

**Feasibility Studies on Ultra High Molecular Weight  
Polyethylene/Multi Walled Carbon Nanotubes  
Composites for Total Joint Replacements**

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award  
of the Degree of

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

by

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## Certificate

It is certified that the work contained in the thesis entitled “**Feasibility Studies on Ultra High Molecular Weight Polyethylene/Multi Walled Carbon Nanotubes Composites for Total Joint Replacements**” submitted by **Mr. P.S. Rama Sreekanth** to the Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati for the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy has been carried out under my supervision in the department of mechanical engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati. This work has not been submitted elsewhere for the award of any other degree or diploma.

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P. S. Rama Sreekanth

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## Abstract

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Ultra high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE) has been the prime choice for total joint replacements (TJR) owing to its unique attributes like good mechanical properties and wear resistance compared to most of the commonly used engineering polymers. However, some of the critical issues like osteolysis, wear debris generation, and property degradation after irradiation still remain prime concern. In order to seek a solution for some of the problems, it is proposed to develop multi walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) based UHMWPE composites having improved mechanical properties and wear characteristics compared to that of UHMWPE. The MWCNTs were chemically functionalized and physically blended with UHMWPE in a ball milling machine for 45 minutes to form homogeneous mixture with different concentrations such as 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5 and 5.0 wt. % of reinforcement. In order to compare the antioxidant activity of MWCNTs with currently employed antioxidant, UHMWPE was blended with 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 wt. % of alpha-Tocopherol ( $\alpha_T$ ). The physically blended powders of UHMWPE/MWCNTs and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  were then compression moulded to obtain the test sample in the form of a sheet having the dimension of 20 mm  $\times$  20 mm and 0.5 mm thick.

The mechanical properties of the composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were studied according to ASTM D1708 standard. The optimum concentration of MWCNTs in UHMWPE was found to be 2 wt. %, where the work to failure, fracture stress, strain at fracture, and yield stress of the medical grade UHMWPE were enhanced by 176, 93, 70 and 44 %, respectively. However, the presence of  $\alpha_T$  was not found to influence the mechanical properties of UHMWPE. The mechanisms related to the enhancement of mechanical properties of UHMWPE upto an optimum concentration of MWCNTs were identified as inherent properties of reinforcement, homogenous dispersion of MWCNTs in UHMWPE, effective stress transfer from UHMWPE to MWCNTs,

and the improved crystallinity of the composites. The hardness and Young's modulus of UHMWPE were found to be enhanced by 75 and 170 %, respectively, whereas the plasticity index was reduced by 17 % for 2 wt. % composites.

In order to estimate the antioxidant potentialities of MWCNTs and compare them with that of  $\alpha_T$ , the composites and blends were gamma irradiated at 25, 50, 75 and 100 kGy doses. The mechanical properties of all the test samples were evaluated on a time scale of within 10 days, 60 and 120 days after irradiation. The work to failure and yield stress of the composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were increased with irradiation dose within 10 days after irradiation, whereas they were continuously decreased after 60 and 120 days of irradiation due to free radical induced oxidation. The strain at fracture of irradiated composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends was also decreased continuously with ageing. The degradation of mechanical properties of UHMWPE was increased with irradiation dose but it was decreased exponentially with an increase of MWCNTs concentration, whereas a linear decreasing trend was observed in case of  $\alpha_T$  blends. The mechanism related to the role of MWCNTs acting as an antioxidant has been confirmed. The crosslink density and radical concentration studies revealed that the presence of MWCNTs has not restricted the crosslinking of the polymer, whereas the presence of  $\alpha_T$  showed an opposite trend. The electron spin resonance (ESR) studies revealed that the free radical concentration was found to be reduced with an increase of MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  concentration in UHMWPE. The antioxidant activity exhibited by 2 wt. % MWCNTs in UHMWPE was similar to that of 0.1 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE. Wear studies on composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were performed using a pin-on-disc Tribometer for the sliding distance of 20 km before and after irradiation. The wear factor of unirradiated UHMWPE was reduced to 71, 59, 44 and 27 % upon adding 2 wt. % MWCNTs, 100 kGy irradiated 0.1 wt. %  $\alpha_T$ , 100 kGy irradiation and a combination of 2 wt. % MWCNTs

and 100 kGy irradiation, respectively. The biocompatibility of 2 wt. % composite was studied, where the bone bonding ability, anti-platelet adhesion, and non-irritant behavior of composites were confirmed by *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies. Based on the above study, it is concluded that the MWCNTs reinforced UHMWPE composites can be explored as a potential alternative for total joint replacements to enhance the longevity of the implant material by reducing the material related implant failures.



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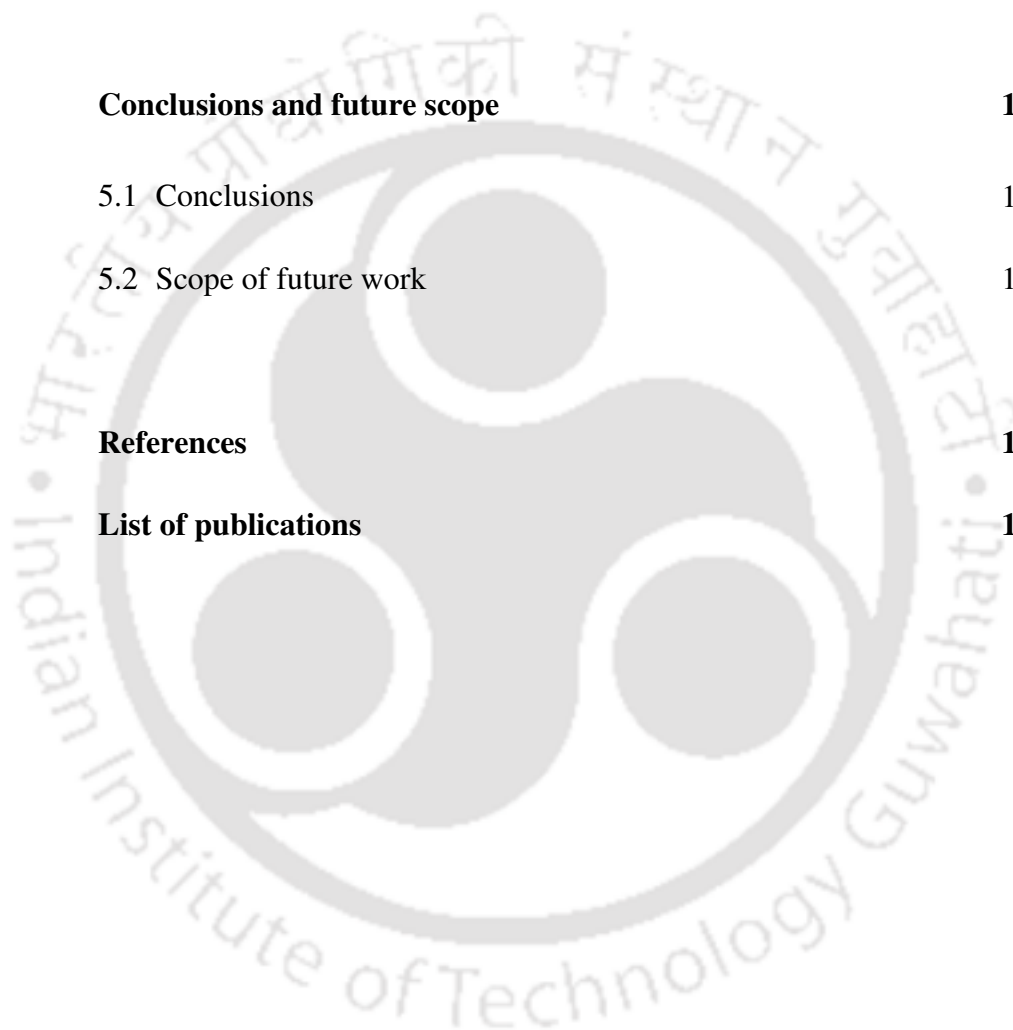
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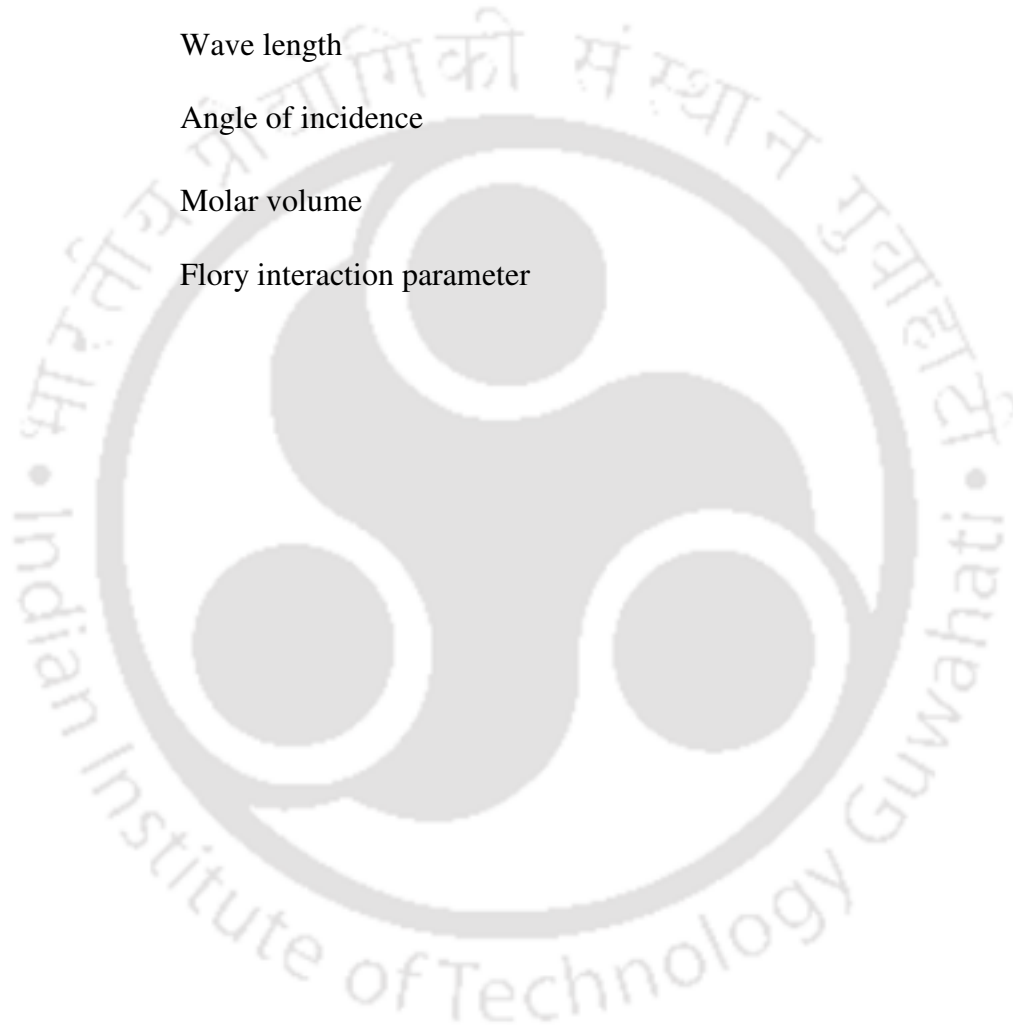
## Nomenclature

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$A$	Projected area
$H$	Hardness
$L$	Sliding distance
$P$	Applied load
$S$	Stiffness
$V$	Wear volume
$A_{\max}$	Maximum contact area
$A_1$	Plastic work done
$A_2$	Elastic work recovered
$E^*$	Reduced Young's modulus
$H_F$	Final height
$H_0$	Initial height
$H_s$	Heat of fusion of sample
$H_f$	Heat of fusion of 100 % crystalline polymer
$H_r$	Resonance frequency
$P_{\max}$	Maximum load
$d$	Interplanar spacing
$g$	Spectral splitting factor
$n$	Order of diffraction
$q_s$	Swell ratio
$h_{\max}$	Maximum depth

$h_c$	Contact depth
$h_r$	Residual depth
$\beta$	Bhor magneton
$v$	Indenter shape parameter
$v_d$	Crosslink density
$\lambda$	Wave length
$\theta$	Angle of incidence
$\emptyset_1$	Molar volume
$\chi_1$	Flory interaction parameter



# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Definition of a Biomaterial

Biomaterial is a material used to make devices to replace a part or a function of the body in a safe, reliable, economic, and physiologically acceptable manner, Hench et al. [1982]. Materials of a wide variety are being used for different devices and the treatment of disease or injury. These primarily include simple and common items such as sutures, needles, catheters, plates, tooth fillings and the devices for complete heart replacement, lung assist devices and total joint replacements. A good number of definitions has been proposed for the term biomaterials over the years. In a simple term a *biomaterial* can be defined as “A synthetic material used to replace part of a living system or to function in intimate contact with living tissue and does not trigger any adverse biological reactions”, Black [1992].

Biomaterials are classified primarily in three ways, Park et al. [2003]. First, the biomaterials may be considered from the point of view of the problem that is to be solved, e.g. replacement of diseased or damaged part, assist in healing, improve functionality and correct cosmetic problems. Second is based on tissue level, organ level or a system level, e.g. Heart, lung, eye, ear and bone. Third is the classification of materials in order to meet the requirements specified as above, e.g. Polymers (nylon, silicone rubber, polyester, polyethylene, etc.) are used in sutures, blood vessels, hip socket, ear, nose and other soft tissues; Metals (Ti and its alloys, Co-Cr alloys, Stainless steels, Au, Ag, Pt, etc) are used in joint replacements, bone plates and screws, dental implants, pacemaker and suture wires; Ceramics (Alumina and Zirconia) are used in dental implants, femoral head in hip prosthesis and other orthopedic applications. The following two parameters are required to be considered when a material is intended to be used as a biomaterial: (i) the effect of

the body environment on the material and (ii) the effect of the material on the biological system, Park et al. [2003].

The field of biomaterials has evolved over the past 50 years from the innovation of individual medical devices to the most sophisticated equipments to save the lives of the patients by integrating science and technology for the betterment of the overall medical service systems. The number of medical devices used in the USA and globally is given in Table 1.1, Ratner et al. [2004], and the illustration of various devices and implants that are intended to use in the human body is shown in Figure 1.1, Park et al. [2007]. Although a number of devices used for blood bags, catheters and contact lenses is several times more compared to cardiovascular and orthopedic devices, nonetheless, the revenue involved with them is relatively less. The revenue involved in cardiovascular devices was about 6 billion USD in 2002 and that of orthopedic devices was 4.7 billion USD in 1998, Ratner et al. [2004], which is significantly higher than most of the other medical devices. It is observed from Table 1.1 that the number of hip/knee implants for global use was 750,000 and it is also seen from the literature that the number of replacement surgeries was also increased globally. Thus the proposed research work is focused on the longevity enhancement of ultra high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE) used as one of the articulating components in hip joint replacement.

Table 1.1 Number of various medical devices used in USA and globally, Ratner et al. [2004]

Device type	Number of devices (US)	Number of devices (Global)
Intraocular lenses(2003)	2,500,000	7,500,000
Contact lenses2000)	30,000,000	90,000,000
Vascular grafts	300,000	900,000
Heart valves	100,000	300,000
Pacemakers	400,000	1,200,000
Blood bags	40,000,000	1,200,000,000
Breast prostheses	250,000	750,000
Catheters	200,000,000	600,000,000
Heart-Lung (Oxygenators)	300,000	900,000
Coronary stents	1,500,000	4,500,000
Renal dialysis	320,000	960,000
Hip prostheses (2002)	250,000	750,000
Knee prostheses (2002)	250,000	750,000
Dental implants (2002)	910,000	2,730,000

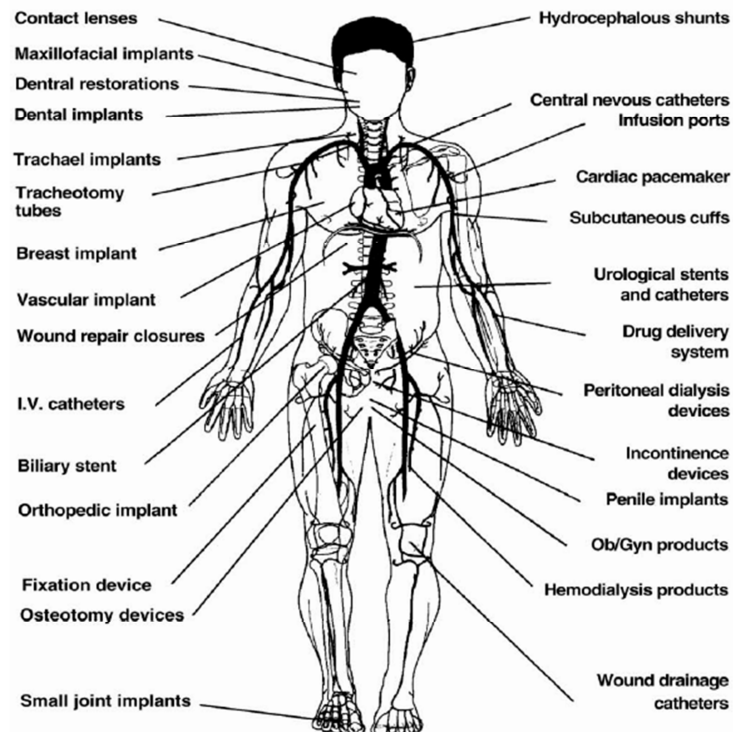


Figure 1.1 Schematic diagram of a human body showing various implant devices and materials.

Park et al. [2007]

## **1.2 Understanding structural anatomy of Human joints and artificial prosthesis.**

Human joints have a crucial role to play in the overall functioning of the body and carry out routine activities allowing bones to articulate on one another. Joints allow a wide variety of stability and motion options, which vary depending on their location, position and function. For example, the hip joint can be compared to a ball- on- socket joint allowing motion in three axes, and the knee joint acts as a disk-on-plate allowing restricted type of motion. Besides, the human joints are also classified as load bearing joints and non-load bearing joints. Hip, knee and ankle joints are among the primary load bearing joints and these are also called synovial joints. Most of the other joints such as elbow, shoulder, wrist etc. pertain to non-load bearing class. Typical anatomy of synovial joints is shown in Figure 1.2. The joints may vary in their shape, size and loading pattern but their typical lubrication mechanism remains the same. The articulating surfaces of the bones are covered with articular cartilage preventing their direct physical contact. The assembly is encapsulated by ligament and joint capsule, which is lined with synovial membrane and filled with synovial fluid, Sokoloff [1978]. The tribological behaviour of the natural joints is extremely good due to the presence of synovial fluid, which allows the joints to work under a wide range of loading conditions without causing damage to the bones. The excellent lubrication of joints is due to very low coefficient of friction of bone, (0.003 – 0.015), which usually last for over 70 years, Dumbleton [1981]. However, the joint may lose its natural lubricating function due to accident or some degenerative joint diseases like arthritis or due to excessive wear leading to severe pain in the joint location. Now, the patient needs to be operated for joint replacement with artificial implant materials paving a way for Total Joint Replacements (TJR) surgeries. Although TJRs are common in case of knee, shoulder, elbow, wrist, ankle and finger joints, these are the recent developments compared to that of hip joints.

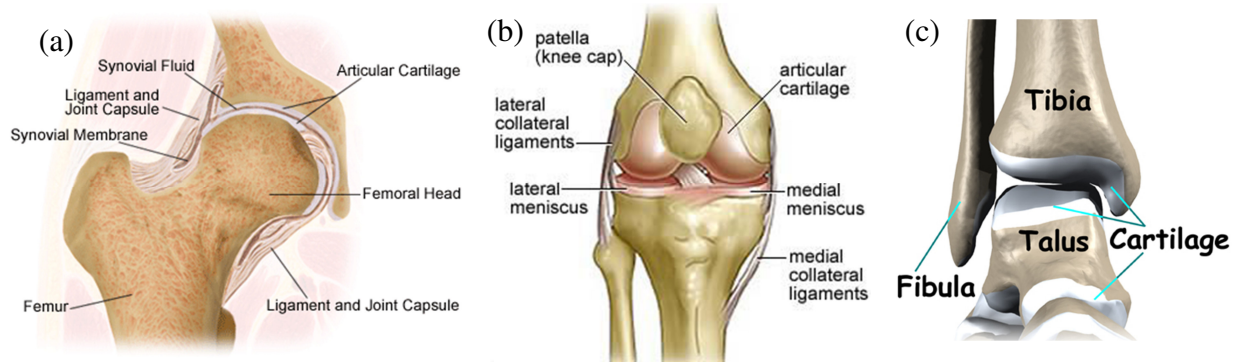


Figure 1.2. Anatomy of load bearing joints (a) Hip joint (b) Knee joint (c) Ankle joint [http://]

The details of the different parts used in total hip replacement are shown in Fig 1.3. A total hip prosthesis consists of 4 major components namely femoral stem, femoral head, acetabular cup and metallic back up fitted into the pelvis. Acetabular cup is fit into the metallic back up either by mechanical fixation or by using PMMA bone cement, Ritter [1995]. The femur bone is sectioned at the greater trochanter at a suitable angle and the femoral stem is fixed either by press fit or cemented fixation, Ducheyne [1988]. The femoral head is fixed on the stem and then anatomically positioned into the acetabular cup.

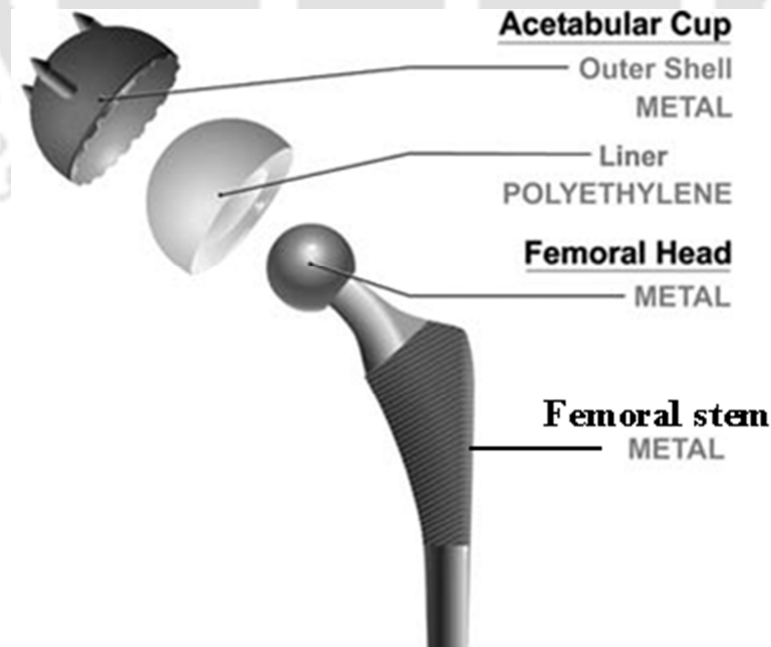


Figure 1.3 Assembly of artificial hip prosthesis, Narayan [2009]

### **1.3 Importance of the selected problem**

Arthritis is a degenerative joint disease resulting in severe pain to the patients. More than 230 000 total hip arthroplasty (THA) and 490 000 total knee arthroplasty (TKA) were performed annually in USA alone, Kurtz et al. [2007] and the number of TJRs was expected to increase substantially for the next 2 decades, Kurtz et al. [2005]. Though it is originally intended for older patients, THA is now being used in younger and much more active patients, who require prosthesis that can last longer and endure a much more active lifestyle without the need for a revision. Thus, the design goals have been advanced from simply alleviating pain and discomfort for older patients to returning physically demanding life styles including sports activities for young active patients, Lewis [2001]. Davidson et al. [2003] reported that the total number of revisions resulting from the wear of an acetabular cup was more than 10000 per year.

Figure 1.4a shows the projection of both total hip and total knee replacements from 2005 to 2030, where the total hip revisions are projected to grow from 40,800 to 96,700 corresponding to an increase of 174 % and the total knee revisions are expected to increase by 673 %. Figure 1.4b shows the possible reasons for failure of an implant, where it is observed that the probability of implant failure due to infection was prominent during the initial 3 years period but later it was reduced to zero at 5 years. However, the failure of an implant due to other factors like loosening, fracture and wear are also found to increase over time. The rising prevalence of TJRs is a clear indication of the severity of the problem and thus it necessitates for a high-end engineering solution to enhance the longevity of the implant.

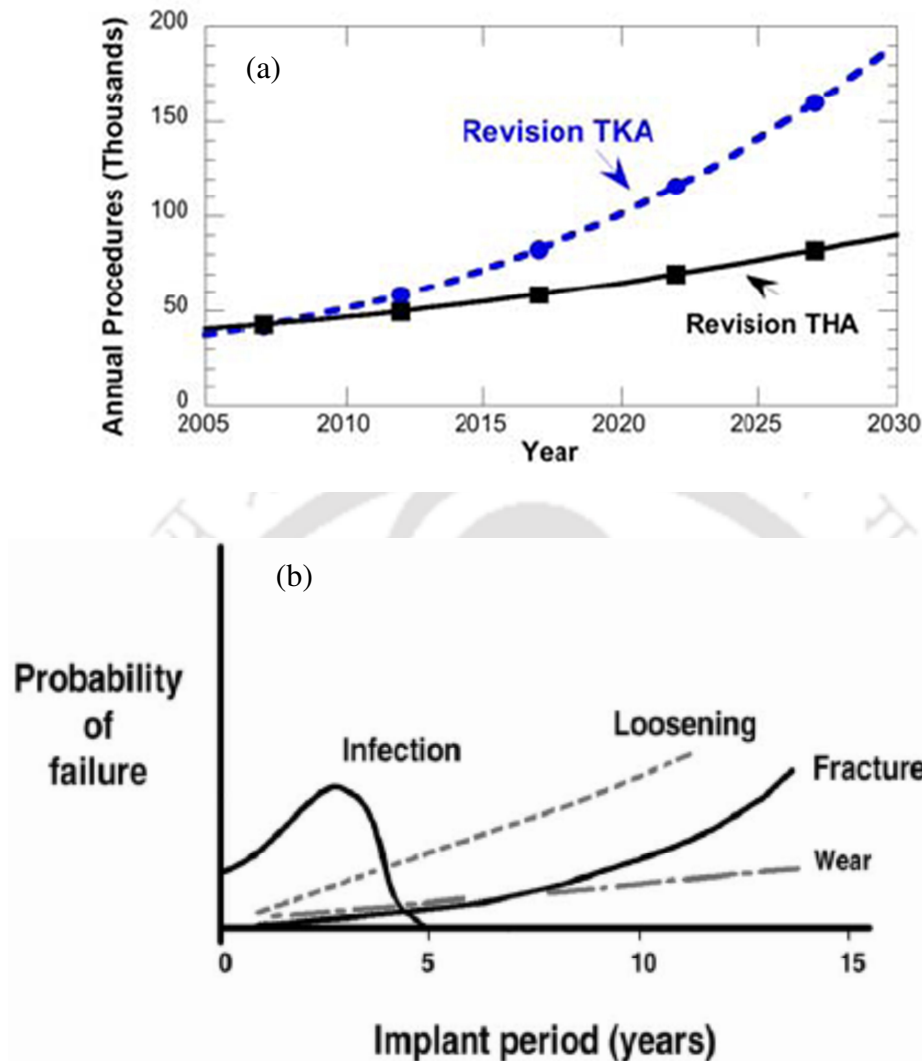


Figure 1.4 (a) Projected revisions of THA and TKA in USA, Kurtz et al. [2007] (b) Possible reasons for implant failure, Park et al. [2007]

#### 1.4 Reasons for revised surgery

The objective of THA is to relieve the pain in the joint location and restore its original mobility. The shape, size and design of the implant depend primarily on the location at which it is used in the body. The typical arrangement of different material combination currently used for THA along with fixation technique used for femoral stem and acetabular components is shown in Figure 1.5.

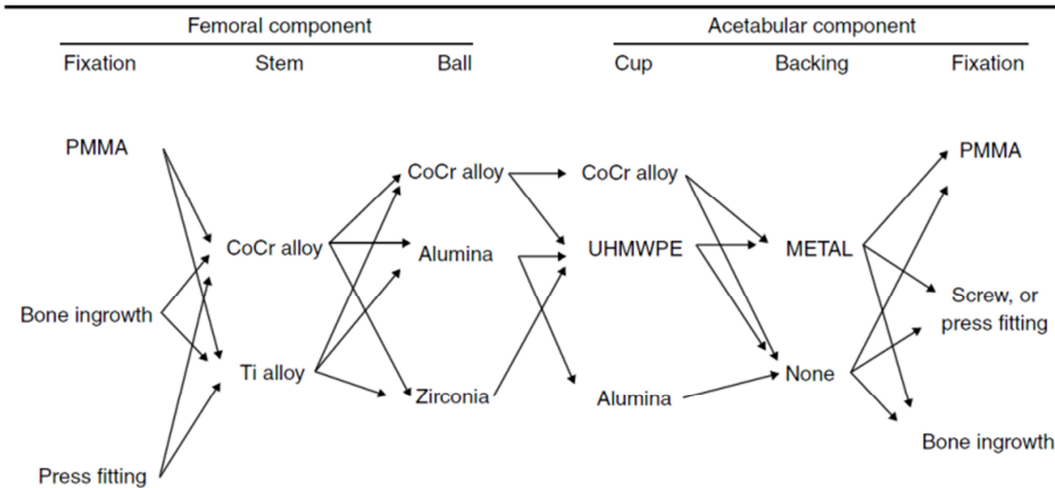


Figure 1.5 Possible combinations of different materials used in THA, Wong et al. [2007]

Based on different combinations, the prosthesis can be made of a Metal- on- metal or ceramic - on - ceramic or Metal - on - polyethylene or ceramic on polyethylene. Though different combination of materials are used in THR, the artificial hip prosthesis implanted in the patient is not once in a lifetime procedure, the chances of revised surgery may vary depending on the life style, activities and other post operative care of the patient. Various factors that enforce primary surgeries are given in Figure 1.6a, where the main reason for primary hip surgeries is observed to be Osteoarthritis, which constitutes 87.7 % of the total surgeries performed. Figure 1.6b shows the possible reasons for the revision surgeries, where the aseptic loosening, implant breakage and wear of acetabular caused 58 % of total revisions. During hip surgery, the synovial membrane needs to be cut to access the joint and it is not known from the available literature that whether the synovial membrane functions correctly or not after the surgery, Burger et al. [2007]. If it does not function properly, it leads to direct mechanical contact of the articulating surfaces and causes asperity contacts, which generate heat and wear debris. Local bone resorption resulting from the

polyethylene wear debris is one of the primary causes for loosening of the component in hip replacement surgery.

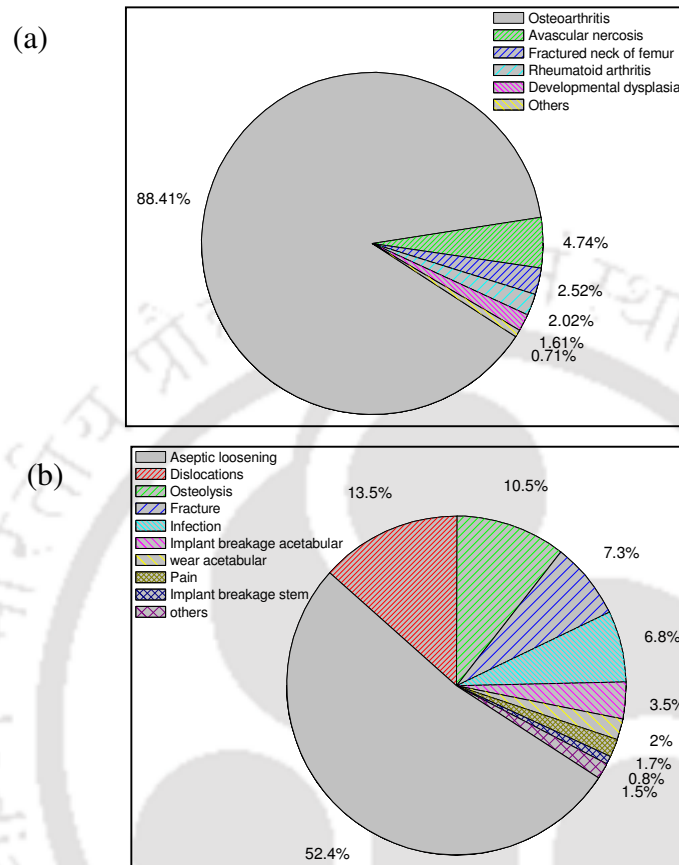


Figure 1.6 Statistics showing various factors leading to (a) Primary (b) Revision of Hip surgeries,

Davidson et al. [2003]

### 1.5 Why is wear of acetabular cup so prominent?

Concerns have been raised about the biological influence and lifetime effects of the wear debris. Wear has been accepted as a major cause of osteolysis in THA. Submicron wear particles migrate into the effective joint space and stimulate a foreign-body response resulting in bone loss, Zhu et al. [2001]. In many patients, the bone around the implant became worn away leading to reduced joint function, which was caused by wear debris induced osteolysis in the implant, Amstutz et al. [1992]. In a normal metal-on-polymer bearing couple, the wear debris is generated

from the acetabular cup against femoral head and it can cause serious damage to the living tissues. Though UHMWPE is biologically an inert material, presence of large amount of biologically an inactive particulate material can trigger an exceptionally strong macrophage response, which leads to osteolysis around the implant in general and bone- implant interfaces in particular, Peter et al. [1996]. It was also observed from four to seven-year follow-up studies that metal- on- metal articulation was appeared to be effective in order to reduce the wear and loosening of the implant compared to that of metal-on-polyethylene, Dorr et al. [2000]. However, the metal debris generated during usage can become ionized and travel anywhere in the body, Zhu et al [2001]. Though there is no strong link between metal ions and health problems, patients with metal-on-metal implants have shown high metal levels in their blood and organs, and there is a lot of concern about systemic health effects, Harris [1995]. Thus, there has been increased focus on the development of alternative materials or improvement of wear resistance of existing materials for the total joint replacements in order to reduce the number of costly revision surgery often necessitated by the osteolysis triggered by the wear debris.

