

Experimental study into compression after impact strength of laminates with conventional and nonconventional ply orientations

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Abstract

The quest for impact damage tolerant laminates by tailoring stacking sequences has led to nonconventional laminates whose ply sequences are not limited to 0, ± 45 and 90° . Departing from the hypothesis that compression after impact (CAI) strength is impaired by the presence of delaminations, a ply sequence was defined by selecting the mismatch angles between plies so as to maintain a central sublaminar with no, or small, delaminations. An experimental test campaign was devoted to validate this hypothesis. To that purpose, baseline and blocked-ply laminates were included in the study. Specimens were tested under low velocity impact followed by compression according to ASTM standards. Delaminations were identified with Ultrasonic C-Scan. The results show delamination locations being successfully predetermined by controlling the mismatch angle, as well as the ensuing improvement in compressive strength retention after impact.

Keywords: Nonconventional laminate, B. Delamination, B. Impact behaviour, B. Damage tolerance

1. Introduction

Composite laminates have high specific stiffness and strength, good corrosion resistance, long fatigue life, and design flexibility for tailoring multidirectional properties to suit specific applications. However, they exhibit poor damage resistance under Low Velocity Impact (LVI), and low Compression After Impact (CAI) residual strength. Studies [1–4] show that LVI causes matrix cracks, delamination and eventually fibre breakage for higher impact energies. Delamination is considered to be the most critical as it divide an impacted laminate into sublaminates, and consequently impairs

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8 the post-impact load carrying capacity, as well as the stiffness and stability of the laminate. Under
9 compression loading, impact-induced delaminations can propagate together with progressive
10 sublaminar buckling, resulting in low CAI strength [5–8]. The reduction in the compressive strength
11 due to impact damage can reach as high as 60% in a typical aerospace fibre-resin system [9].

12 In light of the low CAI strength, the quest for improved damage resistance and/or tolerant laminated
13 composites in the context of the stacking sequence design has resulted in dispersed ply laminates
14 [10–14]. A dispersed ply laminate has ply orientations not limited to the conventional 0 , ± 45 and 90°
15 orientations, and hereafter is referred to as a nonconventional laminate. The stacking sequence
16 design of the nonconventional laminates in [13, 14] exploited the idea that the mismatch angle
17 (MMA) between the reinforcements of adjacent laminae has an effect on the tendency of that
18 interface to delaminate. Small MMAs are less prone to delamination than large MMAs. The former
19 tends to a blocked ply situation, whereas large MMA's cause severe shear stresses that promote
20 delamination onset and growth, especially when the interface with large MMA is located close to the
21 backface of the impacted laminate [11]. Following this rationale, Sebaey et al. [13, 14] compared
22 nonconventional and baseline laminates with equivalent in-plane and bending stiffness and found that
23 CAI strength of the nonconventional laminates was enhanced by up to 30% in comparison to that of
24 a conventional layup. In previous studies, small and large values of MMA were dispersed through the
25 thickness of the nonconventional laminates and it was suggested that the chance to improve CAI
26 strength would be by controlling the through-the-thickness locations of delaminations [11].
27 Therefore, this paper depicts the first attempt to predetermine the location of delaminations
28 generated in an LVI by selecting the MMA.

29 In the literature, MMA is not the only factor reported to affect the delamination size. Laminates
30 with thick plies have been reported to influence delaminations areas, and other damage resistance
31 parameters such as damage threshold loads and peak loads [15–17], but whether or not their CAI
32 strength is in fact reduced remains unclear when the different experimental results reported in
33 [16–18] are examined. Therefore, the effects of blocking plies (i.e. adjacent plies having 0° MMA) on
34 impact behaviour and CAI strength is revisited in this experimental campaign. This inclusion also
35 allows the difference between ply thickness and mismatch angle to be observed.

36 Of interest in aerospace industry is the influence of moisture on the composite performance as it may
37 alter the behaviour of the structure in different loading conditions. Ogi et al. [19] reported that

38 moisture causes volumetric changes, reduces glass transition temperature (T_g), and increases the
39 critical stresses for transverse cracking and delamination by reducing residual stresses. Single-fibre
40 fragmentation tests [20, 21] recently revealed that moisture is detrimental to the fibre/matrix
41 interface shear strength. Regarding moisture effects on impact behaviour and CAI strength,
42 experimental results are scarce. Moisture is reported to reduce the projected delamination area
43 [22–24]. In [23], where only one impact energy level was studied, CAI strength was enhanced by the
44 moisture effect. Therefore, this paper investigates whether moisture alters the observed trends of the
45 effect of mismatch angles and ply thickness on LVI damage resistance and tolerance.

46 In summary, the objective of this work is to experimentally validate the hypothesis that the ply
47 sequence of a nonconventional laminate can be tailored to predetermine the through-the-thickness
48 location of delaminations created during a low velocity impact, and that the residual compressive
49 strength (CAI) can be improved through this approach with respect to traditional quasi-isotropic
50 laminates. Unconditioned and conditioned batches were analyzed. The results show that successfully
51 locating the larger delaminations in the bottom sub-laminate was not accompanied by an
52 improvement in CAI strength, but by a noticeable increase in strength retention after impact
53 (especially in conditioned coupons).

54 **2. Rationale behind the selected layups**

55 *2.1. Baseline laminate (LBA)*

56 The stacking sequence of the baseline laminate LBA is $[90/-45/0/45]_{3s}$, which differs slightly from
57 the layup recommended by the standard test ASTM D7136M-12 [25] ($[45/0/-45/90]_{ns}$). The LBA
58 ply sequence has 90° ply on the laminate surface, a constant MMA value of 45° between adjacent
59 plies (except those at the laminate neutral plane) and no blocking of plies. Placing the 90° ply as the
60 outermost ply has been considered in some past studies and proven to be more impact resistant than
61 having a $\pm 45^\circ$ ply on the surface [15], and to enhance buckling strains [26] and CAI strength [27].

62 *2.2. Nonconventional laminate (LNC)*

63 The aim to control the through-the-thickness location and size of the delaminations created in a low
64 velocity impact by means of the mismatch angle between plies is the novelty of this study. As shown

65 in Fig. 1, the NLC laminate is divided into three sublaminates: top, central and bottom. Our
66 intention is to promote large delaminations at the bottom sublaminate and leave the central one
67 mostly undamaged. This almost-pristine central sublaminate would account for an increase on the
68 buckling strain as compared to a laminate where delaminations would be evenly distributed. This
69 approach relies on previous findings that large MMA located close to the non-impacted face
70 (specimen's bottom) results in large delaminations [11]. Therefore, large MMA values ($\geq 45^\circ$) were
71 imposed on all the interfaces within the bottom sublaminate. Large MMAs also appear within the
72 top sublaminate due to the symmetry constraint. On the other hand, an MMA of 15° was imposed
73 on all the interfaces within the central sublaminate, because in previous studies interfaces with small
74 MMAs (10°) had been found to result in no or undetectable delaminations when subjected to an
75 ultrasonic C-Scan [13]. The aim of this approach is to dissipate the impact energy through large
76 delaminations predetermined to appear at the bottom sublaminate. The rest of the laminate would
77 be left with smaller delaminations thus, CAI strength is expected to be enhanced.

