Development of High Shrinkage Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) Shape Memory Polymer Tendons for Concrete Crack Closure

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ABSTRACT

The shrinkage force exerted by restrained shape memory polymers can potentially be used to close cracks in structural concrete. This paper describes the physical processing and experimental work undertaken to develop high shrinkage die-drawn Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) shape memory polymer tendons for use within a crack closure system. The extrusion and die-drawing procedure used to manufacture a series of PET tendon samples is described. The results from a set of restrained shrinkage tests, undertaken at differing activation temperatures, are also presented along with the mechanical properties of the most promising samples.

The stress developed within the tendons is found to be related to the activation temperature, the cross-sectional area and to the draw rate used during manufacture. Comparisons with commercially-available PET strip samples used in previous research are made, demonstrating an increase in restrained shrinkage stress by a factor of two for manufactured PET filament samples.

1 INTRODUCTION

Shape Memory Polymers (SMPs) alter their physical shape in response to various stimuli, such as a change in heat, light (UV and infrared) or chemical concentration (e.g. moisture, pH). The simplest type of SMP is formed from amorphous polymer. In this case the SMP is created...
by heating the material to a temperature above the glass transition temperature ($T_g$), inducing molecular chain orientation by stretching it, and then freezing in the orientation by cooling. The orientation can be released at a later time by increasing the temperature to a trigger temperature, which is at or above $T_g$, at which point the material reverts wholly or partially to its pre-oriented shape. Other types of SMP can be formed from semi-crystalline polymer, in which case the stretching and trigger temperatures will be governed by the temperature dependence of the mechanical properties of the crystals. Similar macroscopic physical behaviour can be accomplished for both amorphous and semicrystalline polymer, and in either case this shape change ability can be categorised as a shape memory effect (SME).\textsuperscript{1,2,4}

If an amorphous SMP, having been stretched into its oriented state ("programmed"), is then heated above $T_g$ while restrained, a restrained shrinkage stress will be generated. Restrained shrinkage stresses observed in unmodified SMPs generally range from a few tenths of a megapascal (MPa) to a few tens of MPa, depending on the material and programming regime used.\textsuperscript{2,5,6} A key parameter which determines the final stress achieved is the temperature at which the SMP has been programmed, and the maximum value for the stress upon reheating generally occurs at or near the programming temperature initially used.\textsuperscript{3,7} The restrained shrinkage stress also depends upon the programming strain and strain rate.\textsuperscript{3,7}

The magnitude of the restrained shrinkage stress is positively correlated with the energy stored by the SMP during deformation, and is limited by the relatively low elastic modulus of the material in the rubbery state (above $T_g$). Efforts to improve the rubbery state elastic modulus have included increasing the cross-linking density and the incorporation of fillers into the polymer matrix. Common fillers include carbon nanotubes (CNTs) and carbon nanofibres (CNFs), as well as glass or Kevlar fibres, carbon powders and SiC particles.\textsuperscript{5,6} Such
inclusions have been shown to increase the recovery stress; however, the associated increase in cost and $T_g$ of the SMP would likely be a prohibiting factor within a concrete crack closure system. The focus of the experiments within this paper, therefore, is on comparing the restrained shrinkage stresses of unmodified drawn PET (in essentially amorphous form) with differing cross sections and processing methods.

In terms of thermal activation, the triggering temperature must be chosen to suit the application. Polymers may be specially formulated to produce the required activation temperatures. In this case, the upper limit to the trigger temperature is governed by the presence of setting concrete which can be damaged at temperatures above 100°C.

In amorphous polymers, the temperature for both inducing orientation and triggering shape recovery are closely related to $T_g$. PET has a glass transition temperature in the range 60 – 80°C. Previous work undertaken at Cardiff University suggested that the peak uniaxial shrinkage stress for drawn PET tape is achieved at 120 °C; however, to ensure the system can be activated within concrete, an activation temperature of 90°C was chosen for the experiments described in this paper.

The purpose of this paper is to expand on the previous work on the use of shape memory polymer tendons as a crack closure system within concrete structural elements. A number of other investigators have explored the use of shape memory materials for closing, or preventing, cracks in a range of other materials. The particular interest of the current work is large structural concrete applications, for which higher shrinkage stresses than those previously observed are required for the crack closure system to be viable. The shrinkage stress value sought is of the order of 100MPa but lower values, in the range 30-50MPa, would allow the system to close early age cracks and enhance autogenous healing mechanisms.
This paper describes some new restrained shrinkage stress experiments on a set of manufactured drawn PET samples of varying cross-section, which were undertaken with the aim of finding a higher shrinkage stress solution for use within the concrete crack closure system.

