

Knotted Synthetic Polymer or Carbon Nanotube Micro Fibres with Enhanced Toughness

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Abstract:

In the past 50 years, a number of synthetic polymer microfibres, such as para-aramid or ultra-high-molecular-weight polyethylene, have been developed, exhibiting remarkable strength. However, their toughness is considerably smaller than that of some natural fibres such as spider silk, thus limiting their performance in applications ranging from surgical devices to vehicle parts. Here, we implement a recently proposed strategy, using micro-knots as frictional energy dissipators, to achieve record toughness values of up to 1400 J/g in synthetic microfibres, while maintaining their strength virtually unchanged. The same strategy is also applied to carbon Nanotube microfibres, exploiting their superior mechanical strength compared to any other existing fibre at the nanoscale, and toughness improvements of more than an order of magnitude are observed. We also show how knotted nanotube fibre configurations can be optimized for maximum toughness by modifying fibre diameter and twist angle, and how frictional and wear levels can be tuned by varying tightening and number of coils in the micro-knots. The results demonstrate the potential to design and produce fibres and textiles with unprecedented simultaneous strength and toughness for a variety of technological applications.

1. Introduction

It is known that many biological structural materials can effectively combine properties that are apparently mutually exclusive, or at least in strong competition, such as high stiffness and low density [1], or strength and toughness [2, 3]. Teeth [4], mollusc shells [5] or crustaceans [6] display exceptional combinations of stiffness, strength, flaw tolerance and toughness, at present unrivalled by engineering materials. Spider or silkworm silk is another prime example of this, with a tensile strength comparable to that of high-grade alloy steels, and a toughness three times higher than even high energy-absorbing polymers such as Kevlar [7, 8]. This means that silk fibres are able to dissipate a huge (e.g. kinetic) energy before breaking. In [8], the toughest known biomaterial is discussed, namely the silk spun by a giant riverine orb spider, reaching energy-to-break values of 520 MJ/m^3 , which is 10 times that of para-aramid synthetic fibres such as Kevlar®. In the case of artificial materials, Carbon NanoTubes (CNTs) provide excellent candidates to achieve superior mechanical properties [9, 10], since their ideal mechanical strength is an order of magnitude greater than most commonly used industrial materials. The exceptional mechanical strength and low density of CNTs [11, 12], similar to that of Graphene [13-15], evoke the possibility of futuristic projects such as the so-called “Space Elevator” [16, 17]. However, the prospect of achieving these mechanical properties with the corresponding macroscopic fibres still presents a considerable challenge [18-20].

There is great interest in manufacturing fibre and film assemblies that attain on a macroscopic level the mechanical strength of individual CNTs. The ability to assemble CNTs into continuous fibres or threads (terms used indistinctly in CNT literature) has progressed considerably. Perhaps the most advanced methods to date are fibre spinning from CNTs in liquid solutions [21] and CNT fibre drawing directly from gaseous CNTs produced by floating catalysts [22]. Dry spinning is a third technique that consists in assembling fibres from vertically aligned CNTs without any additional handling steps in the process [23-25].

Basically, this corresponds to synthesizing CNTs with unique density and length. In the dry spinning process, Van der Waals interactions bind the CNTs together, allowing the array to be continuously drawn. The main advantage of this technique is the catalyst-free high alignment, and a smaller diameter distribution of the CNTs within the thread [23, 26].

Various researchers have addressed the strength vs. toughness problem using CNT-based fibres. Dalton et al. produced composite fibres from polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) and about 60% by weight single-wall CNT (SWCNT), achieving a strength of 1.8 GPa and toughness of 570 J/g [27]. The fibres produced in [28], also based on PVA and SWCNT, reached an even higher value of 870 J/g, and the technique was also demonstrated for Multi-wall CNTs (MWCNT), although with reduced strength and toughness values.

An approach to obtain artificial materials that are simultaneously strong and tough is to try to replicate the mechanisms that are occurring at nano- micro- and macro-scale levels in natural materials and structures such as spider silks and webs to enhance toughness, i.e. to introduce energy dissipation mechanisms without significantly reducing the overall fibre strength. This strategy has recently been proposed by Pugno [29], introducing the concept sliding elements such as of knots into fibres as frictional energy dissipators to mimic spider web junctions and obtaining toughness values above 1000 J/g. The concept was also applied to silk fibroin fibres in [30]. It can be shown that the resulting toughness of a knotted fibre, defined as the dissipated energy at break per unit mass $\Delta\phi/m$, can be expressed as

$$\Delta\phi/m \approx k_1 k_2 k_3 \sigma_f / \rho \quad (1)$$

where ρ is the material mass density and k_1, k_2, k_3 are geometrical/mechanical parameters of the fibre/knot, all of which are comprised between 0 and 1: $k_1 = (l-l_0)/l$ is a knot parameter that relates the original fibre length l to its length l_0 after having introduced a knot; $k_2 = \sigma_k / \sigma_f$

is a parameter that quantifies fibre “fragilization”, i.e. the strength reduction of the fibre from its original value σ_f to that after having introduced the knot σ_k ; $k_3 = \sigma_p / \sigma_k$ is a parameter that measures the efficiency of the knot, as the ratio between the stress plateau σ_p in the stress-strain curve during sliding of the fibre in the knot, and the knotted fibre strength σ_k . From Equation (1) we deduce that a fibre can ideally retain its “unknotted” strength, while acquiring an enhanced toughness of up to $\Delta\phi/m = \sigma_f/\rho$, where ρ is the fibre mass density, i.e. the toughness can be as large as the specific strength of the material. In [29], macroscopic synthetic polymer fibres were considered, finding consistent toughness improvements, surpassing for the first time 1000 J/g for an ultra-high-molecular-weight polyethylene (Dyneema®) fibre with multiple knots.

As is well known, a size reduction implies a variation in the critical defect distribution, and therefore a potential increase in fibre strength, albeit with an increased experimental difficulty in handling and testing the fibres. In this paper, we implement the concept of knots as dissipators in microfibres to reach unprecedented toughness enhancement values and prove the feasibility of the approach even at the micro-scale, considering both synthetic polymer micro-fibres (Section 2) and CNT fibres (Section 3).