78 To avoid the differences in stiffness hiding the effect of the stacking sequence definition, both LNC
79 and LBA were defined as having the same in-plane elastic properties. In addition to the
80 aforementioned requirement, the following features of the LBA were regarded as constraints: same
81 number of plies (24) and non-zero MMA (22), symmetry, balance, and quasi-isotropy. The LNC
82 layup (Table 2) was obtained by means of the Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) algorithm [12]. Note
83 that the number of 0° plies is one-third that of the baseline.

84 [Figure 1 about here.]

85 2.3. Thick-ply laminate (LTP)

86 The stacking sequence of the thick-ply laminate is (Table 2), obtained by blocking plies of the same
87 orientations. Note that ply thickness in this layup is three times that of the LBA, and a cluster of six
88 45° plies is inevitable due to symmetry. Another important aspect is the reduction in the number of
89 interfaces (potential sites for delamination) from 22 in the LBA to 6 in the LTP.

90 **3. Experimental work**

91 *3.1. Material, specimen, and laminate properties*

92 Unidirectional prepreg tape with a nominal ply thickness of 0.184 mm, supplied by Hexcel[®], was
93 used to produce all the three laminates described in Section 2 according to standard autoclave
94 procedures. The material is T800S/M21, a carbon/epoxy composite system of intermediate modulus,
95 high tensile strength fibre preimpregnated in high-performance toughed matrix. The ply elastic
96 properties of this composite system are summarized in Table 1. The full set of material properties
97 along with their methods of characterization can be found in [28] and references therein.

98 [Table 1 about here.]

99 All the laminates were cut into 150 x 100 mm (length x width) test coupons. The 0° ply direction of
100 each layup is parallel to the length dimension of the test coupons.

101 The stacking sequence of each layup, as well as the MMA values, are presented in Table 2. Note that
102 the three layups are quasi-isotropic, and all their in-plane elastic properties are constrained to be the
103 same. Using the classical laminate theory and the ply elastic properties listed in Table 1 yields
104 Young’s modulus of 57.25 GPa, shear modulus of 21.68 GPa, and Poisson’s ratio of 0.32. In the
105 layup design, the equivalent bending stiffness D^* , an elastic parameter commonly used to assess the
106 stiffness of an infinite composite plate under out-of-plane loading [29], was not constrained. However,
107 its values for the three layups are reported here for completion. The D^* values of the three layups
108 along 0°, calculated according to [30], differ by less than 10% (Table 2)

109 [Table 2 about here.]

110 [Figure 2 about here.]

111 *3.2. Test matrix*

112 The test matrix in this study is presented in Table 3, in which AR refers to “As Received” specimens
113 and “WET” to specimens conditioned in a climatic chamber. Pristine/non-impacted coupons of each

114 layup were also tested under compression for reference. Specimen conditioning and tests were
115 conducted in the testing laboratory of the University of Girona, which is ISO 17025 and NADCAP
116 (Non-metallic material testing laboratory) certified.

117 [Table 3 about here.]

118 3.3. Experimental procedures

119 Before impact tests, ultrasonic C-Scan (OLYMPUS OMNI MX) inspections to detect any premature
120 damage caused during the cutting and handling of the specimens were carried out. Impact tests were
121 performed according to ASTM D7136M-12 [25] with a CEAST Fractovis Plus drop-weight impact
122 test machine. Contact load, time, velocity, displacement and absorbed energy evolution were
123 automatically captured by the machine’s instrumented software program. To assess impact-induced
124 damage resistance, five parameters were considered: threshold load F_d , peak impact load F_{max} ,
125 dissipated energy E_{dis} , indentation depth δ_{ind} and projected delamination area A_{pro} (see, for
126 instance, Fig. 3). F_d , on the load-time or load-displacement curves, is a sudden load drop or a
127 decrease of slope due to specimen stiffness loss [31]. The displacement reported in this work is that of
128 the impactor, not the mid-plane of the test coupon.

129 The indentation was measured within less than 5 minutes after the impact test, using a Mitutoyo dial
130 depth gauge. For each impacted specimen, two indentation measurements at the impacted location
131 were made: one by placing the gauge arms parallel to the specimen length and the other parallel to
132 the specimen width. The indentation depth δ_{ind} was taken as the average of the two measurements.

133 Each impacted specimen went through two C-Scan inspections: one for the impacted face and the
134 other for non-impacted face. A_{pro} was taken as the mean value of the projected delamination areas
135 from the two C-Scan inspections. To obtain A_{pro} , Inkscape free software was used. Once the C-scan
136 inspection were completed,

137 Compression tests of all impacted and non-impacted coupons were performed according to ASTM
138 D7137M-12 [32] with an MTS 810 Servo-hydraulic Testing Machine equipped with a 250 kN load cell
139 at a loading rate of 1 mm/min. To ensure the proper loading alignment, a steel specimen bonded
140 with four strain gauges was compressed up to the recommended load level where bending difference
141 was found to be less than 10% [32].

142 Impact and CAI test configurations are described in [16]. This sequence of experimental tasks
143 described here was used for both AR and WET specimens, and the difference in how we handled the
144 WET specimens is explained in section 3.4.

145 *3.4. Conditioning and testing of WET specimens*

146 Three batches of each layup, referred to as WET in Table 3, were conditioned at 80°C/85% RH
147 inside a CTS conditioning chamber until equilibrium state, following the prEN 2823 protocol [33].
148 After 2000 hours of conditioning, equilibrium state of approximately 1.26% weight gain was reached.

149 The sequence of tests from impact to CAI was the same as those described in section 3.3 with the
150 only difference being in how we handled the WET specimens after each impact test prior to CAI.
151 The total duration of an impact test and indentation measurement was less than 10 minutes, after
152 which the specimen was returned to the chamber. Next, each specimen was subjected to the C-Scan
153 inspection from impacted and non-impacted faces for less than 30 minutes and then put back into
154 the chamber. This process was repeated for all the WET specimens to ensure that they lost about
155 the same amount of moisture while they were outside the conditioning chamber. Before the
156 specimens were compression tested, they were kept in the chamber for much more than two weeks so
157 that they could regain the moisture content.

158 **4. Results**

159 *4.1. Impact test and C-Scan*

160 Impact responses of both AR and WET coupons at the explored impact energy levels are presented
161 in Figs. 3 and 4. As the impact test reproducibility is reasonably good for both AR and WET
162 coupons in terms of load-time history, only the mean value of load-displacement and impact energy
163 evolution is shown (Fig.4) for ease of comparison. For AR coupons, the response of the baseline
164 laminate (LBA) exhibits larger oscillations than those of the thick-ply (LTP) and nonconventional
165 (LNC) laminates after F_d is reached. Once F_d is reached, separation between load-displacement
166 curves emerges, at least for the AR coupons. On average, the F_d of LTP and LNC is 30.5% and 3.5%
167 lower than that of LBA (5.50 kN). Note that the WET coupons of all the laminates have smoother

168 responses than those of the AR coupons, making it hard to detect F_d due to the absence of clear load
169 drop as frequently reported in the literature.

170 [Figure 3 about here.]

171 [Figure 4 about here.]

172 Peak load F_{max} and dissipated energy E_{dis} are presented in Figs. 5 and 6, respectively. As the
173 impact energy increases, the mean values of both F_{max} and E_{dis} increase linearly. For both AR and
174 WET conditions, LBA has the highest F_{max} and the lowest E_{dis} on all impact energy levels, which is
175 consistent with F_d (LBA has the highest F_d). On average, the maximum absolute differences between
176 the AR and WET coupons are 6.4% for F_{max} (of LTP at 20J), and 5.0% for E_{dis} (of LNC at 12J).