The polymer samples tested in the present investigation, with the exclusion of the commercially available PET shrink tite strips, are bespoke and have been produced at Bradford University for the purpose of assessing their potential for use within the concrete crack closure system. SMPs have never before been manufactured specifically for this purpose and maximising the polymer restrained shrinkage stress, for use within a cementitious system, is the long-term objective of the present work.

The geometry of the tendons tested, including their lengths of the elements and cross-sectional areas, were chosen to provide data relevant to the type of tendon required for typical structural elements.19

2 EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

An experimental study into the restrained shrinkage stress generated by both commercially available PET strips and PET filament samples produced at Bradford University of varying cross-section is now described. Details of the specimens tested are given in in TABLE 1 and an image of the cross-sections of all manufactured samples shown in Figure 2.
**TABLE 1 Details of shape memory polymer samples tested**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Designation</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Dimensions (unit)</th>
<th>Draw ratio</th>
<th>Draw rate (mm min(^{-1}))</th>
<th>Tests and repetitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strips</td>
<td>Oriented PET(^a)</td>
<td>0.046mm thickness 32mm width</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>TS1 3, TS2 1, TS3 10, TS4 3, TS5 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid filament</td>
<td>Drawn PET</td>
<td>0.95mm dia.</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>TS1 3, TS2 1, TS3 10, TS4 3, TS5 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filament tube</td>
<td>Drawn PET</td>
<td>0.95mm dia.</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>TS1 1, TS2 1, TS3 10, TS4 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube</td>
<td>Drawn PET</td>
<td>6.61mm external dia. 2.56mm internal dia.</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>40 (initial)</td>
<td>TS1 1, TS2 1, TS3 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube with filaments</td>
<td>Drawn PET</td>
<td>6.54mm dia.</td>
<td>4.0 (tube)</td>
<td>40 (initial)</td>
<td>TS1 1, TS2 1, TS3 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Manufacturing details commercially sensitive

### 2.1 Material manufacturing details

**PET solid and tube filament**

For the PET solid filaments and tube filaments, a commercial grade of PET (Dow Lighter C93) was obtained in granular form. This polymer has a \(T_g\) of 78 °C according to manufacturer's figures and is recommended for injection moulding, stretch blow moulding and thermoforming. It was first made into fibres by melt extrusion. This was done using a single-screw Killion S1748 25 mm extruder operating at a screw speed of 15 rpm and a screw pressure of 30 bar. The maximum melt temperature in the extruder was 280 °C and the die head was at 270 °C. The material was extruded through a circular die of 4mm internal...
diameter and hauled off at 5m min\(^{-1}\). On exit from the die it was cooled in a glycerol bath at room temperature. The final diameter of the cooled product was 1.8 mm.

The second stage of the process was to introduce molecular orientation into the fibres. The technique of die-drawing was used, as described for polymers by Coates and Ward\(^{20}\). Fibre at room temperature was pulled through a 1.5 m length fan-assisted oven with a controlled air temperature. On exit from the oven, it entered a converging conical die with cone angle 30\(^{\circ}\) and final diameter 1 mm, held at a constant temperature. After the die, the fibre was gripped by a caterpillar-type haul-off device operating at a constant linear speed. Since the highest levels of orientation are associated with the highest haul-off speeds and lowest temperatures, the caterpillar speed was set at its maximum 1 m min\(^{-1}\) (corresponding to an average axial strain rate in the die of 17 s\(^{-1}\)) and both the oven and die temperatures were lowered in 1 °C increments from 80 °C until stress whitening and failure of the fibre were observed at 75 °C. The die temperature was then raised incrementally until satisfactory fibre was produced; the final settings were thus 75 °C in the oven and 80°C in the die. After exiting the die, further drawing took place during cooling between the die and the caterpillar, resulting in a final diameter of 0.9 mm, corresponding to a draw ratio of 4.0. At the start of the process the haul-off force was measured as 80 N, and this reduced to a steady load of 50 N as the process stabilised; these loads correspond to stresses of 99 and 62 MPa respectively, to be compared with the yield strength of 55 MPa according to the manufacturer’s data sheet.