2. Mechanical tests on synthetic polymeric micro-fibres

To begin, four different materials were chosen among the most commonly used high-performance micro-fibres: Glass, Kevlar®, Zylon® and Dyneema®. Carbon fibres were not considered due to their extreme fragility in bending, effectively making them impossible to handle and tie into knots. Single overhand knots were applied on the fibres so as to follow the criteria set out in [29], i.e. simultaneously maximizing k_1 , k_2 and k_3 parameters. For example, varying degrees of tightening were applied to optimize the friction during sliding in the knot

$(k_3 \rightarrow 1)$, while avoiding excessive fibre degradation, i.e. without reducing the original strength $(k_2 \rightarrow 1)$. A schematic of the knotting procedure is shown in Figure 1.

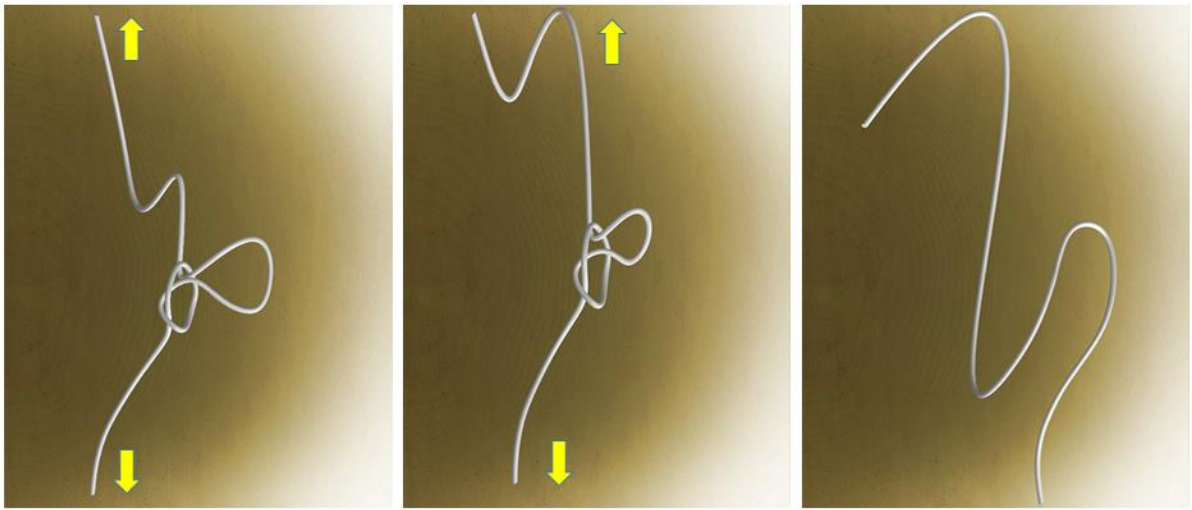


Figure 1: Schematic of the overhand knot applied to the fibres and subsequent knot disentanglement after fibre pulling. Applied force is schematically shown with arrows. Adapted from [30].

The knots were applied to the chosen fibres, taking care not to damage them during handling. To perform the tensile tests in the desired loading range, an Agilent T150 Nanotensile testing system was used, which allows nN and nm sensitivity on loads and displacements, respectively. The samples, with a typical gauge length of 20 cm, were prepared in “C”-shaped paper frames and set-up in a clamped-clamped configuration in the sample holder. The paper frame was then cut and fibres loaded up to failure at a loading rate of 1 mm/min. The micro-fibres were analysed before and after testing using a Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) to measure exact diameters, highlight surface features (which could be correlated to the friction behaviour) and observe fractured fibres after tensile tests to infer damage mechanisms. Some examples of the acquired images are shown in Figure 2, also highlighting micro-fibre fragilization due to the damage during sliding in the knotted configuration. For example, in the case of Kevlar® fibres, degradation was observed during

sliding before fracture (Figure 2a and Figure 2b), while little or no damage was observed in Zylon® fibres, with a clean fibre fracture away from the knot (Figure 2d).