177 [Figure 5 about here.]

178 [Figure 6 about here.]

179 Like F_{max} and E_{dis} , the indentation depth δ_{ind} and projected delamination area A_{pro} increase with
180 increasing impact energy (see Figs. 7 and 8). The baseline laminate LBA experiences the lowest δ_{ind}
181 and the smallest A_{pro} . Thick ply significantly affects both δ_{ind} and A_{pro} , particularly for the AR
182 condition. Moisture consistently reduces the indentation depth δ_{ind} of all the laminates, and A_{pro} for
183 LTP and LNC only.

184 [Figure 7 about here.]

185 [Figure 8 about here.]

186 Presented in Fig. 9 is the C-Scan inspection revealing the shapes and sizes of the delaminated
187 interfaces located through the thickness of the three laminates. Delaminations in LBA are more
188 localized and circular than those seen in LTP and LNC. For the LTP AR specimens, delaminations
189 are larger and more distinguishable, due to few non-zero MMA interfaces, than those of LBA and
190 LNC. With the aid of the colour bar showing through-the-thickness locations of delaminated

191 interfaces, the delamination sizes within the bottom sublaminates of LNC are seen to be larger than
192 those within the central sublaminates. For the AR coupons of LTP and LNC tested at high energy,
193 the extension of their delaminations reaches the window cut-out width (75 mm) of the impact fixture
194 support. That is, the delamination area is highly constrained by the boundaries of the fixture.

195 [Figure 9 about here.]

196 4.2. CAI test results

197 Owing to a lack of impact energy levels, asymptotic behaviour of no damage (at lower impact energy
198 levels) and perforation (at higher energy levels) does not appear on . Superior strengths are seen in
199 LBA for AR specimens impacted at 12J and 20J, Fig. 10. For AR coupons, the compressive strength
200 of non-impacted LTP and LNC is 10-19% lower than that of LBA. The plot of normalized mean CAI
201 strength in Fig. 10b reveals that the compressive strength retention of LTP and LNC at high impact
202 energy (30J) is higher than that of LBA.

203 Moisture reduces the compressive strengths of pristine specimens in all the laminates. The strength
204 of pristine WET coupons decreases compared to their AR counterparts by 7%, 14%, and 12% on
205 average for LBA, LTP, and LNC, respectively. For the impacted coupons at 12J and 20 J there is a
206 tendency to higher σ_{CAI} for WET samples (except LTP at 12J and LBA at 20J). For WET impacted
207 coupons, only for LNC does CAI strength increase monotonically in the presence of moisture with
208 respect to AR conditions (17% at 12J and 16% at 20J, see Fig. 10a). Note that the LNC WET
209 coupons have even higher σ_{CAI} than those of LBA WET coupons at 20J.

210 [Figure 10 about here.]

211 5. Discussion

212 The first area to be discussed is whether the selection of the MMA's across the thickness of the LNC
213 laminate (large MMA within the bottom sublaminates and small MMA within the central
214 sublaminates, Fig. 1) allows the location of delaminations to be predetermined. C-scan analysis of the
215 LNC laminate (Fig. 9) provides evidence of large delaminations within the bottom sublaminates and

216 small delaminations within the central sublaminates, thus supporting the initial hypothesis of this
217 work. The differences on the distribution of delamination sizes between LNC and LBA (the baseline)
218 are clear. However, the approach did not result in completely preventing delaminations in the central
219 sublaminates, as was the aim. The fact that the extension of delaminations at the bottom
220 sublaminates was constrained by the boundaries should be taken into account. Considering that in
221 impact events that do not produce fibre failure, delaminations are the main energy dissipating
222 mechanism, the prospect is that an impact on a specimen larger than the one studied here, would
223 have produced larger delaminations at the bottom sublaminates, at least for the impact energy levels
224 equal to or greater than 20J. Larger delaminations mean more dissipated energy, so the extension of
225 delaminations within the central sublaminates would be expected to decrease. That is, the success of
226 the proposed approach (Fig. 1) avoiding delaminations in the central sublaminates is hindered by the
227 effect of the boundaries.

228 Before addressing whether the compressive strength after impact improves in LNC, it should be
229 made clear that comparing the compressive strength of LBA, LNC and LTP needs to be done with a
230 certain amount of caution. Indeed, the failure under on-axis compression is a fibre-dominated
231 mechanism which is very sensitive to the alignment of the reinforcement with the applied load
232 [34, 35]. LNC possesses three times fewer the number of 0° plies found in the baseline LBA. This
233 explains why LNC provided lower CAI strength than LBA did, albeit with the exception of
234 specimens impacted at high energies (AR coupons impacted at 30J and WET coupons at 20J of Fig.
235 10). At these high impact energies the LNC retained their strength more efficiently than LBA and
236 LTP. In terms of practical applications in aircraft structures, this behaviour is an asset.

237 The effect of blocking three plies (LTP laminate) is detrimental to both impact damage resistance
238 and tolerance. In comparison to LBA, LTP results in lower F_d , lower F_{max} , higher E_{dis} , deeper δ_{ind} ,
239 larger A_{pro} , and low compressive strengths for both non-impacted and impacted specimens. The low
240 damage resistance and tolerance of LTP can be attributed to the in-situ strength effect for matrix
241 cracking (i.e. the strength decreases as the thickness of the ply increases) [36, 37]. Therefore, matrix
242 cracking, and the associated delaminations, occurs earlier in blocked plies than in dispersed plies [4].
243 The effects of ply thickness on damage resistance to LVIs have also been reported in other studies
244 [13, 15–18]. Although the study conducted in this paper, and those in [17, 18], consider different
245 composite systems and layups, the same effect of the blocking plies on CAI strength is observed.

246 The impact behaviour of the three laminates is altered in the presence of moisture. Firstly, after F_d
247 is reached, load-time or load-displacement of the WET coupons exhibits smaller oscillations than
248 those of the AR coupons; especially for LBA (Figs. 4). The physical reason behind this behaviour is
249 unclear to the authors. Since delamination in the AR specimens tends to propagate unstably, this
250 trend could be related to a tougher matrix (thus, interfaces) in WET specimens, as reported in [38].
251 The extension of delamination in Fig. 9 supports this idea for LTP and LNC in particular.

252 No sudden load drop due to specimen stiffness loss can be seen on either the load-time or
253 load-displacement curves of the WET coupons (Figs. 3–4). Instead, the load-displacement curves
254 show a gradual loss of stiffness about where the load is identified as F_d in the figures mentioned
255 above.

256 A tougher matrix could also explain the noticeable increase of the F_d of LTP, compared to AR
257 conditions as the onset of matrix cracking is delayed [23]. Reduced residual stresses associated to the
258 plasticization of the matrix induced by moisture could also contribute to delaying the onset of
259 damage mechanisms.

260 Moisture reduces the indentation depth δ_{ind} (Fig. 7). This same observation was reported elsewhere
261 [24] but no explanation was given. Besides, moisture tends to reduce A_{pro} of all the laminates, except
262 the baseline LBA (Fig. 8). Reduced A_{pro} in the presence of moisture was also reported in [22, 23].
263 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images in [23] reveal that the number of matrix transverse
264 cracks and delamination sizes are smaller in the WET specimens than in the AR specimens. Again,
265 this behaviour is coherent with a tougher matrix.