### **1.6 Motivation of work**

UHMWPE has been in use as a biomaterial for TJRs since 1961. From the date of its inception as a material for acetabular cup by Dr. Sir Charnley, it has become a cynosure of all biomaterial scientists due to its chemical resistance, lubricity and extraordinary resistance to wear, which are all crucial parameters in increasing the longevity of the implant. However, even after 50 years (1961-2011) of its usage in TJRs, the number of revised surgeries being performed due to material related problems is a major concern among the material science and medical community. The statistical projections of the TJRs discussed in Figure 1.4a and Figure 1.4b indicated a mammoth increase of the replacement surgeries and related material problems caused

about 58 % of revised surgeries. An increase of number of revised surgeries enforces increased economic, hospital infrastructure and professional burden and the total expenditure for the joint replacement surgeries is also expected to increase. According to Kim [2008], the total annual hospital cost for primary and revision hip and knee arthroplasty procedures in the USA was estimated to be \$9.1 billion in 2004 and is expected to exceed \$80 billion by 2015.

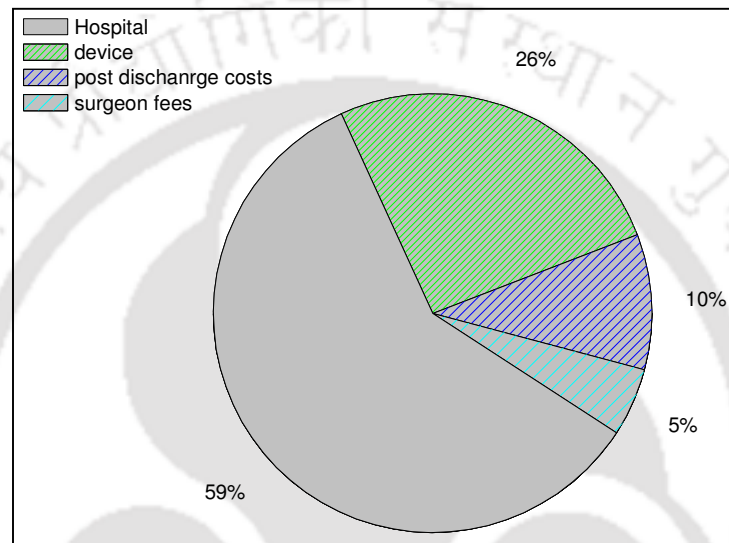


Figure 1.7 Breakdown of an expenditure for the total hip arthroplasty, Lavernia et al. [2007]

Figure 1.7 shows the breakdown of an expenditure for the THA surgery, where it is observed that about 59 % of the total cost goes to hospital facilities and infrastructure, Lavernia et al. [2007]. An increase of TJRs is not only a burden to the patient but also to the government and medical care units to meet the economic factors surrounding the THR and provide the necessary facilities to improve the patient comfort standards. Thus, there is a need for the researchers in orthopedics to envisage the economic impact that a hip arthroplasty can have for the society. The demands and challenges have kept the research activity still open for providing a permanent solution for the aforementioned problems with an uncompromising implant life for the TJRs. Thus, an

attempt is being made in that direction to develop a UHMWPE based composite material for acetabular cup component with improved longevity addressing to the present and future challenges faced by the patient and medical care units.

### **1.7 Organization of thesis**

The present thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 gives the definition of a biomaterial and its classification with an emphasis on orthopedic implant materials and its importance. Basic anatomy of human joints, its functionality, and the role of joint prosthesis were also covered. The significance of the selected problem, its causes, necessity and motivation to carry out the present work are also briefly described.

Chapter 2 presents a literature review in the field of radiation crosslinking,  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (vitamin E) blends with UHMWPE, composites, antioxidant activity of MWCNTs, and finally the biocompatibility of MWCNTs. The technical gaps present in the above referred field were identified and the objectives for the present work were framed.

Chapter 3 gives a detailed description of the techniques involved in the sample preparation and its coding. Methods used for the characterization of the processed samples for assessing their mechanical properties, wear characteristics, network parameters and biocompatibility were presented in a methodical way.

Chapter 4 describes the results and discussion on the role of MWCNTs in enhancing the properties of UHMWPE, the synergy between the matrix and reinforcement in the presence of gamma irradiation, the mechanism and reason behind the influence of MWCNTs on the network parameters and the comparison of results with that of conventional antioxidant. The wear

behaviour of the composites at different doses of irradiation and finally the biocompatibility of composites were also deliberated at length.

Chapter 5 presents a gist of the overall work, prominent results obtained and salient findings from the thesis work. A conclusion note and the future direction for the present work were also briefed.



## Chapter 2

### Literature review

UHMWPE is being used as a biomaterial for joint arthroplasty due to its remarkable properties. Ever since its inception, it is being continually evolved through the ages to stand as an immediate alternative for total joint replacements. From the nascent stages of virgin polyethylene to recent developments like surface modification and carbon nanotube composites, UHMWPE has undergone a gradual transition in improving its wear resistance to assist the longevity of implant. The success of an implant used as an articulating surface is influenced by the number of wear debris generated from it and many attempts are being made, which are discussed below, to reduce the same. This chapter is broadly divided into two divisions: (i) a critical review of the reports on the various techniques to reduce the wear volume and enhance the longevity of UHMWPE, and (ii) identifying the underexplored zones in the field of proposed research. The literature review has been broadly categorized into 5 subsections, which are as follows:

- i) Effects of gamma radiation on the mechanical properties and wear resistance of UHMWPE
- ii) Vitamin E as an antioxidant used in UHMWPE
- iii) Effects of reinforcement on the mechanical properties and wear resistance of UHMWPE
- iv) Antioxidant activity of MWCNTs and their influence on composites
- v) Biocompatibility of MWCNTs

Various literature available under each subsection has been discussed in chronological order detailing their advantages and limitations.

## **2.1 Effects of gamma radiation on mechanical properties and wear resistance of UHMWPE**

The molecular chain architecture of UHMWPE imparts many unique attributes, including toughness, and wear resistance, Lewis [2001]. Over the years, a good amount of expertise has been invested in studying the wear phenomenon of UHMWPE and developing strategies for reducing *in vivo* wear of virgin UHMWPE bearing components. However, the high demands of 'zero wear' are not yet fulfilled by UHMWPE and hence it necessitates the structural modification of UHMWPE in order to improve its characteristics.

Crosslinking of the polymer chain is the first step towards achievement of the goal. Three classes of methods are being used for crosslinking the polymers: radiation-induced crosslinking, chemical-induced crosslinking, and silane compound-induced crosslinking. Among these three methods, radiation induced crosslinking has dominated in medical applications as the other crosslinking techniques influenced the biological reaction in the body, Aquino [2012]. Gamma irradiation of UHMWPE induced several changes in its structure. The properties of irradiated UHMWPE was influenced by the irradiation dose and its environment. Premnath et al. [1999] reported that the crosslinking of UHMWPE dominated when irradiation was done in absence of air, whereas chain scission of polymer was observed to dominate when irradiation was done in air environment. Oonishi [1995] attempted highly crosslinked UHMWPE by over 1000 kGy of gamma irradiation in air for orthopedic applications.

Costa et al. [1997] showed that oxidation of polymer took place even during manufacturing. In order to confirm the same, they tested commercially available 2 samples: (i) ram extruded and (ii) compression moulded UHMWPE. It was confirmed that primary dialkyl peroxides were formed in different concentrations during the mechano-oxidative degradation of UHMWPE. Costa et al. [1998] compared the oxidation level of UHMWPE sterilized by gamma irradiation

and ethylene oxide (ETO). It was reported that the amount of oxidation was found to be higher in gamma sterilized samples compared to ETO. Their studies also proved that all the samples showed surface oxidation, which was formed during the processing condition. It was concluded that the oxidation of UHMWPE due to gamma sterilization led to inhomogeneous distribution of reactive species in polyethylene, which caused unpredictable *in vivo* performance of UHMWPE. Muratoglu et al. [1999] studied the influence of irradiation dose on the mechanical properties, and wear resistance of UHMWPE. They observed that the ultimate tensile strength and yield strength of UHMWPE were reduced by 52 and 10 %, respectively at 300 kGy irradiation dose compared to that of unirradiated sample. It was also concluded that the molecular weight between the crosslinks strongly influenced the wear resistance of the sample. Edidin et al. [2000] reported that the mechanical properties of UHMWPE were significantly reduced after accelerated ageing for 4 weeks. They observed that the crystallinity of aged UHMWPE was found to be higher than that of virgin polymer. Puertolas et al. [2001] characterized UHMWPE, which was subjected to gamma irradiation after a shelf ageing for a period of 6 years. It was reported that the fracture stress and strain of aged sample were reduced by 20 and 97.1 %, respectively compared to unaged sample. Lewis [2001] reviewed the properties of crosslinked UHMWPE, where the mechanism involved for the degradation of properties after irradiation was deliberated. It was concluded that the crosslinking improved the wear resistance of the polymer but there was a concomitant depreciation of its mechanical properties. Kang et al. [2001] studied the effect of gamma irradiation on the thermal and mechanical properties of UHMWPE. The crystallinity of the sample was reported to be increased with irradiation dose. The strain at fracture and wear volume of UHMWPE were reduced by 54 and 40 % at 250 kGy compared to that of unirradiated sample. Suarez et al. [2003] irradiated UHMWPE from 100 to 2000 kGy

doses to confirm its loss of ductility. It was reported that the relative intensity of free radicals was increased from 12 to 145 at 100 and 200 kGy dosage, respectively. The strength and fracture strain of UHMWPE were found to be reduced by 21.5 and 93 % compared to unirradiated polymer at 250 kGy. Maadeed et al. [2006] reported that the density, crystallinity and shore hardness of UHMWPE were increased after irradiation and subsequent shelf ageing. Oral et al. [2007] reviewed the effects of radiation crosslinking on UHMWPE. The primary conclusion from their review was that the crosslinking of UHMWPE increased its wear resistance but it also left with long-lived residual free radicals in the polymer causing the reduction of its mechanical properties.

Oonishi et al. [1997] studied the wear resistance of irradiated UHMWPE against an alumina ball using a sphere-on-plate reciprocating testing machine. It was reported that the wear resistance of UHMWPE was increased with irradiation dose in comparison to that of unirradiated specimens. However, the coefficient of friction of the test sample was not influenced by the irradiation, but the hardness of the samples was increased. Lee et al. [2009] performed scratch and wear tests on a prosthetic femoral head against crosslinked UHMWPE sockets using a 8-station hip wear simulator for 2 million cycles. They reported that abrasive wear of UHMWPE was reduced by 97 % against Zirconia toughened alumina compared to CoCr. In case of oxide coated Zirconium-Niobium femoral head, the abrasive wear resistance of UHMWPE was increased by 161 % compared to CoCr. Bashyal et al. [2011] opined that the benefits of improved wear resistance and low rate of osteolysis of highly crosslinked polyethylene outweighed the concerns of ageing degradation of the properties.

Sugano et al. [2004] studied the wear rate of 1000 kGy irradiated UHMWPE acetabular cup retrieved after 25 years of its usage under *in vivo* condition. It was reported that the wear rate

of retrieved cup was found to be 0.04 mm/year whereas the conventional cup under *in vitro* condition had the wear rate of 0.06 mm/year.

Muratoglu et al. [2002] irradiated UHMWPE using 2 MeV electron beam at 140 °C to obtain the limited penetration effect of irradiation. The wear studies on irradiated sample using a 12-station hip simulator showed that there was no significant mass loss after a million cycles whereas the conventional material showed the wear rate of 27 mg/million cycles. It was concluded that the high crosslink density near the articulating surface of the sample improved the wear resistance of the acetabular liner significantly.

The prime purpose of irradiation is to enhance the wear resistance of UHMWPE, but nonetheless it has deteriorating effects on the mechanical properties. A few studies on the wear rates of conventional and crosslinked UHMWPE are shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Influence of irradiation on wear rate/wear factor of UHMWPE

Irradiation process & Dosage	Wear rate/wear factor		Type of wear tester	Reference
	Virgin	Irradiated		
Lupersol 130	4.1 mm <sup>3</sup> /y	1.1 mm <sup>3</sup> /y	Hip joint simulator	Shen et al. [1996]
Gamma irradiated 1000 kGy	17.1 mm <sup>3</sup>	3.23 mm <sup>3</sup>	Sphere on disc	Oonishi et al. [1997]
Gamma-irradiated 105 kGy		CoCrMo <sup>cf</sup> 6.19 ± 4.43 Alumina <sup>cf</sup> 8.31 ± 3.21 Zirconia <sup>cf</sup> 0.12 ± 0.14	12-station hip joint simulator	Wang et al. [2003]

Gamma irradiation in air 75 kGy	51 mm <sup>3</sup> /y	5.62 mm <sup>3</sup> /y	Hip joint simulator	Essner [2005]
Gamma irradiation 100 kGy	0.649×10 <sup>-6</sup> mm <sup>3</sup> /Nm	0.449×10 <sup>-6</sup> mm <sup>3</sup> /N-m	Multidirectional pin-on-disk	Burroughs et al. [2006]
50 kGy of electron- beam radiation	0.375mm <sup>3</sup> /250000 cycles	0.225mm <sup>3</sup> /250000 cycles	Dual axis simulator	Schwartz et al. [2007]
Highly cross-linked (100 kGy)	6.8×10 <sup>-7</sup> mm <sup>3</sup> /N-m	3.94×10 <sup>-7</sup> mm <sup>3</sup> /Nm	6-station pin-on plate	Kang et al. [2008]
Highly crosslinked (500 kGy)	15 ×10 <sup>-6</sup> mm <sup>3</sup> /N-m	12×10 <sup>-6</sup> mm <sup>3</sup> /N-m	Ball on disc	Kang et al. [2001]
Gamma irradiation in air 90 kGy	26.8 mm <sup>3</sup> /y	17.7 mm <sup>3</sup> /y	Knee simulator	Wang et al. [2008]
Gamma irradiation 100 kGy	9 gm/10 <sup>6</sup> cycles	1.8 gm/10 <sup>6</sup> cycles	Bi-directional pin- on disc	Otal et al. [2007]
E-beam 72 kGy	14.2 mg/y	4.1 mg/y	Knee simulator	Stoller et al. [2011]

cf- Counter face

It is observed from Table 2.1 that crosslinking had tremendous effects on the wear rate of the polyethylene ensuring its longevity by significantly improving the wear resistance of the UHMWPE. A similar trend was observed both in conventional wear testing machines and wear simulators as well. The literature points out that the higher dose of irradiation led to better wear resistance and thus it may increase longevity.

However, it is a known fact that the mechanical properties of UHMWPE are relatively degraded due to the oxidation of the polyethylene by the irradiation generated free radicals. Oxidation of the polymer was found to be one of the major problems encountered as a consequence of crosslinking. In order to overcome the same, the irradiation process was combined with thermal treatment as a technology to improve the wear and oxidation resistance of UHMWPE, Muratoglu et al. [1999], McKellop et al. [1999], Muratoglu et al. [2001]. Nakamura et al. [1998] reported that the relative intensity of radicals generated in UHMWPE was reduced with heat treatment parameters for both gamma and electron beam irradiated test samples. They have also reported that the Young's modulus of 25 kGy irradiated sample in air and annealed for 4 hours at 120 °C showed an enhancement of 43 % in comparison with unirradiated sample, whereas the same sample irradiated in N<sub>2</sub> environment under same heat treatment condition showed 12.3 % less than that of unirradiated sample. They concluded that the heat treatment of UHMWPE minimized its oxidation and wear volume. Medel et al. [2004] irradiated UHMWPE at 25 kGy dose and thermally aged at 120 °C for different time periods upto 36 h. The stress and strain at fracture after 36 h of ageing were found to be reduced by 61.8 and 82 %, respectively, where the difference between short and long ageing period was easily observed. Gencur et al. [2006] studied the influence of 100 kGy irradiation dose on the fatigue crack resistance of UHMWPE after thermal treatments. It was concluded that the crosslinking was detrimental to the ability of UHMWPE to resist the crack inception and propagation under cyclic loading compared to that of unirradiated UHMWPE. The findings also suggested that highly crosslinked UHMWPE had better resistance to crack propagation in annealed condition than the remelted condition. Oral et al. [2006] studied the mechanical properties and fatigue crack resistance of irradiated and melted UHMWPE. The samples were irradiated from 25 to 100

kGy and later melted at 170 °C for 2 hours. The crystallinity of virgin UHMWPE was increased from 63 to 69 % upon irradiation at 100 kGy dose, while that of irradiated melted samples was reduced to 58 % leading to reduced strength of the sample. It was observed that resistance to fatigue crack propagation was decreased with an increase of radiation dose. Burroughs et al. [2006] stored UHMWPE in vacuum at 70 °C prior to gamma irradiation at 40 and 100 kGy doses in order to remove the trapped oxygen in the polymer leading to the reduction of oxidation and the increase of crosslink density of polymer during the irradiation process. The wear rate of vacuum treated test sample was reduced by 20 % in comparison with the sample obtained from pre-irradiation treatment. Kilgour et al. [2009] used a six-station wear simulator and assessed the influence of 100 kGy crosslinked, 150 °C remelted UHMWPE using linear and elliptical wear profiles. It was reported that the elliptical wear path produced higher wear rate compared to linear wear path. However, the wear volume of crosslinked UHMWPE on the elliptical profile was observed to be reduced by 92 % after completion of three million cycles.

The effect of irradiation on mechanical properties of UHMWPE were summarized below in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Influence of irradiation on mechanical properties of UHMWPE

Dosage	Young's modulus	Fracture stress	Yield stress	% Strain at fracture	Researcher
200 kGy in air	-	Reduced from 46 to 29 MPa, i.e. 37%	Reduced from 22 to 19 MPa, i.e. 13.6 %	-	Muratoglu et al. [1999]
100 kGy after 6	-	-	Reduced 30.3 to	Reduced from 4.27	Puertolas et

years of <i>in vivo</i> ageing			24.7 MPa, i.e. 8.5 %	to 0.12, i.e. 97 %	al. [2001]
500 kGy irradiation in air	-	Reduced from 37 to 33 MPa, i.e.10.8 %	-	Reduced from 50 to 23, i.e. 54 %	Kang et al. [2001]
250 kGy irradiation in air	-	Reduced from 53.4 to 33 MPa i.e. 58.2 %	-	Reduced from 711 to 32 i.e. 95 %	Suarez et al. [2003]
25 kGy irradiation at 100 °C	Increased from 0.81 to 0.87 GPa i.e. 8 %	Increased from 47.7 to 53.3 MPa i.e. 12 %		Reduced from 3.67 to 3.10 i.e. 15 %	Nakamura et al. [1998]
Gamma irradiation 25 kGy and accelerated aged for 36 hrs	-	Reduced from 37 to 14.1 MPa i.e. 61.8 %	Reduced from 18.6 to 16.7 MPa i.e. 10.2 %	Reduced from 5.31 to 0.92 i.e. 82 %	Medel et al. [2004]

The mechanical test data shown in Table 2.2 confirms that the irradiation led to reduction of mechanical properties. The amount of degradation of the mechanical properties typically depends on the dose of irradiation and the ageing period. It is pointed out in the literature that the irradiation usually led to improvement of strength of the material immediately after irradiation, but it gradually reduced due to oxidation of the material. Post irradiation thermal treatments are used to minimize the loss of mechanical properties by mobilizing the trapped free radicals in

UHMWPE, but it leads to the reduction of fatigue and fracture toughness of the polymer. The beneficial effects of radiation crosslinking in terms of increased the wear resistance can be sufficiently extracted if the problem of oxidation is counteracted. In order to overcome the same,  $\alpha$ -tocopherol ( $\alpha_T$ , Vitamin E) is being added to UHMWPE. The pros and cons of addition of vitamin E in UHMWPE from various literature have been discussed in the next section.

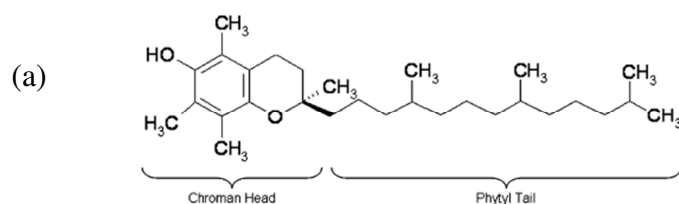
## **2.2 Vitamin E as an antioxidant**

The recent growth in awareness of vitamin E in orthopedics is attributed to the efforts of Prof. Luigi Costa, who has organized the first meeting on improving UHMWPE for orthopedic applications in 2003, Kurtz [2009]. Since then, the number of research articles based on  $\alpha_T$  is gradually increasing. Doping the irradiated polyethylene with  $\alpha_T$  is the only known solution so far to prevent the oxidation. The use of  $\alpha_T$  as an anti-oxidative and biocompatible additive for UHMWPE has been suggested as an alternative method to improve the wear resistance of polymer without altering its mechanical strength. The rationale and mechanism behind the use of  $\alpha_T$  as UHMWPE additive to restrict the degradation are discussed as below.

The most abundant and effective chain breaking antioxidant in the human body is  $\alpha_T$ , Burton et al. [1981]. The oxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids results in active free radicals, which are stabilized by abstracting hydrogen from the OH group of the chroman ring of  $\alpha_T$ . Figure 2.1 shows the typical structure of  $\alpha_T$  molecule with its phytyl tail and chroman head, Oral et al. [2006]. The free radicals present in the crystalline phase of UHMWPE react with diffused Oxygen to form peroxy radicals that attack other polyethylene chains. It triggered an oxidative cascade leading to oxidative embrittlement and reduction of the mechanical properties of UHMWPE, Reno et al. [2006]. The above said problem can overcome by the addition of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE, Oral et al. [2006]. However, an addition of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE has associated

problems: a) the presence of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE restricted the degree of crosslinking in the polymer by absorbing the free radicals generated during the irradiation which are necessary to form crosslinks between the polymer chains, Kurtz [2009], b) uniform doping of  $\alpha_T$  in an irradiated UHMWPE. Various literature discussing the properties of UHMWPE doped with  $\alpha_T$  are presented below:

Oral et al. [2004] irradiated UHMWPE at 65 and 100 kGy dose and subsequently doped with  $\alpha_T$  for 16 hours. These samples were further subjected to sterilizing dose of 27 kGy and the final dose of 92 kGy and 127 kGy. The  $\alpha_T$  blended samples showed low oxidation indices compared to unblended sample. The fatigue strength of  $\alpha_T$  doped UHMWPE was found to be 27 % higher than that of 100 kGy sample. It was also reported that the wear rate of the  $\alpha_T$ -92 and  $\alpha_T$ -127 samples was not changed upon ageing. Oral et al. [2005] blended UHMWPE with 0.1 and 0.3 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  and gamma irradiated at 100 kGy dose. It was concluded that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  increased the oxidation stability of UHMWPE but decreased its crosslink density and resistance to wear. The mechanical properties of UHMWPE were preserved due to the presence of  $\alpha_T$  after accelerated ageing. Shibata et al. [2005] studied the fatigue and oxidative resistance of UHMWPE with 0.3 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  and 0.3 wt. % Tocopherol acetate after 25 kGy irradiation dose. It was reported that the oxidation index of  $\gamma$ -irradiated UHMWPE was extremely higher compared to that of blends. Though severe fatigue damage was observed in  $\gamma$ -irradiated UHMWPE, no surface asperities were observed in  $\alpha_T$  blended specimens. It was concluded that the long-term fatigue performance and the lifetime of UHMWPE components were prolonged by the addition of  $\alpha_T$  compared to tocopheryl acetate blended samples.



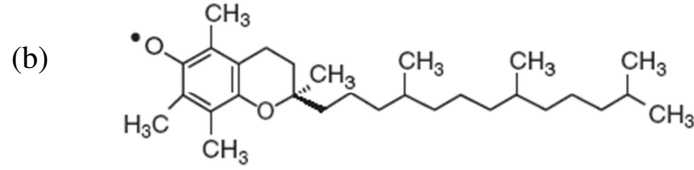


Figure 2.1 a) Structure of  $\alpha$ -Tocopherol molecule b)  $\alpha$ -Tocopherol free radical after hydrogen abstraction from the chroman head, Oral et al. [2006]

Oral et al. [2006] studied the effect of  $\alpha_T$  on oxidation and residual radical transformation of irradiated UHMWPE. The samples were aged at 22 and 40 °C in air and 40 °C in water for 7 months. It was reported that the  $\alpha_T$  doped irradiated UHMWPE showed surface oxidation at the initial period of testing, whereas irradiated UHMWPE was reported to exhibit subsurface oxidation, which was increased with time. It was reported that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  helped in faster decay of the radicals leading to its reduced oxidation. Oral et al. [2006a] reported that the average wear rate of irradiated UHMWPE liners was decreased by 10-fold with respect to the unirradiated UHMWPE under serum lubrication. It was concluded that  $\alpha_T$  doped irradiated UHMWPE has improved properties than the irradiated cum melted UHMWPE. Bracco et al. [2007] blended UHMWPE with  $\alpha_T$  upto 0.5 wt. % and irradiated at 30 and 100 kGy doses. It was reported that blending of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE resulted the formation of quinonoid products, which were responsible for its stabilizing activity and improved oxidation resistance. Ridley et al. [2007] doped  $\alpha_T$  with UHMWPE and then gamma irradiated in different environment. It was reported that the ESR spectra of the samples were identical irrespective of their irradiation environment and presence of  $\alpha_T$ . However, the order of magnitude of radical concentration was found to be less in  $\alpha_T$  blend samples than the virgin UHMWPE.

Oral et al. [2008] blended UHMWPE with 0.1, 0.3, and 1.0 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  and irradiated at 25, 65, 100, 150 and 200 kGy. It was observed that the crosslink density of virgin UHMWPE was

increased with irradiation dose but it was not changed significantly above 150 kGy. The crosslink density of  $\alpha_T$  blend was less than that of virgin UHMWPE and it was decreased with increasing the  $\alpha_T$  concentration. It was reported that the strain at fracture was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose but increased with  $\alpha_T$  content at any given dosage. Oral et al. [2009] investigated the wear and fatigue resistance of high pressure crystallized UHMWPE blended with  $\alpha_T$  with different concentration. It was reported that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  during high pressure crystallization (HPC) increased the crystallinity of UHMWPE significantly. The wear rate of virgin UHMWPE was increased significantly after HPC, whereas no significant change in the wear rate was observed in the  $\alpha_T$  blended UHMWPE. Lerf et al. [2010] showed that presence of 0.05 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  effectively protected highly crosslinked UHMWPE from the oxidative degradation. Haider et al. [2012] characterized the highly crosslinked UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blend irradiated at 32 kGy dose in air. It was reported that the  $\alpha_T$  doped UHMWPE showed lower wear volume compared with the irradiated UHMWPE.

Even though crosslinking has shown the reduced wear rate of UHMWPE, it caused the reduction of various mechanical properties due to oxidation. UHMWPE doped with  $\alpha_T$  has reduced the problem of oxidation and exhibited better properties compared to that of irradiation crosslinked polymer. Further enhancement on the mechanical properties of UHMWPE can be achieved by reinforcing the polymer with different fillers. The influence of different reinforcing filler materials on the properties of UHMWPE and its wear behaviour are discussed in the next section.

### **2.3 Effects of reinforcement on mechanical properties and wear resistance of UHMWPE**

The selection of the reinforcing material used to prepare composite material is based on the requirement of the final product in biomedical application. This section is devoted to bring out

and discuss the potentiality of UHMWPE to improve its mechanical properties, wear resistance, infection retardant and biocompatibility using various fillers as reinforcing materials. A variety of fillers and blends used with UHMWPE is tabulated in Table 2.2. Although a wide variety of filler materials is listed in Table 2.2, the mechanical properties and/or tribological characteristics of few composites are discussed below:

Table 2.3 List of different fillers/blends used with UHMWPE

Filler/Blend	Reference
UHMWPE fibers	Cohen et al. [1997], Deng et al. [1997]
Quartz	Liu et al. [1999], Xie et al. [2003]
High density polyethylene (HDPE)	Jacobs et al. [2000], Lucas et al. [2011]
Polypropylene (PP)	Hasmi et al. [2001]
Carbon nanotube (CNT)	Ruan et al. [2003], Xue et al. [2006], Bakshi et al. [2007, 2007a], Morlanes et al. [2011], Samad et al. [2011, 2011a], Maksimkin et al. [2012]
Carbon fiber	Wood et al. [2011], Dangsheng [2005], Sui et al. [2009a]
Hydroxyapatite (HA)	Fang et al. [2005, 2006], Long et al. [2008], Wang et al. [2009a], Xiong et al. [2009]
Wollastonite	Tong et al. [2003]
Coconut shell	Pradhan et al. [2004]
Kaolin	Guofang et al. [2004]

Epoxy	Chand et al. [2007]
Silver	Morley et al. [2007]
Zirconium	Schwartz et al. [2007], Plumlee et al. [2009]
Natural coral	Ge et al. [2009]

Hashmi et al. [2001] reported that the wear volume of PP was reduced significantly by blending UHMWPE. At 0.28 m/s sliding speed, the wear rate of PP was observed to be reduced by 98 % by blending 15 wt. % of UHMWPE. Tong et al. [2003] reinforced UHMWPE with wollastonite fibers having the aspect ratio of 10:1, 15:1 and 20:1. It was observed that the addition of wollastonite fibers upto 20 wt. % improved the abrasive wear resistance of UHMWPE significantly. Xie et al. [2003] investigated the physical, physiological, mechanical properties and the wear resistance of UHMWPE/quartz composites, where these properties were found to be increased with concentration of reinforcement. They also reported the mild toxicity of wear debris generated from the composites. Guofang et al. [2004] studied the tribological characteristics of kaolin filled UHMWPE composites obtained by different processing technique under dry condition. It was concluded that the wear rate was much lower for the polymerization based composites because of the smaller crystal size and strong interface than the melt mixing one but a reverse trend was observed in case of strength of the composites. Fang et al. [2005] reinforced UHMWPE with sintered HA particles. They reported that the chain mobility of UHMWPE and UHMWPE/HA composites was increased by swelling them in paraffin oil and the resulted composite showed a 90 % increase in Young's modulus and a 50 % increase in the yield strength compared to that of unfilled UHMWPE. Fang et al. [2006] prepared UHMWPE/HA composites up to 22.8 vol. % of reinforcement. They observed that the Young's

modulus and tensile strength of UHMWPE/HA composite were increased by 788, and 5 % respectively, while the fracture strain was reduced by 22 % compared to that of virgin UHMWPE at 22.8 vol. % of reinforcement. It was also reported that the stiffness of the composite was closer to the lower bound value of cortical bone. Xiong et al. [2009] reinforced UHMWPE with nano hydroxyapatite upto 7 wt. %. The hardness of the composites was found to be maximum at 1 wt. % of filler content and 50 kGy irradiation dose. The average friction coefficient was found to be reduced by 22 % and the wear volume was reduced by 27 % at 0 kGy and 81 % at 150 kGy irradiation doses by the addition of 1 wt. % reinforcement into pure UHMWPE. Ge et al. [2009] used 5–30 wt. % of natural coral particles of < 50 µm size as a reinforcement with UHMWPE and studied the wear resistance of the composites in a hip simulator lubricated with bovine serum against CoCrMo femoral head. It was reported that the hardness and wear resistance were increased by 95 and 70 %, respectively at 30 % natural coral composite as compared to virgin UHMWPE. They concluded that the reinforcement of natural coral particles in UHMWPE changed the severity of adhesive wear of UHMWPE acetabular cups and it had less number of micro-cracks generated on the worn surface. Plumlee et al. [2009] prepared UHMWPE/Zr composites with 10 and 20 wt. % Zr. A dual axis wear simulator was used to study the wear behavior of the composites for 250000 cycles. They observed that the wear volume of the composites was reduced with an increase of Zr concentration. It was concluded that the optimum inclusion of 10 wt. % Zirconium particles into UHMWPE matrix effectively reduced the wear rate of the component without the reduction of impact toughness.

Morley et al. [2007] studied tribological characteristics of UHMWPE/Ag nanocomposites using a horizontal Tribometer under synovial fluid condition with different sliding velocities. It

was reported that no detectable variation of either temperature or friction coefficient was observed over the range of sliding velocity (10-80 mm/s).

Wood et al. [2011] observed improved wear strength and mechanical properties of UHMWPE–carbon nanofibers (CNF) composites. Though the stiffness of the polymer was not influenced by the reinforcement, the yield load, fracture load and toughness of the composites were increased by 13, 10.7 and 10.8 %, respectively at 3 wt. % of CNF in UHMWPE. The static coefficient of friction was also reported to be reduced by 78 %. Ruan et al. [2003] reported that the Young's modulus and yield stress of UHMWPE were increased by 38 and 50 %, respectively by reinforcing 1 wt. % MWCNTs. A significant increase of ductility and ultimate tensile strength of the composite was also observed. Xue et al. [2006] blended UHMWPE (80 %) with HDPE (20 %) and the blend was reinforced by MWCNTs (0.2 – 2.0 wt. %) in order to improve the creep and wear resistance of the test sample. It was concluded that the presence of MWCNTs has not shown any significant influence on the creep but the wear resistance of the composites was found to be improved. The yield strength and Young's modulus of the blend were enhanced by 20 and 26 %, respectively at 2 wt. % MWCNTs in the polymer blend. Bakshi et al. [2007] tested UHMWPE/MWCNTs (5 wt. %) nanocomposite films prepared by electrostatic spraying technique. The Young's modulus of the composite was increased by 82 %, but failure stress and strain were decreased by 13 and 64 %, respectively. Bakshi et al. [2007a] also evaluated the UHMWPE/MWCNTs nanocomposites using a Nanoindenter, where it was reported that the hardness and Young's modulus of the nanocomposites were increased by 11 and 10 %, respectively at 5 wt. % of MWCNTs in UHMWPE. It was observed that the plasticity index of the polymer was not influenced by the presence of MWCNTs. Morlanes et al. [2011] irradiated 3 wt. % UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites at 90 kGy in air and it was observed that the Young's

modulus, yield stress and fracture stress of composites were increased by 34, 10 and 4 %, respectively, whereas the fracture strain was reduced by 44 % compared to that of unirradiated composites. Fonseca et al. [2011] reported that the Young's modulus, strain at fracture and toughness of 0.2 wt. % of MWCNTs in UHMWPE were increased by 80, 26 and 35 %, respectively. Maksimkin et al. [2012] reinforced UHMWPE with 1 wt. % MWCNTs and reported that the ultimate strength and yield strength were increased by 286 and 35 %, respectively compared to that of virgin UHMWPE. Tribological tests showed a decrease of dry friction coefficient from 0.24 to 0.14 for 1 wt. % UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites.