**PET tube**

The outer cylinder was made from the same grade of PET as with the monofilaments described above. Tubes were extruded using the same Killion extruder operating at a screw
speed of 70 rpm and a pressure of 200 bar. The maximum temperature in the extruder was 280 °C and the die head was at 260 °C. Extrusion was through a circular section die of diameter 14 mm, with a central internal pin of diameter 4 mm to create the central hole. The haul-off speed was 500 mm min⁻¹ and final dimensions were outer diameter 13 mm and inner diameter 6 mm.

The tubes were then die-drawn from 1 m lengths through a 30° conical die with an exit diameter of 7 mm. Otherwise, the die-drawing equipment was as used for the drawing of the monofilaments described above. Both the die and oven air temperatures were set at 75 °C. The initial haul-off speed was 40 mm min⁻¹ (corresponding to an average strain rate in the die of 0.1 s⁻¹), and was increased during the die-drawing process to reach the maximum draw ratio. The tube’s final outer diameter was on average 6.61 mm, corresponding to a draw ratio of 3.9.

*PET tube with filaments*

An alternative system was studied that consisted of PET monofilaments inside the hollow PET tube samples. This was assembled in its initial isotropic state (see configuration in Figure 1) and then the complete assembly was die-drawn.

![Figure 1 Indicative cross-section of multifilament system before drawing. Dimensions in mm](image)
The internal fibres were extruded from Tergal grade T74F9 PET. Extruder and die temperatures were both 280 °C, with extrusion through a 2.5 mm spinneret at a screw speed of 5.4 rpm to achieve a final fibre diameter of 1.2 mm. The outer cylinder was manufactured following the same process described for the PET tube samples. 1 m lengths of tube and filaments were assembled and then die-drawn through a 30° conical die with an exit diameter of 7 mm, following the same procedure as for the PET tube samples. This resulted in a final external diameter of 6.54 mm for the samples, with internal fibres of average diameter 0.57 mm. This corresponds to a draw ratio of 4.0 for the tubes and 4.4 for the internal fibres.

**FIGURE 2 Manufactured PET samples, left to right: tube with filaments, tube, solid filament, filament tube**

**PET strips (commercially available)**

The PET strip specimens are commercially available under the name ‘shrink tite tape’ and were obtained from Cytec.\(^{21}\) The shrink tite strips used in a previous study were purchased from Aerovac, part of the Umeco Composites group, which was acquired by Cytec in 2012.\(^{21}\) These strips are made from oriented PET but the manufacturing details are not available.
2.2 Thermal characterisation

For the Dow Lighter C93 material, Modulated Differential Scanning Calorimetry (MDSC) was performed on 5 mg samples of both the unoriented and oriented fibres, corresponding to the two stages of fibre production outlined in the previous section. A TA Instruments Discovery DSC was used, programmed with a mean temperature ramp of $3 \, ^\circ C \, m in^{-1}$ from $0 \, ^\circ C$ to $300 \, ^\circ C$.

In order to decouple the reversible heat flow measurements from non-reversible thermal events a modulation of $\pm 1.0 \, ^\circ C$ on a period of 1 min was continuously applied to the samples during heating. The glass transition determined from the reversible signal of the MDSC, occurred in the range 70.10 - 77.95 $^\circ C$ for the unoriented sample, with the upper end of the range in good agreement with the manufacturer’s value of 78.0 $^\circ C$. Further unmodulated testing at a ramp of 2$^\circ C \, m in^{-1}$ established that crystallinity was in the range 9 – 12%. The results of the measurements on the oriented fibre will be discussed in section 3.1.

2.3 Equipment and test specimen preparation

Thermal triggering was achieved by direct heating in an Instron environmental chamber. Each sample was clamped within steel friction grips, which were subjected to preliminary testing to ensure there was no significant slippage of the samples during activation.

A diagram of the rig used to test each sample is shown in Figure 3. The rigs were connected to a 5kN load cell and three thermocouples were placed on the samples, denoted T1, T2 and T3. The load cell and thermocouples were attached to a data logger set to record at a rate of 1 Hz. Each sample was pre-loaded manually to a stress of 2 MPa to ensure that there was no slack which would affect the shrinkage results.
2.4 Test procedure

The samples used within each test are detailed in TABLE 1. The testing procedures used were as follows:

**Shrinkage stress at 90°C (Test Series 1, TS1):** The samples were heated to 90 °C in the environmental chamber and left for a soak time of 1 hr. The environmental chamber was then turned off and the sample allowed to cool back to room temperature. Load and temperature were measured continuously at a sample rate of 1 Hz. The *strip* and *filament* samples were tested in bundles of 10, whilst the *tube* and *tube with filaments* were tested as single samples.