266 Lastly, while moisture does reduce the undamaged compressive strength, the effect on the
267 compressive strength of impacted specimens depends on the laminate itself. CAI in LTP and LNC
268 decreases for 12J but increases for 20 J, where in LBA case, strength increases at 12 J and but not at
269 20 J. Again, the retention for strength of LNC outperforms dramatically that of LBA.

270 An ongoing detailed microstructural investigation of damage evolution in quasistatic tests will
271 contribute to clarifying the effect of moisture on the impact behaviour of these laminates.

272 6. Conclusion

273 Three stacking sequences, LBA (quasi/isotropic baseline), LNC (nonconventional) and LTP (with
274 blocked plies), were subjected to low velocity impact (LVI) and subsequently to compression after
275 impact (CAI). LNC (with reinforcement orientations differing from conventional ones) was tailored to
276 promote a central sublaminar being practically undamaged after LVI in order to achieve improved
277 CAI strength. The LNC laminate was tailored by choosing small mismatch angles between plies at
278 the central sublaminar, whereas at the upper and bottom sublaminars they were equal or larger
279 than 45° . Specimens from the three layups were studied under two conditions: as-received (AR) and
280 conditioned (WET, $80^\circ\text{C}/85\% \text{RH}$).

281 C-Scan inspection proved that, by selecting mismatch angle between plies, it is feasible to
282 predetermine the location of delaminations through the thickness of LNC. While this did not result
283 in an improvement of CAI strength in LNC, it did result in an increase in strength retention after
284 impact (more noticeably in WET conditions). In fact, the compressive strength can not be compared
285 directly because LNC possesses one third of the 0° plies that LBA has, consequently lowering its
286 effective load-carrying capacity under compression.

287 Blocking three plies impaired the impact resistance as well as the compressive strength of pristine
288 and impacted specimens.

289 While moisture tends to improve damage resistance and tolerance to LVI with respect to the AR
290 counterparts, its effect is far greater on LTP laminate (an increase in the F_d and reduction in the
291 projected delamination area). Under compression loading, moisture decreases the compressive
292 strength of the non-impacted coupons, but the influence on the impacted coupons is diverse. The
293 influence of moisture on LVI behaviour and the associated damage pattern deserves further
294 investigation.

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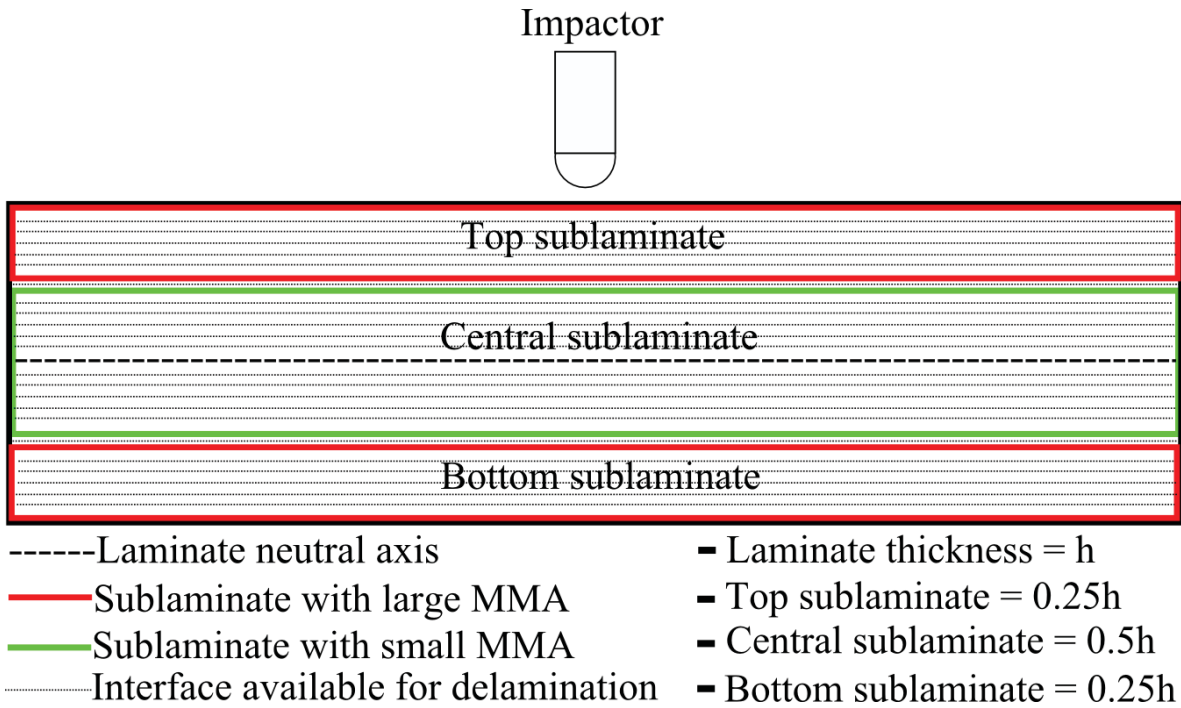


Figure 1: Through-the-thickness view illustrating definition of the tailored nonconventional laminate (LNC) comprising of three sublaminate: top and bottom sublaminate with large MMAs of 45-60° and central sublaminate with small MMAs of 15°. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

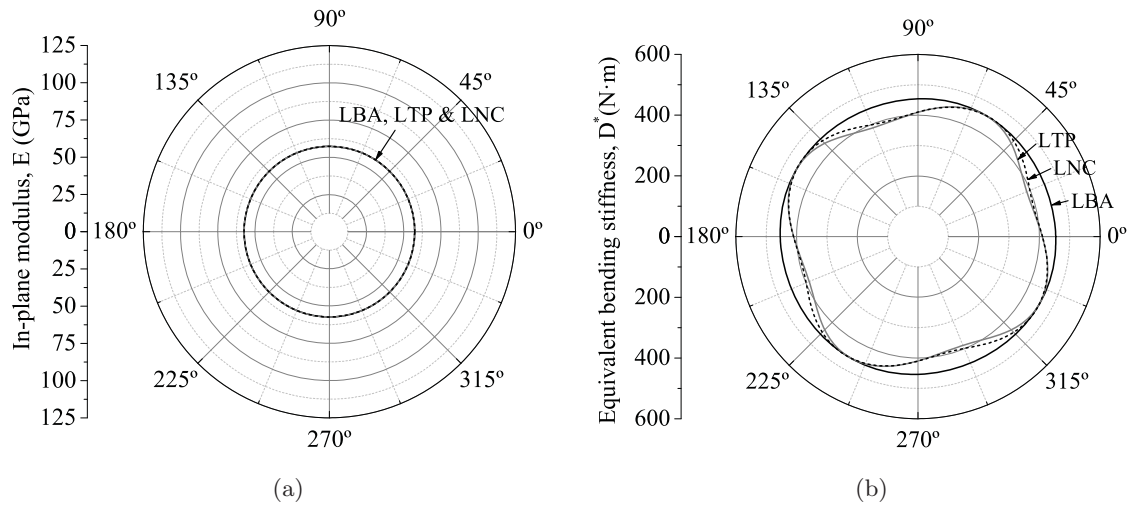


Figure 2: Young's modulus (a) and equivalent bending stiffness (b). LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply.