The influence of reinforcement of the mechanical properties and wear characteristics are tabulated for easy readability and are given below in Tables 2.4 and Table 2.5

Table 2.4. Influence of different fillers on mechanical properties of UHMWPE

Filler/Blend	Young's modulus	Fracture stress	Yield stress	% Strain at fracture	Toughness	Researcher
Wollastonite (10%)	Increased from 510 to 630 MPa i.e. 23.5 %	Reduced from 32 to 25 MPa i.e. 21 %	-	-	Reduced from 68 to 40 kJ/m <sup>2</sup> i.e. 41 %	Tong et al. [2003]
Quartz (20%)	Increased from 1.2 to 1.45 GPa i.e. 20.8%	Increased from 21-24 MPa i.e. 14.2 %	-	-	Increased from 60 to 81 kJ/m <sup>2</sup> i.e. 35%	Xie et al. [2003]
HA (sintered and paraffin treated)	Increased from 781 to 1370 MPa i.e. 75.4 %	-	Increased from 6.7-11.5 MPa i.e.	-	-	Fang et al. [2005]

			71.6 %			
HA (22.8 wt. %)	Increased from 0.9 to 8 GPa i.e. 788 %	Increased from 27.2 to 28.4 MPa i.e. 4.4 %	-	decreased from 484 to 358 i.e. 26 %	-	Fang et al. [2006]
CNF At 3 wt. %	-	Increased from 41 to 60 MPa i.e. 46.3 %	-	-	Increased from 259 to 289 mJ i.e. 11.5 %	Wood et al. [2011]
MWCNTs (1 wt. %)	Increased from 0.977 to 1.352 GPa i.e. 38.3 %	-	Increased from 8.27 to 12.38 MPa i.e. 49.7 %	Increased from 4 – 9 i.e. 125 %	-	Ruan et al. [2003]
MWCNTs (5 wt. %)	Increased from 682 to 1240 MPa i.e. 81.8 %	Reduced from 14.3 to 12.4 MPa i.e. 9.7 %	-	Reduced from 3.9 to 1.4 i.e. 64.1 %	-	Bakshi et al. [2007]
MWCNTs (3 wt. %)	Increased from 248 to 342 MPa i.e. 37.9 %	Increased from 26.7 to 28.8 MPa i.e. 7.8 %	Increased from 19.9 to 20.7 MPa i.e. 4.0 %	Reduced from 571 to 509 i.e. 10.8 %	Reduced from 121 to 115 mJ i.e. 4.9 %	Morlanes et al. [2011]
MWCNTs				Increased	Increased	Fonseca et

(0.2 to 1 vol. %)	-	-	-	from 275 to 360 i.e. 30.9 %	from 50 - 70 J/gm i.e. 40 %	al. [2011]
MWCNTs (0- 4 wt. %)	-	Increased from 22 to 27 MPa i.e. 22.7 %	Increased from 20 - 22 MPa i.e. 10 %	-	-	Maksimkin et al. [2012]

It can be inferred from Table 2.4 that the presence of reinforcement, in general, has improved the Young's modulus of the UHMWPE. An increase of the modulus was attributed to the effective load transfer from matrix to filler. The strain at fracture and fracture stress, both were either increased or decreased depending on the type of the filler and its concentration. It is observed that the fracture strain was reported to be increased where MWCNTs were used as reinforcement, however an opposite trend was observed in few cases. It is a well known fact that unmodified MWCNTs led to agglomeration causing the reduction of strain at fracture.

Table 2.5. Influence of filler and other parameters on the wear characteristics of UHMWPE

Filler/blend	Wear factor	volume/	Counter face	Type of wear tester	Test conditions	Contributor/researcher
Wollastonite	Reduced from 2.5 mm <sup>3</sup> to 1.3 mm <sup>3</sup> i.e. 48 %		Grey cast iron	Block-on-ring	Sliding velocity 0.53 m/s, normal load (40-160 N)	Tong et al. [2003]
Quartz	Reduced from 630µg/hr	-580		Ball-on-disc	30N, 21mm/s,	Xie et al. [2003]

	$\mu\text{g/hr}$ , $550 \mu\text{g/hr}$ - $500 \mu\text{g/hr}$ i.e. 8 %, 9 %, respectively			distilled water, bovine serum	
Kaolin	Increased from $4.532 \times 10^{-4}$ to $9.72 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mm}^3/\text{m}$ i.e. 114 %	ASTM 1045 steel	Ring on block	Normal load (105-465N) Speed 0.42 – 0.84 m/s)	Guofang et al. [2004]
Nano HA	Wear rate Reduced from 11 to $8.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{Nm}$ i.e. 22.7 % Friction coeff reduced from 0.12 to 0.08 i.e. 33.3 %	CoCrMo alloy	Ring on block	196 N, 0.304 m/s, water lubrication	Xiong et al. [2009]
Natural Coral	Reduced from 200 to $60 \text{ mg}/10^4$ cycles i.e. 70 %	CoCrMo ball	Four-station ball-in socket wear simulator	25% bovine serum, 784 N, 1 Hz.	Ge et al. [2009]
Zirconium	Wear rate Reduced from 0.494 to $0.310 \text{ mm}^3/2.5 \times 10^5$ cycles i.e. 37.2 %	CoCrMo alloy	Dual axis wear simulator	70N ,38 mm/s for 250000 cycles	Plumlee et al. [2009]
CNF At 0.5 wt.%	Wear rate reduced from 2.25 to $1.3 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mm}^3/\text{Nm}$ i.e. 42.2 %	Carbon steel disk	Pin-on-disk apparatus	57 N, 67.5 m/s for 72 hr.	Wood et al. [2011]

	Friction coeff reduced from 0.24 to 0.13 i.e. 45 %				
HDPE (20 %) with MWCNTs (0- 2 wt. %)	Wear rate reduced from 40 to 15 × 10 <sup>-8</sup> mm <sup>3</sup> /Nm i.e. 62.5 % Friction coeff reduced from 0.14 to 0.09 i.e. 45.8 %	Steel	Ball-on-prism	21.2 N, 28.2 mm/s	Xue et al. [2006]

The wear results shown in Table 2.5 indicate that the wear volume/ wear rate/ mass loss of the virgin UHMWPE was reduced significantly by reinforcing it with different fillers. However, the comparison of the wear data would be difficult, as the resultant wear volume/ wear rate depends on the test condition such as sliding speed, lubricant type, load applied, surface properties of test sample, counter face and others. In general, it can be inferred that the reinforcement technique is often used to improve the wear resistance of UHMWPE. It is important to note that none of the reinforced composites were clinically successful till date.

#### **2.4 Antioxidant activity of MWCNTs and their influence on composites**

It was reported by Iijima et al. [1992] that the as-grown carbon nanotubes (CNTs) had a number of defects and impurities. Different defects like point defects e.g. vacancy and interstitial defects, strains, adatoms, pentagon-heptagon pairs, pentagon-octagon-pentagon pairs etc were among those that were observed so far in the CNT walls and tips, Dresselhaus et al. [2001]. These defective sites of CNTs are more reactive than the perfect nanotubes due to their high electron affinities, Zhou et al. [2003] and Chakrapani et al. [2003].

It is noted that the defects in CNTs were created only if the incident particle was energetic enough to displace Carbon atoms and the minimum incident electron energy required to remove a Carbon atom by a knock-on collision was found to be 86 keV, Koutsky et al. [1994], and Smith et al. [2001]. Cataldo [2000] discussed that the  $\gamma$ -radiation on graphite induced the development of disorder band in Raman spectra showing a significant amount of radiation damage in solid graphite. It was also reported that the  $\gamma$  radiation resulted in the rotation of graphite planes and also the formation of domains of hexagonal diamonds.

Krashennikov et al. [2002] irradiated single walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs) on different substrates and studied the formation and evolution of irradiation induced defects. It was reported that the number of defects was increased with the energy of irradiation. The irradiation resulted in the formation of vacancy and vacancy related defects and some complex defects. They concluded that the pinning of nanotubes to both metallic and graphite substrates happened after irradiation through the formation of chemical bonds between the nanotube and substrate atoms. Schultz et al. [2009] reported about the antioxidant ability of SWCNTs and performed a comparative study on the free-radical scavenging activity of pristine, functionalized and ultra-short SWCNTs with derivatives of the phenolic antioxidant. Their results revealed that all types of SWCNTs were found to be extremely effective antioxidants and the oxygen-radical scavenging activity of the SWCNTs was reported to be about 40 times greater than that of the radio-protective dendritic fullerene.

Charlier [2002] reported that the irradiation of CNTs extracted atoms from their honeycomb lattice continuously or at random, which caused the formation of vacancies on their surface. These vacancies would further cluster and forms into large holes in the structure resulting the formation of a three-coordinate, highly defective carbon network. Cooper et al. [2002] and Hu et

al. [2003] reported that the defects formed on the CNTs due to irradiation were expected to increase the CNT-polymer adhesion and thus significantly improved the mechanical properties of the composites. It was also reported that the irradiation not only produced the defects but also formed covalent bonds between the tubes of CNTs. Watts et al. [2003] reported that CNTs acted as polymer antioxidants due to their high electron affinity. It was observed that PP composites showed higher Oxygen intake temperature by about 20 °C by adding CNTs due to their ability to take up Oxygen and prevent the oxidation of polymer. They concluded that addition of CNTs was not contributed to the polymer degradation but they helped to stabilize them in the presence of Oxygen. Krasheninnikov et al. [2004] reported that subjecting CNTs into irradiation resulted either the displacement of surface atoms or the incident atoms get absorbed on the surface forming the interstitial atom. Along with simple defects, a number of more complex defects associated with a rotation of a bond in the CNT atom network and other topological defects were formed in the graphitic network. They concluded that the irradiation induced defects formed bonds with the substrates and increased the CNT- substrate adhesion. Kis et al. [2004] confirmed that the irradiation of CNT bundles followed by mechanical testing improved the mechanical properties of nanotube bundles. It was resulted due to irradiation-induced inter-tube links, which provided load transfer and enhanced the shear modulus in the bundle. Sammalkorpi et al. [2004] studied the mechanical properties of CNTs having vacancies and other related defects. Their results indicated that the Young's modulus of nanotubes having defects was essentially the same unless the vacancy concentration was extremely high. However, the tensile strength was reported to be influenced by the defects. Ritter et al. [2006] studied the radiation damage on MWCNTs and their Raman vibrational modes. It was concluded that the number of defects in the CNTs increased with irradiation dose leading to accumulation of vacancies causing weakening of the

inter carbon bonds. They also reported that the growth of the concentration of non-equilibrium vacancies resulted mutual recombination with interstitial carbon atoms. Zeynalov et al. [2008] proved the antioxidant capability of CNTs by examining their anti-oxidative effect of MWCNT on platelet structure by means of the model reaction of cumene initiated oxidation. They concluded that the purified CNTs were reported to have shown more profound inhibition of oxidation in comparison with unpurified ones. It was also reported by Galano [2010] that the antioxidant activity of functionalized CNTs were increased significantly compared to that of unfunctionalized CNTs.

Recent studies on MWCNTs and their composites have shown that they exhibited antioxidant characteristics due to their high electron affinities and thus they acted as radical scavengers in polymers, Morlanes et al. [2012] and Sreekanth et al. [2012].

## 2.5 Biocompatibility of MWCNTs

The success of any material intended to be used under *in vivo* medical applications depends on its biocompatibility. As discussed in Chapter 1, the failure of TJRs was influenced by the wear debris generated from the polymer implant. Though it is biocompatible in bulk form, concerns have risen about the biological influence and lifetime effects of the wear debris, which is accepted as a major cause of osteolysis in total hip arthroplasty. The local inflammation due to the wear debris depends on its particle size, total volume of the debris, aspect ratio, and its chemical reactivity. The degradation products of any orthopaedic implant include two types of debris: particles and soluble debris. Particulate wear debris includes metals, ceramics, or polymers, which are in the range of nanometers to millimeters. The “metal ions” exist in soluble forms in serum protein. The response to implant debris is dominated by local immune activation,

e.g., macrophages. The effects of systemically elevated amounts of metallic and polyethylene wear particles in the liver, spleen, and other tissues of patients have not been associated with remote toxicological or carcinogenic pathology to date, Hallab et al. [2009].

MWCNTs reinforced composites are very promising for orthopedic load bearing applications like TJRs due to their attractive properties. In spite of such attractive features, the toxicity of CNTs is still a debatable issue, with several research groups pointing to their similarity to asbestos fibers, Poland et al. [2008], while others confirm their non-toxicity. CNTs toxicity in both *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies depends on several factors, such as length, type of functionalization, concentration, and even the dispersant used to solubilize the nanotubes. Yet many studies suggested that CNTs toxicity is unfounded. UHMWPE is being used as an articulating surface material in TJRs and its longevity can be enhanced by reinforcing MWCNTs. However, the success of the UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites depends on their biocompatibility. As the present study is intended to use MWCNTs, literature relevant to its potential effects on biological system is discussed here.

The ability to functionalize the sidewalls of CNTs led to their biomedical application, Guzman et al. [1996]. It is generally agreed that the functionalized CNTs constituted a major improvement over unmodified, non-functionalized CNTs, as the latter are often reported to cause adverse reactions from living tissue, whereas the former could be much less toxic due to more biocompatible functional groups attached on their surface, Bicano et al. [2003]. Lam et al. [2004] instilled 0, 0.1, and 0.5 mg of untreated carbon nanotubes intratracheally in mice. It was reported that if the untreated CNTs reached the lungs, it could cause serious toxic effects. It was concluded that CNTs with impurities were expected to cause potential health hazards. Studies of

Koyama et al. [2006] confirmed that the implanted CNTs with impurities in mice induced immunological toxicity, whereas the CNTs without any impurity showed good biocompatibility. Wang et al. [2004] injected SWCNTs in male mice at a dose of 1.5  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mouse}$ . They reported that SWCNTs accumulated in bone, but they exhibited good biocompatibility. Cherukuri et al. [2006] tested the systemic toxicity effect of Pristine SWCNTs in a rabbit by Intravenous injection at a dose rate of 7.5 mL for 20  $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$  body mass and reported that there was no toxic effect. Koyama et al. [2009] conducted toxicity studies on CNTs in mice and concluded that the toxic effect and biological response of CNTs were very much lower than the asbestos. They also reported that the animal mortality and chronological changes in body weight were not observed even 3 months after post-implantation period. Sato et al. [2005] reported that shorter CNTs ( $\sim 0.22 \mu\text{m}$  in length) were found to be better integrated into macrophages and phagocytes than the longer ( $\sim 0.8 \mu\text{m}$ ) one. The length and shape of the CNTs also influenced and determined the resulting immunologic response of macrophages, Nel et al. [2006]. However, later studies by Poland et al. [2008] showed that the nontoxic length of CNTs was asserted to be  $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$ . Schultz et al. [2009] carried out cytotoxicity assays, which showed that concentration of both non-functionalized and derivatized SWCNTs had little or no deleterious effects on cell viability.

Recent studies by Reis et al. [2010] on UHMWPE/MWCNTs and Ormsby et al. [2012] on PMMA/MWCNTs also confirmed the cytocompatibility of wear debris generated from the nanocomposites with osteoblast like MG63 cells. Cells had grown on CNTs, thus they appeared to have no toxic effect, potentially giving rise to applications such as coatings for prosthetics.

Based on the above literature, it can be inferred that the toxicity of CNTs is not an intrinsic property but it rather depends on the aspect ratio, length and the type of functionalization. The impurities, and not CNTs themselves, were responsible for the reported toxicity, Lacerda et al.

[2006]. The exploration of CNTs in biomedical application is underway. Since a large part of the human body consists of carbon, it is generally thought to be a very biocompatible material and it has a significant potential, Drexler [1992]. In any case, the studies on CNTs aimed at biomedical applications are still active area of research.

## **2.6 Closure on literature**

Based on the deliberation on several topics detailed above, it can be inferred that in spite of several attempts to address the primary concerns of UHMWPE, there are some persistent problems associated with each of the techniques employed thereof. Radiation crosslinking, which is employed to increase the wear resistance of UHMWPE, has some serious side effects such as oxidation of the polymer, which leads to deterioration of mechanical properties and make the material easily prone to failure.

Post irradiation treatment such as melt annealing has emerged as a solution to the above mentioned problem, but it has associated problems of its own. Although melt annealing reduces the amount of free radicals and thus limits the degradation of mechanical properties due to oxidation, nonetheless, it leads to reduction of fracture toughness of the material.

In order to address to the above problems, researchers have tried to introduce  $\alpha_T$  doped irradiated UHMWPE. Although it has partially solved the problem of oxidation, it has brought a new set of associated problems. i.e. presence of  $\alpha$ -Tocopherol in UHMWPE during the irradiation process restricts the degree of crosslinking in the polymer. However, in spite of having such limitations,  $\alpha_T$  doped irradiated UHMWPE still remains a choice of surgeons owing to its antioxidant properties.

UHMWPE reinforced with wide variety of fillers is yet another choice to achieve the desired properties. Fillers of various choices have been used by different researchers, but none of them

were a clinical success. Although Carbon fiber reinforced UHMWPE clinically used due to its superior wear behavior, Farling [1977], it was later withdrawn due to reduced ductility, decreased crack resistance, and the fiber-matrix interface of the composite.

MWCNTs are having extraordinary mechanical properties and also possess good antioxidant characteristics with biocompatibility, when free from impurities. In order to increase the success rate of UHMWPE as an articulating surface, MWCNTs can be selected as a reinforcement material. The present thesis is an attempt in the direction to explore the feasibility of MWCNTs as a reinforcement material with UHMWPE to address to the above discussed problems.

## 2.7 Objectives of the present work

UHMWPE reinforced with MWCNTs has been a subject of recent interest and a very few studies were reported in this direction more of which are random. Thus, a systemic study is proposed on the influence of MWCNTs on the properties of UHMWPE with the following as the primary objectives.

- (i) Identify the optimum concentration of MWCNTs in UHMWPE and study the mechanisms involved for enhanced properties upto an optimum concentration and the reduction thereafter.
- (ii) Study the variation of surface properties of composites using Nanoindentation technique.
- (iii) Study the effects of irradiation on the mechanical properties of UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites at different irradiation doses and ageing periods.
- (iv) Compare the role of MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  in limiting the ageing degradation of the mechanical properties of  $\gamma$ -irradiated UHMWPE.

- (v) Study and compare the wear behaviour of UHMWPE, UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites and  $\alpha_T$  blended samples under dry sliding condition before and after the gamma irradiation.
- (vi) Study the biocompatibility of UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites.



## Chapter 3

### Materials and methods

The characterization of composites involves several analytical tools and experimental techniques in order to confirm whether the desired properties are achieved or not. The chapter 3 is focused on discussing the techniques used and methods employed for the preparation of composites beginning with the materials used, design of compression moulding die, method used to blend the powders and consolidate them in the form of sheets of desired thickness. A series of different analytical instruments/techniques is used at various stages of developing and testing the composites, which are discussed below.

#### 3.1 Multi walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs)

The MWCNTs were purchased from M/s Shenzhen Nanotech Port Co., Ltd., China. The specifications of as-received MWCNTs are as follows: outer diameter 40-60 nm, length 5- 20  $\mu\text{m}$ , purity - 95 wt. %, ash content < 1.5 %, density – 2160  $\text{kg/m}^3$ , special surface area > 200  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ .

#### 3.2 Ultra high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE)

UHMWPE was received from M/s Ticona, Germany, grade GUR 1020 having the molecular weight of  $4 \times 10^6$  g/mol with an average particle size of  $140 \pm 20$   $\mu\text{m}$  and the density of 930  $\text{kg/m}^3$ .

#### 3.3 $\alpha$ -Tocopherol ( $\alpha_T$ )

$\alpha_T$  having the density of 0.950 g/mL at 20 °C and the molecular weight of 430.71 g/mol was purchased from M/s Sigma Aldrich, Germany.

### 3.4 Chemical treatment of MWCNTs

MWCNTs are known to have very high specific surface area and they tend to agglomerate, which acts as a defect and stress raiser in the composites leading to the reduction of the overall properties of them. Thus, the as-received MWCNTs were required to undergo a suitable surface modification by which certain functional groups were attached on the surface of MWCNTs. The presence of functional groups on MWCNTs facilitated the chemical bonding with polymer and also allowed homogeneous dispersion of them in the polymer matrix, Datsyuk et al. [2008]. Concerning the usage of MWCNTs as a reinforcement in polymeric materials, the incorporation of the functional groups on the surface of MWCNTs is a very crucial step for the enhancement of interfacial adhesion and stress transfer. As a result, the unique mechanical properties of the MWCNTs can be transferred to the composites.

The chemical treatment of MWCNTs was performed as described by Esumi et al. [1996], which is briefly discussed here. Figure 3.1 shows the setup used for the chemical treatment, where a glass beaker containing MWCNTs and acid mixture, silicon oil heating bath and temperature sensor are shown. The required sample of MWCNTs was suspended in the mixture of concentrated nitric acid and sulphuric acid by the volume ratio of 1:3 and boiled at 140 °C for 40 minutes. The solution was then allowed to cool to room temperature and the chemically treated nanotubes were washed with deionized water until the supernatant attained a pH around 7. The sample was then dried in a hot air oven at 100 °C in order to remove the moisture content in the sample. Various functional groups such as carboxyl, carbonyl, and hydroxyl were attached on the MWCNTs surface and the schematic representation of the chemical reaction is shown in Figure 3.1b. Figure 3.2a shows the Thermo Fisher IS10 Fourier transform infrared spectroscope (FTIR) used in the study to obtain the spectra of the treated and untreated MWCNTs, which are

shown in Figure 3.2b. The peaks are identified at 1360, 1710, and 3403  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which characterize C-O, C=O and O-H bonds, respectively in the chemically modified MWCNTs. Peaks at 1710 and 3453  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are attributed to acidic groups like carbonyl, phenol and lactol. Peak at 1576  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  assigns to C=C bond in MWCNTs.

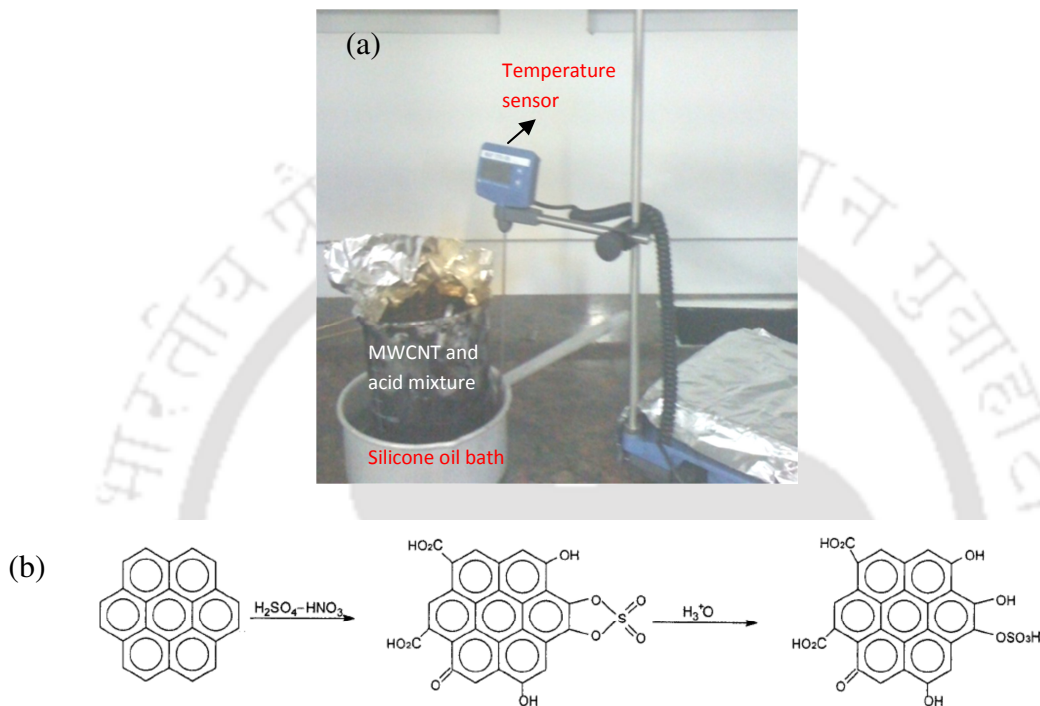


Figure 3.1 a) Chemical treatment setup b) Possible functional groups attached on the surface of MWCNTs

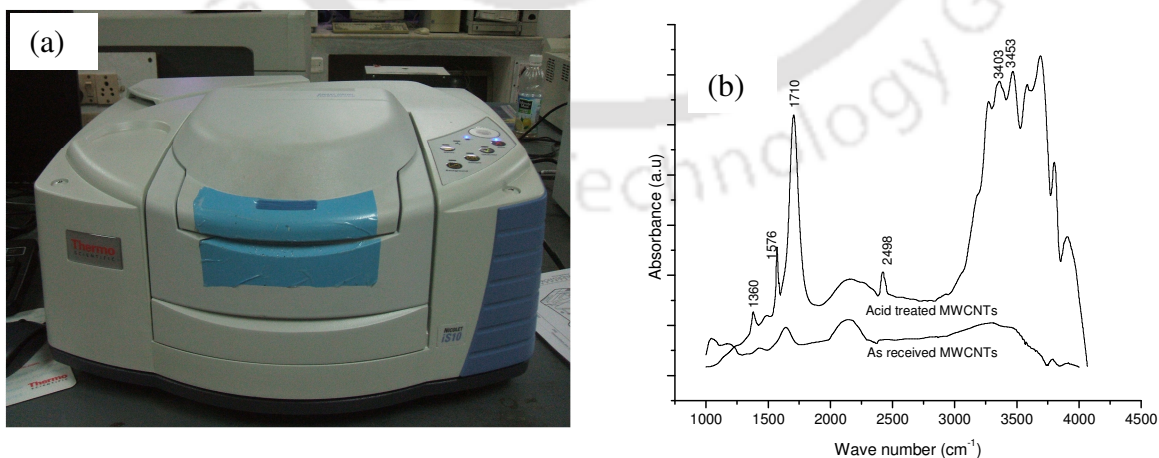


Figure 3.2 a) FTIR spectrometer b) FTIR spectrum confirming the functionalization of chemically treated MWCNTs

### 3.5 Physical blending of UHMWPE/MWCNTs powder

UHMWPE was physically blended with chemically treated MWCNTs at different concentrations, such as 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5 and 5.0 wt. %, in this case, in a ball milling machine Fritsch, planetary mono mill Pulverisitte 6.0. The optimum ball milling time was chosen as 45 minutes based on the available literature published by our collaborators, Fonseca et al. [2011]. The ball milling machine and the blend of UHMWPE/MWCNTs are shown in Figure 3.3a and 3.3b, respectively.

### 3.6 Blending of UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$

$\alpha_T$  was physically blended with UHMWPE powder at different weight fractions (0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 wt. %) in the same way as that of UHMWPE and MWCNTs mixture. As  $\alpha_T$  is highly viscous in nature, it tends to form lumps in the UHMWPE powder and leads to highly localized concentration of  $\alpha_T$  after consolidation. Thus, the milling time was increased to 90 minutes to ensure proper blending of them. Figure 3.3c shows  $\alpha_T$  lumps in UHMWPE prior to ball milling.



Figure 3.3 a) Ball milling machine b) MWCNTs blended UHMWPE c)  $\alpha_T$  lumps in UHMWPE prior to ball milling

### 3.7 Consolidation of blended powders using a compression moulding machine

The obtained raw material mixture was then processed in a compression moulding machine, M/s Saumya, 25 T capacity. The mixture was filled in the die cavity and the thickness of the sample was controlled by removing the excess material in the die cavity using a stepped strike-off bar. The consolidation pressure of the mixture was kept at 10 MPa, and the temperature of the upper and lower heating plate was at 230 and 220 °C, respectively for 60 min. The mould was then allowed to cool to room temperature by circulating water into the dies. The cooling

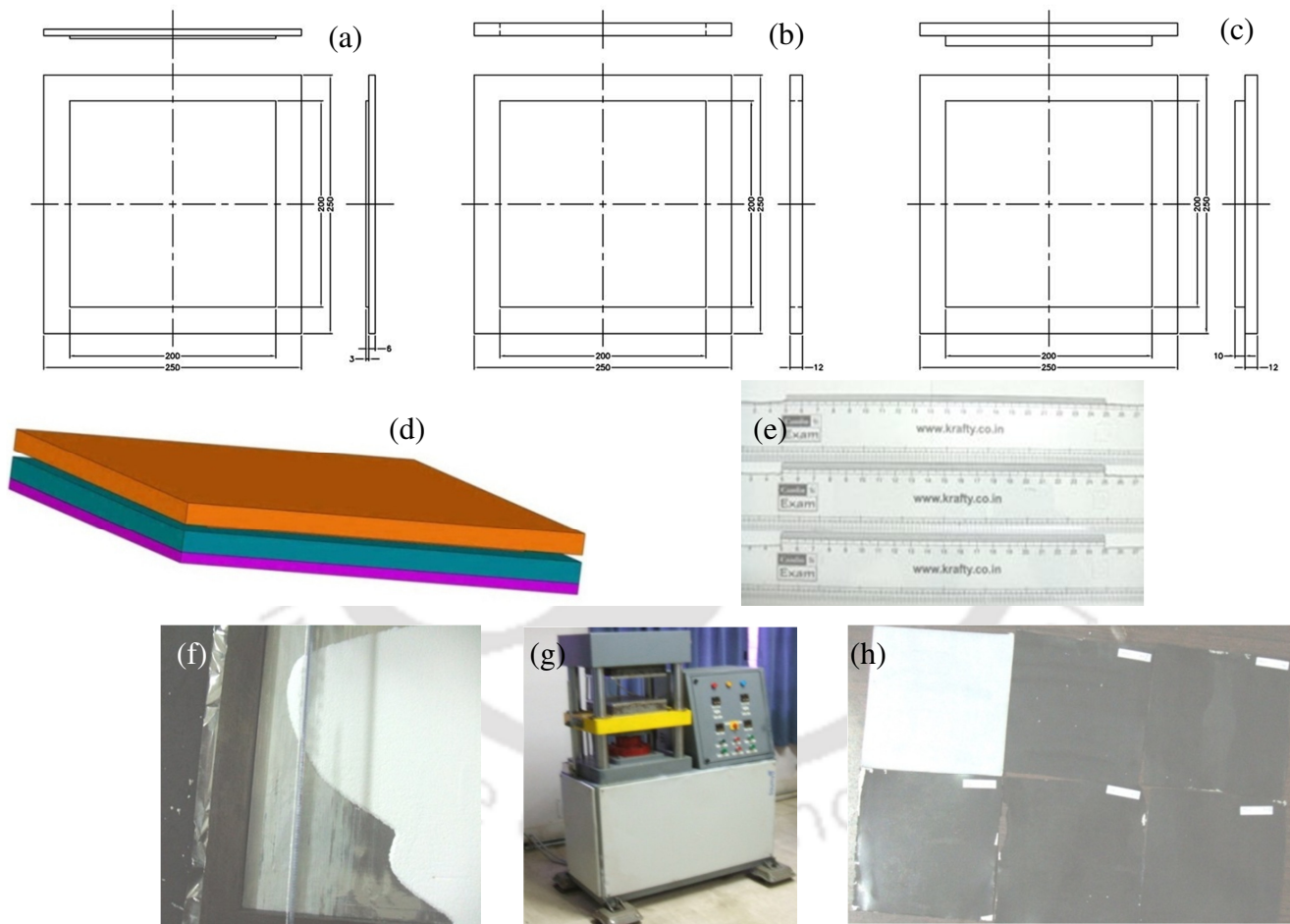
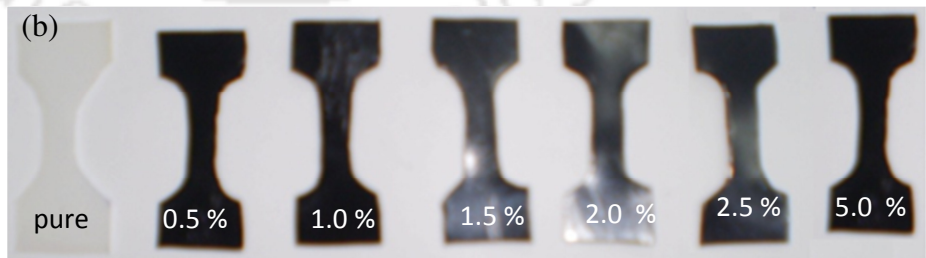
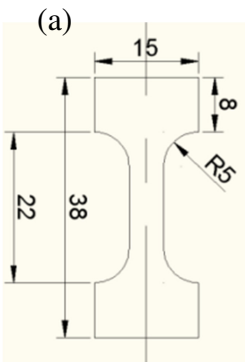


Figure 3.4 a) Lower plate of the die b) Middle plate of the die c) Upper plate of the die d) Die assembly e) Stepped strike-off bars f) UHMWPE being spread in the die cavity using stepped strike-off bar g) Compression molding machine h) Consolidated pure polymer and composite sheets

medium was chosen based on the literature, which reported that the best properties of composites were obtained by water cooling compared to air or liquid nitrogen cooling, Fonseca et al. [2008]. The obtained test samples were in the form of sheet having the dimension of 0.5 mm thick and 20×20 cm cross section. Figure 3.4 shows the compression moulding die, stepped strike-off bar, compression moulding machine, and the obtained sheet. The composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were designated as NC(wt. %) and  $\alpha_T$ (wt. %), where wt. % represents the weight fraction of MWCNTs or  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE.