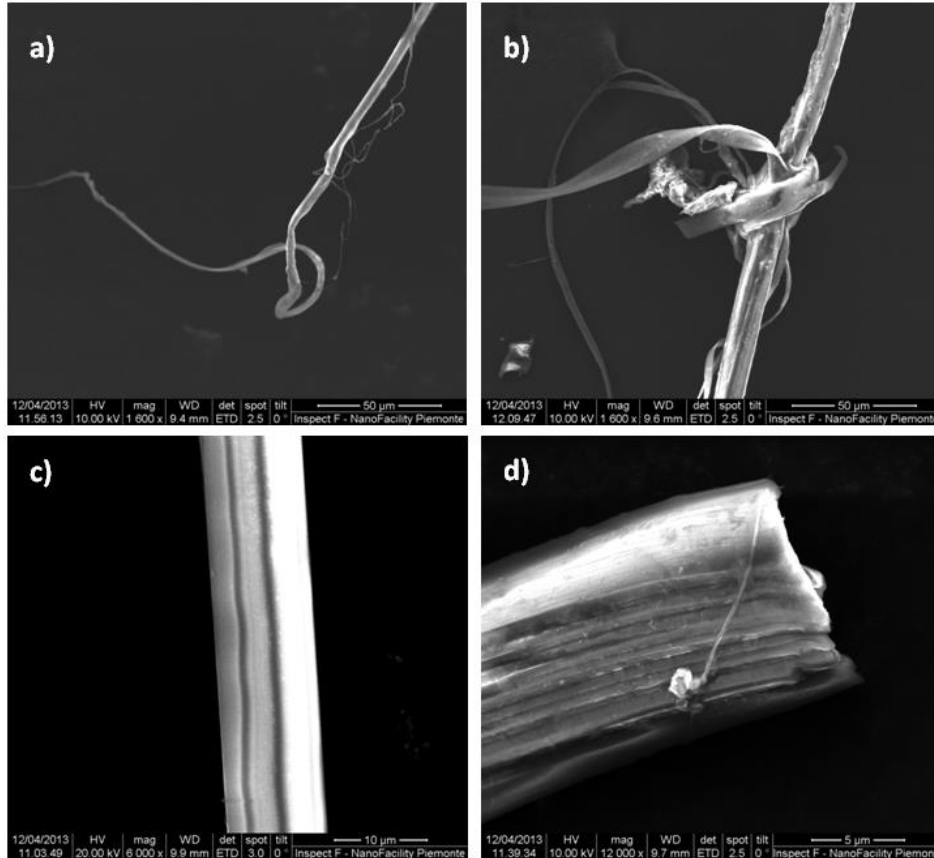


Figure 2: SEM micrographs of some of the tested polymeric microfibrils: a) fractured Kevlar® strand; b) knotted Kevlar® fibre undergoing degradation during slip; c) close-up of a Zylon® fibre; d) clean fracture on a Zylon® fibre.

Typical results for mechanical tensile tests are shown in Figure 3, for the (a) unknotted and (b) knotted configurations, respectively. Unknotted fibres showed an approximately linear stress-strain behaviour up to failure, which occurred between 2.5 and 4% strain. All specimens displayed a higher specific strength than the corresponding Dyneema® and Endumax® macro-fibres[29], i.e. between 2.5 and 3 GPa·cm³/g, except in the case of glass fibres (1.5 GPa·cm³/g). Knotted fibres, on the other hand, displayed an initial peak in the

stress-strain curve, at the onset of fibre slipping in the knot, a subsequent plastic-like stress “plateau” where energy dissipation occurred due to friction effects, and final failure at extremely high apparent strain values, i.e.: about 2000% in Zylon® and Kevlar® and up to 3000% for Dyneema®. Strain in this case is defined as $\varepsilon = x/l_0$, in relation to the knotted fibre length l_0 , hence the term “apparent”. In all of the tested fibre types, the energy dissipation plateau occurred for stress values close to the fibre strength (up to or above 50%), indicating a close-to optimized knot configuration. Correspondingly, an even greater increase in specific dissipated energy before fibre break was achieved with respect to the Endumax® tape in [18]: a 7000% improvement in the case of Zylon®, 1300% for Dyneema®, 2220% for Kevlar®, 2330% for Glass, respectively. In particular, a record value of 1401 J/g was obtained in the case of Zylon® micro-fibres, which is considerably higher than all the previous values reported in the published literature.

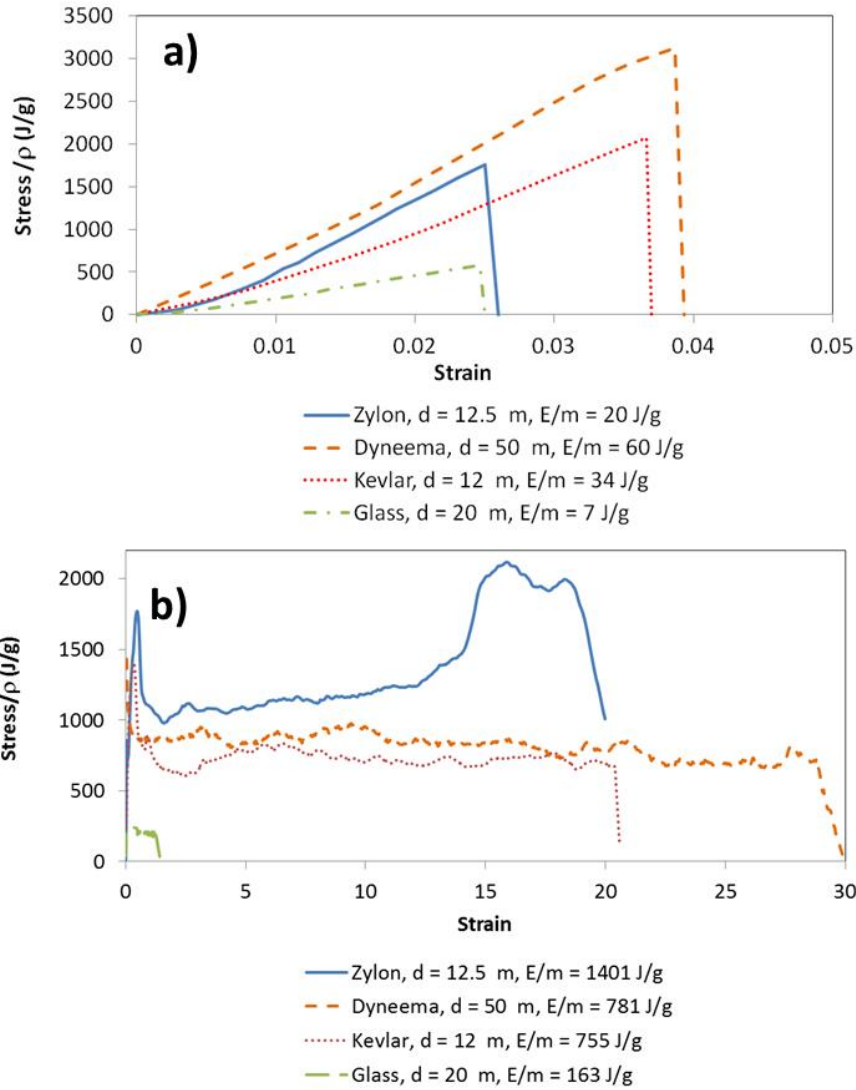


Figure 3: Stress-strain curves for micro-tensile tests on Zylon®, Dyneema®, Kevlar® and Glass micro-fibres tested in a) unknotted and b) knotted configuration. The total dissipated energy per unit mass (toughness modulus) for each curve, as well as fibre diameter, is indicated in the legend. With the micro-fibre of Zylon® and the proposed strategy we well surpassed the previous toughness world record obtained at the macroscale, which was marginally above 1000 J/g [29].