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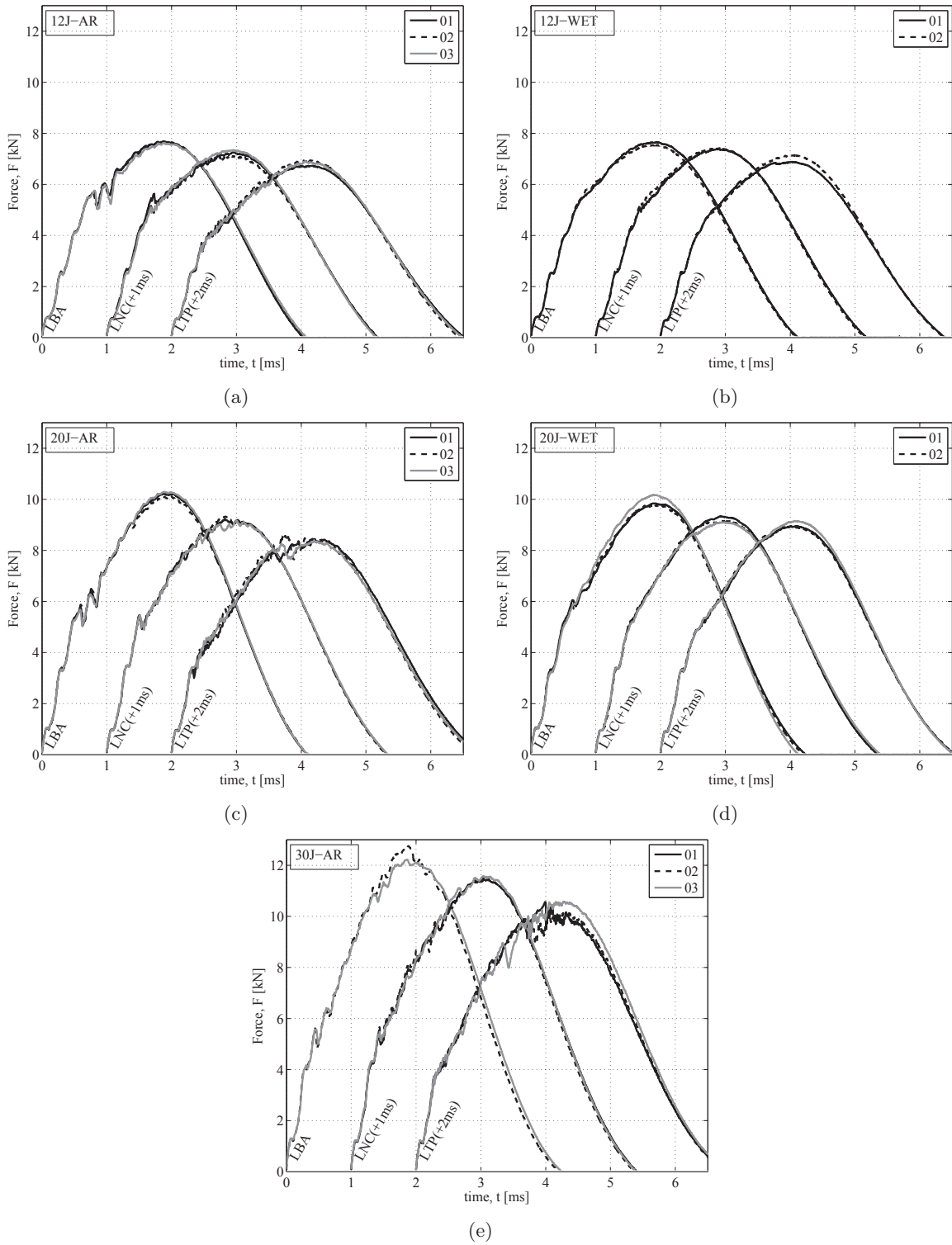


Figure 3: Load-time response at different impact energy levels. LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply. Responses of LNC and LTP are offset by 1 and 2 ms respectively for ease of comparison.

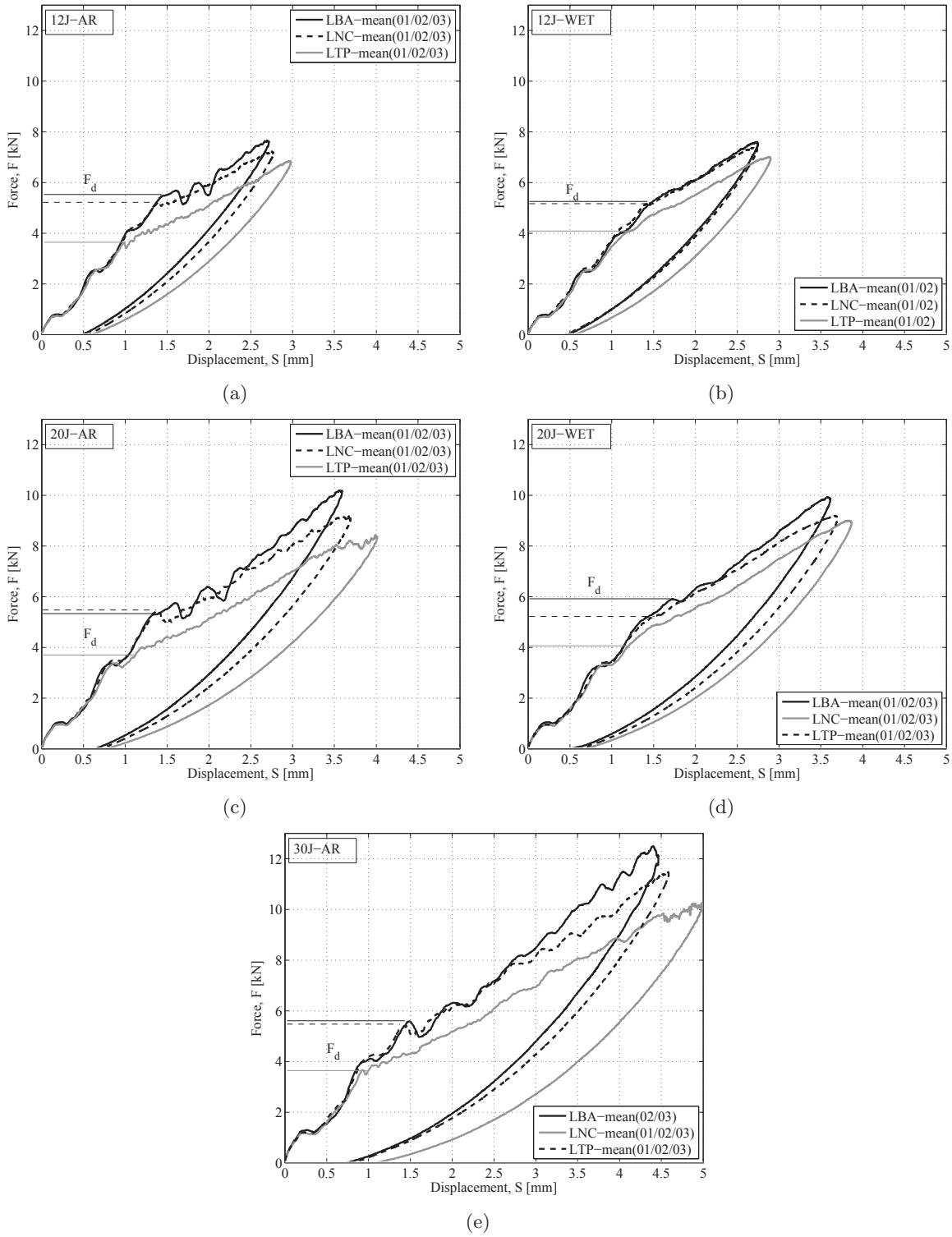


Figure 4: Load-displacement mean response at different impact energy levels. LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply.