### 3.8 Tensile testing of microtensile test specimen

The microtensile test specimens were cut from the sheets obtained from the compression moulding machine and tested according to ASTM D 1708-10 standard. The sample dimension, composite and  $\alpha_T$  blend test specimens are shown in Figure 3.5a, 3.5b and 3.5c, respectively. The test was performed in a digitally controlled closed loop servo hydraulic universal testing machine, INSTRON 8801, having the dynamic load capacity of  $\pm 100$  kN with load cell accuracy of 0.005 % and it is shown in Figure 3.5d. The test was conducted at a cross head speed of 1 mm/min. in the temperature range of 20 – 24 °C. In order to ensure the repeatability of the results, five samples were tested per material type and the average of the results is reported.



All dimensions are in

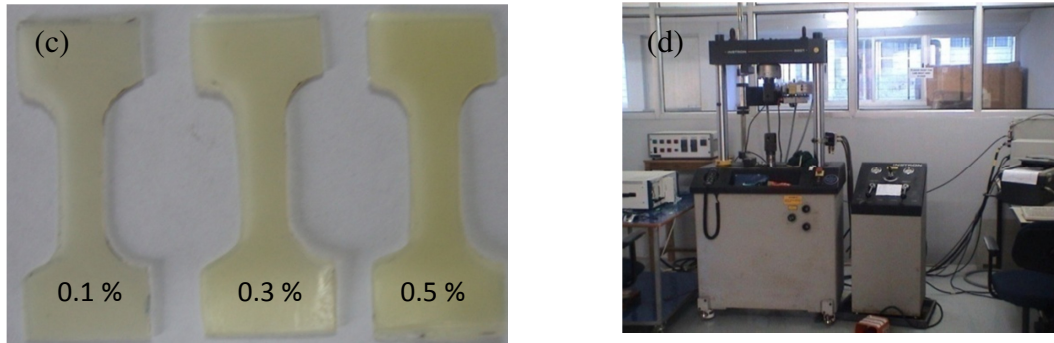


Figure 3.5. a) ASTM D1708 microtensile test specimen b) Microtensile test specimens of composites obtained from the consolidated sheets c) Microtensile test specimens of  $\alpha_T$  blends obtained from the consolidated sheets d) INSTRON-8801 universal testing machine with closed loop servo hydraulic system

### 3.9 Nanoindenter

The Nanoindentation experiments were carried out using a CETR, UMT-2 Nanoindenter. The diamond Berkovich tip, which is a 3-sided pyramid with a total included angle of  $136^\circ$ , was used in this study. The indenter setup is inbuilt with a capacitive transducer having the load resolution of  $\sim 150$  nN, and the depth resolution of  $\sim 1$  Å. As the tip defect may greatly affect the evaluation of the mechanical properties of the test surface, the accuracy of the instrument was tested by performing the tip shape and frame stiffness calibration using the fused Silica sample, which has the constant elastic modulus at different depth, Oliver et al. [1992].

The load was applied at a rate of 0.5 mN/s to the maximum load of 10 mN, where it was held for 10 s (creep time) to avoid the ‘nose problem’ and then unloaded to 10 % of the maximum load at the same rate as that of loading and maintained for 10 s (thermal drift time) to compensate the error, which arises due to thermal drift within the indenting system and then finally it was unloaded. Allowing creep at the maximum load aids in mechanical stabilization of the indent and hence improves accuracy of the contact area and depth used for the calculation of hardness and

Young's modulus, Briscoe et al. [1998]. The load as a function of the indenter displacement is obtained during loading and unloading conditions, which are recorded for data analysis. Figure 3.6 shows the Nanoindenter setup used in the present study.



Figure 3.6. Nanoindenter

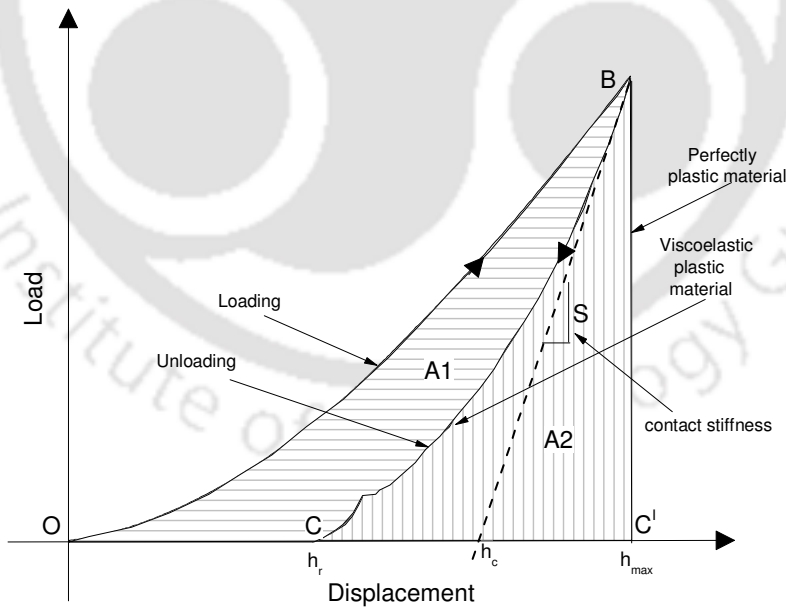


Figure 3.7. Schematic representation of a typical load- displacement curve obtained from the Nanoindentation test ( $h_r$  – residual depth,  $h_c$  – contact depth,  $h_{max}$  – maximum depth of penetration, A1- plastic work done, A2- elastic work recovered)

Figure 3.7 shows the typical load vs. displacement curve, which includes both loading and unloading data for a general viscoelastic–plastic material. The curve OBCO represents the loading, unloading and thermal drift segments to elucidate the calculations involved in estimating the plasticity index of the material. The data obtained by the unloading curve provides information about elastic, visco-elastic and plastic behavior of the material. The load corresponding to the point B in the plot is the maximum load,  $P_{\max}$ , and the corresponding displacement is obtained at  $C^1$ , maximum displacement, on the X-axis as  $h_{\max}$ . The residual displacement after removing the indenter tip is denoted as  $h_r$ . The intercept of the tangent line drawn from the first part of the unloading curve describes the elastic deformation effects, Oliver et al. [1992], and the intercept in the displacement axis is represented as  $h_c$ . The difference between  $h_c - h_r$  represents the viscoelastic recovery, which follows the immediate elastic depth recovery. The slope of the line evaluated at the maximum displacement represents the contact stiffness,  $S$ , Oliver et al. [2004]. In case of a perfectly plastic material, there is no displacement of the material during the unloading condition and thus the curve assumes a vertical line and intersecting at  $C^1$  in the displacement axis. In case of a visco-elastic material, the curve traces along BC during the unloading segment and the material rebounds to  $h_r$  at C. The plastic work done in the visco-elastic material is represented by area  $A_1$  (OBC), and the elastic work recovered during the unloading condition corresponds to area  $A_2$  (CBC<sup>1</sup>). The relationship between stiffness and elastic modulus at the maximum penetration depth for any indenter geometry is defined as follows, Pharr et al. [1992]:

$$S = \frac{2\nu}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sqrt{A_{\max}} E^* \quad \dots 3.1$$

where  $A_{\max}$  is the projection of contact area between the material and indenter tip at  $h_{\max}$ ,  $\nu$  is the parameter related to indenter geometry ( $1 < \nu < 1.034$ ) and  $E^*$  is the reduced elastic modulus of the contact. The hardness and plasticity index of the test sample were calculated using the equation 3.2 and 3.3, respectively, Briscoe et al. [1998].

$$H = \frac{P_{\max}}{A} \quad \dots 3.2$$

$$\Psi = \frac{A_1}{A_1 + A_2} \quad \dots 3.3$$

where  $P_{\max}$  is the load at the maximum displacement and  $A$  is the projected area supporting the load.  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  have been described earlier with reference to Figure 3.7. The tests were conducted on the AS Processed samples (ASP W hereafter, where W stands for wt. % of the MWCNTs) and the surface layer removed samples (SLR W hereafter), where the layer was removed upto 100  $\mu\text{m}$ .

### 3.10 Rheometer

The viscosity of the composites under melt condition was tested using an Anton Parr Rheometer, Physica MCR 101 model. The test sample was a circular disc of 25 mm diameter and 0.5 mm thickness. The tests were conducted using a parallel plate (PP25) technique under the oscillatory mode with constant shear strain amplitude of 5 %, and an angular frequency of 10 rad/s. As the melting temperature of polymer is about 135  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  [Ticona data sheet], all the tests were performed in the temperature of 135 to 200  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  at a heating rate of 1  $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ . The PP25 plate was set for zero gap and the heating plate was pre-heated to the required temperature of 135  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  and maintained for 15 minutes prior to placing the sample. The prepared samples, parallel plate (PP25) and the Rheometer used to characterize the test samples are shown in Figure 3.8. The

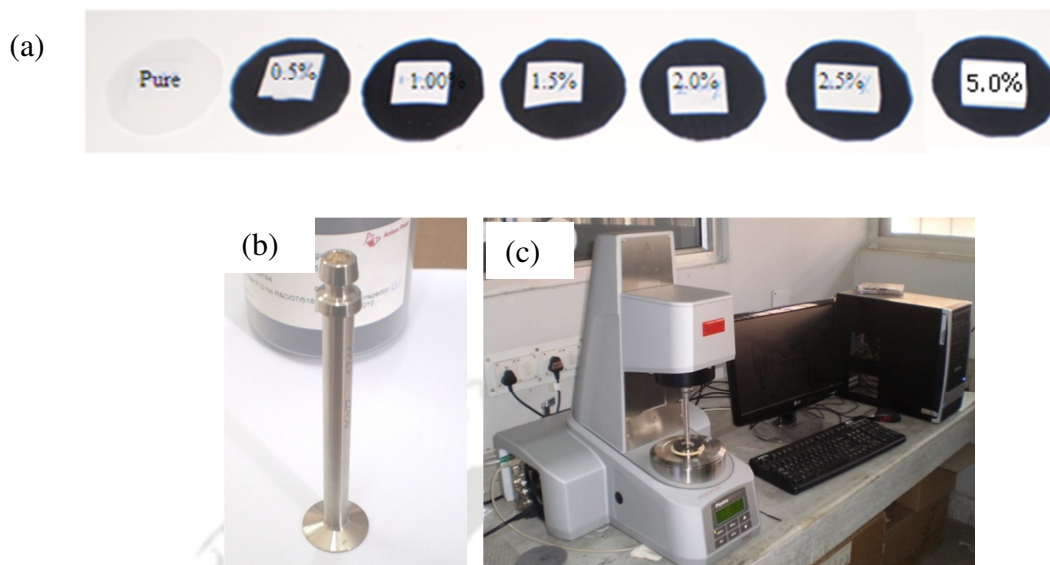


Figure 3.8 a) Polymer and composite test samples b) Parallel plate (PP25) measuring system c) Anton-Paar Rheometer

homogenous dispersion of MWCNTs in UHMWPE was ensured by estimating the rheological percolation of the composites by varying the angular frequency from 0.1 to 100 rad/s at the shear strain amplitude of 5 % at a constant temperature of 160 °C. The parameters for the rheological studies were chosen based on the results reported by Huang et al. [2006] and Grady [2011].

### 3.11 Differential scanning calorimeter (DSC)

Thermal characterization by DSC is the most widely used technique to estimate the degree of crystallinity of polymers. A Netzsch simultaneous thermal analyser, model STA 449F3 having the DSC resolution of <math>< 1\mu\text{W}</math>, microbalance resolution of <math>< 1\mu\text{g}</math> and the heating rate accuracy of 0.001 K/min. was used for the calorimetric analysis of the test samples according to ASTM F2625-10 standard. The test was performed from room temperature to 200 °C at a heating rate of 10 K/min. The sample holder, made of Alumina, was heated in a muffle furnace upto 1200 °C to remove the contaminants from the pan, if present, later it was sonicated in an ultrasonic bath and dried in an oven to ensure contaminant and moisture free sample holder. The Alumina pan with

perforated lid was used with a sample weighing 5-6 mg. The height of the sample was maintained within 1 mm, and the base of the samples was ensured to have a complete contact with the base of the pan in order to avoid any thermal gradient in the sample and maintain uniform heat flow. Argon was used to purge the sample chamber and the furnace at 20 and 60 ml/min., respectively. The test set up was calibrated with Indium standard at a heating rate of 10 K/min. prior to testing the sample. The DSC set up used in the present study is shown in Figure 3.9. The melting endotherm was recorded and the area under endotherm was calculated by integrating from the beginning of the fusion process to the end of it. The area represents the heat of fusion of the material per unit mass of the sample. The percentage crystallinity of the material is obtained by normalizing the heat of fusion of the sample ( $H_s$ ) with that of the heat of fusion of 100 % crystalline polymer (e.g.  $H_f = 289.3$  J/g for polyethylene-ASTM F2625-10).

% Crystallinity of polyethylene — ... 3.4



Figure 3.9 Differential scanning calorimeter

### 3.12 Gamma irradiation

Gamma irradiation of all the test specimens has been performed in air by  $\text{Co}^{60}$  source at a dosage rate of 2.5 kGy/h for the cumulative dosage of 25, 50, 75 and 100 kGy at M/s Microtrol Sterilization Private Limited, Bangalore, India. As the mechanical properties and wear resistance of the polymer saturate at above 100 kGy irradiation, Kurtz [2009], the irradiation study was carried out up to 100 kGy dosage level. The irradiated samples were designated as GI(dose)NC(wt. %) for composites or GI100 $\alpha_T$ (wt. %) in case of  $\alpha_T$  blends; say a 50 kGy gamma irradiated 2 wt. % composite is represented as GI50NC2.0. Similarly a 50 kGy gamma irradiated  $\alpha_T$ 0.1 sample is represented as GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.1. No post irradiation treatments were performed on the test samples in order to understand the interaction between MWCNTs or  $\alpha_T$  and the free radicals. It also helps to estimate the role of MWCNTs in reducing the deteriorating effects of irradiation process. The mechanical properties of irradiated samples were characterized at definite period such as within 10 days, 60 and 120 days after irradiation process.

### 3.13 Scanning electron microscope (SEM)

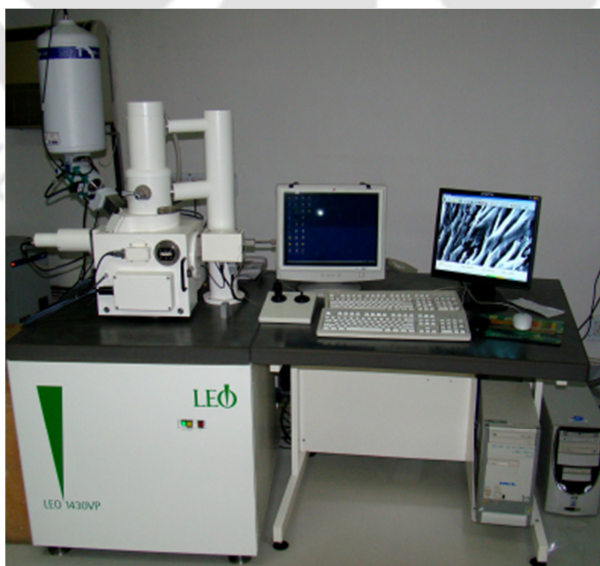


Figure 3.10 Scanning electron microscope

The surface morphology of the polymer blends and composites at different stages of the experimentation was studied using Leo 1430 VP SEM with a maximum magnification of 100 kX and the spatial resolution of ~10 nm. The test specimen was sputter coated with Au in order to make a conductive surface on the sample. Figure 3.10 shows the pictorial view of the SEM.

### **3.14 Transmission electron microscope (TEM)**

A 200 kV Transmission Electron Microscope, JEOL JEM 2100, was used to identify the defects formed on the surface of MWCNTs after the irradiation process. High resolution TEM and selective area electron diffraction (SAED) were also used to obtain the crystal planes of MWCNTs. Figure 3.11 shows the pictorial view of TEM.



Figure 3.11 Transmission electron microscope

### **3.15 Laser micro Raman spectroscope**

The stress transfer from polymer to reinforcement was confirmed by Raman spectra using a laser micro Raman (Jovin Yvon, Triax 550) in the backscattering mode equipped with 488 nm blue laser (Argon) and a CCD detector coupled with a monochromator having the XY step

resolution of 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$ , wave number accuracy of  $\pm 1 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and its resolution is  $0.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The equipment was also used to study the irradiation induced defects on the surface of MWCNTs. Figure 3.12 shows the pictorial view of micro Raman spectroscope.

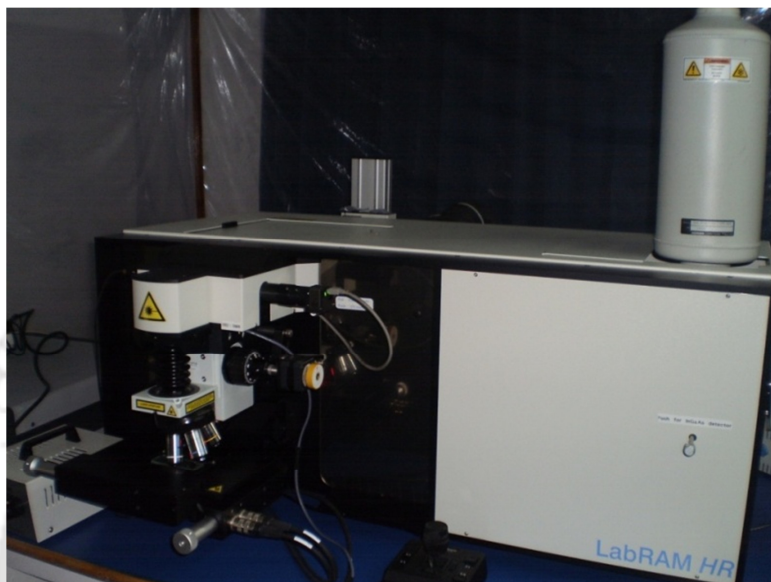


Figure 3.12 Laser micro Raman spectroscope

### 3.16 Electron spin resonance (ESR) spectroscope

ESR is a technique used to detect and quantify the unpaired or odd electrons in atomic or molecular systems. The identification of a particular species of radical is depending on the spectral splitting factor or the g- value, which is given by the equation 3.5.

$$\dots 3.5$$

Where 'h' is the plank's constant ( $6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s}$ )

f – is the frequency band of the ESR spectroscope, 9 GHz,

$\beta$  – is the electron Bhor magneton ( $9.27 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J/T}$ )

$H_r$  is the resonance frequency of the external magnetic field obtained from the spectrum

The g-value of organic or polymeric radicals varies slightly from the free electron value of  $g = 2.0023$ .

The various parameters used during the sample testing were given below:

Magnetic field parameters: Center field- 350 mT, Sweep width- 25 $\times$ , Time- 30 seconds;

Current parameters: Modulation width- 0.35 $\times$ 1, Time constant- 0.3, Microwave power- 1mW;

Acquisition parameters: Total sweep- 1.

The experimental spectrum is a first derivative curve and its intensity is directly proportional to the radical concentration present in the test sample. The area under the integral curve is called as an absorption curve. As the radical concentration depends on the mass of the sample, which was kept in the range of  $5.0 \pm 0.1$  mg. Figure 3.13 shows the pictorial view of the ESR spectroscope.

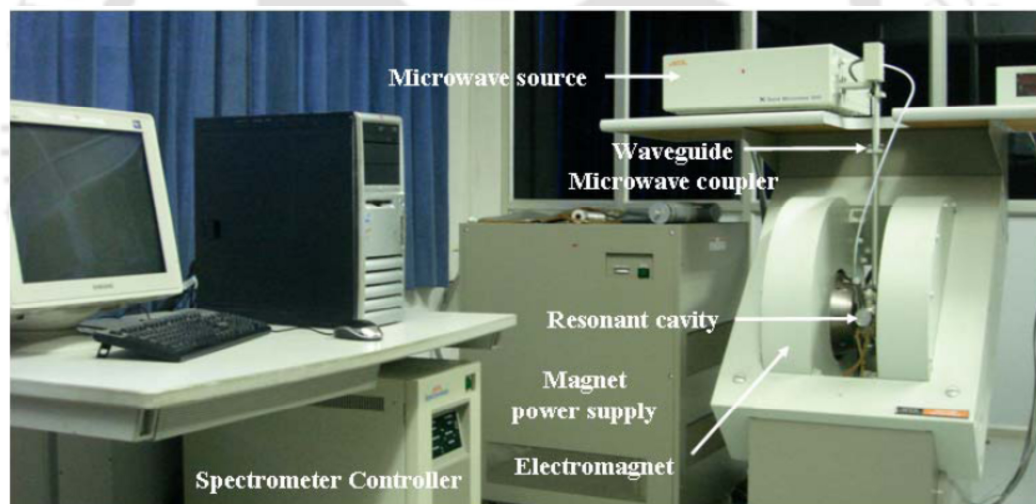


Figure 3.13 ESR spectroscope

### 3.17 X-Ray diffractometer (XRD)

Powder XRD is a nondestructive tool used to obtain the information about interlayer spacing, structural strain and the impurities in MWCNTs. It was used to monitor the structural modification and changes in lattice strain of the irradiated samples. Bruker D8-Advanced tools

XRD was used to characterize the sample and it is shown in Figure 3.14. The  $d$ - spacing was calculated using “Bragg’s law” given in equation 3.6

$$2d \sin \theta = n \lambda \quad \dots 3.6$$

Where  $d$  is the interplanar spacing between the diffracting adjacent planes,  $\theta$  is the angle of the X-ray beam with the lattice plane,  $n$  represents the order of diffraction (1) and  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the X-ray used (1.5405 Å for Cu  $K_{\alpha 1}$ ).



Figure 3.14 X-Ray diffractometer

### 3.18 Atomic force microscope (AFM)

The surface topography of wear samples was studied using an atomic force microscope (AFM), Nanosurf, attached to the Nanoindenter supplied by CETR, UMT-2. The AFM has a cantilever tip operated in tapping mode under the dynamic force with tip vibration frequency of 170 kHz, vibration amplitude of 200 mV and the excitation amplitude of 1.3 V. The AFM used in the present study is shown in Figure 3.15.

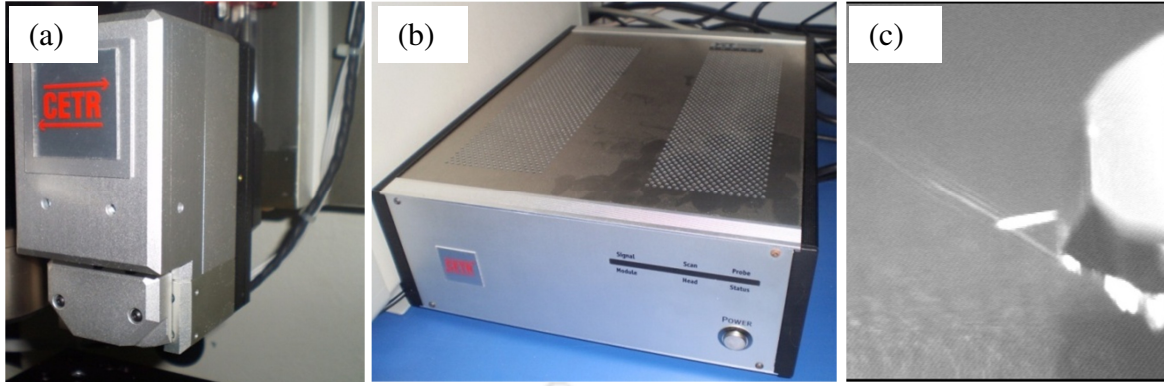


Figure 3.15 a) AFM head b) Controller c) AFM tip

### 3.19 Swell ratio test

The network parameters of the irradiated UHMWPE, composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were calculated from the swell test, which was carried out according to ASTM F2214-02 standards. The apparatus consists of a round bottom flask, retort stand, oil bath with heating coil, and a water cooled condenser with submersible pump. The samples were in the form of pellets of 6 mm diameter, and 0.5 mm thickness. In order to prevent thermal degradation of the sample, 1.00 wt. % of antioxidant (Irganox) was added into o-Xylene. The sample was immersed in the o-Xylene-antioxidant solution and the same was heated up to 150 °C. The thickness of the test sample was monitored using the linear variable differential transformer (LVDT) probe at an interval of 15 minutes until an equilibrium swelling of the sample was reached within  $\pm 10 \mu\text{m}$  accuracy. Then the temperature of the solution was reduced to 50 °C. The samples, having the signs of cracking and yellowing were discarded from the measurement. The crosslink density (CLD) of irradiated sample ( $v_d$ ) was calculated using the equation 3.7, which is given below:

$$v_d = - \frac{\ln\left(1 - \frac{1}{q_s}\right) + \frac{1}{q_s} + \frac{\chi_1}{q_s^2}}{\phi_1 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{q_s}} - \frac{1}{2q_s}\right)} \quad \dots 3.7$$

where  $q_s = (H_F/H_0)^3$ ,  $H_F$ - final height of sample,  $H_0$  - initial height of the sample,  $\phi_1$ - molar volume of the solvent (o-Xylene) = 136 [ $\text{cm}^3/\text{mol}$ ] and  $\chi_1$  - Flory interaction parameter for the

polymer-solvent system, which is given by  $\chi_1 = 0.33 + 0.55/q_s$ . The swell test apparatus used to measure the CLD of the test sample is shown in Figure 3.16.



Figure 3.16 Swell test apparatus

### 3.20 Pin-on-disc (POD) setup

In order to study the wear behavior of the test samples under dry sliding conditions a POD wear tester was used. The wear tests of both unirradiated and irradiated test samples were performed using a POD Tribometer, Ducom, TR-20. The sample used for the POD test was a 4 mm diameter circular pellet, which was secured at the end of the pin. The test samples were sonicated for about 15 minutes in an ultrasonic bath and later cleaned with ethanol and dried to remove any surface contaminants prior to testing. The load on the POD wear test sample was 55 N and the test was run at a speed of 0.83 m/s on the track of 80 mm diameter for the sliding distance of 20 km. The linear wear of the sample was monitored by the LVDT probe. The counterface used in the POD test was made of medical grade 316L stainless steel with an average surface roughness of 0.03 ~ 0.04  $\mu\text{m}$  confirming to ISO-5832-1 standards, which was supplied by M/s Shushrut Surgical Pvt. Ltd, Pune, India. The wear factor was calculated using the equation 3.8, which is given below.

— ... 3.8

Where,  $V$  - wear volume ( $\text{mm}^3$ ),  $P$  – load applied (N) and  $L$  – sliding distance (m). The POD Tribometer and the SS316L counterface used in this study are shown in Figure 3.17.

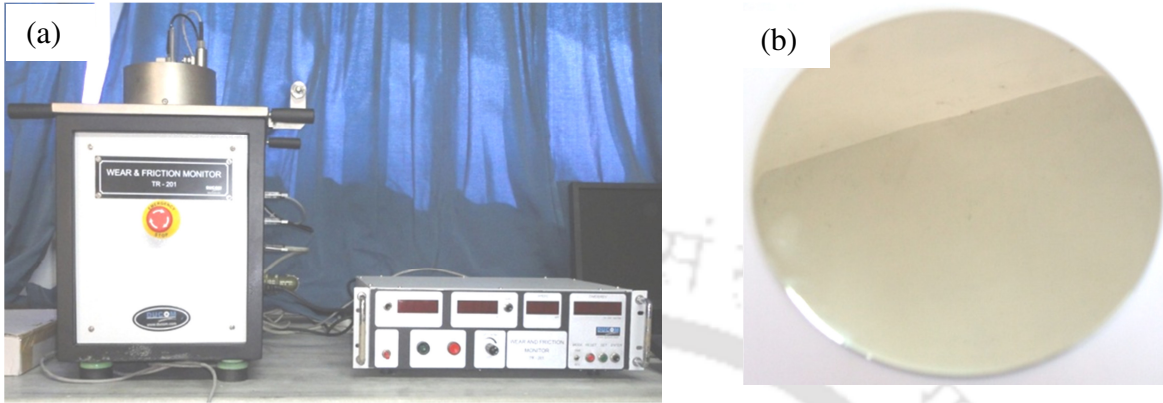


Figure 3.17 a) POD Tribometer b) 316 L stainless steel counter face

### 3.21 Simulated body fluid (SBF) study

SBF study is a primary and an essential test to establish the biocompatibility of the developed material, where the formation of apatite on the composites was confirmed. The ion concentration of the SBF is almost equal to that of human blood plasma and it is shown in Table 3.1. The SBF solution was prepared by the procedure suggested by Wang et al. [2009] using various chemical reagents listed in Table 3.2. The test samples were soaked in the SBF solution and incubated at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The samples were then taken out of it after 1, 3, 5, 7, 15 and 30 days in order to confirm the rate of deposition of apatite layer on the sample. All the samples were weighed prior to their soaking in the SBF. The weight of the sample and pH value of the SBF solution were monitored regularly using Sartorius: BSA224S-CW weighing balance and Sartorius pH meter model: PB-11, respectively. The formation of hydroxyapatite (HA) was confirmed by energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDAX) and micro Raman studies. Scanning electron microscope was also used to study the HA coating over the test surface. Figure 3.18 shows the preparation of SBF and the soaked samples in SBF.

Table 3.1. Ion concentration (mmol/L) of SBF and human blood plasma, Sousa et al. [2003]

	Na <sup>+</sup>	K <sup>+</sup>	Ca <sup>2+</sup>	Mg <sup>2+</sup>	Cl <sup>2-</sup>	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	HPO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>
SBF	142	5	2.5	1.5	147.8	4.2	1.0	0.5
Human Plasma	142	5	2.5	1.5	103.0	27	1.0	0.5

Table 3.2. Reagents used to prepare SBF, Wang et al. [2009]

Sl no	Name of the Reagent	Chemical composition	Purity (%)	weight
1	Sodium chloride	NaCl	99.8	8.011 g
2	Sodium hydrogen carbonate	NaHCO <sub>3</sub>	99.5	0.355 g
3	Potassium chloride	KCl	99.5	0.225 g
4	Di-potassium hydrogen phosphate trihydrate	K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> · 3H <sub>2</sub> O	99.0	0.231 g
5	Magnesium chloride hexahydrate	MgCl <sub>2</sub> · 6H <sub>2</sub> O	98.0	0.311 g
6	Hydrochloric acid	1 M HCl	-	39 ml
7	Calcium chloride	CaCl <sub>2</sub>	95.0	0.292 g
8	sodium sulfate	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	99.0	0.072 g
9	Tris-(hydroxymethyl) aminomethane	(CH <sub>2</sub> OH) <sub>3</sub> CNH <sub>2</sub>	99.0	6.118 g
10	Hydrochloric acid	1 M HCl	-	0-5 ml

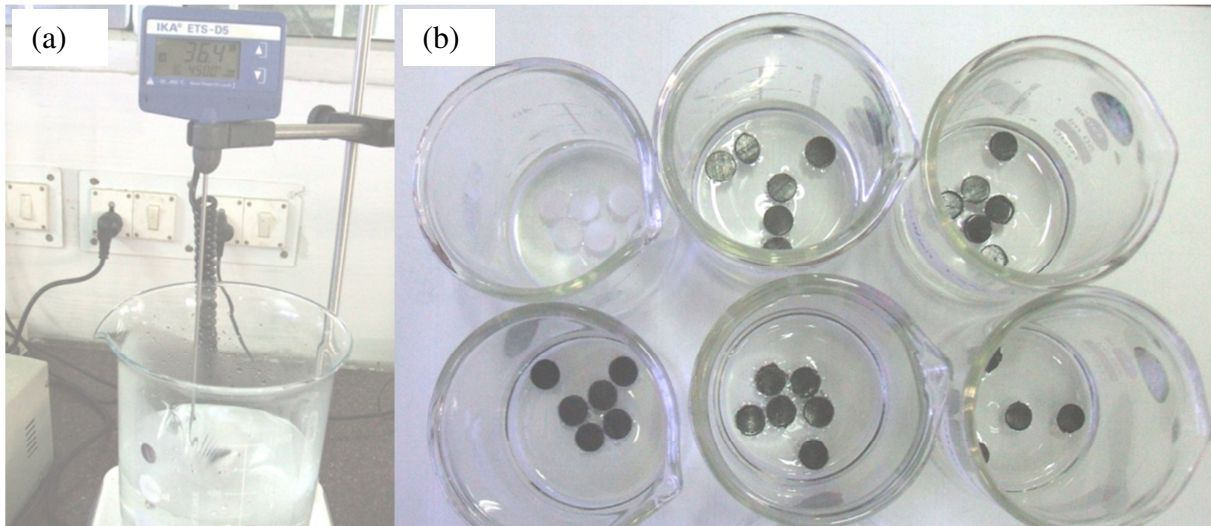


Figure 3.18 a) Preparation of SBF b) Samples soaked in SBF

### 3.22 Platelet adhesion test

The platelet adhesion test was performed as suggested by Ren et al. [2005]. A 100 ml of fresh human blood was extracted from a healthy adult donor and the sodium citrate was mixed in it with the volume ratio of 9:1 in order to avoid coagulation. The mixture was then centrifuged for about 60 minutes to form platelet-rich plasma (PRP), which contained about  $1.078 \times 10^{10}$  platelets/ml. The polymer and composite test samples were placed in PRP in culture dishes and kept at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 min. and 3 hrs. The samples were then removed from the dishes and immersed in a phosphate buffer solution and gently rinsed for 2–3 times to remove the weakly adhered platelets on the test surface. In order to fix the platelets on the test surface, the samples were soaked in 2 % glutaraldehyde for 1 hr and later 5 % glutaraldehyde solution for 12 hrs. The samples were then removed from the solution and rinsed with distilled water. The samples were subsequently dehydrated using gradient alcohol (50, 60, 70, 80, 90 and 100 % ethanol) and then the samples were dealcoholized through isoamyl acetate water solutions (50, 60, 70, 80, 90 and 100 %). The samples were dried and the test surface was observed under scanning electron microscope. Figure 3.19 shows the PRP and the soaked samples.