3. Mechanical tests on CNT micro-fibres

3.1 Preparation of CNT fibres

CNT fibres were prepared using the dry-spinning method, as illustrated in Figure 4, starting from the synthesis of spinnable vertically aligned CNTs. The multi-walled CNTs used for this work were synthesized in accordance with previously reported procedures [31]. The as-synthesized CNT arrays were spun into yarns, also called fibres, by drawing a CNT bundle from the array. The spinnable CNT arrays were characterized by making a continuous bundle by grabbing with tweezers and pulling one side of the vertically aligned CNTs from the array. To ensure a constant pulling speed, the bundle was attached to a 8 mm bobbin which was fixed into the shaft of an electrical motor, whose rotation speed was controlled by the supplied electrical current. A twist was also applied to the drawn CNT web as illustrated in Figure 4a. The typical length of the individual CNTs in the spinnable array is 450 μm , as shown in Figure 4b. Figure 4c shows an image of the array and the fibre at the twisting sites. Fibre twist was applied to the drawn CNTs so as to form a uniform cylindrical shaped thread. The fibres were prepared with different twist angles, and with varying diameters for constant twist angles. Different twist angles were obtained by varying the draw and rotation speed while the array width was kept constant. The uniform width of the synthesized CNT arrays was ensured by the rectangular shape of the utilized Si wafer substrates. High twist angles were obtained by increasing the twist and decreasing the draw; conversely, low twist angles were obtained by decreasing the twist and increasing the draw.. Variations in diameter were obtained by varying the width of the substrates and arrays of CNTs where the thread was drawn from (Figure 4). The draw and twist rate were held constant resulting in similar twist angles in all threads with varying diameter. The diameter used in calculations was the average diameter over 20 measurements along the thread imaged with a Keyence digital microscope. Since the CNTs were assembled without any foreign solvent interaction, the resulting thread was fairly porous with many internal voids, making it difficult to handle and detrimentally affecting the strength of the thread. To alleviate these problems, the thread was densified dipping into the organic solvent N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) for 30 minutes. This caused

air bubbles to rise to the surface. It is presumed that capillary forces of the solvent (NMP) draw the individual CNTs closer to each other and as a result the cross section of the CNT thread is reduced. The process resulted in the fibres having an approximate 30% diameter reduction with respect to the original, while densifications in acetone produced a 24% diameter reduction [32].

The afore-mentioned solvent densification typically improved the thread's overall tensile strength and made it easier to handle when adding knots with varying tightness. However, after solvent densification, the CNT thread still maintained radial compressibility, which was utilized in determining the tightness of the knot, by comparing the diameter of the thread before and after it was drawn through the micro slip-knot: tighter slip-knots produced smaller fibre diameters compared to loosely made slip-knots.

Experimental twist angles were determined by measuring the angles of the CNT alignment with a line traced parallel to the edges and located at between the edges. The traces for angle determination were performed on high-resolution SEM images and the angles were compared to the theoretical twist angle based on the equation $\varphi = \arctan(\pi \cdot d \cdot T \times 10^{-6})$, where φ is the surface twist angle, d (μm) is the diameter, and T (turns/m) is the twist.

3.2 Tensile tests

Overhand micro slip-knots (scheme shown in Figure 4d) with one or two loops were then added to each of the threads, with each type of thread having a manually prepared loose, medium, or tight micro slip-knot. A SEM image is shown in Figure 4e, where a single micro slip-knot is made by the thread starting at the top-right hand corner and ending at the bottom-left corner. A micro slip-knot with two loops was used when making tight slip-knots since a single loop slip-knot would loosen after it was tightened.