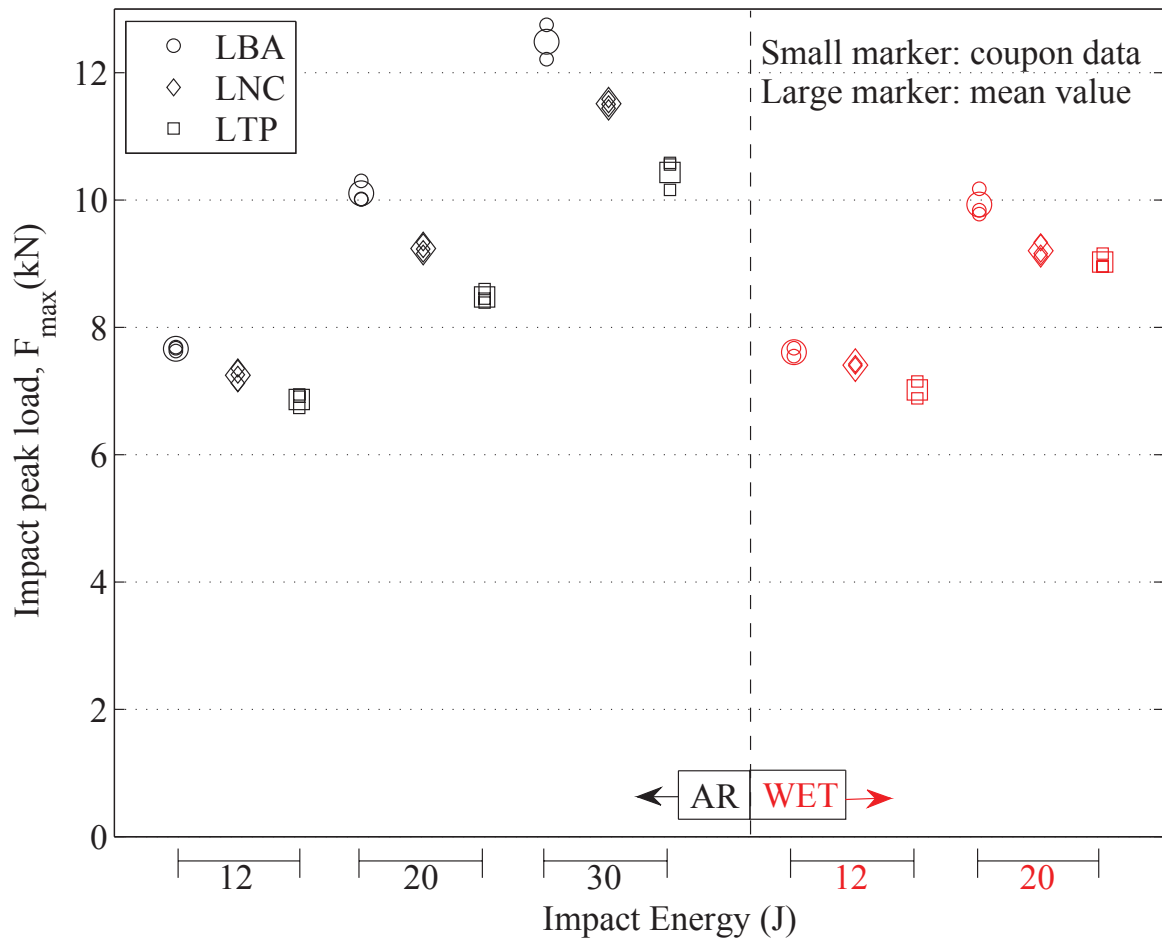


Figure 5: Impact peak load; LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply. No WET coupons were tested at 30J. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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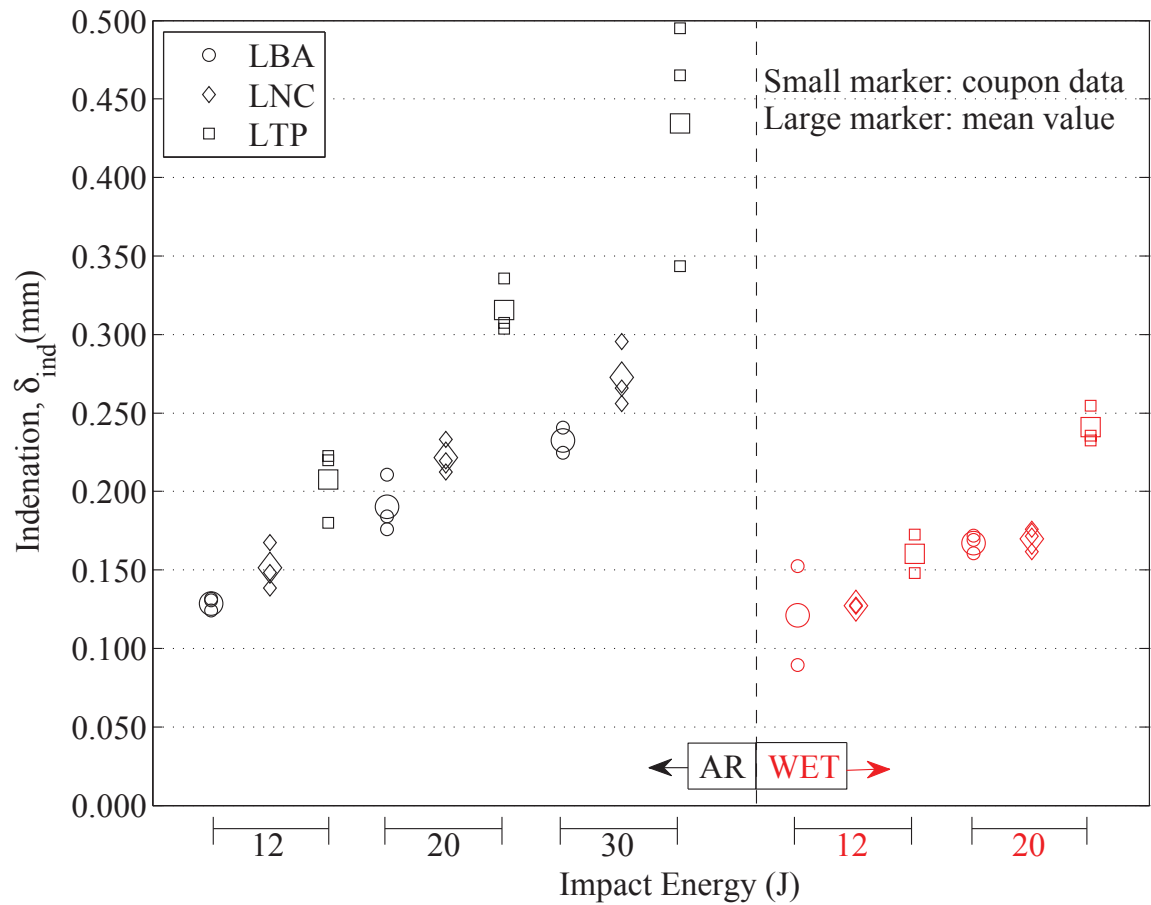


Figure 7: Indentation depth; LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply. For each individual specimen, indentation depth was taken as mean value of those depths measured by placing the gauge arms along the specimen length and width; no WET coupons were tested at 30J. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

