for resistance bonding of
407 GLARE panels severely affects the temperature distribution (see Figure 7).
408 Thus, the aim of this study was to monitor the in-plane temperature dis-
409 tribution during resistance bonding to investigate its effect on the degree of
410 cure and ILSS values at different positions from the mesh (Figure 5).

411 As previously presented in Figure 18, reasonable ILSS values were deter-
412 mined at locations TC I and TC II, corresponding to distances of up to 30 mm
413 from the heater mesh. Knowing the temperature profiles at different posi-
414 tions (Figure 7), the degree of cure, α , can be estimated from TC I to TC V
415 based on Kamal-Sourour’s cure kinetics model presented in [39]. In order to
416 do so, three main assumptions were made. Firstly, the same heating/cooling
417 rate for all positions as the one used in the standard manufacturing cycle
418 was assumed ($\pm 2^\circ\text{C}$). Secondly, the maximum temperature at each position
419 remained constant for 60 min. Finally, these constant temperature values for
420 TC I to TC V were assumed to be equal to 130°C , 120°C , 80°C , 60°C and
421 50°C . The expected degree of cure is plotted in Figure 20, along with the
422 corresponding average ILSS values, τ_{ILSS} , as shown in Section 5.2.1.

423 For both cases, as the distance from the mesh increases, the degree
424 of cure and ILSS values significantly drop between 30 mm (TC II) and
425 90 mm (TC III), which is consistent with literature on epoxy/glass fibre
426 systems submitted to different cure cycles [40]. These findings suggest that

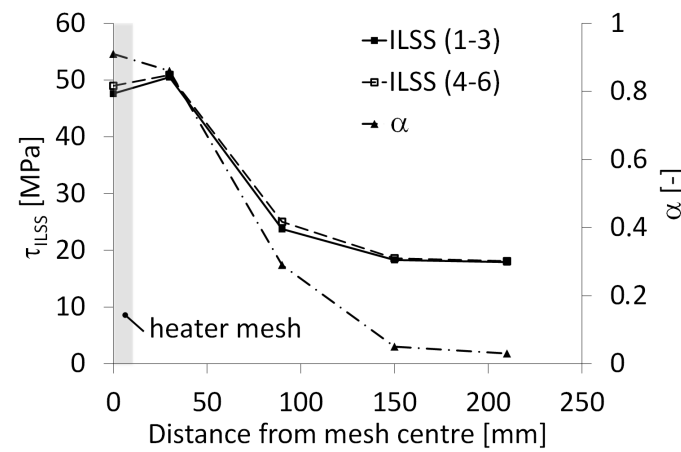


Figure 20: Average ILSS values (τ_{ILSS}) and estimated degree of cure, α , at different positions from the heater mesh stripe (based on Figure 5).

427 using a spacing of approximately 60 mm between mesh stripes would allow
 428 to maintain reasonable degree of cure and manufacturing quality. This can
 429 provide flexibility in the case where a more complex mesh geometry might
 430 be required depending on the parts to be resistance bonded.

431 7. Conclusions

432 Three manufacturing techniques for GLARE panels were investigated and
 433 compared: full autoclave curing, resistance bonding of two autoclave-cured
 434 panels, and complete out-of-autoclave resistance curing. For the latter two
 435 methods, a steel mesh was placed at the panels' mid-plane for bonding or
 436 curing through resistance heating. The effect of the heater element was
 437 investigated as a first step for autoclave cured panels. No major differences
 438 in the static behaviour and manufacturing quality were found between panels
 439 with and without an embedded heater mesh.

440 The comparison of the different manufacturing techniques and layups
 441 with an embedded steel mesh across the whole surface at the mid-plane
 442 showed that resistance bonding is a promising technique which leads to com-
 443 parable ILSS values to the fully autoclave cured samples with a maximum
 444 decrease of 10%. Resistance cured samples however **do not show sufficient**
 445 **manufacturing quality. The significant presence of voids leads to a decrease**
 446 **of the ILSS values**, especially for the GLARE 5 samples. In all cases, the

447 importance of a proper mesh impregnation was noted. The best quality was
448 obtained with pure epoxy layers at the mesh interface, while the use of only
449 one prepreg layer on each side of the mesh was more likely to promote crack
450 initiation.

451 As a first step toward a flexible heater mesh geometry, two GLARE 5 pan-
452 els were resistance bonded using a 12.5 mm wide (stripe) heater element. The
453 study showed that the degree of cure and ILSS values at distances larger than
454 30 mm from the mesh decreased significantly. This suggests that a spacing
455 of 60 mm between mesh stripes would allow to maintain high quality and de-
456 crease energy consumption during manufacturing. Further investigation into
457 customisable mesh dimensions for flexible on-site repairs could be a focus of
458 future research.