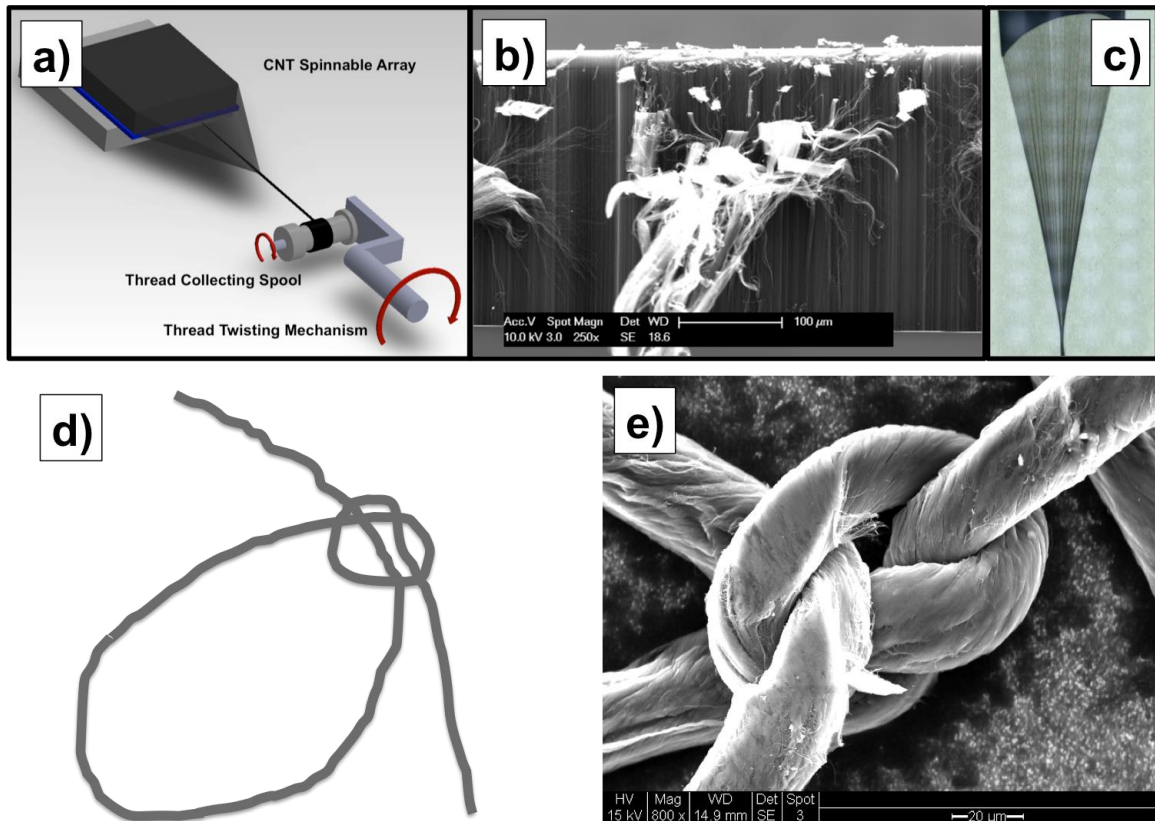


Figure 4: (a) Scheme illustrating the CNT fiber spinning from drawable CNT arrays by combining translation and rotation of the fiber, and (b) SEM image of vertically aligned CNT array used for the CNT fiber spinning. (c) Optical image of the CNT fiber spinning from vertically aligned CNTs. (d) Scheme that illustrates a micro-slipknot. (e) SEM images of a typical micro-knot of CNT thread.

As previously, for tensile testing of CNT fibres the ends of each fibre were glued onto a paper frame and experiments were conducted in an Instron tensile testing machine at a strain rate of 5 mm/min and using an active gauge length of 10 mm. All measurements were performed on threads from the same array and with the same CNT array width.

The tests were performed with the objective of achieving toughness improvements on CNT fibres as a function of various parameters. The tests were carried out for: (i) three different

diameter values and similar superficial twist angles; (ii) three different twist angles and (iii) three different tightening levels on the micro slip-knots.

The measured stress-strain curves for specimens with fibre diameters varying between 31 μm and 41 μm are shown in Figure 5a, b, c and the corresponding Young's modulus, specific strength and toughness are summarized in the first three columns of Table 1. Three different tightening levels were investigated, while the twist angle per unit length was kept constant at 24.5° . Other fibre spinning parameters such as twist rate, draw rate, array width are also included in the Table. As previously, the stress-strain curves for the knotted fibres displayed long plateau regions extending to high strain values (300%-400%) where energy dissipation takes place. As a consequence, in the presence of knots the toughness values increased by more than an order of magnitude, between 15 and 30 times the original values, reaching a highest value of 102.6 J/g. Note that toughness is no longer equal to the area under the stress-strain curve [29]. At the same time, fibre strength values remained virtually unchanged, with or without the knots, indicating that there was little fibre fragilization in the sliding phase (SEM images of the knots in the three fibres are also shown in Figure 5). The influence of fibre diameter was relatively small, although results seemed to indicate that smaller diameters could provide better strength but smaller stiffness. On the other hand, there was a strong dependence on knot tightening, as can be seen in Figure 5: a high energy-dissipation stress plateau (close to 50% the fibre strength) was achieved only in the tightest knot configurations.