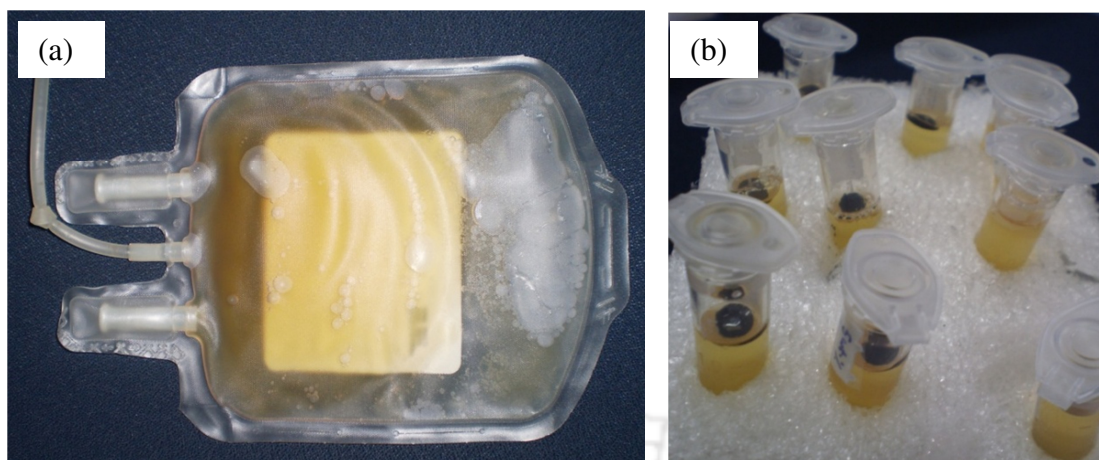


Figure 3.19 a) Platelet rich plasma b) Samples incubated in PRP

### 3.23 Local effects after *in vivo* subcutaneous implantation

Sprague Dawley rats weighing between 170-210 g were used for the *in vivo* studies. The animals were housed in a bio-safe chamber, where the following conditions were maintained: light/dark cycle for a period of 12 hrs each, temperature  $24 \pm 3$  °C and relative humidity  $55 \pm 15\%$ . During the experimental period, the rats were allowed to have free access to food and water at all times. The present study required subcutaneous implantation of the test materials and the reference materials in either side of the subcutaneous pouch of the experimental animals. The specimens were 3 mm radius pellets each weighing 10 mg. The specimens were ultrasonically cleaned in acetone and ethyl alcohol solution for 5 min. and finally rinsed in distilled water and dried. The animals were anaesthetized with ketamine ip administration. The implanted sites were swabbed with alcohol and incised. The test material was inserted in the pouch of subcutaneous region and sutured with non absorbable nylon thread. Figure 3.20 shows the various steps involved in the subcutaneous test process. In order to reduce the number of animals involved in the study, the test was performed using 2 wt. % composite, where the studies on virgin UHMWPE were considered as a standard. Five animals were taken per group and all the animals

were humanely euthanized after 4 weeks and the implant sites were dissected. Histopathological slides were prepared and observed under a digital microscope (Prime star Zeiss) for examination.

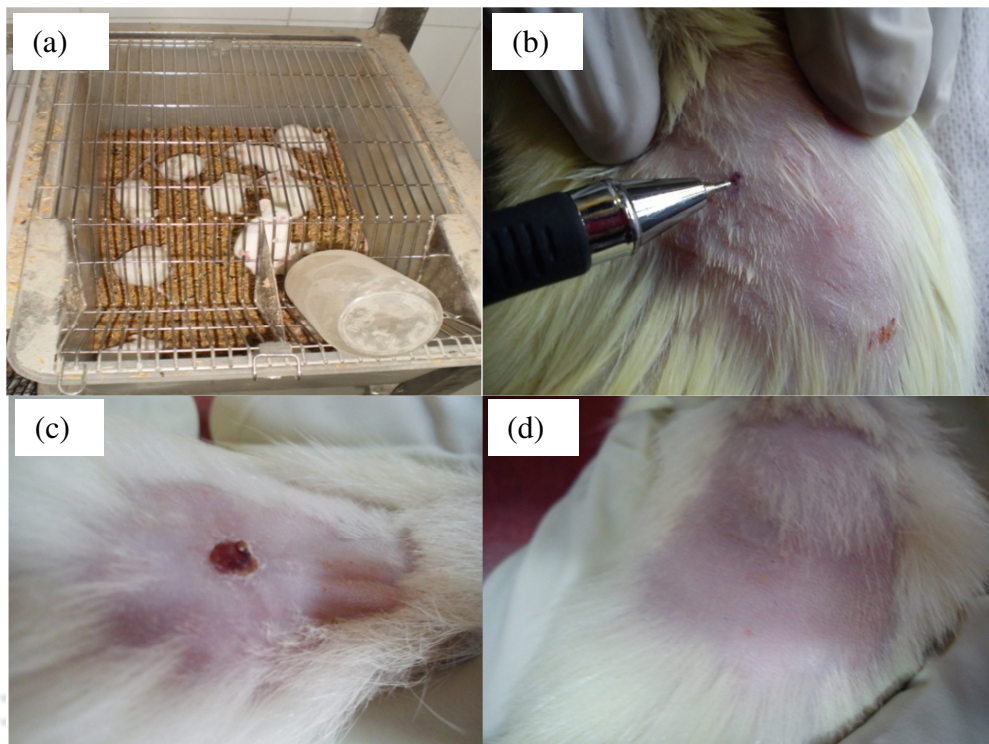


Figure 3.20 a) Test animals access to free food and water b) Location of implantation c) Incision to place the test sample d) Implanted area after suture

## Chapter 4

### Results and Discussion

The results and discussion section gives a detailed technical insight into the various experimental outcomes in a sequential order as mentioned below:

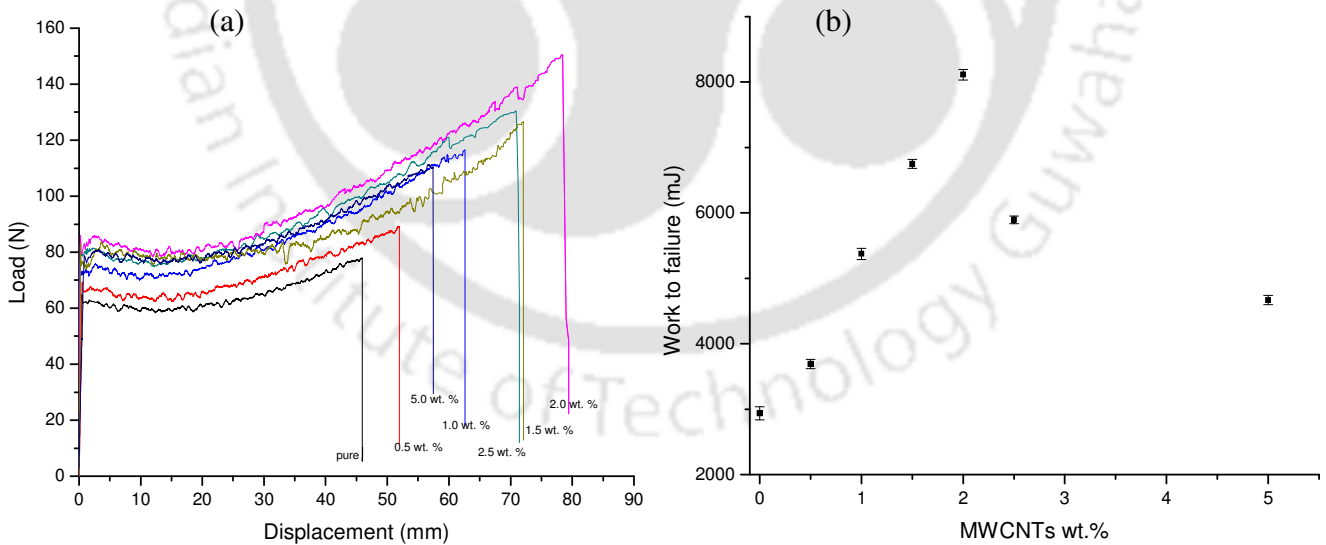
1. Mechanical properties of unirradiated UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends.
2. Mechanical properties of irradiated UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends.
3. Studies on network parameters and radical scavenging capability of MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$ .
4. Wear studies on composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends before and after the irradiation process.
5. Biocompatibility studies on UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites.

#### **4.1 Mechanical properties of unirradiated UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends**

##### **4.1.1 Mechanical properties of unirradiated UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites**

Tensile testing of the composites has been performed using the microtensile test specimen having different weight concentrations of MWCNTs such as 0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5 and 5 wt. %. The load vs. displacement plots obtained for the test samples are shown in Figure 4.1a. The mechanical properties namely work to failure, strain at fracture, and yield stress cum fracture stress were calculated and plotted in Figures 4.1b, 4.1c and 4.1d, respectively. The work to failure of the material is an indication of its resistance against wear. Although other mechanical

properties are not having any direct influence on the wear resistance of the material, they are expected to influence the resistance of the material against the damage caused by ‘impingement’ or ‘bearing lift off’, Kurtz [2009]. It is observed from Figure 4.1 that all the mechanical properties were found to be an optimum at 2 wt. % of MWCNTs in UHMWPE. The work to failure of the pure polymer was increased from 2938 to 8111 mJ, which corresponds to an enhancement of 176 % at 2 wt. % MWCNTs. Similarly other properties namely yield stress, strain at fracture and fracture stress were increased by 44, 70 and 93 %, respectively at an optimum concentration of MWCNTs. Figure 4.2 shows the percentage enhancement of the yield stress, strain at fracture, fracture stress and work to failure of composites compared to that of virgin UHMWPE, where the above observation was inferred. The enhancement of mechanical properties of UHMWPE was increased with concentration of MWCNTs, which is found to be an optimum at 2 wt. % and then it started to decrease.



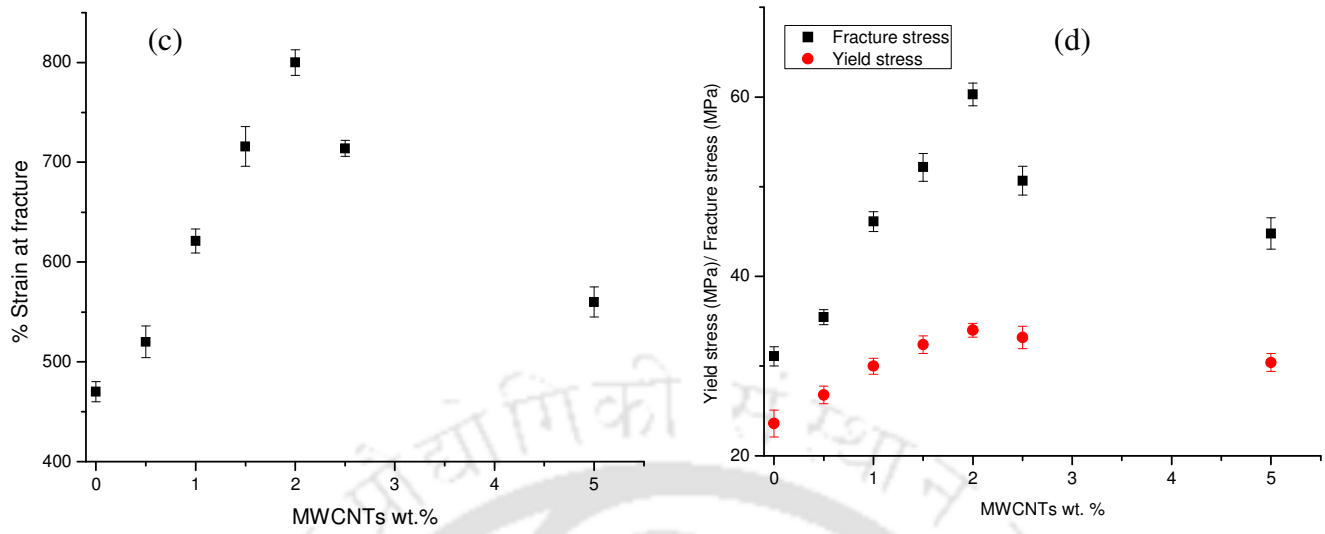


Figure 4.1. a) Load vs. displacement plots b) Work to failure c) Strain at fracture d) Yield stress and fracture stress of the UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites

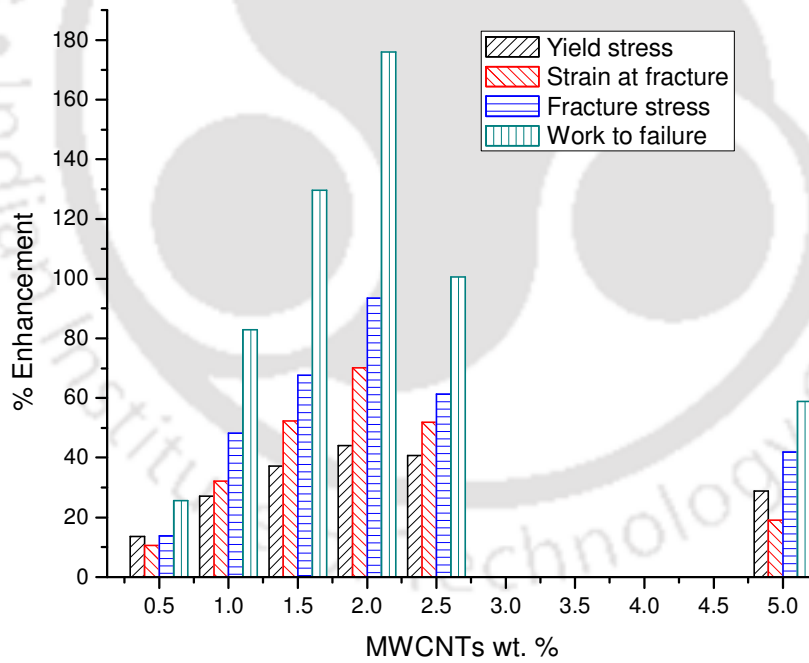


Figure 4.2. Enhancement of the mechanical properties of UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites compared with virgin UHMWPE

#### **4.1.1.1 Mechanisms involved for the enhancement of mechanical properties**

The reasons for the enhancement of mechanical properties of the composites up to 2 wt. % of MWCNTs can be explained as follows: (a) MWCNTs are known to have extraordinarily high mechanical properties, Treacy et al. [1996], thus the addition of them would obviously enhance the overall mechanical properties of the composites; (b) functionalization of MWCNTs attaches certain chemical groups on their surface, which bond with the polymer and thus aids in stress transfer from UHMWPE to MWCNTs; (c) homogenous distribution of MWCNTs in UHMWPE; and (d) the addition of MWCNTs increased the crystallinity of the polymer resulting the enhanced mechanical properties, as confirmed by Perepechko [1981]. In order to confirm the above, micro-Raman spectroscopy, rheological percolation and DSC studies were done on the test sample.

Raman spectroscopy has become a first hand and standard tool for the characterization of nanostructures and confirms the stress transfer from the matrix to the filler, Samrutishika [2010]. The Raman spectra of 2 wt. % composites before and after the tensile testing have been studied and shown in Figure 4.3. It is observed that the G- band peak of the test sample before tensile testing was obtained at  $1541\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and it was shifted to  $1550\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the same sample after tensile testing. The G-band observed between  $1500\text{ to }1600\text{ cm}^{-1}$  denotes the in Plane vibration of  $\text{sp}^2$  carbon-carbon bonds. When MWCNTs are subjected to either tensile or compressive stresses, the C-C bond vibrations change due to the induced strain, which is reflected in the Raman spectra, Cronin et al. [2004]. It leads to a change in either intensity or position of the G - band. Thus, the observed shift in G-band, shown in Figure 4.3, can be used to qualitatively confirm the effective stress transfer from UHMWPE to MWCNTs. According to Minfang et al. [2009], the MWCNTs surfaces provided nucleation sites for the crystallization that subsequently

enhance the MWCNT–polymer interaction leading to effective stress transfer from matrix to reinforcement. Since a shift in G- band confirms the stress transfer. Thus, the enhancement of mechanical properties of the UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites was achieved.

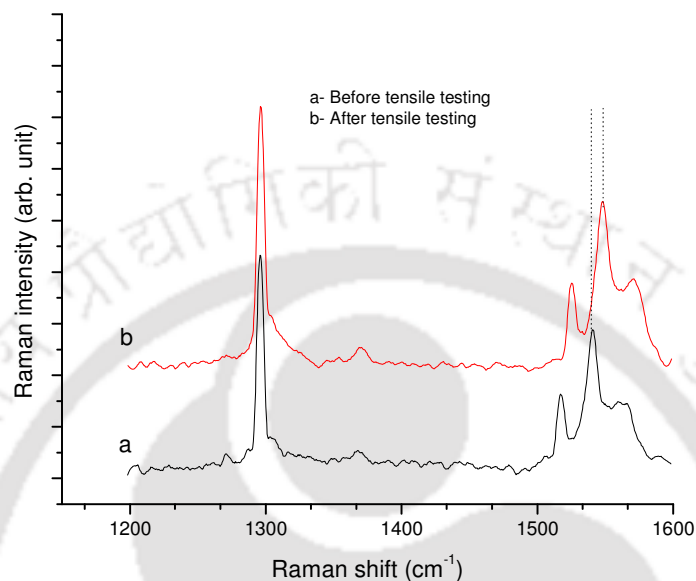


Figure 4.3. Raman spectra of 2 wt. % UHMWPE/MWCNTs composite: before and after the tensile test

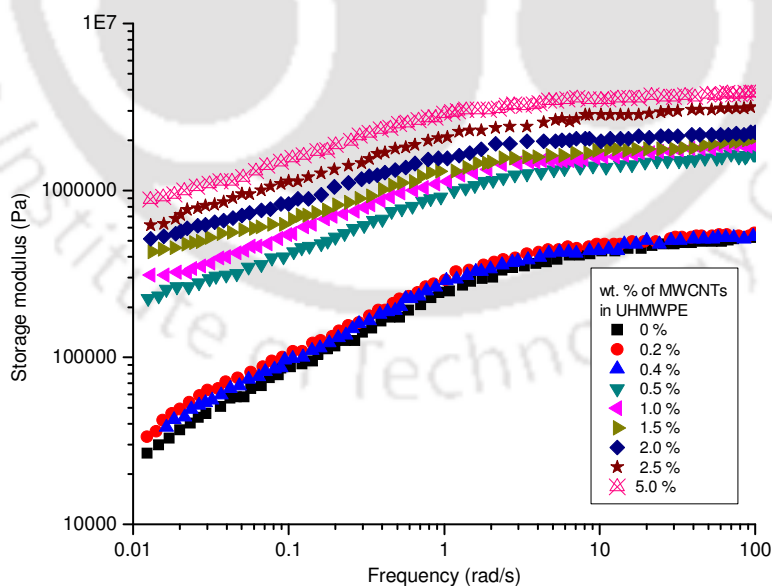


Figure 4.4. Assessment of homogeneous dispersion of MWCNTs in UHMWPE using rheological percolation threshold technique

The homogeneous dispersion of the MWCNTs is confirmed by estimating the rheological percolation of the composites. The term percolation is defined as the concentration of filler material, where a long range connectivity is exhibited by the filler network in the matrix. In rheological experiments, the property that is typically used for estimating the percolation threshold is the storage modulus, Grady [2011]. Figure 4.4 shows the storage modulus of the composites against angular frequency. In order to obtain more accurate threshold value, two additional composites having 0.2 and 0.4 wt. % MWCNTs were prepared and tested. It is observed that no significant change in the storage modulus was observed upto 0.4 wt. % of MWCNTs. The storage modulus of virgin UHMWPE was found to be 26.7 kPa at 0.015 rad/s, which was slightly increased to 33.7 kPa at 0.4 wt. % of MWCNTs. When the concentration of reinforcement was increased to 0.5 wt. %, a very large change in storage modulus was observed and it was increased to 233.2 kPa which is one order higher. However, the change in storage modulus of the composites was not so significant beyond 0.5 wt. %. In other words, the percolation threshold was found to be at 0.4 wt. % above which a significant change in storage modulus was observed. A lower percolation threshold implies better debundling of reinforcement in the matrix. If it is less than 1 wt. %, then the dispersion at nanoscale is considered to be very good, Du et al. [2004]. The rheological studies carried out by Zhang et al. [2006] obtained a threshold limit at 0.6 wt. % of SWCNTs in UHMWPE, whereas the same was found to be 0.4 wt. % in our case. The variation of threshold value may be due to the fact that it varied significantly with type, size, shape and aspect ratio of the filler.

In order to confirm the increase of crystallinity of the composites, DSC studies were performed on the test sample. Figures 4.5a and 4.5b show the DSC thermograms and the crystallinity of the composites, respectively. It is observed from Figure 4.5a that the melting

temperature of the composites was not affected by the presence of MWCNTs. A weak shoulder peak was also observed indicating the presence of small crystals. It is observed from Figure 4.5b that the crystallinity of virgin UHMWPE was found to be 52.5 %, which was increased to 64.7 % upon addition of 2 wt. % MWCNTs corresponding to an enhancement of 23 %. An increase of crystallinity can be attributed to enhance the mechanical properties of composites. It is interesting to note that although optimum mechanical properties were obtained at 2 wt. % composites, the crystallinity was continued to increase to 67 and 72.3 % at 2.5 and 5 wt. % composite, respectively. The reason for the enhanced crystallinity with an increase of MWCNTs concentration is that the MWCNTs acted as sites for nucleation of crystallization of polymer and thus it enhanced the crystallinity of the composite, Sreekanth et al. [2012]. Although the crystallinity of the composites was increased beyond 2 wt. % of MWCNTs, the mechanical properties were found to be reduced. The reasons for the reduction of mechanical properties of the composites beyond 2 wt. % MWCNTs are discussed in the next section

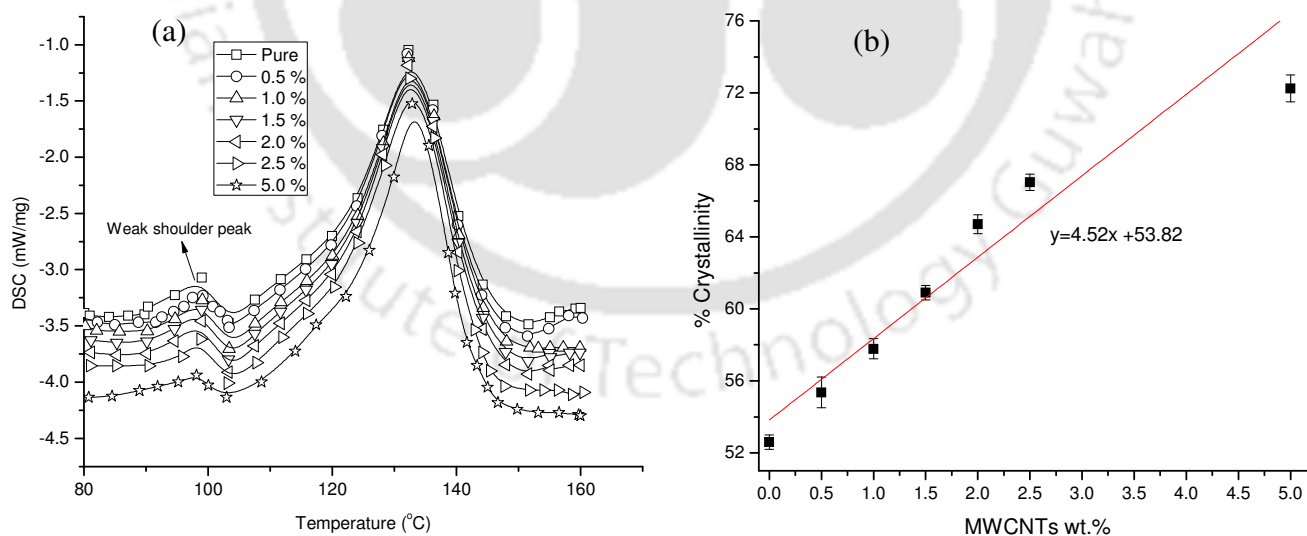


Figure 4.5. a) DSC thermograms and b) Crystallinity of the UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites

#### 4.1.1.2 Reasons for the reduction of mechanical properties of composites beyond 2 wt. % MWCNTs

The reasons for the reduction of mechanical properties could be attributed to the following effects: firstly, there are many studies focused on the rheological characterization of polymer/MWCNTs composites, Chatterjee et al. [2005] and Du et al. [2004], which reported that the viscosity of the composite melt was increased with MWCNTs concentration. It was also found that liquid- like to solid- like transitions of polymer melt were observed with an increase of filler concentration. In order to confirm the above transition behavior, the oscillatory rheometry tests were conducted for all the composites upto 5 wt. % to assess the variation of their complex viscosity with MWCNTs concentration against temperature and the observed results are shown in Figure 4.6. It is observed that the complex viscosity of pure polymer and composites in the temperature range of 135 to 155 °C was increased by an order of magnitude and it was decreased by upto 5 % when the temperature was raised to 200 °C. The complex viscosity of

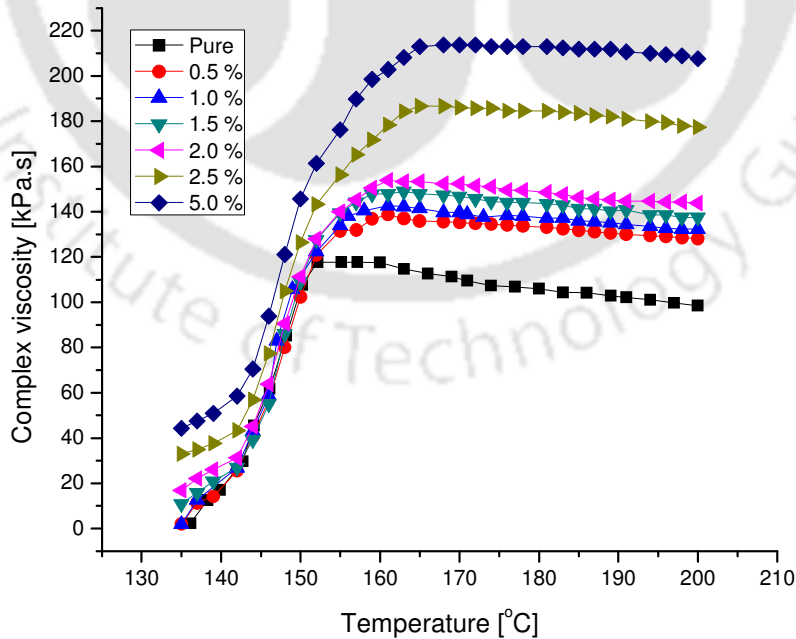


Figure 4.6. Complex viscosity of UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites against temperature

pure polymer at 200 °C was found to be 98 kPa.s, and the same for 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5 and 5 wt. % composites was increased by 30, 34.6, 39.7, 45, 83.4 and 113 %, respectively compared to pure polymer. As UHMWPE is known to have high melt viscosity, the processibility of the polymer was further reduced due to its enhanced viscosity with an addition of MWCNTs beyond optimum concentration. Secondly, the functionalization of MWCNTs increased their available surface area to interact with polymer, Singh et al. [2008]. In the present study, the surface area of MWCNTs as given by manufacturer is about 200 m<sup>2</sup>/g and thus the corresponding amount of polymer available with raw material mixture is not sufficient enough to properly wet the MWCNTs surface leading to the formation of voids in the polymer at higher loading. The severity of the said problem is even higher at 2.5 and 5 wt. % of MWCNTs in UHMWPE. Thirdly, MWCNTs are known to have extraordinary thermal properties in addition to their mechanical properties. The thermal conductivity and specific heat of MWCNTs are 3000 W/m-K, Yang et al. [2009] and 0.71 kJ/kg-K, Pradhan et al. [2009], respectively; while the same for UHMWPE is 0.41 W/m-K, and 1.84 kJ/kg-K [Ticona data sheet]. The heat required for a given temperature raise in the polymer is 2.6 times more than that of the MWCNTs. When equal amount of heat is supplied to MWCNTs and polymer, as in the case of compression moulding, the raise in temperature is higher for MWCNTs than the polymer. As the thermal conductivity of MWCNTs is few order higher than that of the polymer and the maximum heat flow is possible through the path of least resistance, a greater amount of heat is expected to flow through MWCNTs than the polymer. It is evident from the above discussion that although polymer needs higher amount of heat than the MWCNTs for a given temperature raise, but owing to its low thermal conductivity the heat available for its consolidation becomes less. Consequently, it leads to the formation of microvoids in the composites beyond 2 wt. %.

The cumulative effects of increased viscosity beyond 2 wt. % of MWCNTs and higher thermal conductivity and lower specific heat of MWCNTs compared to polymer lead to the formation of microvoids in the composites, which cause the reduction of mechanical properties at higher loadings of MWCNTs. In order to confirm the formation of microvoids with an increase of MWCNTs beyond the optimum concentration, the surface of 5 wt. % composite was also studied in addition to 2.5 wt. %, where a large number of defects and microvoids was observed.

Figures 4.7a–4.7e show the SEM images of the composites at different concentrations to confirm the above observation. The SEM images of 1 and 2 wt. % composites are shown in Figures 4.7a and 4.7b, respectively, where the defect free surfaces were observed. Figures 4.7c and 4.7d show the SEM images of 2.5 wt. % composite, where the presence of microvoids in the range of 0.5 to 2  $\mu\text{m}$  was observed under higher magnification (1000 x). However, the size of the voids for 5 wt. % composites, which is shown in Figure 4.7e, was increased in the order of tens of micron and thus the voids were visible even at lower magnification (100 x). The presence of MWCNTs in large quantity reduces the amount of polymer available to wet the surface of them and the amount of heat available for polymer processing. Thus, it led to incomplete consolidation of the polymer and a large number microvoids with increased dimension. The voids present in the test sample act as defective zones leading to the reduction of mechanical properties at higher concentration of MWCNTs. Due to the above mentioned reasons, the mechanical properties of composites were reduced beyond 2 wt. % of MWCNTs even though the crystallinity was found to be increased.