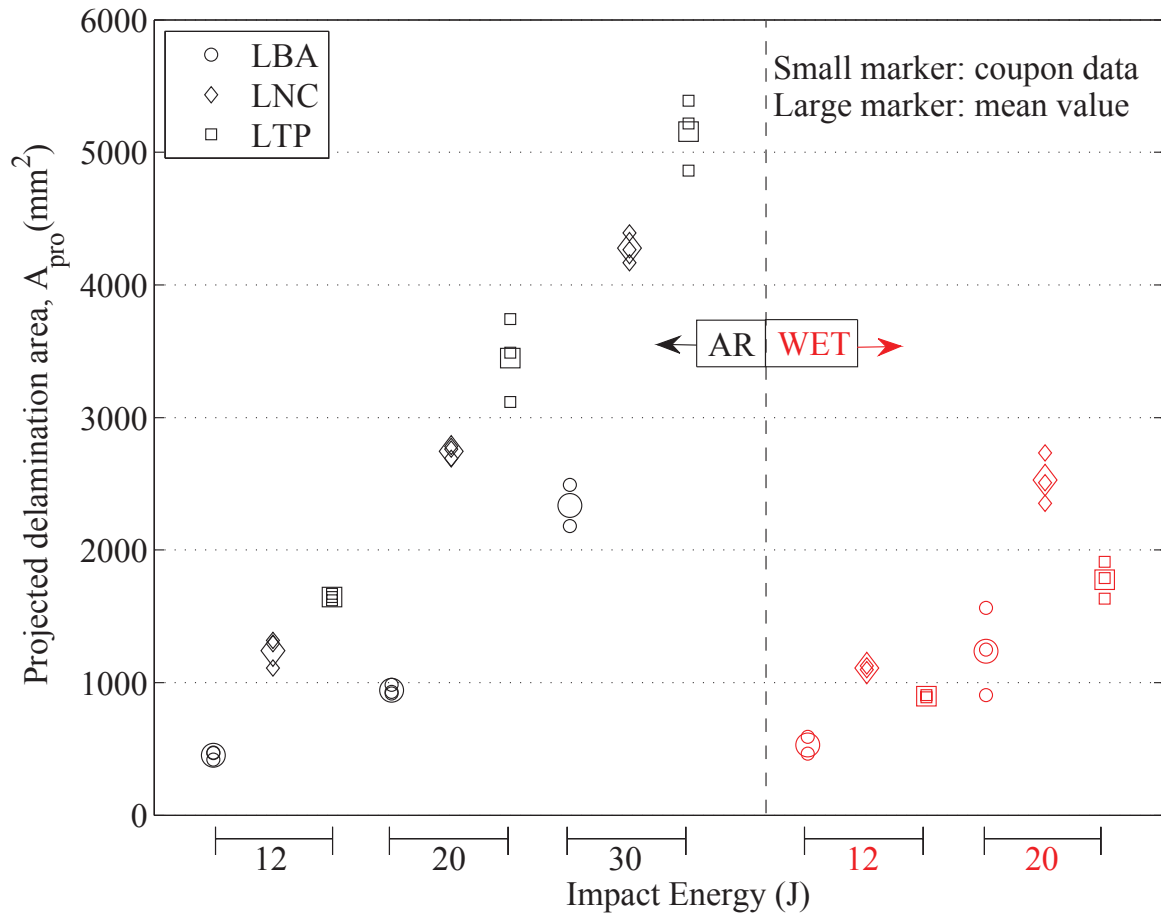


Figure 8: Projected delamination area; LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply. For each individual specimen, projected delamination was taken as mean value of those projected delamination areas observed through C-Scan from impacted and non-impacted faces; no WET coupons were tested at 30J.