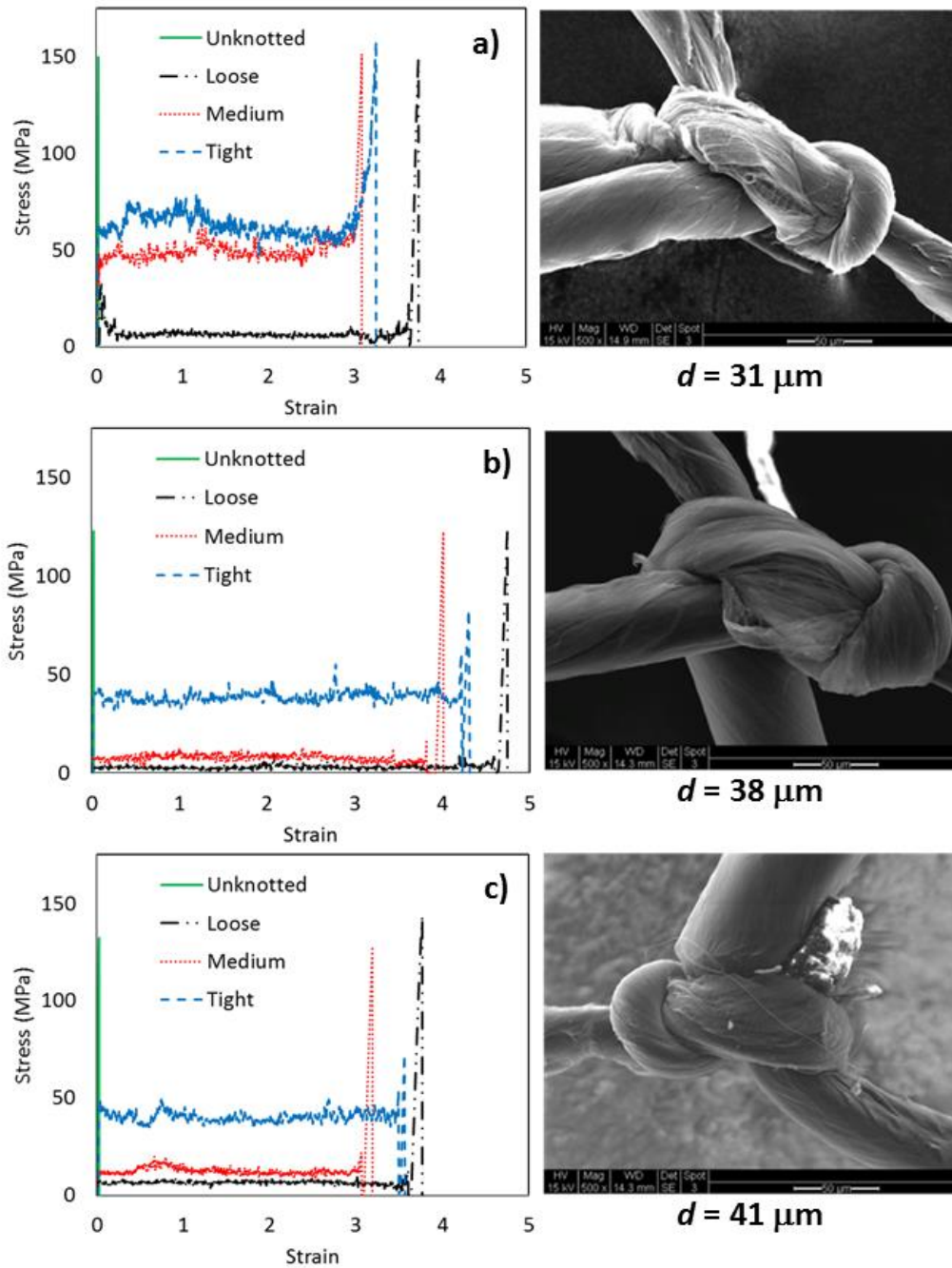


Figure 5: Stress-strain curves up to failure for CNT threads with micro-slipknots on three different diameter CNT fibres and for different levels of tightening: a) $d = 31\mu\text{m}$; b) $d = 38\mu\text{m}$; c) $d = 41\mu\text{m}$.

The dependence on fibre twist was also investigated, and the corresponding stress-strain results are shown in Figure 6a and Figure 6b, while the resulting mechanical properties and

drawing conditions are summarized in the last three columns of Table 1. Again, the addition of knots improved the fibre toughness by 5 to 24 times the original values, with a maximum of 103.8 J/g, while leaving the fibre strength virtually unchanged. The data seem to indicate that larger twist angles provide higher toughness. This could be possibly due to a higher internal friction of CNTs within the thread at higher twisting angles, which would increase specific strength and therefore toughness, due to internal friction. Another reason could be an increase in the friction of the fibre sliding in the knot for greater twist angles. Results in Figure 6 again show that the tightening of the knot is crucial for obtaining high toughness. However, for high twist angles, knot tightening plays a reduced role, since friction efficiency is on average higher than for low twist angles.

| | Thin Diameter | Medium Diameter | Thick Diameter | Low Twist Angle | Medium Twist Angle | High Twist Angle |
|--|---------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Highest recorded Toughness for the knotted thread (J.g ⁻¹) | 93.3 | 89.2 | 102.6 | 53.4 | 103.8 | 96.8 |
| Unknotted Thread Toughness (J.g ⁻¹) | 3.1 | 3.7 | 7.1 | 4.1 | 4.4 | 18.9 |
| Strength to Density Ratio (J.g ⁻¹) | 298.2 | 348.6 | 474.5 | 529.3 | 405.8 | 340.0 |
| Young's Modulus (GPa) | 7.85 | 8.88 | 9.41 | 5.12 | 8.88 | 2.34 |
| Diameter (µm) | 31 | 38 | 41 | 41 | 31 | 30 |

| | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Twist Angle (°) | 24.5 | 24.5 | 24.5 | 18 | 24.5 | 46.5 |
| Twist Rate (RPM) | 913 | 913 | 913 | 760 | 913 | 1140 |
| Draw Rate (RPM) | 11 | 11 | 11 | 16 | 11 | 4 |
| Array Width (mm) | 10 | 16 | 18 | 10 | 10 | 10 |
| Density (g.cm ⁻³) | 0.53 | 0.35 | 0.30 | 0.28 | 0.30 | 0.49 |

Table 1. Mechanical properties of the knotted and unknotted CNT fibres for different diameter values and levels of knot tightening, while keeping twist angles constant (columns 1-3), and for varying diameters and twist angles (columns 4-6).