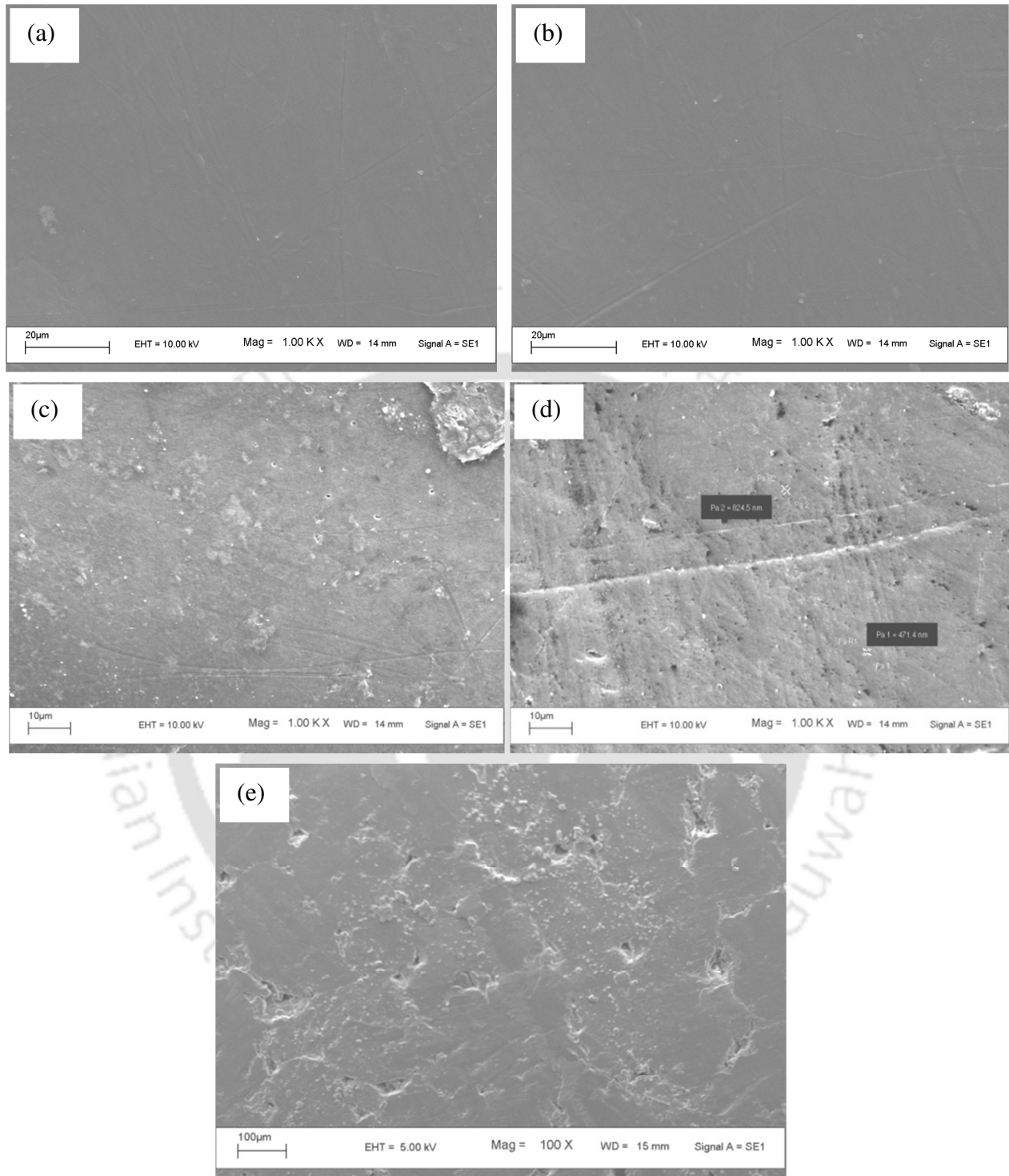


Figure 4.7. SEM images of a) 1 wt. % b) 2.0 wt. % (c) and (d) 2.5 wt. % e) 5 wt. %

UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites

#### **4.1.1.3 Surface hardness and plasticity index of composites using Nanoindentation technique**

Figures 4.8a and 4.8b show the indenter position obtained against load from the Nanoindentation test with creep segment for ASP and SLR samples, respectively. It is observed from Figure 4.8a that the ascent of loading curve increased with concentration of MWCNTs in the polymer, which implies that the load required to produce same depth of indent in the test sample was increased with MWCNTs concentration. It also confirms that the addition of MWCNTs has hardened the surface of UHMWPE. A similar trend was observed for both ASP and SLR samples. At a peak load of 10 mN, the depth of indent of 0, 1.0 and 2.0 wt. % composites was 3.25, 3.03 and 2.69  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively for ASP samples. In case of SLR samples, the depth of indent for the same composition of sample at 10 mN was observed to be 3.43, 3.21 and 2.97  $\mu\text{m}$ , which is shown in Figure 4.8b. The depth of indent of 0, 1.0 and 2 wt. % composites of SLR samples was 5, 5.9 and 10.4 % more than that of the respective results obtained for ASP samples, which indicates that the ASP samples are found to have more surface hardness than the SLR samples due to surface oxidation. The comparison of results obtained for ASP and SLR samples in case of 0 and 2 wt. % composites is shown in Figure 4.8c, where it is observed that the depth of indent on ASP samples was lower than that of SLR samples for the same loading condition. The possible reason for the difference in hardness between ASP and SLR samples could be attributed to the oxidation of UHMWPE surface during the processing condition, Costa et al. [1997a]. It is observed from Figure 4.8d that the hardness of ASP sample was increased from 26.1 MPa for pure polymer to 45.7 MPa for 2 wt. % composite samples, which corresponds to 75 % enhancement. The hardness of 2.5 and 5 wt. % composites was observed to be increased by 85 and 116 % compared to that of pure polymer. It is a known fact that amorphous polymers

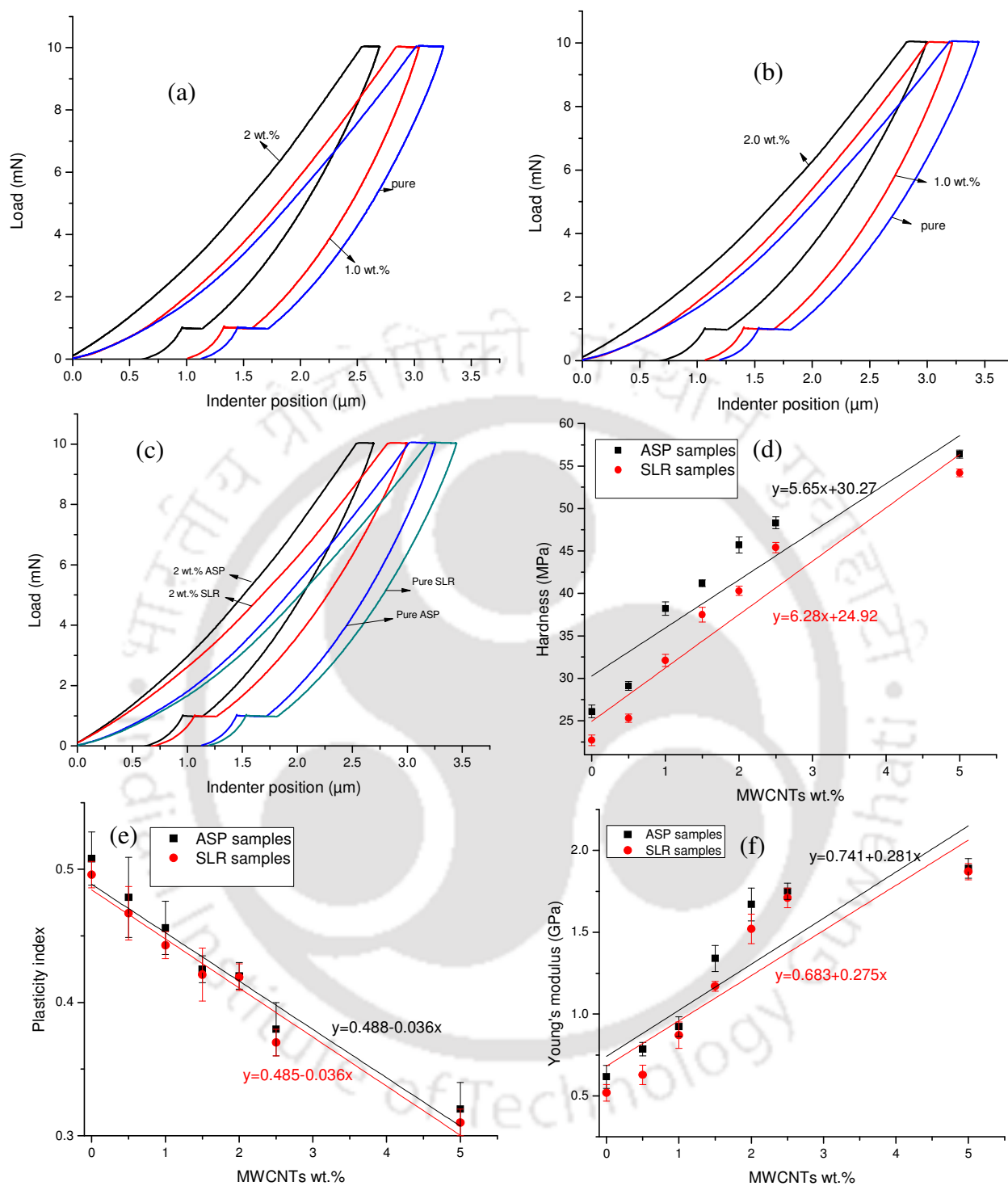


Figure 4.8. a) Indenter position against load for ASP samples b) Indenter position against load for SLR samples c) Comparison of the indenter position for ASP and SLR samples d) Hardness of the test samples e) Plasticity index of the test samples and f) Young's modulus of ASP and SLR samples

are softer than the crystalline polymers, Perepechko [1981], and thus, the hardness of composite was increased due to continuous increase of crystallinity beyond 2 wt. % MWCNTs. In case of SLR samples, the enhancement of hardness was found to be 76 % when the MWCNTs concentration was increased from 0 to 2 wt. %. The hardness of pure polymer was reduced from 26.1 MPa for ASP samples to 22.7 MPa for SLR samples, i.e. 13 % reduction the hardness of 2 wt. % composites was 45.7 MPa for ASP samples and 40.3 MPa for SLR samples corresponding to a reduction of 11.8 %. In the case of 5 wt. % composite, the hardness of ASP and SLR samples was found to be 56.4 and 54.2 MPa, respectively, i.e. a reduction of only 3.9 %. It clearly indicates that the presence of MWCNTs during the consolidation process can also reduce the severity of surface oxidation of the polymer. The hardness of pure polymer observed in this study is ~ 8 % less than that of results reported in the literature i.e. 28.5 MPa, Wang et al. [2007]. The variation between the observed and reported results may be due to different processing parameters employed during the consolidation process of UHMWPE.

Figure 4.8e shows the influence of MWCNTs concentration on plasticity index of the test material, where the creep segment was not considered as suggested by Briscoe et al. [1998]. Plasticity index is the measure of the elastic recovery ability of a material after the deformative load is removed. It primarily depends on surface roughness and hardness of the material and it is usually higher for rough and softer materials, Kogut et al. [2004]. Materials with higher plasticity index generally have high friction, surface temperature and higher wear volume, Nakajima et al. [1998]. As shown in Figure 4.8e, the plasticity index of ASP 2 wt. % composite was observed to be 17.3 % less compared to that of pure polymer and it was further reduced by 25.1 and 35 % for 2.5 and 5 wt. % composites, respectively. A significant reduction of plasticity index beyond 2 wt. % composite is due to the fact that the softer materials have higher plasticity

index than the harder materials, Kogut et al. [2004]. It is noted from earlier discussion that an increase of crystallinity enhanced the hardness, which in turn reduced the plasticity index of composites at higher loadings of MWCNTs beyond 2 wt. %. The observed results of both ASP and SLR samples are found to be not varied significantly because of the fact that the ability of plastic strain recovery of both ASP and SLR sample was close to each other. The reduction of plasticity index with an increase of MWCNTs concentration is due to the fact that MWCNTs are flexible and they do not undergo any plastic deformation at such low load, Briscoe et al. [1998], but UHMWPE is expected to undergo plastic deformation. However, due to strong interfacial bonding between MWCNTs and UHMWPE, as confirmed from the micro-Raman studies, MWCNTs help UHMWPE in elastic recovery and hence it reduces the plasticity index at higher loadings. The reduction of plasticity index of UHMWPE by reinforcing MWCNTs aids in minimizing the problem of deformation induced wear due to cold flow of the material, Rieker et al. [2003], and also lesser wear volume due to reduction in severity of the asperity contact.

Figure 4.8f shows the Young's modulus of ASP and SLR samples. It is observed that the Young's modulus of UHMWPE was observed to be 0.617 GPa, which was increased to 1.67 GPa at 2 wt. % of MWCNTs and the corresponding enhancement was about 170 % for ASP samples. When the MWCNTs concentration was further increased to 2.5 and 5 wt. %, the Young's modulus was observed to be increased by 183.6 and 206.3 %, respectively. Although the bulk mechanical properties were reduced beyond 2 wt. % composite, the Young's modulus was increased up to 5 wt. % composite. It is due to the fact that the surface properties measured using Nanoindenter are not influenced by the formation of voids or any other defects present in the test sample that arise during the consolidation process. The Young's modulus of SLR sample of pure polymer was observed to be 0.52 GPa, which was increased by 200, 229 and 260 % for

2, 2.5 and 5 wt. % composites, respectively. It is also noted that the Young's modulus of ASP samples of pure polymer and 2 wt. % composites was higher by 15 and 8 %, respectively compared to that of respective SLR samples.

Figures 4.9a and 4.9b show the AFM image of the indented surface of pure UHMWPE and 2 wt. % composite, respectively, where the elastic recovery of the material after indentation is confirmed in the composite sample. A triangle is drawn to indicate the actual shape of the indent. It is observed from Figures 4.9a and 4.9b that the elastic recovery of virgin UHMWPE was relatively less compared to that of 2 wt. % composite. It is also observed that the elastic recovery of the test sample was more at the side of the triangle than its vertices. It is due to the fact that the stress concentration was high at the vertices and hence the severity of deformation was found to be high.

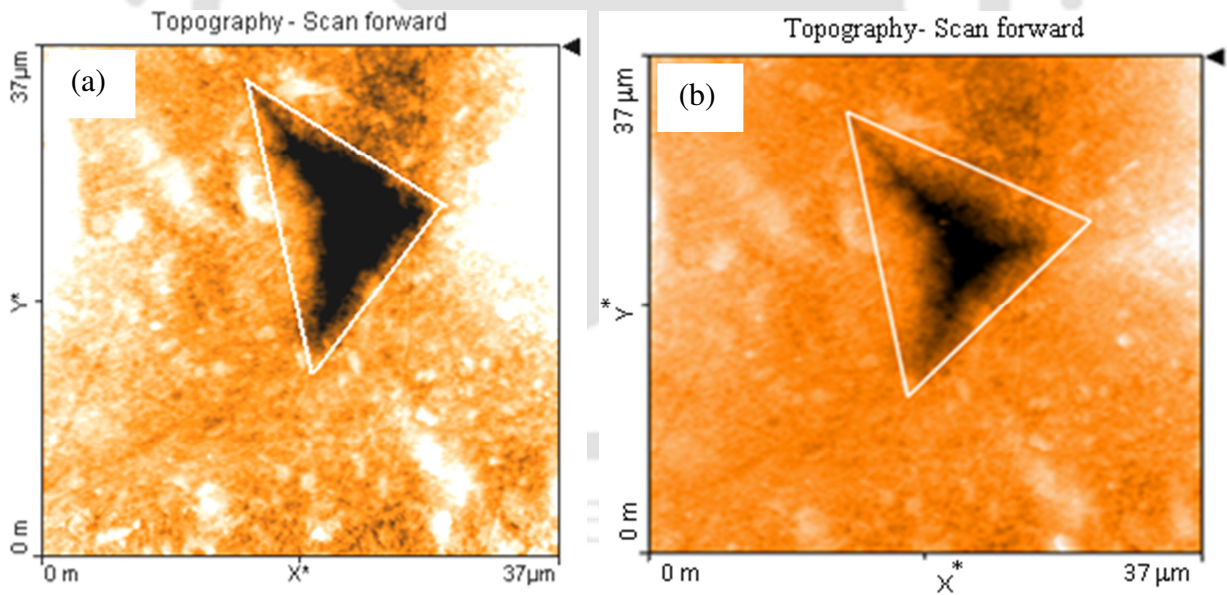


Figure 4.9. AFM image of the indent produced on a) Pure polymer b) 2 wt. % composite

The Young's modulus of the composites obtained from nanoindentation studies is compared with Halpin-Tsai theoretical models. The governing equation for the Young's modulus of the composites using Halpin-Tsai model, [Vasiliev \[2007\]](#), is given below:

Halpin-Tsai equation

$$\frac{E_C}{E_m} = \frac{3}{8} \left[ \frac{1+2(l/d)\eta_L V_{cnt}}{1-\eta_L V_{cnt}} \right] + \frac{5}{8} \left[ \frac{1+2\eta_T V_{cnt}}{1-\eta_T V_{cnt}} \right] \quad \dots 4.1$$

Where

$$\eta_T = \frac{\frac{E_f}{E_m} - 1}{\frac{E_f}{E_m} + 2}, \text{ and} \quad \dots 4.2$$

$$\eta_L = \frac{\frac{E_f}{E_m} - 1}{\frac{E_f}{E_m} + 2(l/d)} \quad \dots 4.3$$

$E_C$ - Young's modulus of the composite,

$E_f$ - Young's modulus of the filler (MWCNT- 1340 GPa), [Yakobson et al. \[2001\]](#), [Belluci \[2005\]](#)

$E_m$  - Young's modulus of the matrix (UHMWPE- 0.617 GPa). (obtained from the experimental results)

Density of the filler – 2.16 g/cc (obtained from manufacturer's data)

Density of the matrix – 0.93 g/cc (obtained from manufacturer's data)

(l/d) ratio-86, [Kanagaraj et al. \[2007\]](#)

$\eta_T$  and  $\eta_L$  are the parameters depending on the elastic modulus of the matrix and filler materials.

The weight fraction of the composites was converted in to volume fraction considering the density of both matrix and reinforcement, and it is given in the Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Conversion of weight percentage to volume percentage

MWCNTs	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	5.0
wt. %						
Vol %	0.22	0.43	0.65	0.87	1.09	2.22

As all the results in the thesis were discussed based on the weight fraction, the predicted values of the Young's modulus were plotted against the weight fraction and the results are shown in Figure 4.10, which shows the comparison of the modulus of the composites obtained experimentally and theoretically.

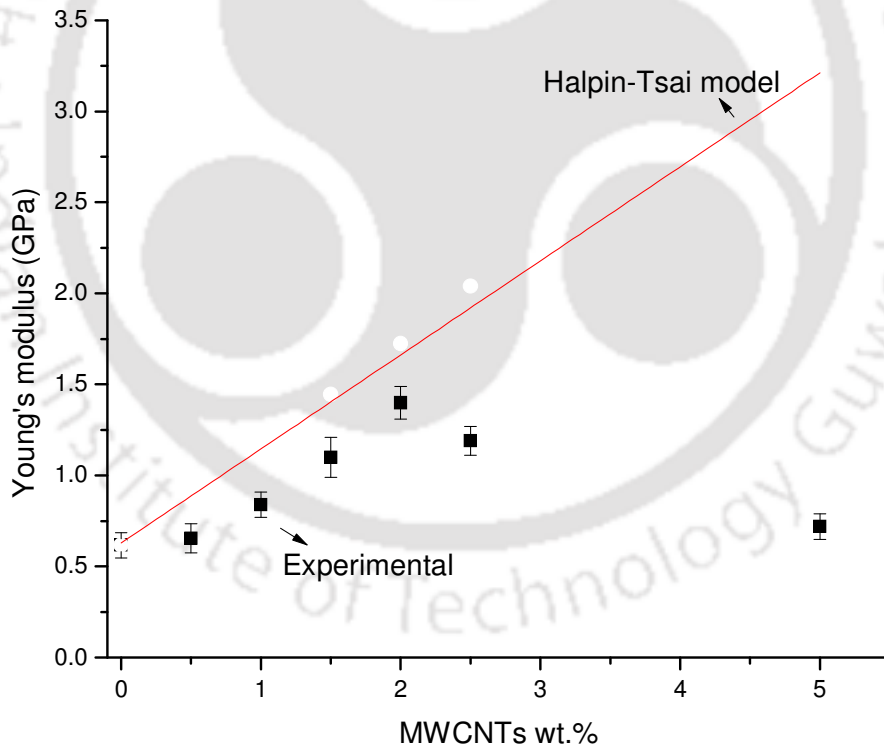


Figure 4.10. Comparison of the theoretical and experimental results of the elastic modulus of the composites

It is observed from Figure 4.10 that the difference between Young's modulus obtained using experimental and HT equation was within 10 % up to 2 wt. % MWCNTs. However, the difference between them is found to increase by 72 and 337 % for 2.5 and 5 wt. % composites, respectively. The increased difference between them is due to the fact that the theoretical models did not consider the experimental anomalies like the possibility of agglomeration, manufacturing difficulties due to increased filler content, micropores, increased viscosity, difficulties in homogeneous dispersion of reinforcement and others.

The mechanical properties of the composites such as work to failure, Young's modulus, fracture stress, strain at failure obtained in the present study were compared with the published literature, and are shown in Figure 4.11a-d. It is observed from Figure 4.11a that the Young's modulus of all the composites with different fillers showed an increasing trend compared to virgin UHMWPE. However, the highest increase of 170 % was obtained in the present study. The fracture stress and strain at fracture shown in Figure 4.11b and 4.11c, respectively, have shown either increasing/ decreasing trend depending on the reinforcement type. However, the fracture stress and strain at fracture of the composites were observed to be increased by 93 and 70 %, respectively in the present study. The yield stress of composites, shown in Figure 4.11d, has exhibited an increasing trend with different fillers, and it is observed that the yield stress was increased by 44 % in the present study.

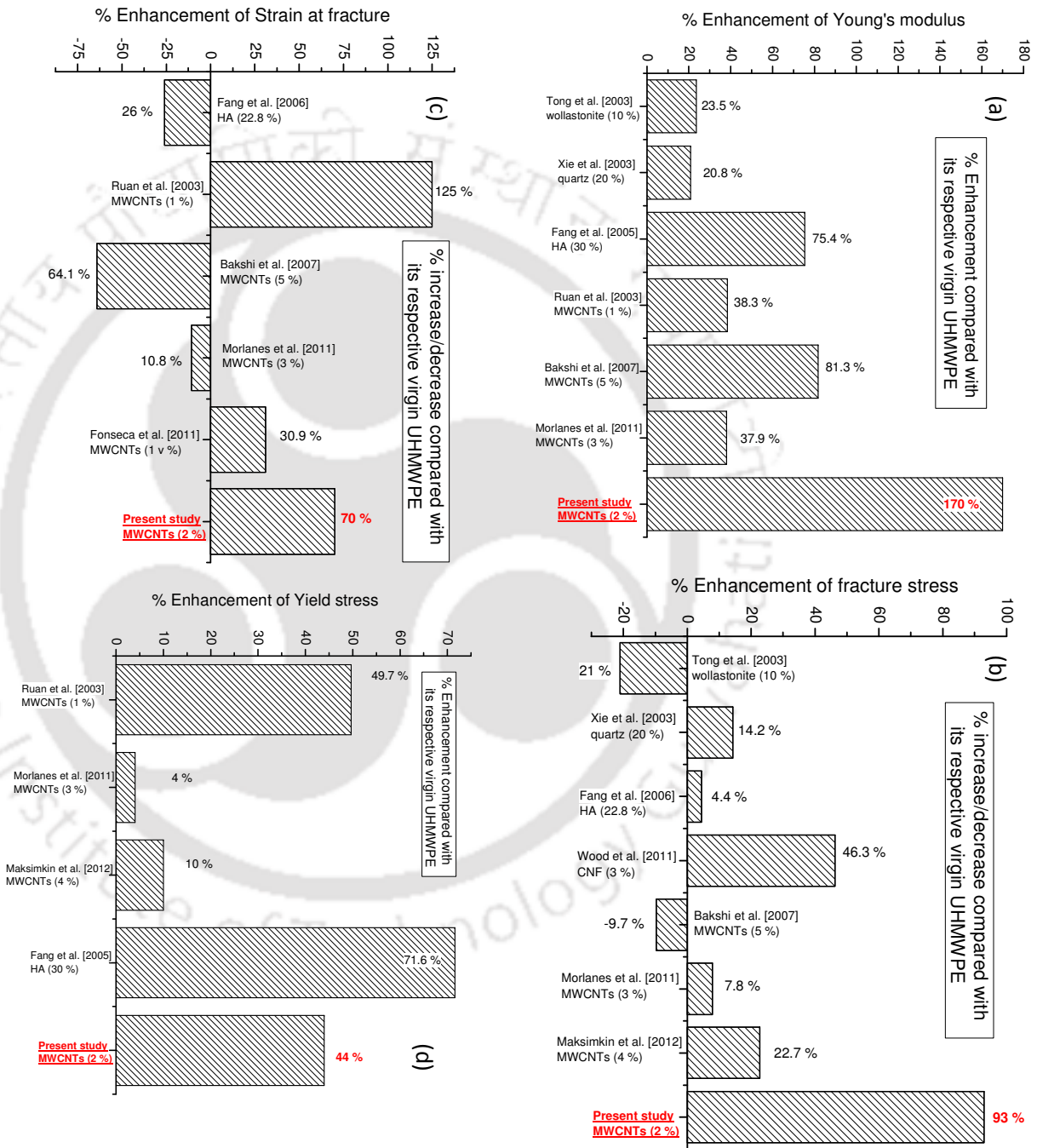


Figure 4.11. Comparison of the mechanical properties obtained from the present study with the published literature a) Young's modulus b) Fracture stress c) Strain at fracture d) Yield stress

### 4.1.2 Mechanical properties of unirradiated UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends

Figure 4.12 shows the work to failure, strain at fracture, fracture stress and yield stress of UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends. The work to failure of the blend was varied from 2928 mJ for  $\alpha_T$  0.1 to 2993 mJ for  $\alpha_T$  0.5 and the corresponding enhancement, 2 %, is well within the experimental deviation from that of virgin UHMWPE. Similarly, the strain at fracture was increased from 462 % for  $\alpha_T$  0.1 to 473 % for  $\alpha_T$  0.5, while the same for virgin UHMWPE was 470 %. The yield stress and fracture stress of UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends were also found to be varied between 24 to 24.5 MPa and 30.4 to 31.3 MPa, respectively, when the  $\alpha_T$  content was increased from 0.1 to 0.5 wt. %. In general, it is observed that the properties of unirradiated UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends are not varied significantly compared to that of virgin UHMWPE irrespective of the concentration of  $\alpha_T$ . It is due to the fact that  $\alpha_T$  acted as an antioxidant and not as a reinforcement material. Moreover, the effects of oxidation during the processing of UHMWPE are negligible on the bulk properties hence the mechanical properties of UHMWPE are not influenced by the presence of  $\alpha_T$ .

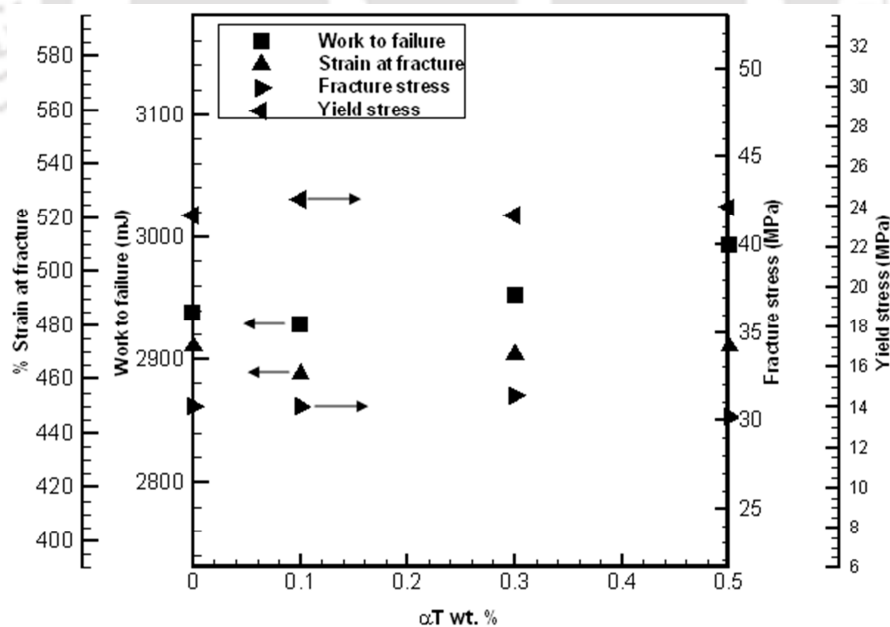


Figure 4.12. Mechanical properties of unirradiated UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends

#### **4.1.3 Summary of the mechanical properties of unirradiated UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends**

The mechanical properties of MWCNTs composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends of different compositions were tested according to ASTM D1708 standard. The optimum concentration of MWCNTs reinforcement in UHMWPE was obtained at 2 wt. %, where the work to failure, strain at fracture, yield and fracture stress were increased by 176, 93, 70 and 44 %, respectively, compared to that of pure polymer. The reasons for the enhancement of mechanical properties upto an optimum concentration were attributed to high mechanical properties of MWCNTs, homogeneous dispersion of MWCNTs in UHMWPE, good interfacial stress transfer from polymer to reinforcement, and improved crystallinity. An increased viscosity and the substantial difference in thermal properties of MWCNTs and UHMWPE were found to be primary reasons for the reduction of mechanical properties beyond optimum concentration. These two parameters influenced the formation of microvoids with different dimension. The hardness, Young's modulus and the plasticity index of the composites, both ASP and SLR samples, have been assessed using the Nanoindenter, where a linear trend was observed against MWCNT concentration. The hardness of ASP samples was found to be higher than that of SLR samples. The hardness and Young's modulus of ASP samples were found to be increased by 75 % and 170 %, respectively, whereas the plasticity index was reduced by 17.3 % for 2 wt. % composite compared to pure polymer. The Young's modulus and plasticity index of SLR samples are similar to ASP samples. The mechanical properties of UHMWPE are not influenced by the presence of  $\alpha_T$ .

## 4.2 Mechanical properties of irradiated UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends

The mechanical properties of the composites irradiated at 25, 50, 75 and 100 kGy doses were studied to understand the role of MWCNTs to restrict the degradation of properties due to shelf ageing. The properties were assessed on a time scale of within 10 days, 60 and 120 days after irradiation. Although an optimum concentration of reinforcement was achieved at 2 wt. % of MWCNTs, other concentrations such as 0.5, 1.0 and 1.5 wt. % were also included in the study to observe the trend followed with increased concentration of MWCNTs. The mechanical properties of UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends having different concentrations such as 0.1, 0.3, and 0.5 wt. % were also studied on the same time scale as that of composites in order to study the individual influence of them.

### 4.2.1 Mechanical properties of composites and $\alpha_T$ blends within 10 days after irradiation

#### 4.2.1.1 Mechanical properties of composites

The load vs. displacement plots of composites at 25 and 100 kGy irradiation doses are shown in Figures 4.13a and 4.13b, respectively. The trend observed in Figure 4.13 against irradiation dose is similar to that of unirradiated samples shown in Figure 4.1a. The data for the mechanical properties of the test samples at different irradiation doses within 10 days after irradiation was obtained from the load vs. displacement plots and shown in Figures 4.14a – 4.14c. The work to failure of the test samples was evaluated by integrating the area under load vs. displacement plot upto their failure point. It is observed from Figure 4.14a that the work to failure of the polymer was linearly increased with concentration of MWCNTs and irradiation dose. It is noted that the work to failure of unirradiated pure polymer was 2938 mJ, which was

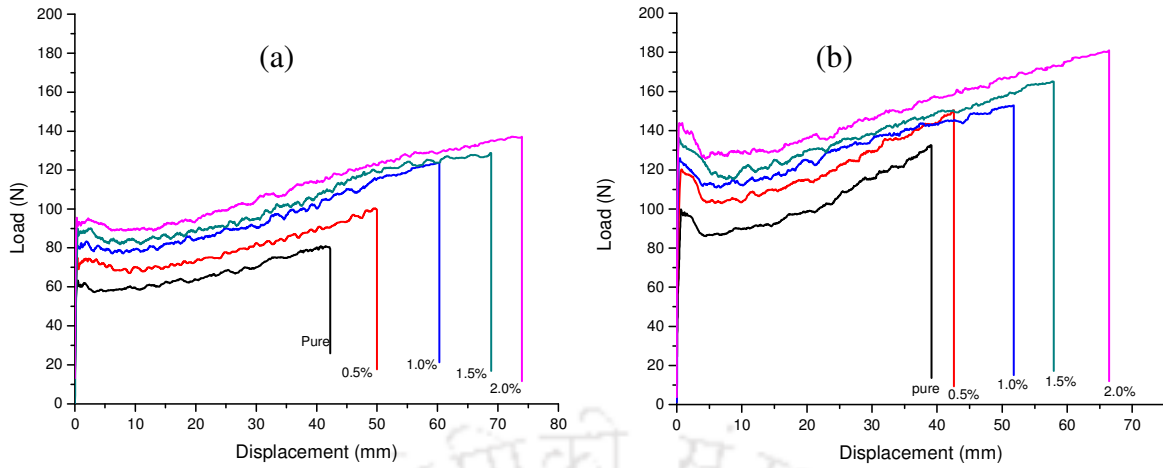


Figure 4.13. Load vs. displacement plots of composites at a) 25 kGy dose b) 100 kGy dose within 10 days of irradiation

increased to 3065, 3243, 3501 and 3979 mJ upon irradiation at 25, 50, 75 and 100 kGy doses, respectively and the corresponding enhancement was 4.3, 10.3, 19.1, and 35.4 %. The work to failure of GI100NC0.5, GI100NC1.0, GI100NC1.5, and GI100NC2.0 was also found to be enhanced by 28, 68, 107, and 149 %, respectively compared to that of GI100NC0.0 test sample. The enhancement of work to failure with irradiation dose is due to the crosslinks formed in the polymer chains using the free radicals formed from C-H cleavage, Kurtz [2009]. The higher irradiation doses usually lead to the generation of more number of free radicals, which take part in the crosslinking process leading to increased work to failure of polymer and composites.

The strain at fracture of composites is shown in Figure 4.14b. It is observed that strain at fracture of the UHMWPE was increased with MWCNTs concentration at any given irradiation dose. However, it was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose at a given MWCNTs concentration. The strain at fracture of pure polymer at 25 kGy irradiation dose was observed to be 440 %, which was reduced to 371 % upon 100 kGy irradiation. In case of GI25NC2.0, the strain at fracture was reduced from 763 to 659 %, when the irradiation dose was increased from

25 to 100 kGy. It is due to the fact that the crosslinking induced by the irradiation process resulted in long molecular chains with infinite mass restricting the mobility of polymer chains, which led to the reduction of fracture strain of the test materials, Premnath et al. [1999]. However, the results obtained by Morlanes et al. [2011] contradicted the above observation, where it was reported that the fracture strain of UHMWPE was reduced with an increase of MWCNTs concentration and irradiation dose. In our case, the strain at fracture of UHMWPE was increased with MWCNTs concentration but reduced with irradiation dose. The probable reason for the same may be due to the fact that MWCNTs were chemically treated, in our case, in order to ensure good interaction between the matrix and MWCNTs, which is very crucial in realizing the fullest potential of MWCNTs. However, no such modification of MWCNTs was reported by Morlanes et al. [2011], which led to the formation of clusters and thus reducing the fracture strain.

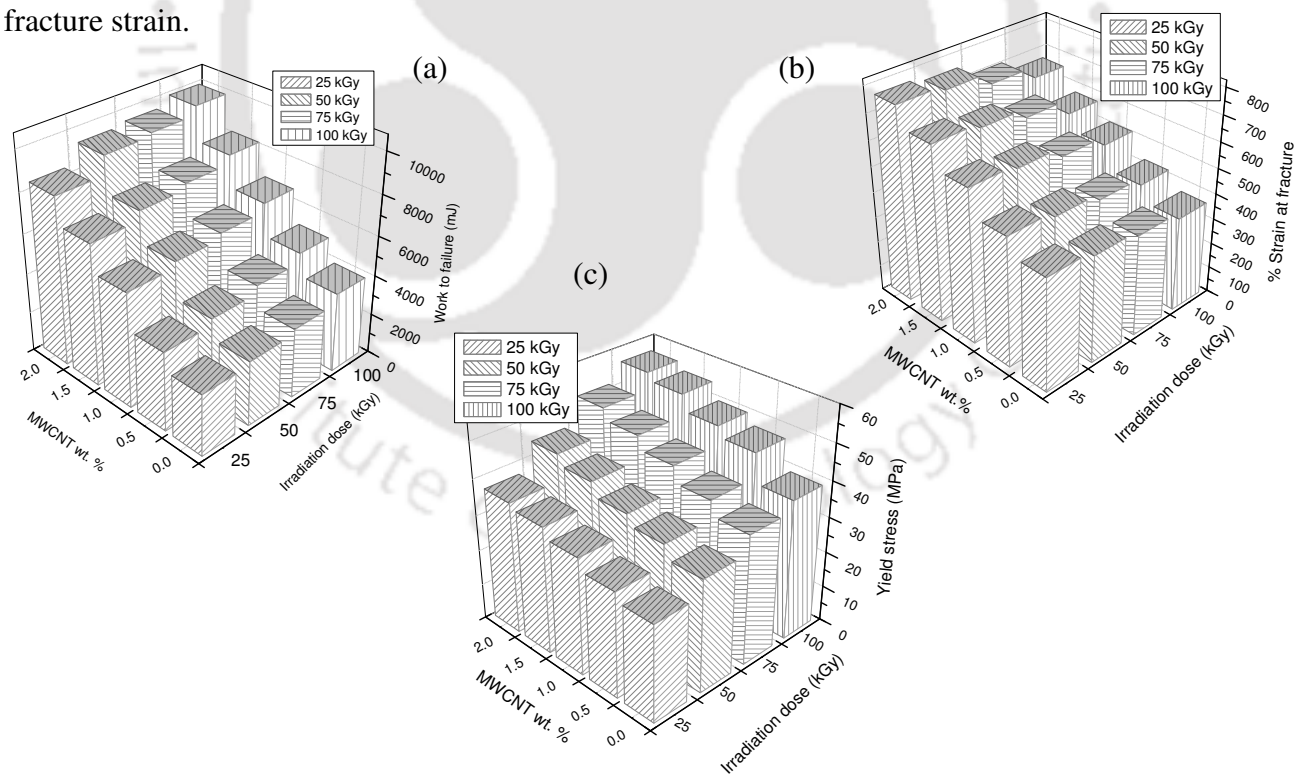


Figure 4.14. Mechanical properties of composites within 10 days after irradiation a) Work to failure b) Strain at fracture c) Yield stress

It is observed from Figure 4.14c that the yield stress of UHMWPE was increased with MWCNTs concentration and irradiation dose. The yield stress of GI25NC0.0 was increased from 27.2 to 37 MPa by adding of 2 wt. % MWCNTs corresponding to an enhancement of 39 %, which was further improved to 44 % at 100 kGy. In case of GI25NC2.0, the enhancement of yield stress was observed to be 48.4 % at 100 kGy dose.