**Temperature-shrinkage profile (Test Series 2, TS2):** The samples were heated to 60 °C within
an Instron environmental chamber and held at a constant temperature for 30 mins (soak
time). The temperature was then increased in 10 °C increments, keeping the soak time
constant at each increment, up to 140 °C. The environmental chamber was then turned off
and the sample allowed to cool back to room temperature. Load and temperature were
measured continuously at a sample rate of 1 Hz. The strip and filament samples were tested
in bundles of 10, while the tube and tube with filaments were tested as single samples.

**Free shrinkage (Test Series 3, TS3):** Samples of original length 305 mm were placed within
the environmental chamber and heated to 90 °C for 18 hrs. They were then allowed to cool
to room temperature and their final lengths recorded.

The above test series were used to select a form of PET for further investigation. Solid filament
and filament tube samples, having exhibited greater shrinkage stresses than the PET strips,
were then subjected to additional testing along with the strips to compare their mechanical
properties.

**Tensile strength tests (Test Series 4. TS4):** Individual PET solid filament, filament tube and
strip samples were subjected to tensile loading in a Zwick Z100 tensile testing machine.
Loading was displacement-controlled. For the PET strips, loading rates of 0.05 mm s⁻¹, 0.1 mm
s⁻¹ and 0.2 mm s⁻¹ were used to check the effect of loading rate. For the solid filament and
filament tube samples, a 0.1 mm s⁻¹ rate was used. Loading was continued until the samples
failed. PET strip samples, which had been activated (heated to 90 °C for 1 hr), were also tested
for comparison. Load and displacement were measured continuously at a sample rate of 1
Hz.
**Effect of temperature on Young’s modulus (Test Series 5, TS5):** Using a Dartec tensile testing machine and an Instron environmental chamber, individual PET solid filament samples and PET strips in stacks of four were held at a constant load, equivalent to a stress of 10 MPa, while the temperature was increased in increments of 10 °C from 30 °C to 130 °C with a soak time of 5 mins. At each temperature increment, a cyclic stress with amplitude 10 MPa was applied to the sample. Three rates of stress were used: 3.4 MPa s\(^{-1}\), 0.34 MPa s\(^{-1}\) and 0.034 MPa s\(^{-1}\). Load and displacement was measured continuously at a sample rate of 10 Hz and used to calculate Young’s modulus at each temperature.

### 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 Peak shrinkage stress in TS1 samples

In all of the TS1 samples, the peak restrained shrinkage stress, during the heating phase, occurred when the environmental chamber temperature was 90 °C. In some cases, higher stresses were observed upon cooling, which is thought to be due to the thermal contraction of the steel rig. This issue is discussed below. The peak stress results are shown in TABLE 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2 Peak restrained shrinkage stress results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Polymer</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid filament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filament tube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube with filaments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from the stress results, the highest average shrinkage stress was observed in the PET filament tube samples, with the lowest stress exhibited by the tube with filaments specimens. Both of the filament samples produced significantly higher stresses than either the strips or the larger PET tubes. The trend in these results is supported by the fact that the degree of crystallisation reduces with the cross-sectional area of a sample and that crystallisation of the polymer matrix reduces the shape recovery potential of shape memory polymers by increasing the material’s resistance to shrinkage. In addition, since the shrinkage stress is correlated to the stored energy within the polymer, maximising the force used to draw the filaments - through the use of a high drawing rate (1m min\(^{-1}\)) - further contributed to the increased shrinkage stresses in the filament samples relative to those of the tube samples (40 mm min\(^{-1}\) initial). The tube with filament samples exhibited similar shrinkage behaviour to the tube samples, indicating that the maximum stress seems to be limited by the external tube.

The graphical results of the restrained shrinkage stress at 90°C for all samples can be seen in Figure 4. In all cases, heating to 90 °C produces a rapid increase in stress followed by a plateau. Upon cooling, there was a subsequent increase of 2-3 MPa in all but one test set (i.e. 4b).
This increase in stress can be attributed to the contraction of the steel rig used to transfer the shrinkage stress of the PET to the load cell. This was later confirmed in some separate tests in which samples were heated using a system of embedded wires. This system caused no appreciable change in temperature in the steel rig. In this case, there was no increase in the polymer stress during the cooling phase.