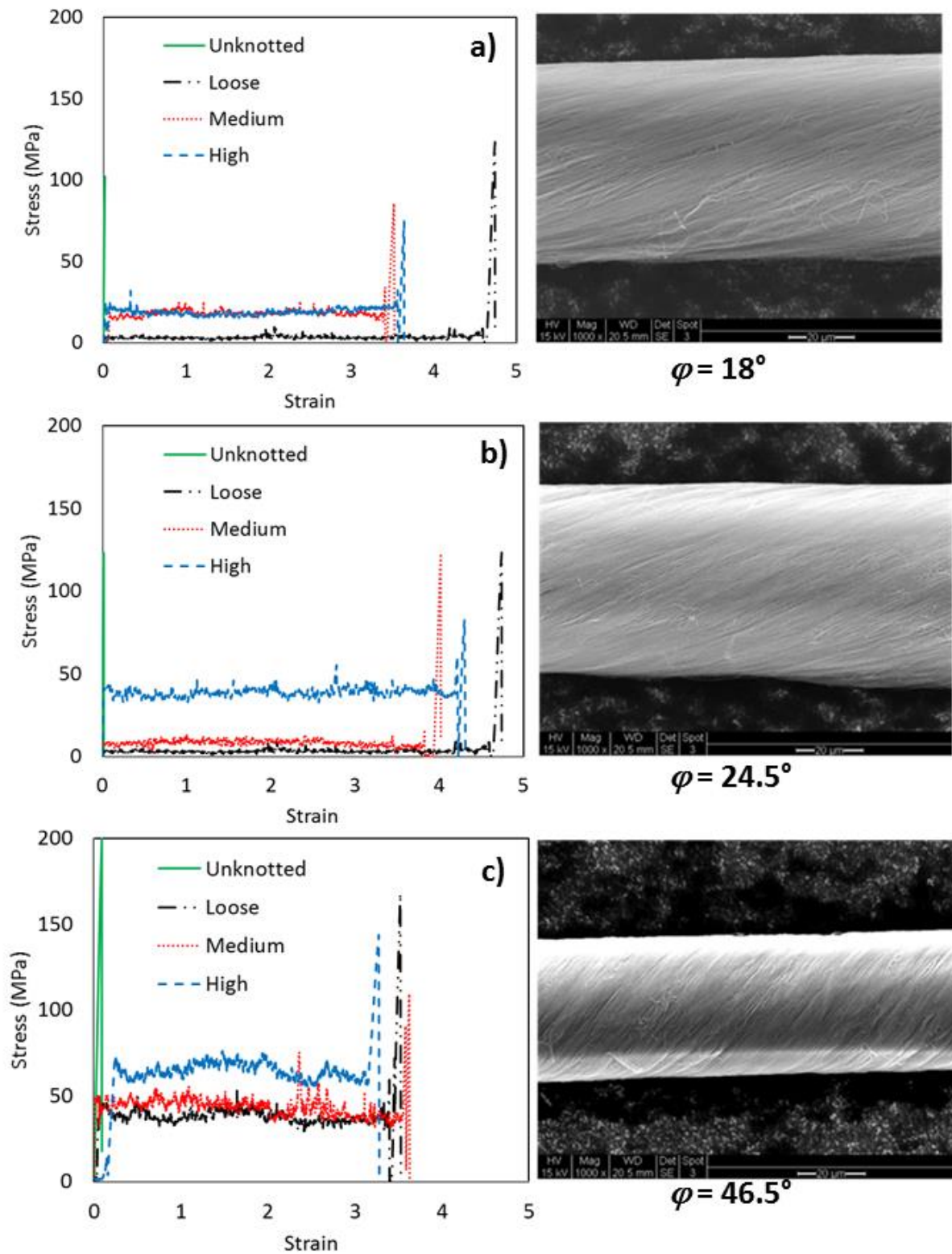


Figure 6: Stress-strain curves up to failure for CNT threads with micro-slip knots using three different twist angles: a) $\varphi = 18^\circ$; b) $\varphi = 24.5^\circ$; c) $\varphi = 46.5^\circ$.

To assess the influence of the type of knot more quantitatively, the friction of the micro slip-knot was increased progressively by increasing the number coils forming it [29]. Thus, significantly greater toughness values were achieved, with better control. Figure 7a shows the toughness and specific strength values corresponding to CNT threads with single, double and triple micro slip-knots. The increase in toughness is initially approximately proportional to the number of coils, due to the larger friction forces that can be achieved on the fibre by increasing the knot pressure. A similar monotonic dependence cannot be reliably established for fibre strength, as can be seen in Figure 7b, but results show that an increase in number of knots does not necessarily lead to fibre weakening. In the best case, a maximum toughness value of 439 J/g is achieved, with a corresponding specific strength of 1280 J/g. These values correspond to an approximate increase of 50 times in toughness with respect to the unknotted CNT fibre, with an unvaried strength (within experimental uncertainty).

The effect of multiple coils was also studied in separate experiments. Control of knot tightness was arduous, due to the small CNT fibre size, and therefore reduced visibility, difficult manipulation, and risk of fibre damage. However, indications regarding knot tightness could be obtained by monitoring the diameter reduction of the threads passing through the knot: average diameter reductions of 10%, 21% and 36% were obtained for 1, 2 and 3 coils, respectively. These values are partially indicative of higher pressure with an increasing number of coils, and possibly a higher contact area, leading to greater friction forces and an increase in overall toughness, but also of enhanced wear [33]. The latter hypothesis is supported by the observation in SEM images of CNTs accumulating on the knot surface. Assuming that the diameter reduction is due exclusively to wear, it is possible to deduce an upper bound of the wear loss WL per unit dissipated energy due to frictional sliding $\Delta\phi$, as shown in Figure 7c. The dependence between WL and $\Delta\phi$ is approximately linear, so that the ratio between dissipated energy and wear loss $\Delta\phi / WL$ can be taken as the

characteristic wear resistance WR of the system, finding $WR = (0.56 \pm 0.01) \text{ mJ} \cdot \text{m}/\text{mm}^3$. To our knowledge, this is the first experimental estimation of wear resistance for a CNT fibre.