The reasoning for the enhancement of work to failure and yield stress and the reduction of strain at fracture of composites with an increase of irradiation dose could be explained by the mechanism of crosslinking. The gamma radiation of polymer produces excited molecules, both positive and negative ions, which react to form second generation of active intermediates leading to the formation of free radicals, Premnath et al. [1999]. The primary radicals generated during the process of irradiation can occur either by C-C cleavage resulting the breakage of backbone of the polymer or due to C-H cleavage, Lewis [2001]. The C-C cleavage results in a phenomenon called chain scission, while the C-H cleavage leads to crosslinking. During the process of irradiation of polymer, both crosslinking and chain scission processes occur simultaneously. The chain scission process leads to the reduction of mechanical properties as it breaks the backbone of the polymer, while the crosslinking process increased the work to failure and yield stress of the polymer. Higher irradiation dose leads to the generation of more number of free radicals, which take part in the crosslinking process. As the number of crosslinks is increased with irradiation dose, the polymer becomes stiffer and it demands higher loads to deform elastically leading to increased yield stress of the test material. It also causes the reduction of strain at fracture of the composites.

#### **4.2.1.2 Mechanical properties of $\alpha_T$ blends**

The load vs. displacement plots of  $\alpha_T$  blend samples at 25 and 100 kGy dosage are shown in Figures 4.15a and 4.15b, respectively, where it is observed that the properties are varied with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  concentration, unlike in case of the unirradiated condition. The mechanical properties of  $\alpha_T$  blends were evaluated from the load vs. displacement plots and are shown in Figure 4.16a – 4.16c. Figure 4.16a shows the work to failure of  $\alpha_T$  blends, which was increased with irradiation dose but decreased with raise in  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The work to failure of GI25 $\alpha_T$ 0.1, GI25 $\alpha_T$ 0.3 and GI25 $\alpha_T$ 0.5 was observed to be 3005, 2922, and 2841 mJ, respectively corresponding to the reduction of 2, 2.3, and 7.3 % compared to that of 25 kGy irradiated pure polymer. In case of 100 kGy irradiated sample, the respective reduction was observed to be 15, 22.3 and 24 % in comparison with pure polymer. A similar observation was also reported by Oral et al. [2005], where the work to failure of irradiated  $\alpha_T$  blended UHMWPE was found to be less than that of irradiated virgin UHMWPE. It is also noted that the work to failure of UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends, irrespective of  $\alpha_T$  concentration, at 25, 50 and 75 kGy irradiation doses was found to be varied within experimental deviation compared to that of unirradiated virgin UHMWPE. However, the work to failure of  $\alpha_T$ 0.1,  $\alpha_T$ 0.3 and  $\alpha_T$ 0.5 test samples at 100 kGy dose was found to have an enhancement of 14.9, 5.2 and 2.7 %, respectively compared to that of unirradiated virgin UHMWPE. The reason for the enhancement of work to failure of the UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends with irradiation dose is attributed to be the same as that of composites, as discussed earlier. However, there was no significant influence of 25, 50 and 75 kGy irradiation doses on the work to failure of  $\alpha_T$  blend compared to that of 100 kGy dose. It is due to the fact that most of the free radicals generated at low irradiation dose reacted with  $\alpha_T$ , thus it left with only fewer radicals available for crosslinking. The situation becomes severe with an increase of

$\alpha_T$  content, consequently the enhancement of work to failure was not observed at higher concentration of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE. Figure 4.16b shows the strain at fracture of blend test samples

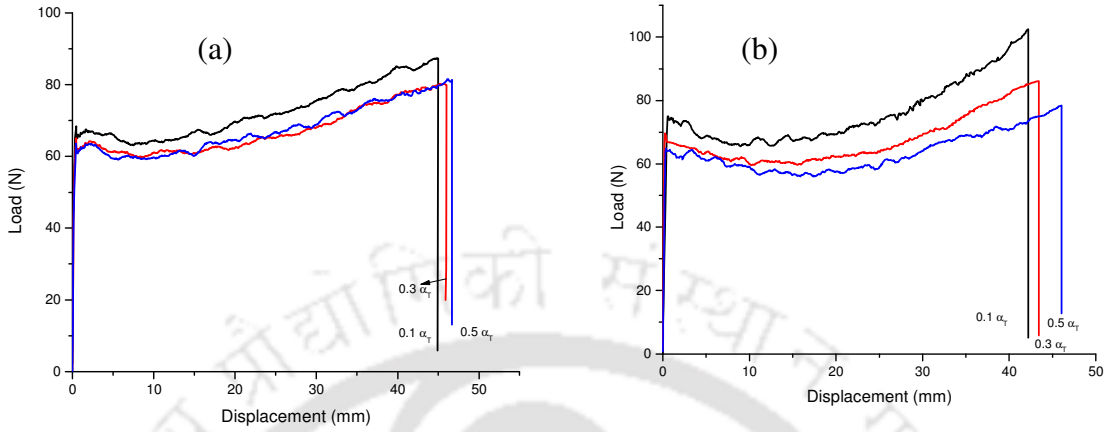


Figure 4.15. Load vs. displacement plots of  $\alpha_T$  blends at a) 25 kGy dose b) 100 kGy dose within 10 days of irradiation

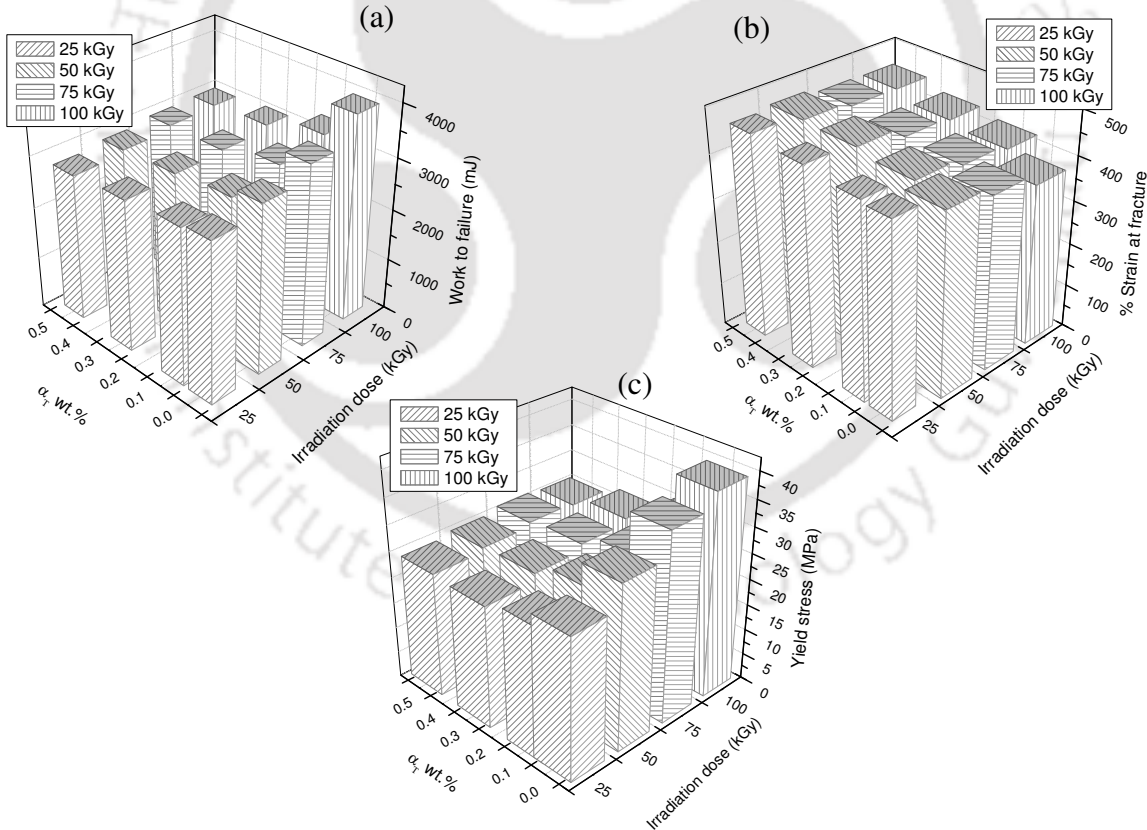


Figure 4.16. Mechanical properties of  $\alpha_T$  blends within 10 days after irradiation a) Work to failure b) Strain at fracture c) Yield stress

In general, it is observed that the strain at fracture of  $\alpha_T$  blended samples was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose but it was increased with  $\alpha_T$  content in UHMWPE. It is observed that the fracture strain of GI25 $\alpha_T$ 0.1 was found to be 447 %, which was reduced to 420 % upon irradiation at 100 kGy dose corresponding to the reduction of 6 %. In case of GI25 $\alpha_T$ 0.5, the strain at fracture was observed to be the same as that of unirradiated virgin polymer, i.e. 466 %. However, it was reduced by 3.5 % upon 100 kGy irradiation. An increase of strain at fracture with  $\alpha_T$  content is due to the fact that  $\alpha_T$  content in UHMWPE restricted the CLD during irradiation. The presence of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE is not interfered with the length and mass of the molecular chains, and it led to improved chain mobility of the polymer, Lerf et al. [2010]. However, the elongation of the test material was restricted with an increase of irradiation dose due to increased CLD.

Figure 4.16c shows the yield stress of the  $\alpha_T$  blend samples. It is observed that the yield stress was increased with irradiation dose but decreased with raise in  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The yield stress of GI25 $\alpha_T$ 0.1 was observed to be 25 MPa, which was increased to 31.2 MPa at 100 kGy dose corresponding to 23.8 % enhancement. However, the yield stress of GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.5 was observed to be 25.6 MPa, which is about 10 % less than that of the same sample irradiated at 25 kGy. It is due to the fact that  $\alpha_T$  reacted with primary free radicals formed in the UHMWPE chains during the irradiation process, thereby decreasing the amount of free radicals available for the formation of crosslinks, Oral et al. [2008]. When the  $\alpha_T$  concentration was increased from 0.1 to 0.5 wt. %, it left with fewer primary free radicals available for crosslinking leading to the reduction of overall crosslinking of UHMWPE. However, when the irradiation dose of the test sample was increased at a given  $\alpha_T$  concentration, the number of free radicals available in the

polymer is increased and helped to form crosslinks leading to increased yield stress of the test sample.

#### 4.2.2 Mechanical properties of composites and $\alpha_T$ blends after 60 days of irradiation

##### 4.2.2.1 Mechanical properties of composites

The load vs. displacement plots of composites at 25 and 100 kGy doses are shown in Figures 4.17a and 4.17b, respectively. It is observed that the trend followed by the composites was similar to that of results observed within 10 days after irradiation shown in Figure 4.13. The mechanical properties of composites after 60 days of irradiation at different doses were obtained from the load vs. displacement plots and are shown in Figures 4.18a - 4.18c. It is observed from Figure 4.18a that the work to failure of the test sample was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose but it was increased with MWCNTs concentration. The work to failure of GI25NC0.0 was 2056 mJ, which was reduced to 1595 mJ at GI100 corresponding to the reduction of 22.4 %, whereas the reduction was found to be only 17 % for NC2.0 sample when the irradiation dose was increased

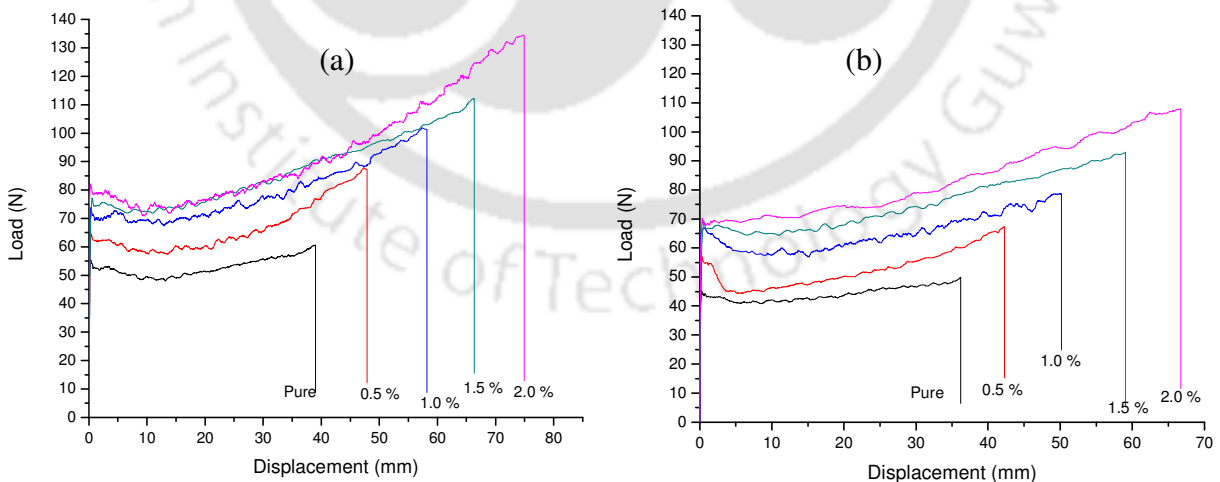


Figure 4.17. Load vs. displacement plots of composites at a) 25 kGy dose b) 100 kGy dose after 60 days of irradiation

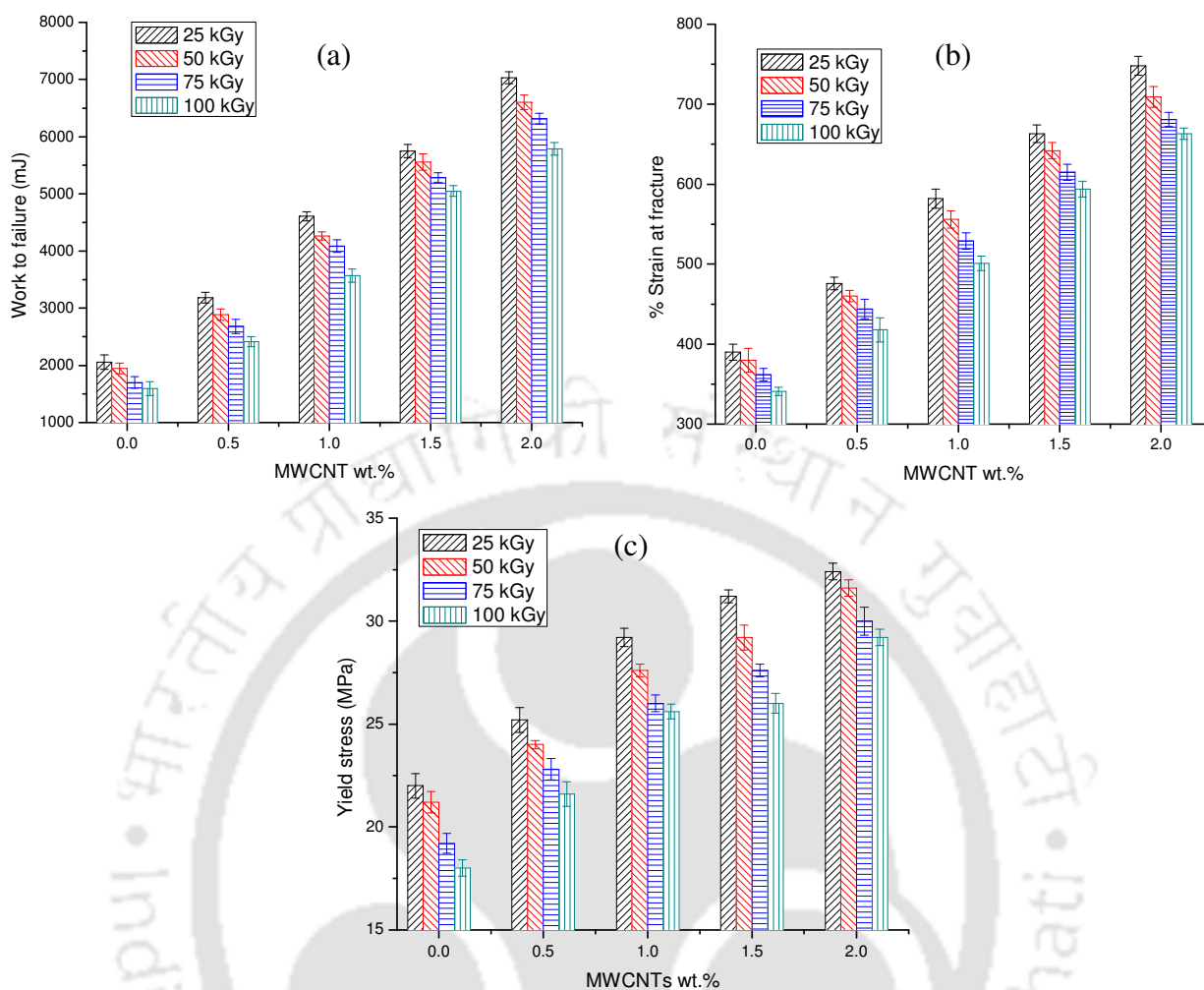


Figure 4.18. Mechanical properties of composites after 60 days of irradiation a) Work to failure  
b) Strain at fracture c) Yield stress

from 25 to 100 kGy. It is also observed that when the concentration of MWCNTs was increased from 0 to 2 wt. % at 100 kGy irradiation dose, the work to failure of polymer was increased from 1595 to 5789 mJ corresponding to an enhancement of 263 %, whereas the enhancement was found to be 240 % at 25 kGy irradiation dose. The general trend of strain at fracture after 60 days of irradiation remained the same as that of the results obtained within 10 days after irradiation, i.e., it was increased with MWCNTs concentration but reduced with an increase of irradiation dose. It is observed from Figure 4.18b that the strain at fracture of GI25NC0.0 was increased

from 390 to 748 %, when the MWCNTs concentration was increased to 2 wt. % corresponding to an enhancement of 92 %. Similarly, the strain at fracture of NC0.0 and NC2.0 at 100 kGy was found to be 341 and 663 %, respectively and the enhancement was found to be 94 %. However, the strain at fracture was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose at a given concentration of MWCNTs. The strain at fracture of GI25NC2.0 was found to be 748 %, which was reduced by 11.4 % at 100 kGy dose.

The yield stress of composites tested after 60 days of irradiation is shown in Figure 4.18c, where it is observed that it was increased with MWCNTs concentration but reduced with an increase of irradiation dose. The yield stress of pure polymer was reduced from 22 to 18 MPa corresponding to 18 % reduction, when the irradiation dose was increased from 25 to 100 kGy. In case of NC2.0 test sample, the reduction was limited to 10 % for the same condition. When the concentration of MWCNTs in UHMWPE was increased from 0 to 2.0 wt. %, the yield stress at 25 kGy was increased from 22 to 32.4 MPa corresponding to 47 % enhancement. For the same condition, the yield stress was increased by 62 % at 100 kGy irradiation dose.

#### **4.2.2.2 Mechanical properties of $\alpha_T$ blends**

The load vs. displacement plots of  $\alpha_T$  blends at 25 kGy and 100 kGy irradiation dose are shown in Figures 4.19a and 4.19b, respectively, where the trend was similar to that of results observed within 10 days after irradiation but with reduced magnitude. The mechanical properties, which are derived from the load vs. displacement plots, are shown in Figures 4.20a-4.20c. Figure 4.20a shows that the work to failure of  $\alpha_T$  blends was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose at a given concentration of  $\alpha_T$  but it was increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration at any given irradiation dose. The work to failure of  $\alpha_T$ 0.1 was reduced by 17 % upon increasing the irradiation dose from 25 to 100 kGy and it was increased by 15 % at 100kGy for  $\alpha_T$ 0.5

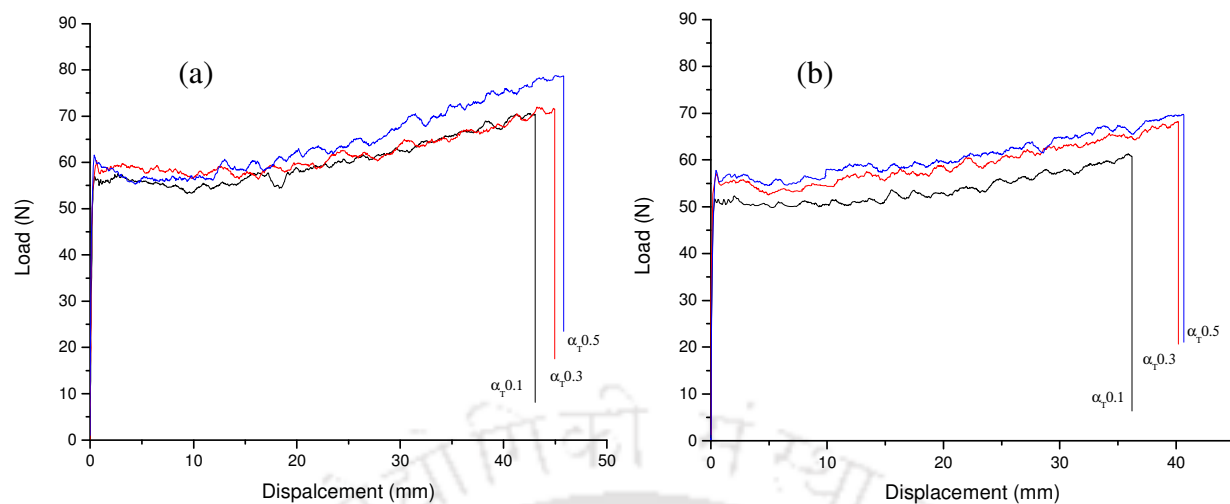


Figure 4.19. Load vs. displacement plots of  $\alpha_T$  blends at a) 25 kGy dose b) 100 kGy dose after 60

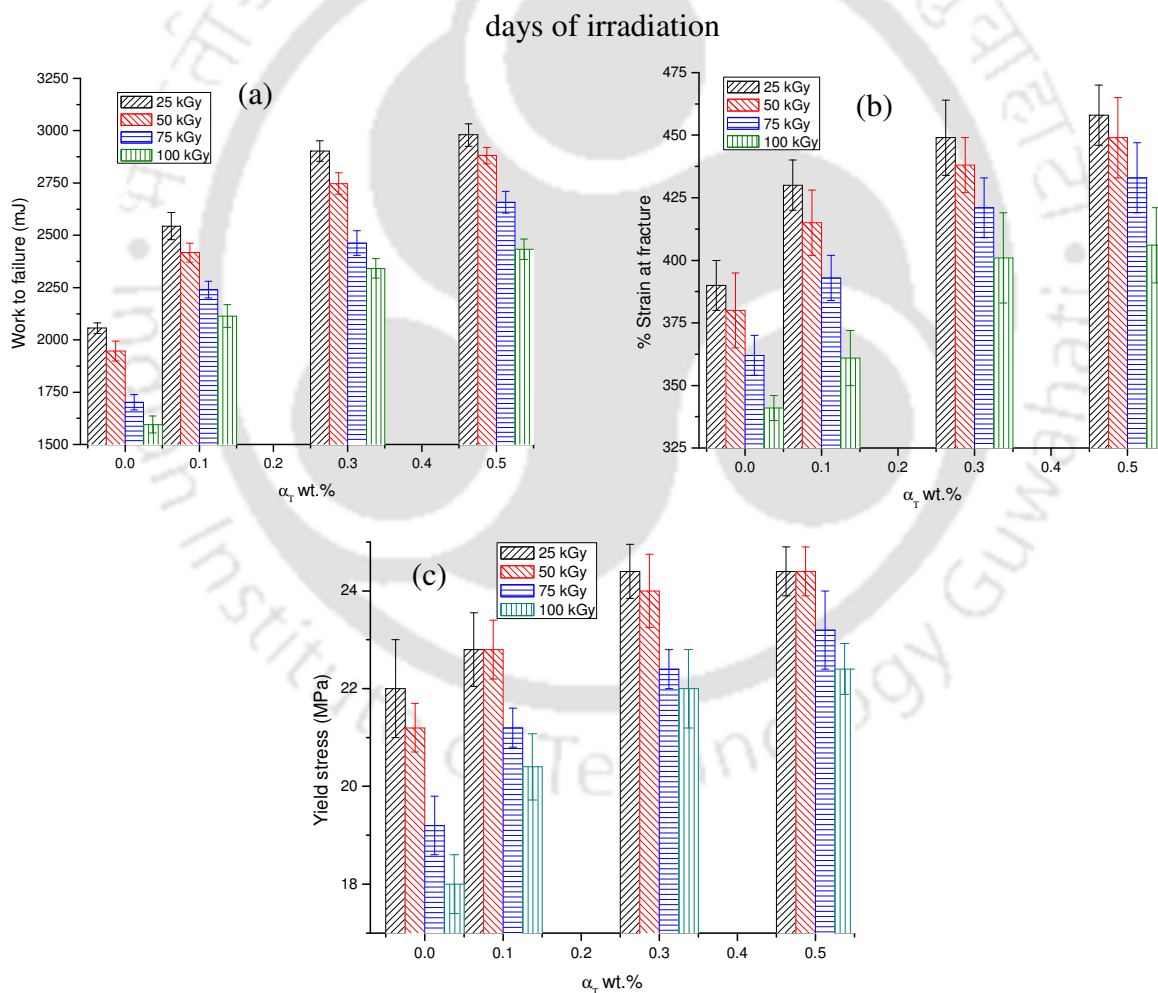


Figure 4.20. Mechanical properties of  $\alpha_T$  blends after 60 days of irradiation a) Work to failure b) Strain at fracture c) Yield stress

It is observed from Figure 4.20b that the strain at fracture of  $\alpha_T$  blends was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose but it was increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The strain at fracture at 100 kGy dose was increased from 361 to 406 %, when the  $\alpha_T$  concentration was increased from 0.1 to 0.5 wt. % corresponding to an enhancement of 12.5 %. Similarly, when the irradiation dose was increased from 25 to 100 kGy, the strain at fracture of  $\alpha_T0.1$  and  $\alpha_T0.5$  sample was reduced by 16 and 11 %, respectively.

Figure 4.20c shows the yield stress of  $\alpha_T$  blends, which was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose but slightly increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The yield stress of GI25 $\alpha_T0.1$  was reduced from 22.8 to 20.5 MPa, i.e. ~10 %, when the irradiation dose was increased to 100 kGy. At 100 kGy dose, the yield stress of 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE was found to be 20.4, 22 and 22.4 MPa, respectively and the respective enhancement was found to be 10, 3.5 and 1.7 % in comparison with 100 kGy irradiated pure polymer. It is noted that the influence of irradiation dose was found to be negligible at 0.3 and 0.5 wt. % of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE.

#### **4.2.3 Mechanical properties of composites and $\alpha_T$ blends after 120 days of irradiation**

##### **4.2.3.1 Mechanical properties of composites**

The load vs. displacement plots of composites at 25 and 100 kGy doses are shown in Figure 4.21a and 4.21b, respectively, where a similar trend as that of 60 days after irradiation was observed. The mechanical properties of composites after 120 days of irradiation are shown in Figures 4.22a-4.22c. It is observed from Figure 4.22a that the work to failure of UHMWPE was increased with MWCNTs concentration but it was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose. The work to failure of GI25NC0.0 sample was reduced by 53 % when the irradiation dose was increased to 100 kGy, whereas the corresponding reduction was limited to only 24 % in case of GI25NC2.0 sample.

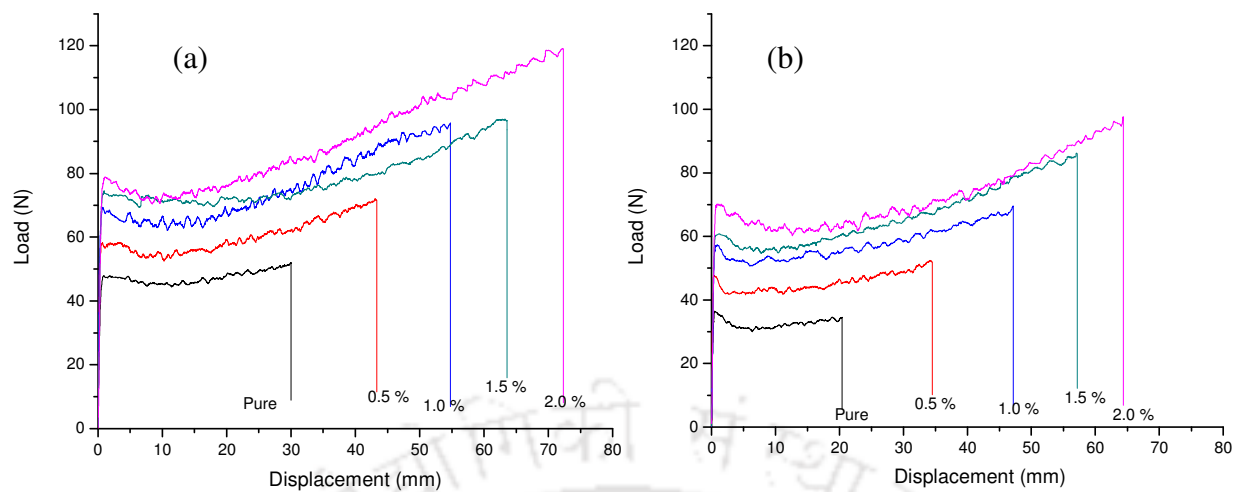


Figure 4.21. Load vs. displacement plots of composites at a) 25 kGy dose b) 100 kGy dose after

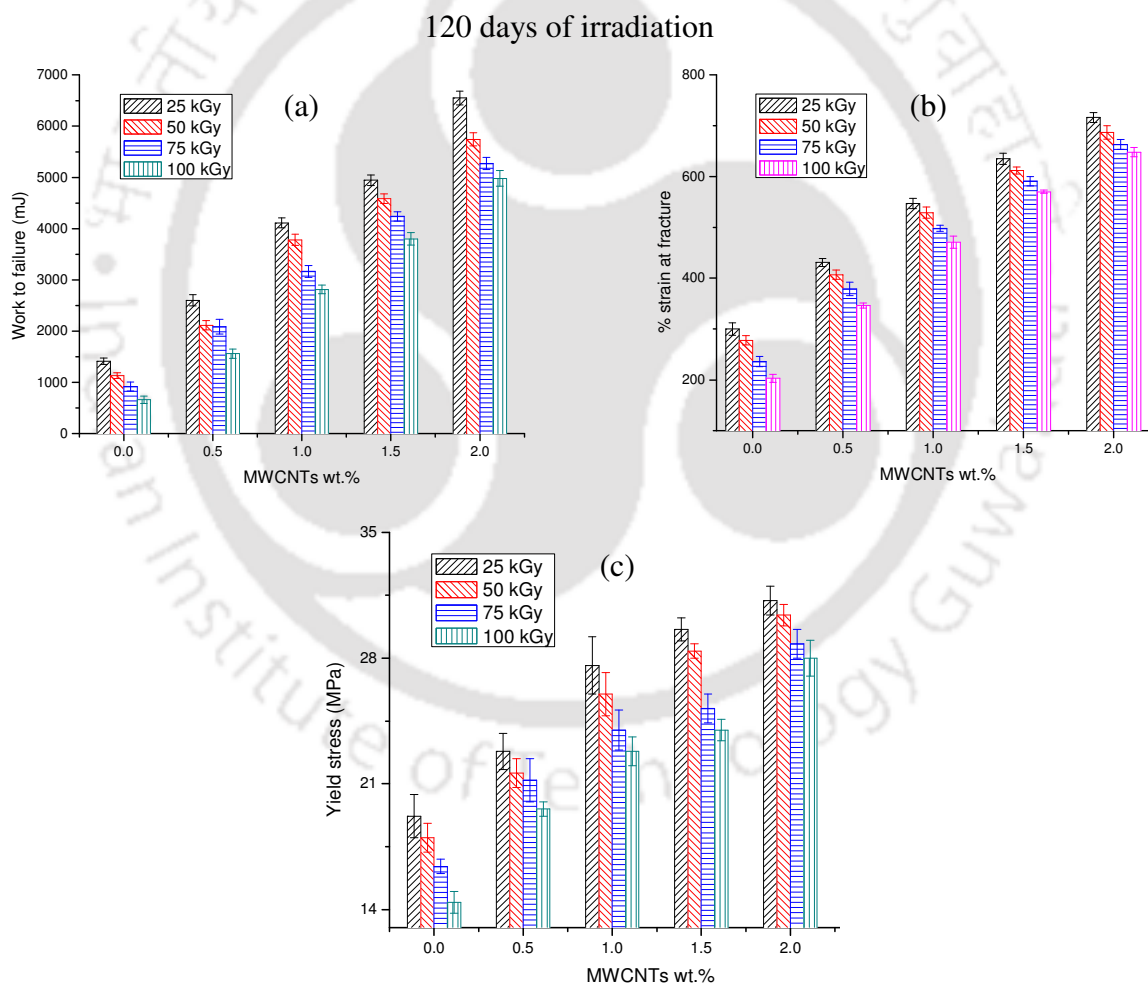


Figure 4.22. Mechanical properties of composites after 120 days of irradiation a) Work to failure

b) Strain at fracture c) Yield stress

Figure 4.22b shows the strain at fracture, which was decreased with an increase of irradiation dose but increased with MWCNTs concentration. It is observed that the pure UHMWPE has become less ductile after 120 days of irradiation due to its severe degradation. The GI25NC0.0 sample has shown the strain at fracture of 300 % against 203 % for GI100NC0.0 sample corresponding to the reduction of 32 %, whereas GI100NC2.0 has shown the reduction of only 9.5 % compared to GI25NC2.0 test sample.