459 The promising results obtained for the resistance bonded panels with an
460 embedded mesh across the full surface demonstrated the capability to accom-
461 plish comparable quality to autoclave manufacturing with minimal equip-
462 ment (vacuum bag, power supply and thermocouples). Hence, this flexible
463 technique could eliminate a second costly autoclave cycle in the case where,
464 for instance, doublers or stringers need to be bonded to GLARE panels.
465 Furthermore, it can be used for assembly of larger GLARE panels through
466 e. g. resistance bonded scarf joints.

467 **Acknowledgments**

468 This study was partially funded by the Dutch research agency Technology
469 Foundation (STW) and by Fokker Aerostructures.

470 **References**

- 471 [1] Vogelesang LB, Vlot A. Development of fibre metal laminates for ad-
472 vanced aerospace structures. *Journal of Materials Processing Technology*
473 2000;103:1 – 5.
- 474 [2] Pettit R. Fiber/metal laminate. Patent US 5227216 A; USPTO.; 1993.
- 475 [3] Vlot A, Gunnink JW. In: Vlot A, Gunnink JW, editors. *Fibre metal*
476 *laminates – an introduction*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Aca-
477 *ademic Publishers*; 2001,.
- 478 [4] Vlot A. *Glare – history of the development of a new aircraft material*.
479 Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers; 2001.

- 480 [5] Alderliesten RC, Homan JJ. Fatigue and damage tolerance issues of
481 Glare in aircraft structures. *International Journal of Fatigue* 2006;28
482 (10):1116 – 1123.
- 483 [6] Hinz S, Omoori T, Hojo M, Schulte K. Damage characterisation of fibre
484 metal laminates under interlaminar shear load. *Composites: Part A*
485 2009;40:925 – 931.
- 486 [7] Sadighi M, Pärnänen T, Alderliesten R, Sayeafabi M, Benedictus R.
487 Experimental and numerical investigation of metal type and thickness
488 effects on the impact resistance of fiber metal laminates. *Applied Com-
489 posite Materials* 2012;19 (3):545 – 559.
- 490 [8] Park SY, Choi WJ, Choi HS. The effects of void contents on the long-
491 term hygrothermal behaviors of glass/epoxy and GLARE laminates.
492 *Composite Structures* 2010;92 (1):18 – 24.
- 493 [9] Vlot A. Impact loading on fibre metal laminates. *International Journal*
494 *of Impact Engineering* 1996;18:291 – 307.
- 495 [10] Centea T, Grunenefelder LK, Nutt SR. A review of out-of-autoclave
496 prepregs - Material properties, process phenomena, and manufacturing
497 considerations. *Composites Part A: Applied Science and Manufacturing*
498 2015;70:132 – 154.
- 499 [11] Tong R, Hoa S, Chen M. Cost analysis on l-shape composite component
500 manufacturing. *Proceedings of the 18th International Conference on*
501 *Composites Materials* 2011;.
- 502 [12] Bader M. Selection of composite materials and manufacturing routes for
503 cost-effective performance. *Composites: Part A* 2002;33 (7):913 – 934.
- 504 [13] Sinke J. Manufacturing of GLARE Parts and Structures. *Applied Com-
505 posite Materials* 2003;10:293 – 305.
- 506 [14] Slagter WJ. On the Bearing Strength of Fibre Metal Laminates. *Journal*
507 *of Composite Materials* 1992;26 (17):2542 – 2566.
- 508 [15] van Rooijen RGJ, Sinke J, de Vries TJ, van der Zwaag S. The Bearing
509 Strength of Fibre Metal Laminates. *Journal of Composite Materials*
510 2006;40 (1):5 – 19.