It is noted that the peak stress observed at 90 °C in the PET strip samples is lower than the 30-35 MPa found in previous study. This variation may be due to manufacturing process...
changes since the original tests were undertaken and is discussed in more detail in section 3.5.

The filament samples produced an initial drop in stress upon cooling, which was not observed in the other samples or in previous shrinkage experiments on PET strip samples. The testing temperature of 90 °C is well above $T_g$ (78 °C), so we may assume that the shrinkage stress is entropic and is proportional to $NkT$, where $N$ is the number of molecular chains per unit volume, $k$ is Boltzmann’s constant, and $T$ is the absolute temperature. Thus, the stress drop is expected to be directly related to the drop in $T$. However, during the course of the stress drop the temperature falls below $T_g$, whereupon the stress will cease to be proportional to $NkT$ and will attain a constant value as the molecules become confined within the structure.

On this basis we would expect the ratio of stresses before and after the stress drop to be $T_{test}/T_g$, where $T_{test}$ is the testing temperature and both temperatures are expressed in degrees Kelvin.

To assess quantitatively the validity of this argument, we must decide upon the appropriate value of $T_g$ in the context of a cooling oriented polymer. Values for PET both in isotropic form and oriented to a draw ratio of 4, using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and dynamic mechanical thermal analysis (DMTA), have been found to exhibit significant differences. The $T_g$ was measured as around 80 °C for isotropic material, with the glass transition process starting at 70 °C; however, in oriented form the onset of glass transition was lower by 15 °C, with the $T_g$ correspondingly lower. We have investigated the effects of molecular orientation on the Dow Lighter material by TDSC, as described above. The measurements apply most specifically to the results of Figure 4(d).
For oriented fibre, it was possible to detect in the non-reversible signal an exothermic peak commencing at a temperature of 72.906 °C with a peak value occurring at 86.637 °C (see Figure 5). This we interpret as related to relaxation of the residual stresses, which would correspond to the onset of shrinkage stresses for a restrained specimen. This is consistent with the effectiveness of the test temperature of 90 °C.

**FIGURE 5** Results from TDSC testing on oriented fibre material.

The glass transition was not found to significantly differ from that of the unoriented material, occurring in the range 70 - 78 °C. This gives a range of values of the ratio $T_{test}/T_g$ of $1.03 < T_{test}/T_g < 1.05$, to give a maximum stress drop of 1.6 MPa from the observed maximum 35 MPa in Figure 4(d). This compares with an observed drop of 4.3 MPa. This is a significant discrepancy, for which two factors may be relevant. First, in the shrinkage experiments, the polymer is restrained while cooling, whereas it is free to contract in the TDSC tests, possibly leading to different $T_g$ values. Secondly, the temperatures in the restrained shrinkage tests
recorded are air temperatures, which during cooling will in general be higher than those obtained at the core of the fibre bundle, leading to a longer time above $T_g$.

3.2 Temperature-shrinkage profiles in TS2 specimens

The restrained shrinkage stress recorded at each temperature interval has been plotted as temperature-shrinkage profiles in Figure 6.

It is observed for the PET strip samples that the shrinkage stress starts to increase significantly when the temperature exceeds 70 °C, reaching a peak of 28.7 MPa at 130 °C. Thereafter, the stress starts to fall as the temperature increases further, which is consistent with the findings from previous tests on similar materials.\textsuperscript{10,11}

The solid filament and filament tube samples exhibited stress peaks of 41.8 MPa and 42.9 MPa respectively, both at 110 °C.

The PET tube and tube with filaments samples showed peak stresses of 18.3 MPa and 16.2 MPa respectively at the lower temperature of 90 °C. It is not clear why the peak activation temperature of the tubes are lower than the filament samples, although this could be related to the lower drawing temperature of 75 °C in comparison to the 80 °C of the filament samples and the different crystalline phase relative volumes.
The low peak shrinkage stress measured in the tube with filament samples may be associated with a degree of relative slip between the external tube and the inner filaments, both along the length of the specimens and at the grips. Such slip behaviour would cause a reduction in the contribution of the filaments to the overall composite shrinkage force and therefore to the mean shrinkage stress.