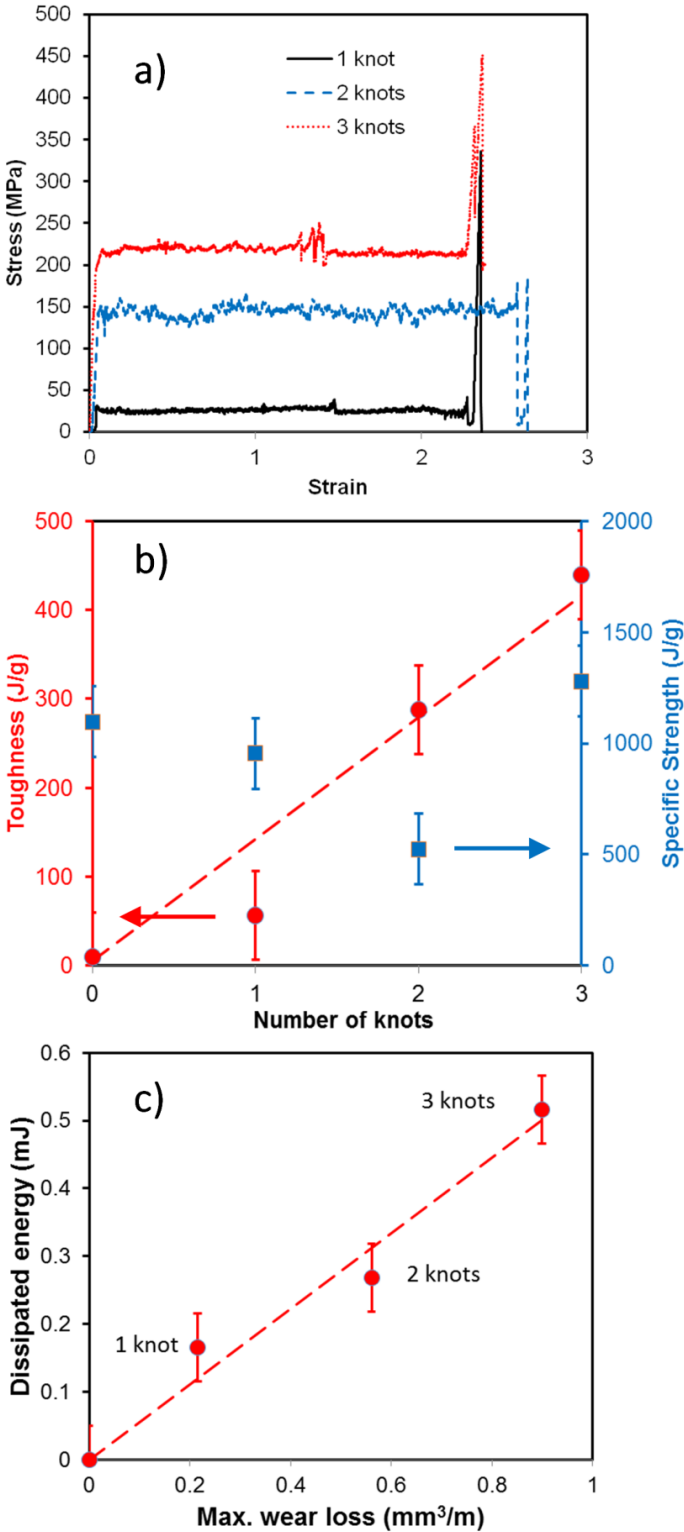


Figure 7: a) Stress-strain curves up to failure for CNT threads with multiple micro-knots; b) Toughness and specific strength variation vs. number of micro-knots in the fibres; c) Dissipated energy in friction as a function of maximum wear loss for fibres with multiple micro-knots.

4. Conclusions

To summarize the results discussed in this paper and compare them with previous results in the literature on macrofibres with outstanding mechanical properties, we have represented them in a toughness vs. strength plot in Figure 8. Specific strength is considered, in order to compare materials with different densities. The plot highlights the huge increase in toughness, (roughly two orders of magnitude) that can be achieved through the use of slip-knots as energy dissipators. This strategy has allowed us to obtain in Zylon® microfibres the highest toughness value to date for any given fibre.

The figure also shows that high-strength values are a prerequisite for high toughness values when using knotted fibres, in accordance with Equation (1). This is in contrast with the usual behaviour of artificial materials, where strength and toughness are competing properties. This consideration immediately leads us to consider CNTs as ideal candidates for the realization of fibres with maximal strength and toughness. With this in mind, we have successfully demonstrated the experimental feasibility of using slipknots in CNT fibres, proving that fibre degradation is minimal and that the knots can be introduced in a controlled and repeatable fashion, which also allows parameter optimization, such as fibre twist or diameter, to maximize the desired properties. Experiments also allow the estimation for the first time of the wear resistance of CNT fibres.

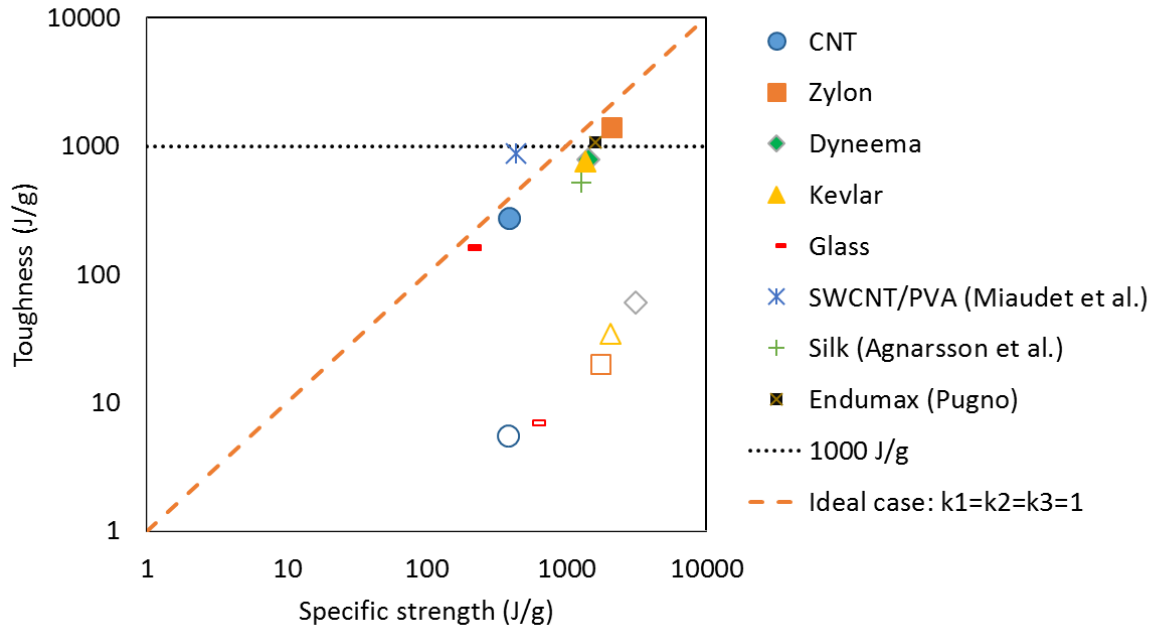


Figure 8: Summary of toughness vs. specific strength values obtained in this paper, compared to previous outstanding results in the literature: silk [7], SWCNT/PVA [17], or Endumax [29]. The 1000 J/g toughness level (dotted line) and the toughness limit using a knot (dashed line) are provided as a reference. The plot demonstrates how using knots as energy dissipators allows an increase of 2 orders of magnitude in toughness, regardless of the material. Zylon® microfibres achieve the highest values to date, but CNT fibres as considered in this work could ideally surpass this, if sufficiently high strength values are achieved and knot dissipation optimized.

The next step will be to adopt the same strategy with higher strength CNT fibres, or in composite synthetic polymer fibres reinforced with CNTs or Graphene. Improved knot topology or more complicated sliders could also be considered to optimize toughness enhancement. This should allow us to further optimize mechanical properties and fully exploit the potential of the proposed idea, thus opening the way to its full application in fibre-related

technologies in various industrial sectors (e.g., sporting goods, automotive, aerospace, protective devices).

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