- 511 [16] Hagenbeek M. Characterisation of Fibre Metal Laminates under
512 Thermo-mechanical Loadings. PhD thesis; TU Delft; 2005.
- 513 [17] Hinz S, Heidemann J, Schulte K. Damage evaluation of glare4b under
514 interlaminar shear loading at different temperature conditions. *Adv*
515 *Compos Lett* 2005;14(2):47 – 55.
- 516 [18] Costa AA, da Silva DFNR, Travessa DN, Botelho EC. The effect of
517 thermal cycles on the mechanical properties of fibermetal laminates.
518 *Materials and Design* 2012;42 (1):434 – 440.
- 519 [19] Müller B, Teixeira De Freitas S, Sinke J. Thermal cycling fiber metal
520 laminates: Considerations, test setup and results. *Proc of the ICCM:*
521 *20th Int Con on Composite Materials* 2015;;1 – 11.
- 522 [20] Müller B, Hagenbeek M, Sinke J. Thermal cycling of (heated) fibre
523 metal laminates. *Composite Structures* 2016;152:106 –16.
- 524 [21] Glauser T, Johansson M, Hult A. A comparison of radiation and thermal
525 curing of thick composites. *Macromol Mater Eng* 2000;274:25 – 30.
- 526 [22] Nightingale C, Day RJ. Flexural and interlaminar shear strength prop-
527 erties of carbon fibre/epoxy composites cured thermally and with mi-
528 crowave radiation. *Composites Part A* 2002;33:1021 – 1030.
- 529 [23] Tanrattanakul V, Jaroendee D. Comparison Between Microwave and
530 Thermal Curing of Glass Fiber-Epoxy Composites: Effect of Microwave-
531 Heating Cycle on Mechanical Properties. *Journal of Applied Polymer*
532 *Science* 2006;102:1059 – 1070.
- 533 [24] Joseph C, Viney C. Electrical resistance curing of carbon-fibre/epoxy
534 composites. *Composites Science and Technology* 2000;60:315 – 319.
- 535 [25] Mahdi S, Kim HJ, Gama BA, Yarlagadda S, Gillerspie Jr. JW. A Com-
536 parison of Oven-cured and Induction-cured Adhesively Bonded Com-
537 posite Joints. *Journal of composite materials* 2003;37 (6):519 – 542.
- 538 [26] C. Severijns S. Teixeira de Freitas JP. Susceptor-assisted induction cur-
539 ing behaviour of a two component epoxy paste adhesive for aerospace ap-
540 plications. *International Journal of Adhesion and Adhesives* 2017;75:155
541 – 164.

- 542 [27] Ageorges C, Ye L. Resistance welding of thermosetting compos-
543 ite/thermoplastic composite joints. *Composites part A* 2001;32:1603
544 – 1612.
- 545 [28] Yousefpour A, Hojjati M, Immarigeon JP. Fusion bonding/welding of
546 thermoplastic composites. *Journal of Thermoplastic Composite Materi-*
547 *als* 2004;17(4):303 – 341.
- 548 [29] Dube M, Hubert P, Yousefpour A, Denault J. Resistance welding of
549 thermoplastic composites skin/stringer joints. *Composites Part A: Ap-*
550 *plied Science and Manufacturing* 2007;38 (12):2541 – 2552.
- 551 [30] Shi H. Resistance welding of thermoplastic composites – Process and
552 performance. PhD thesis; TU Delft; 2014.
- 553 [31] Villegas I, Bersee HEN. Characterisation of a metal mesh heating el-
554 ement for closed-loop resistance welding of thermoplastic composites.
555 *Journal of Thermoplastic Composite Materials* 2015;28:46 – 65.
- 556 [32] Rider AN, Wang CH, Cao J. Internal resistance heating for homogeneous
557 curing of adhesively bonded repairs. *International Journal of Adhesion*
558 *& Adhesives* 2011;31:168 – 176.
- 559 [33] Ashrafi M, Santosh D, Tuttle ME. Resistive embedded heating for ho-
560 mogeneous curing of adhesively bonded joints. *International Journal of*
561 *Adhesion & Adhesives* 2015;57:34 – 39.
- 562 [34] Smith B, Ashrafi M, Tuttle M, Devasia S. Bondline Temperature Control
563 for Joining Composites with an Embedded Heater. *Journal of Manufac-*
564 *turing Science and Engineering* 2016;138 (2):1087 – 1357.
- 565 [35] Ramakrishnan B, Zhu L, Pitchumani R. Curing of Composites Using
566 Internal Resistive Heating. *Transactions of the ASME* 2000;122:124 –
567 131.
- 568 [36] Zhu L, Pitchumani R. Analysis of a process for curing composites by
569 the use of embedded resistive heating elements. *Composites Science and*
570 *Technology* 2000;60:2699 – 2712.
- 571 [37] Bwire . <http://wirecloth.bwire.com>, accessed 3.7.2015. 2015;.

- 572 [38] ASTM . Standard Test Method for Short-Beam Strength of Polymer
573 Matrix Composite Materials and Their Laminates. ASTM standard
574 D2344/D2344M-13; ASTM International.; 2013.
- 575 [39] Abouhamzeh M, Sinke J, Jansen K, Benedictus R. Kinetic and thermo-
576 viscoelastic characterisation of the epoxy adhesive in glare. Composite
577 Structures 2015;124:19 – 28.
- 578 [40] Hong X, Hua Y. The effects of curing cycles on properties of the epoxy
579 system 3221/RH glass fabric composites. Polymer Composites 2008;29
580 (4):364 – 371.