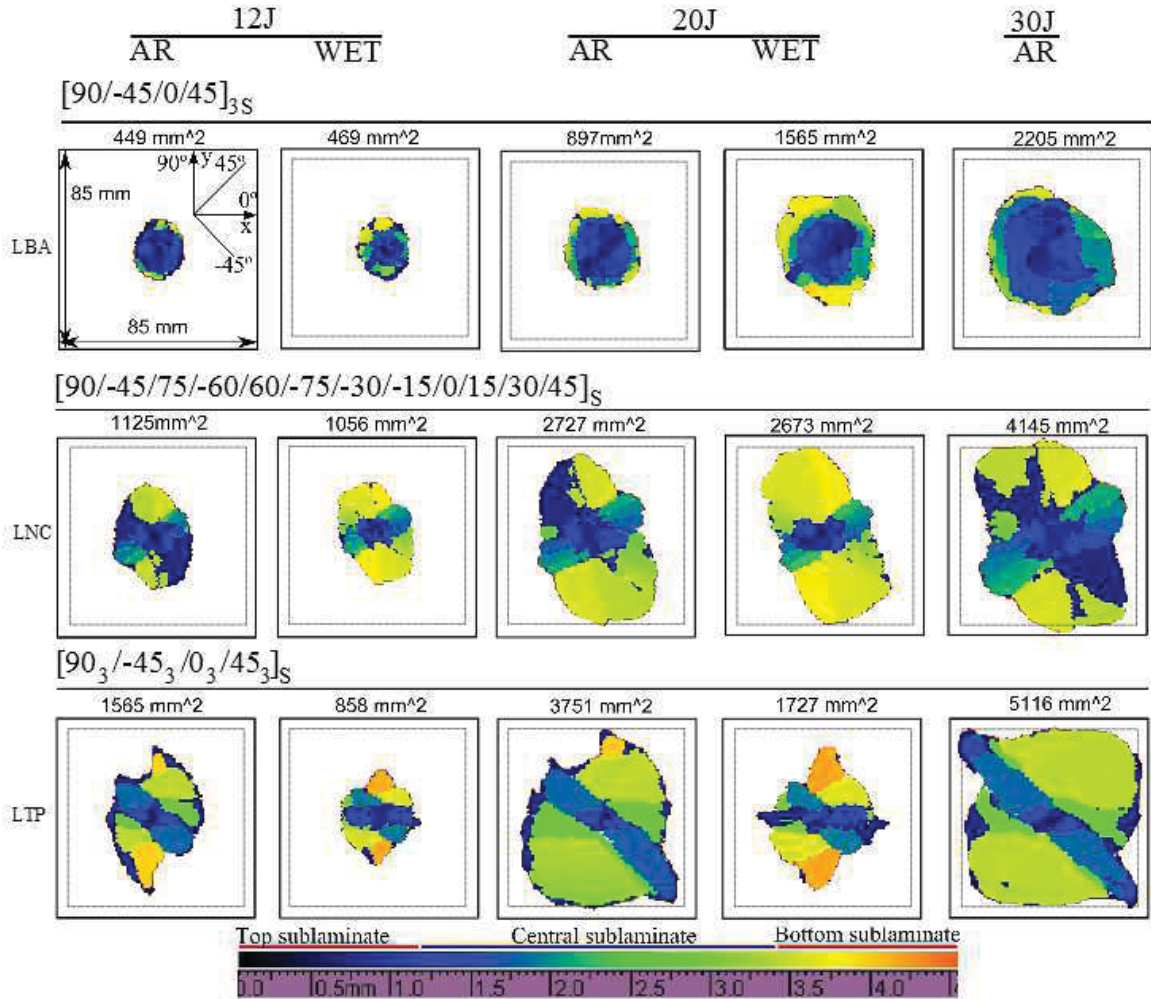
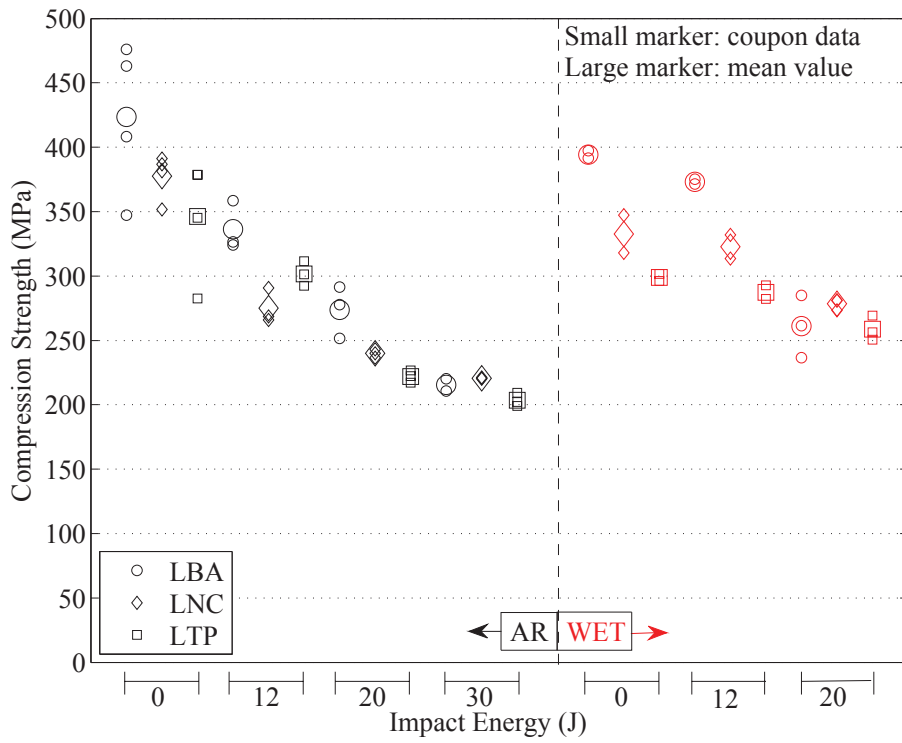
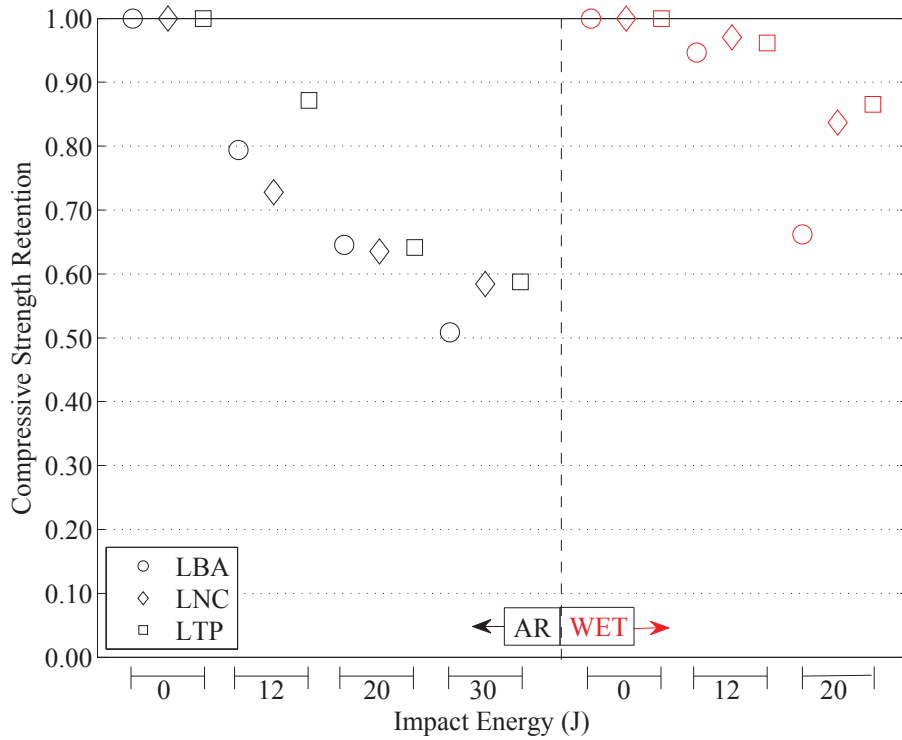


Figure 9: C-Scan inspection of delaminated interfaces; LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply. Colour bar indicates the depth of coupon as measured from the non-impacted face. No WET coupons were tested at 30J; 75 mm is the shortest in-plane dimension of the window cut (125x75 mm) on impact fixture as specified in ASTM D7136M-12 [25]. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



(a)



(b)

Figure 10: Compression and CAI strength (a), and mean compression retention strength (b); LBA: Baseline, LNC: Nonconventional, and LTP: Thick-ply. 0J: non-impacted/pristine coupons; no WET coupons were tested at 30J. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 1: Elastic properties of T800S/M21 unidirectional ply [28]

Property	Unit	Value	Description
E_{11}	GPa	152.8	Longitudinal Young's modulus
$E_{22} = E_{33}$	GPa	8.7	Transverse Young's moduli
$\nu_{12} = \nu_{13}$	-	0.335	Poisson ratio in planes 1-2 and 1-3
ν_{23}	-	0.380	Poisson ratio in plane 2-3
G_{12}	GPa	4.2	Shear moduli in planes 1-2 and 2-3
G_{23}	GPa	3.15	Shear modulus in plane and 2-3

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Table 2: Stacking sequences and mismatch angle (MMA) of two adjacent plies; ply count: total number of plies; int count: total number of interfaces with non-zero MMA; ply thickness: 0.184 mm; *: interface at the midplane. Equivalent bending stiffness (D^*) values presented here are along 0° .

		Laminate labels and stacking sequences													
Laminate	Description	Ply/Int count	Stacking sequences		D^* (Nm)										
LBA	Baseline	24/22	[90/-45/0/45] _{3s}		454										
LNC	Nonconventional	24/22	[90/-45/75/-60/60/-75/-30/-15/0/15/30/45] _s		410										
LTP	Thick-ply	24/6	[90 ₃ /-45 ₃ /0 ₃ /45 ₃] _s		409										
		Mismatch angle value at each interface for half of the layups													
Interface number after first ply:			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
	Laminate	LBA	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	45°	*
		LNC	45°	60°	45°	60°	45°	45°	15°	15°	15°	15°	15°	15°	*
		LTP	0°	0°	45°	0°	0°	45°	0°	0°	45°	0°	0°	0°	*

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Table 3: Test matrix of the number of specimens tested; 0J: non-impacted/pristine specimens; AR: as-received or unconditioned specimens; WET: specimens conditioned at 80°C/85% RH. Impactor properties—mass = 5 kg, shape: hemispherical tub with radius $R = 8$ mm, material: steel of Young's modulus $E = 210$ GPa and Poisson ratio $\nu = 0.3$.

Impactor		Laminates and conditions					
Energy (J)	Velocity (m/s)	Baseline (LBA)		Nonconventional (LNC)		Thick-ply (LTP)	
		AR	WET	AR	WET	AR	WET
0	-	4	2	4	2	4	2
12	2.191	3	2	3	2	3	2
20	2.828	3	3	3	3	3	3
30	3.464	2	-	3	-	3	-

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