All samples show a drop in shrinkage stress beyond the peak activation temperature. This is believed to be caused by the reduction in yield stress that accompanies an increase in...
temperature, as predicted by Eyring’s model, which becomes very significant beyond 140 °C. In addition to this effect is the fact that at these temperatures the polymer has released most of the energy stored during the drawing process.

3.3 Free shrinkage tests in TS3 specimens.

Results of the free shrinkage experiments, presented in TABLE 3, show that the shrinkage at 90 °C observed for all manufactured samples exceeds that of the PET strips. This trend is attributed to the relatively high draw ratio used in the manufacture of the former specimens. The difference in draw rate between the filament samples and the tube samples does not seem to have altered the free shrinkage properties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample type</th>
<th>Number of samples</th>
<th>Draw ratio</th>
<th>Draw rate (mm s⁻¹)</th>
<th>Average shrinkage (% length)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strips</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid filament</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filament tube</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>40 (initial)</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tube with filaments</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0 (tube)</td>
<td>4.4 (int. filaments)</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The solid filament, filament tube and tube samples all produced similar free shrinkage results, whilst the shrinkage of the tube with filaments sample was 2% greater than any of the other specimens. This contrasts with the peak shrinkage results in which the tube with filaments sample produced the lowest restrained shrinkage stress. Free shrinkage in this case seems to have no correlation to the restrained shrinkage stress or to the draw rate.
It is noted that the free shrinkage strain is opposite in sign to conventional thermal expansion. The coefficient of thermal expansion of these PET materials at 20°C varies from 60 to 80 × 10⁻⁶/°C, which—in the absence of any shape memory or softening effects—would equate to an total expansion strain of approximately 0.5% over the temperature range 25 to 90°C.

### 3.4 Tensile strength tests in TS4 specimens

The results of the tensile strength tests are given in TABLE 4. The rate of loading has little effect on the tensile stress of the samples at failure. Furthermore, the tensile strengths of the activated PET strip samples are similar to those of the non-activated strips. This indicates that activating the polymers does not weaken the material in tension, which is beneficial in the context of their use within the concrete tension zone.

### TABLE 4 Tensile strength test results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Rate (mm s⁻¹)</th>
<th>Stress at failure (MPa)</th>
<th>Strain at failure (%)</th>
<th>Avg. tensile strength (MPa)</th>
<th>CoV (strength) (%)</th>
<th>Average strain at failure (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>186.5</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>189.2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>187.0</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>194.2</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>188.7</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>186.8</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>187.3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>186.4</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>177.6</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>179.7</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>PET strip</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>181.9</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>PET strip - heated</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>188.9</td>
<td>11.4</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>PET strip - heated</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>178.8</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>185.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>PET strip - heated</td>
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<td>187.3</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
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<td>0.1</td>
<td>305.2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>PET filament solid</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>309.9</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>304.9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>PET filament solid</td>
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<td>300.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>7.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
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<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>PET filament tube</td>
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<td>302.1</td>
<td>8.0</td>
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</tr>
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</table>
These results show that the solid and tube filament samples exhibit significantly higher tensile strengths than the strips. Lower ‘strain at failure’ results indicate an increased stiffness in the filament samples. These results, along with the restrained shrinkage stress values, suggest that the strip samples are probably drawn to a lower draw ratio than the filaments. This deduction is supported by the well-established trend that stiffness in drawn polymers increases with the draw ratio. This also agrees with the free shrinkage results, since a lower draw ratio for the strip samples would result in a reduced degree of orientation and therefore a smaller free shrinkage strain than measured in the other samples.

The tensile tests results indicate that the two filament types, solid and tube, have very similar tensile strength properties.

3.5 Effect of temperature on Young’s modulus in TS5 specimens

The results of the Young’s Modulus (YM) tests on the PET solid filaments and the PET strips are shown in Figure 7. As the PET solid filament and tube filament samples had exhibited almost identical shrinkage and tensile properties, having been subjected to identical methods of manufacture, YM experiments were carried out only on the solid filament samples.

At each temperature, Young’s modulus ($E_{\text{app}}$) was calculated from the loading and unloading portions of three 10 MPa stress cycles and averaged. Both the stress and strain were assumed to be uniaxial, with strain being computed from the change in displacement over the initial gauge length, and stress from the applied load divided by the undeformed area.
Figure 7: Young's Modulus with temperature for drawn PET solid filaments and PET strips (a) using 3.4 MPa s⁻¹, 0.34 MPa s⁻¹ and 0.034 MPa s⁻¹ load cycles, and (b) as an average over all load cycles.

The data presented in Figure 7 show that the $E_{ap}$ value is relatively insensitive to the stress rate for both sets of specimens. A previous study by the authors, conducted on a similar PET material, showed a slightly stronger (although still modest) stress-rate dependency. These earlier data were interpreted in the light of an SLS-based (Standard Linear Solid) rheological model in such a way that viscosity values and strain-rate independent low and high temperature Young’s moduli were extracted from the data. However, in the present case, the stress-rate dependency was considered too weak to warrant such an analysis and therefore only the average $E_{ap}$ values are presented. It is also noted that other authors have suggested that the best way to compute Young’s moduli is to use the slope of stress vs. strain response in the early unloading stages of each cycle.

The stress excursion of 10 MPa (3 to 5% of the unheated tensile strengths) is greater than the values used in some previous studies but the consistency of the results and linearity of the unloading-reloading cycle suggest that this stress change value was reasonable.
For both polymer forms, there is a clear reduction in $E_{app}$ with increasing temperature. This is expected because the slower the testing rate the greater will be the contribution to strain changes from viscous effects. Furthermore, as the melting point of the polymer is approached the polymer softens. The results show a clear drop in $E_{app}$ once the glass transition temperature of around 70 °C has been reached, with continuing loss of stiffness to 130 °C.

The *filament* samples produced significantly higher $E_{app}$ values than the *strips*, which is consistent with the findings from the tensile strength tests. We note that the strip results presented here are significantly different from those obtained in the previous study,\textsuperscript{10} where higher $E_{app}$ results were observed for the commercially available *strips*, around 6000 MPa at 30 °C compared to below 4000 MPa measured for the current samples. This difference may be due to a change in the processing of the *strip* samples during manufacture, which would also explain the differences in shrinkage stress results. These findings suggest that the commercially available strips were previously drawn to a higher draw ratio, leading to higher orientation and stiffness in the samples tested in previous studies.\textsuperscript{10,11}

### 3.6 General Discussion

Neither long-term relaxation, nor its creep counterpart, were considered in the present work. The Cardiff team\textsuperscript{28} has previously investigated the relaxation of shrinkage stresses over a 6 month period for Shrinkite PET samples.\textsuperscript{26} The main conclusions from this study were that the long-term relaxation of the restrained shrinkage stress in drawn PET is relatively small, i.e. 2 to 3 % of the peak stress, and the majority of stress loss occurs over the first 12 days after activation. The same conclusions cannot be transferred to other polymers.\textsuperscript{25}
The work reported in this paper concentrated on peak shrinkage stresses but, as with all prestress systems, there will be some losses due to concrete creep and shrinkage, as well as relaxation of the tendons, although the latter losses are likely to be small for reasons explained above. The present system is targeted at closing early-age cracks and promoting the conditions for early-age autogenous healing; therefore, long-term losses are of secondary importance.

4 CONCLUSIONS

Experiments undertaken to test the shrinkage stress of PET samples of varying cross-section and processing histories has resulted in the development of a high shrinkage PET filament for use within a concrete crack closure system.

It is concluded from our tests that the restrained shrinkage stress potential in drawn PET samples increases with increasing draw ratio, increasing draw rate and decreasing specimen cross-section. The restrained shrinkage stresses achieved in a series of drawn PET filament specimens, manufactured at Bradford University, were significantly larger than those obtained from the commercially available PET strips used in previous experiments. The shrinkage stress measured was also higher than that produced by PET tube and tube with filament samples subjected to similar die-draw processing. This is attributed to a higher draw rate resulting in a greater amount of stored energy within the filament samples.

The PET filaments exhibited a stress drop upon cooling not previously observed for drawn polymer samples. This is believed to be due to the drop in stress caused by a reduction in the entropic elasticity with falling temperature (for T below T_g) being greater than the increase in
stress from restrained thermal contraction. It is concluded that the balance between these mechanisms is different in the PET filaments from that in the other materials tested.

This programme of work has succeeded in developing a PET form which produces approximately double the restrained shrinkage stress potential, and 1.7 times the tensile strength, of commercially available strip samples. The PET filament, having exhibited the largest shrinkage stress potential, has been subsequently used in a series of crack closure experiments in concrete structural elements.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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