The trend observed for the yield stress of composites was found to be the same as that of strain at fracture, and the results are shown in Figure 4.22c. The yield stress of GI25NC0.0 test sample was found to be 19.2 MPa, which was increased by 62.5 % for the GI25NC2.0 sample, in case of GI100NC0.0 sample, the corresponding enhancement was 94.4 %. It is noted that the yield stress of pure UHMWPE was reduced by 25 %, when the irradiation dose was increased from 25 to 100 kGy. In case of NC2.0 sample, the reduction was observed to be only 10.2 % for the same dosage enhancement. A significant observation is that the reduction of work to failure, strain at fracture and yield stress was significantly less for irradiated composites compared to that of irradiated virgin UHMWPE due to ageing.

#### **4.2.3.2 Mechanical properties of $\alpha_T$ blends**

The load vs. displacement plots and mechanical properties of  $\alpha_T$  blends after 120 days of irradiation are shown in Figure 4.23, where the trend observed was similar to that of results obtained after 60 days of irradiation. Figure 4.24a shows the work to failure of  $\alpha_T$  blends. It is observed that the trend observed for the work to failure with irradiation dose and  $\alpha_T$  concentration is similar to that of the results obtained after 60 days of irradiation. The work to failure of GI25 $\alpha_T$ 0.1 was found to be 2311 mJ, which was reduced by 23 % at 100 kGy dose. When the concentration of  $\alpha_T$  was increased from 0.1 to 0.5 wt. % at 100 kGy dose, the

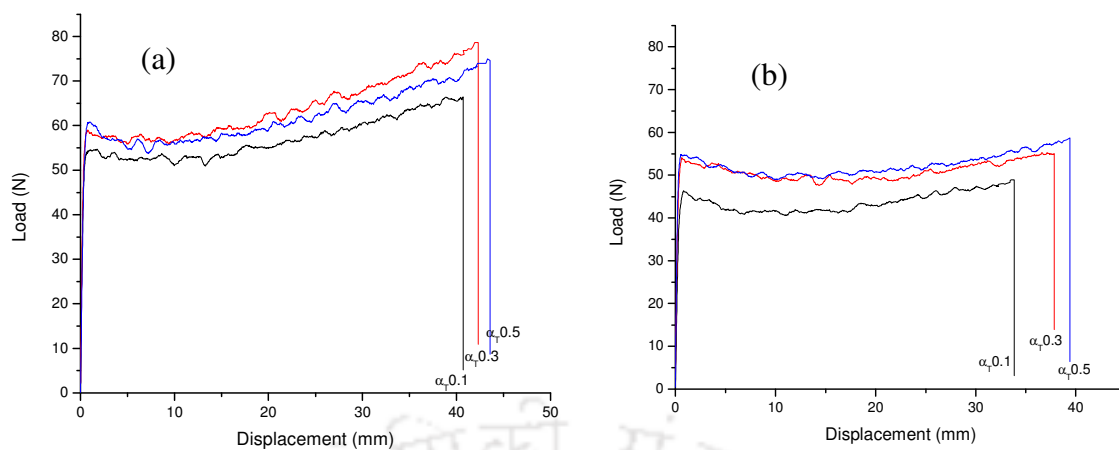


Figure 4.23. Load vs. displacement plots of  $\alpha_T$  blends at a) 25 kGy dose b) 100 kGy dose after 120 days of irradiation

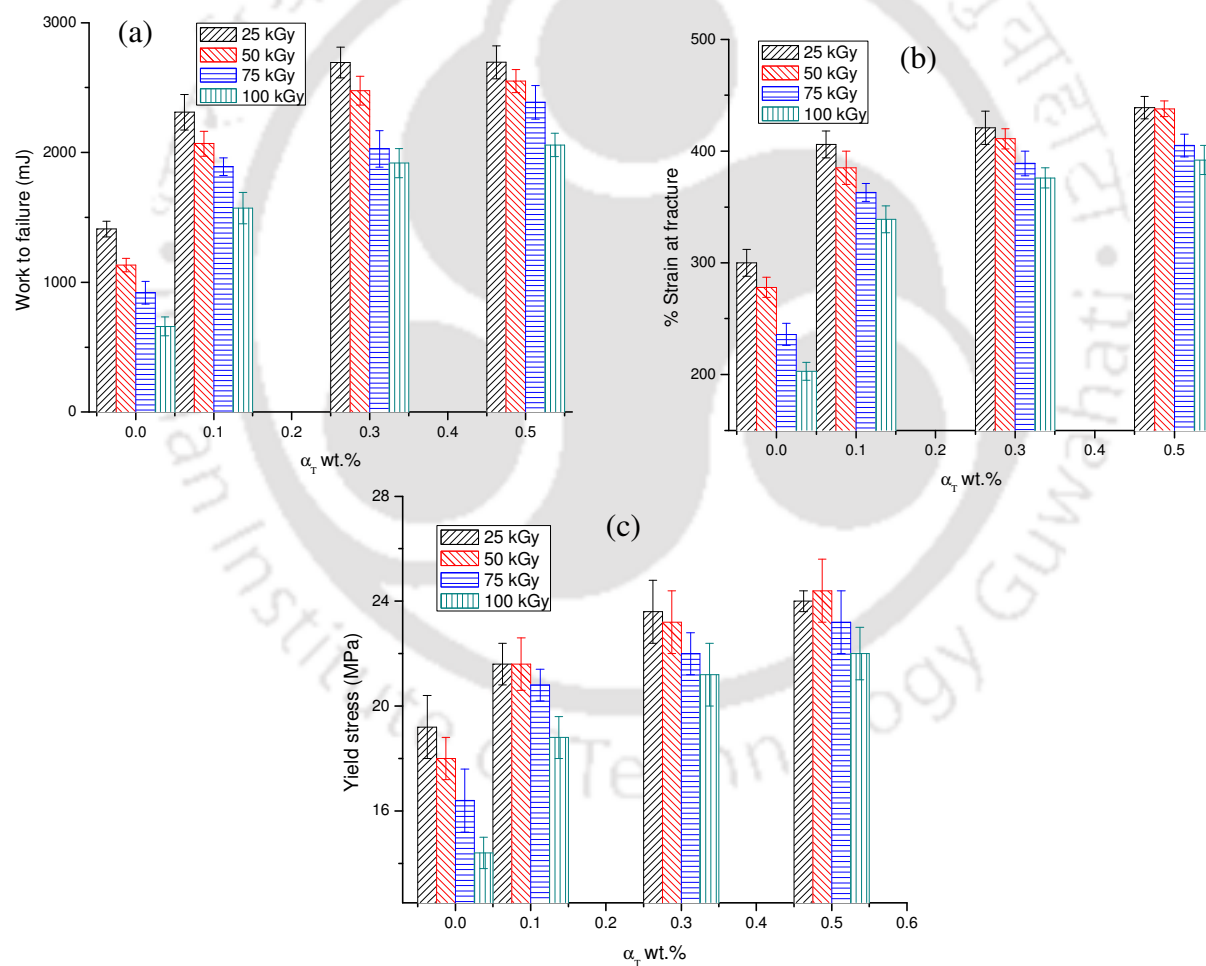


Figure 4.24. Mechanical properties of  $\alpha_T$  blends after 120 days of irradiation a) Work to failure b) Strain at fracture c) Yield stress

work to failure was increased by 16 %. It is to be noted that the work to failure of  $\alpha_T$  blends was significantly higher than that of virgin UHMWPE at same irradiation dose. The work to failure of GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.1 was found to be 168 % more than that of 100 kGy irradiated virgin UHMWPE. It confirms that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  has limited the loss of work to failure of irradiated UHMWPE.

Figure 4.24b shows the strain at fracture of  $\alpha_T$  blends, where it is observed that it was increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration but decreased with irradiation dose. At 100 kGy irradiation dose the strain at fracture of  $\alpha_T$ 0.1blend was 67 % higher compared to that of pure UHMWPE. it is noted that the trend followed by strain at fracture after 60 days of irradiation is similar to that observed within 10 days. Figure 4.24c shows the yield stress of  $\alpha_T$  blends. The yield stress of  $\alpha_T$ 0.1 at 100 kGy was found to be 45 % higher than that of virgin UHMWPE at same irradiation condition. In general, it can be inferred that the trend followed by all the mechanical properties of the composites and blends after 60 and 120 days of irradiation was found to be identical.

#### **4.2.4 Comparison of the mechanical properties of composites and $\alpha_T$ blends on a time scale**

Figure 4.24a shows the influence of ageing on the work to failure of composites on a time scale at 100 kGy irradiation dose. The work to failure of the sample at unirradiated condition is also given for the comparison purpose. It is observed from Figure 4.25a that the work to failure of all the composites was increased significantly within 10 days after irradiation compared to their respective unirradiated test sample. However, it was found to be decreased after 60 and 120 days of irradiation. The work to failure of unirradiated UHMWPE was found to be 2938 mJ, which was increased by 35 % within 10 days after irradiation and then later it was reduced by 45 and 77.5 % after 60 and 120 days of irradiation, respectively. Similarly, the work to failure of unirradiated 2 wt. % composite was increased from 8111 to 9936 mJ within 10 days after

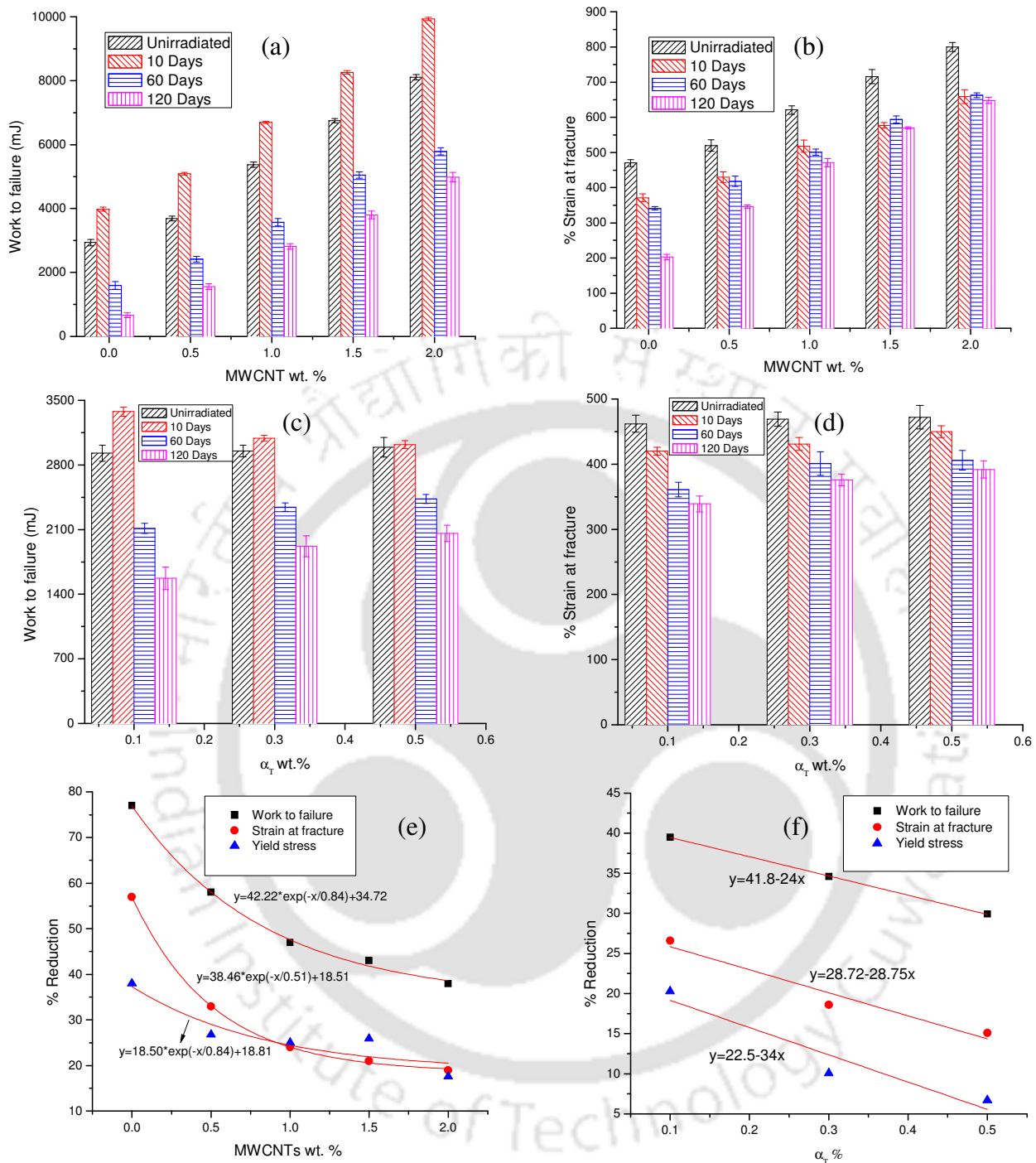


Figure 4.25. Comparison of the properties at 100 kGy irradiation dose on a time scale a) Work to failure of composites b) Strain at fracture of composites c) Work to failure of  $\alpha_T$  blends d) Strain at fracture  $\alpha_T$  blends e) Percentage reduction of the mechanical properties of composites after 120 days of irradiation f) Percentage reduction of the mechanical properties of  $\alpha_T$  blends after 120 days of irradiation

irradiation corresponding to 22.5 % enhancement. However, the same was reduced by 28 and 38 % after 60 and 120 days of irradiation, respectively.

The reason for the enhancement of work to failure immediately after the irradiation process and the reduction thereafter is explained as follows. The irradiation leads to crosslinking of the polymer and composites. As discussed earlier, the crosslinks act as stiffeners between two individual polymer chains and thus it demands higher loads to deform and consequently the material becomes tougher. Moreover, the free radicals that are formed in the amorphous region of the polymer during the irradiation process have higher mobility and hence they recombine to form new crosslinks in the amorphous region leading to increased crystallinity of the polymer, Premnath et al. [1999]. As the mechanical properties of the polymer depend on its crystallinity, Perepechko [1981], it leads to the enhancement of the work to failure immediately after irradiation. However, the radicals generated in the crystalline phase of the polymer lacked sufficient mobility and thus they were trapped in the polymer. The trapped radicals slowly diffused into the amorphous region leading to oxidation of the polymer, Lewis [2001]. The free radicals in the polymer reacted with diffused atmospheric Oxygen forming peroxides, which increased the severity of oxidation. It led to the formation of new radicals that continued the chain scission process resulting to degradation of material properties and the formation of various oxidation products. Thus, the work to failure of the test material was decreased after 60 and 120 days of irradiation. It is observed from Figure 4.25b that the strain at fracture of UHMWPE has shown a decreasing trend with ageing upto 1 wt. % of MWCNTs, but thereafter no significant influence of ageing was observed. It is due to the fact that the polymer reduced its mobility immediately after irradiation due to infinitely long molecular chains and large molecular mass. In addition to that the irradiated polymer is easily prone to oxidation due to the

reaction of free radicals formed during the irradiation process with atmospheric Oxygen and thus the ability of elongation of test sample was reduced after 60 and 120 days of irradiation. In case of composites, such a trend was not observed beyond 1 wt. % of MWCNTs. Because of the radical scavenging ability of MWCNTs, which will be discussed later, the degradation of the composites is restricted and it leads to the preservation of their ductility.

Figure 4.25c shows the comparison of the work to failure of  $\alpha_T$  blends. The work to failure of  $\alpha_T 0.1$  sample was found to be increased by 15 % within 10 days after irradiation. However, it is decreased with ageing. It is also noted that the enhancement of work to failure of irradiated pure polymer was increased by 36 %, whereas it was restricted to 15 % by the addition of 0.1 wt. %  $\alpha_T$ . It is due to the fact that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  restricted the crosslinking of UHMWPE and thus the work to failure of the polymer was not found to be increased significantly after irradiation. However, the crosslinking effect in  $\alpha_T$  blends is relatively higher at 0.1 wt. %. Though the presence of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE delayed the oxidation process but it is not completely eliminated, and hence the work to failure was reduced significantly after 60 and 120 days of irradiation irrespective of  $\alpha_T$  concentration. It is also observed that the work to failure of irradiated  $\alpha_T 0.3$  and  $\alpha_T 0.5$  test sample was decreased continuously with ageing. Figure 4.25d shows the strain at fracture of the  $\alpha_T$  blend samples. It is observed that the strain at fracture of the test sample was reduced with ageing irrespective of the presence of  $\alpha_T$  but it was slightly increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The discussion regarding the reduction of work to failure against Figure 4.25c is applicable for the above observation in connection with reduction of strain at fracture with ageing.

The degradation of mechanical properties of irradiated polymer is an inevitable event due to the reaction of free radicals. However, it is observed from Figure 4.25e that the percentage of

reduction of properties of composites was exponentially reduced with an increase of MWCNTs concentration in UHMWPE. The work to failure, strain at fracture and yield stress of GI100NC0.0 and GI100NC2.0 were reduced by 77, 57 and 38 %, and 38, 19 and 17.5 %, respectively after 120 days of irradiation in comparison with their respective unirradiated test sample. The reason for the reduction of properties degradation of the polymer is due to the presence of MWCNTs. The interaction of MWCNTs with gamma irradiation produces defects on their surfaces, Krasheninnikov et al. [2004]. Along with simple defects, more complex defects like pentagon, Stone Wales defects can also be formed. According to Zeynalov et al. [2008], the surface induced defects on MWCNTs exhibited high electron affinities, and hence they act as radical traps. Thus, it reduces the amount of free radicals in the polymer and the oxidation associated with it. It was also reported by Galano [2010] that the antioxidant activity of MWCNTs was increased and the scavenging processes were occurred faster through the functionalized side walls. In the present study, the MWCNTs used for the preparation of composites were functionalized and thus it is expected to reduce the number of free radicals. In addition to that the irradiation induced defects on MWCNTs could result in pinning of them to the polymer substrates through the formation of chemical bonds between them, Krasheninnikov et al. [2002, 2004], and thus it is expected to compensate the loss of mechanical properties at higher irradiation doses. It is observed that the loss of mechanical properties of pure UHMWPE was severe after 120 days of irradiation, but the presence of MWCNTs has significantly counteracted the degradation and the maximum reduction of degradation was observed at 2 wt. % composite. According to Sreekanth et al. [2012], a strong network of MWCNTs and polyethylene was formed due to the reaction between the radicals and MWCNTs in order to improve the properties of the composites.

Figure 4.25f shows the reduction of mechanical properties of  $\alpha_T$  blends and it is observed that the degradation of properties of the UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends was reduced linearly with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  content in UHMWPE. The work to failure, strain at fracture and yield stress of GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.1 were reduced by 39.5, 26.6 and 20.3 %, respectively after 120 days of irradiation, whereas the reduction of same properties of GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.5 was limited to 30, 15 and 6.7 %, for the same ageing period in comparison with their respective unirradiated test sample. It is due to the fact that  $\alpha_T$  is a conventional antioxidant material used to prevent the oxidation of polymer and it reacts with free radicals formed during the irradiation process, which was also confirmed by Kurtz [2009]. The reduction of degradation of the mechanical properties of GI100NC2.0 and GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.1 after 120 days of irradiation was compared, which are shown in Figure 4.25e and Figure 4.25f, respectively. It is clearly observed that the antioxidant activity exhibited by 2 wt. % MWCNTs in UHMWPE is similar to that of 0.1 wt %  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE. However, the equivalence between them is a mere indication of their similarity, because the antioxidant activity of MWCNTs depends on several parameters such as synthesis route, associated defects due to irradiation, geometrical parameters and the type of functionalization of MWCNTs, Galano [2010].

#### **4.2.5 Summary of the mechanical properties of irradiated UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends**

The composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were subjected to gamma irradiation at different irradiation doses and the mechanical properties of the test specimens were assessed at different time intervals such as within 10 days, 60 and 120 days after irradiation. It was observed that the properties, except strain at fracture, of all the test samples were increased immediately after irradiation, but reduced after 60 and 120 days of irradiation process. However, the strain at

fracture of the sample was reduced with ageing. It was also observed that the deterioration of properties after irradiation process was reduced with an increase of MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The reduction of work to failure, strain at fracture and yield stress of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE after 120 days irradiation was reduced exponentially with an increase of MWCNTs concentration, whereas a linear reduction trend was observed in case of  $\alpha_T$  blends. The restriction of property degradation by the 2 wt. % MWCNTs in UHMWPE was found to be similar to that of 0.1 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE. It is well understood that the presence of MWCNTs could restrict the degradation of the mechanical properties of irradiated UHMWPE.

#### **4.3 Studies on network parameters and radical scavenging capability of composites and $\alpha_T$ blends**

Based on the above results, it was inferred that the defects formed on the surface of MWCNTs during the irradiation process bond with most of the free radicals present in the polymer. In order to confirm the same and understand the synergic effect of MWCNTs reinforcement/ $\alpha_T$  blend and gamma irradiation in reducing the degradation of mechanical properties of UHMWPE, a systematic study was proposed to (i) identify the defects on MWCNTs, (ii) study crosslink density and (iii) quantify the relative radical concentration of composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends.

##### **4.3.1 Studies on irradiation induced defects on the surface of MWCNTs**

In order to understand the influence of irradiation on the structure of MWCNTs at different doses, different analytical techniques were used. The FTIR spectra of MWCNTs after gamma

irradiation at different doses such as 25, 50, 75 and 100 kGy are shown in Figure 4.26. It is observed that the position of all the prominent peaks remains unchanged even after irradiation

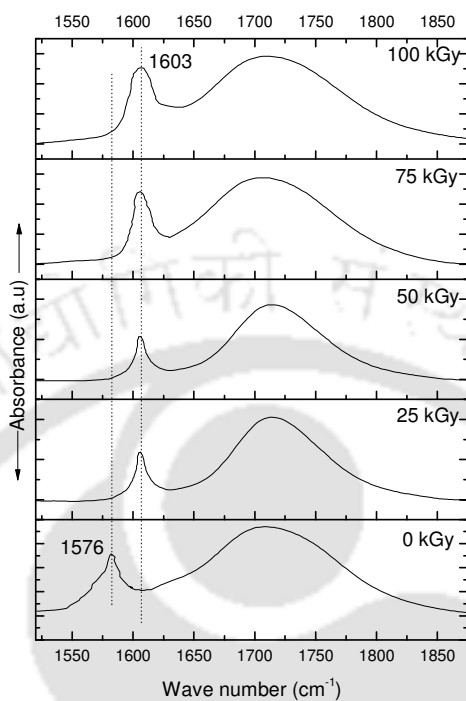


Figure 4.26. FTIR spectra of gamma irradiated MWCNTs at different doses

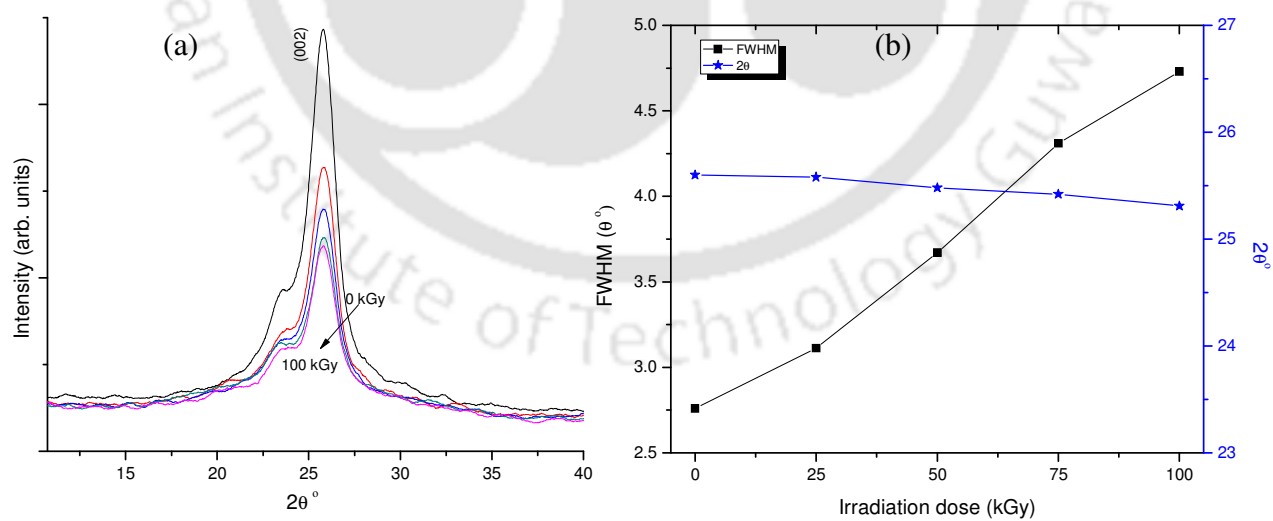


Figure 4.27. (a) X-Ray Diffractogram and (b) FWHM and peak position of MWCNTs at different irradiation doses

except for the peak corresponding to C=C. It is appeared at  $1576\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for an unirradiated sample, and shifted to  $1603\text{ cm}^{-1}$  upon irradiation, which is represented by a dotted line in Figure 4.26. The shift in peak may suggest a change in the structure of MWCNTs, Zhang et al. [2003], which may have resulted due to the impingement of high energy  $\gamma$  photons on the MWCNTs surface during the irradiation process. Such change leads to the generation of defects on MWCNTs. The formation of defects on MWCNTs during irradiation was confirmed by quantitatively and qualitatively using XRD, Raman spectroscopy and TEM techniques.

Figure 4.27a shows the X-Ray Diffractogram, where it is observed that the intensity of the peak corresponding to (002) plane was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose. Figure 4.27b shows that the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the sample was increased from  $2.76^\circ$  for unirradiated sample to  $4.73^\circ$  for 100 kGy irradiated sample. An increase of FWHM indicates micro straining of the MWCNTs, which confirmed the generation of defects in the structure, Singh et al. [2010]. It is also observed that the variation of diffraction angle is considered to be negligible against irradiation dose.

Raman spectroscopy technique was used to confirm the irradiation induced defects on MWCNTs by quantitative analysis. The assessment of defects on the surface of MWCNTs was done by calculating the ratio of the intensity of the defect induced double resonant D band and the in-plane vibration of  $sp^2$  carbon atoms resulting in G band, i.e. ( $I_D/I_G$ ), from the Raman spectra of MWCNTs, Mu et al. [2009]. The Raman spectra and the  $I_D/I_G$  ratio of irradiated MWCNTs are shown in Figure 4.28a and 4.28b, respectively. It is observed from Figure 4.28a that the intensity of D band was increased with irradiation dose, confirming the increased disordered carbon in the irradiated MWCNTs. The  $I_D/I_G$  ratio of MWCNTs was increased from 0.47 for unirradiated sample to 0.97 at 100 kGy irradiation dose, where a linear trend between

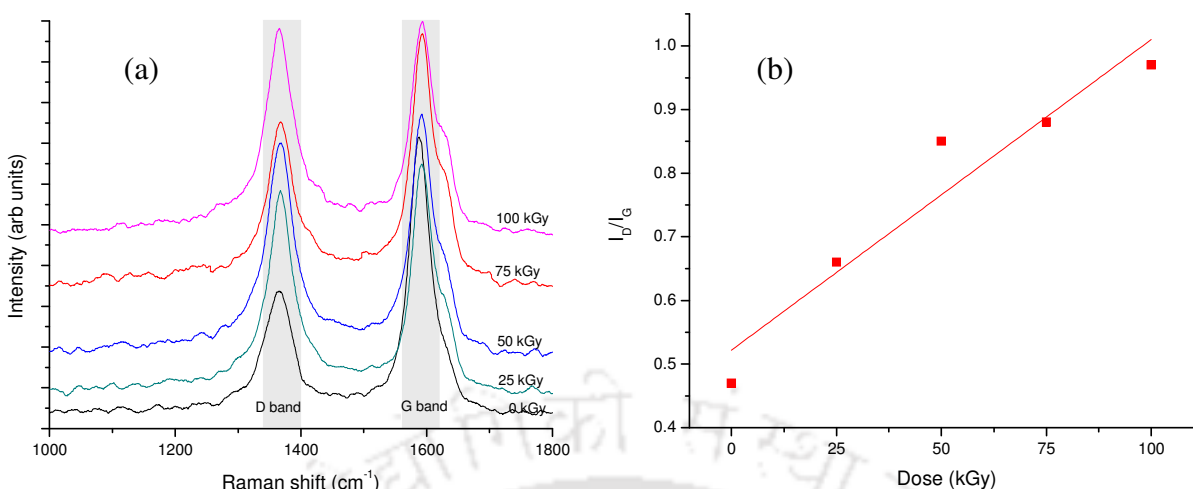


Figure 4.28. (a) Raman spectra of irradiated MWCNTs (b)  $I_D/I_G$  ratio of MWCNTs at different irradiation doses

the  $I_D/I_G$  ratio and the irradiation dose was observed and it is shown in Figure 4.28b. The defects are usually formed on the surface of MWCNTs during their synthesis process due to disordered carbonaceous and amorphous carbon compounds, which contributed to the Raman peaks in the spectra, Pimenta et al. (2007). An increase of  $I_D/I_G$  ratio indicates that the number of defects on the MWCNTs surface increased with irradiation dose.

The formation of defects on the surface of MWCNTs is due to the fact that the gamma irradiation in solids caused radiolysis leading to occurrence of various chemical reactions and ionization. The damage induced mechanism was caused by the high kinetic energy electrons ejected from the atoms by  $\gamma$ -photons, which led to the formation of interstitial atoms and other kind of defects, Cataldo [2000]. Figure 4.29 shows the TEM micrographs and Selective Area Electron Diffraction (SAED) patterns of untreated, chemically treated and gamma irradiated MWCNTs. Figure 4.29a shows the untreated MWCNTs, where the presence of amorphous carbon is observed prominently. The SAED pattern of untreated MWCNTs is shown in Figure 4.29b, where a diffused halo pattern was observed indicating the presence of large quantities of

amorphous carbon. Figure 4.29c shows MWCNT after chemical treatment, which removed the amorphous carbon and traces of substrate metallic impurities from it and thus the SAED pattern showed a sharp ring pattern. It is shown in Figure 4.29d, where the prominent (002) and (100) planes are also observed. Figure 4.29e shows the 100 kGy irradiated MWCNT, which showed

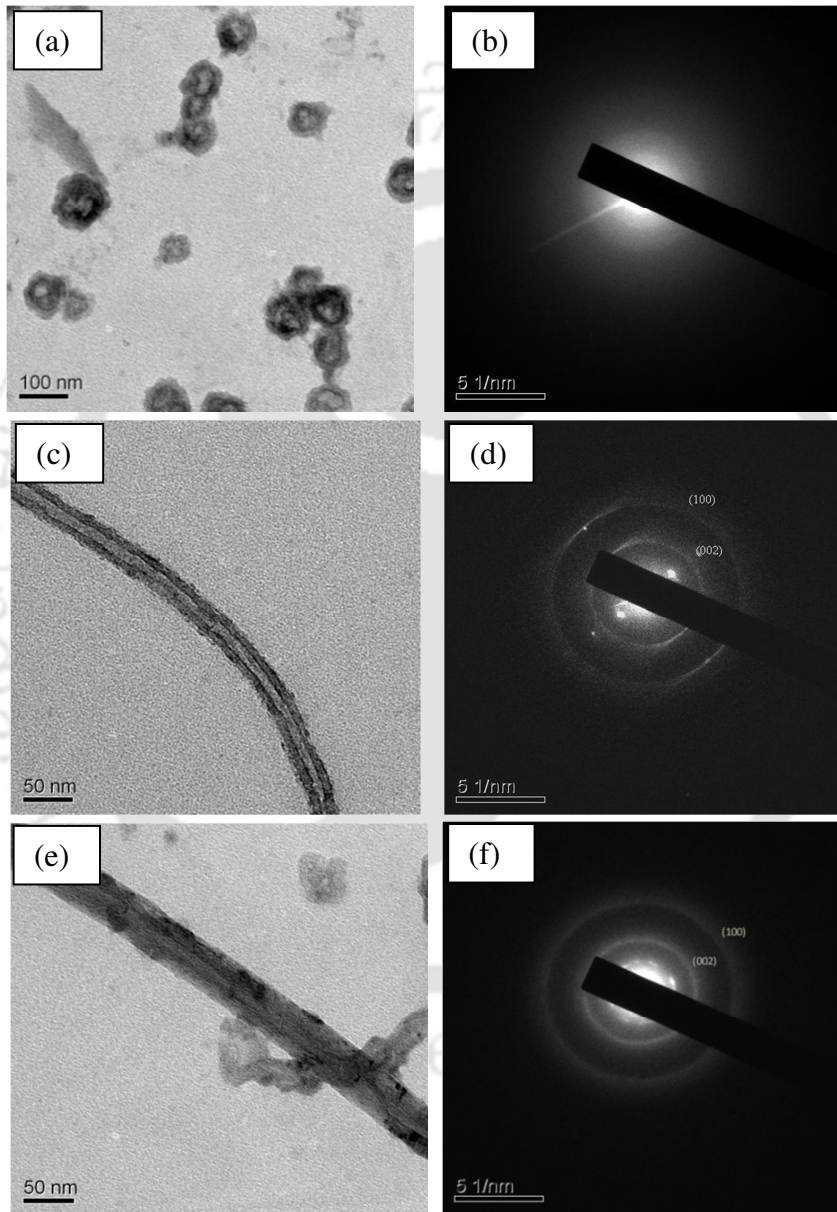


Figure 4.29. a) Amorphous carbon in untreated MWCNTs b) SAED pattern of (a) c) Chemically treated MWCNT d) SAED pattern of (c) e) 100 kGy irradiated MWCNT f) SAED pattern of (e)

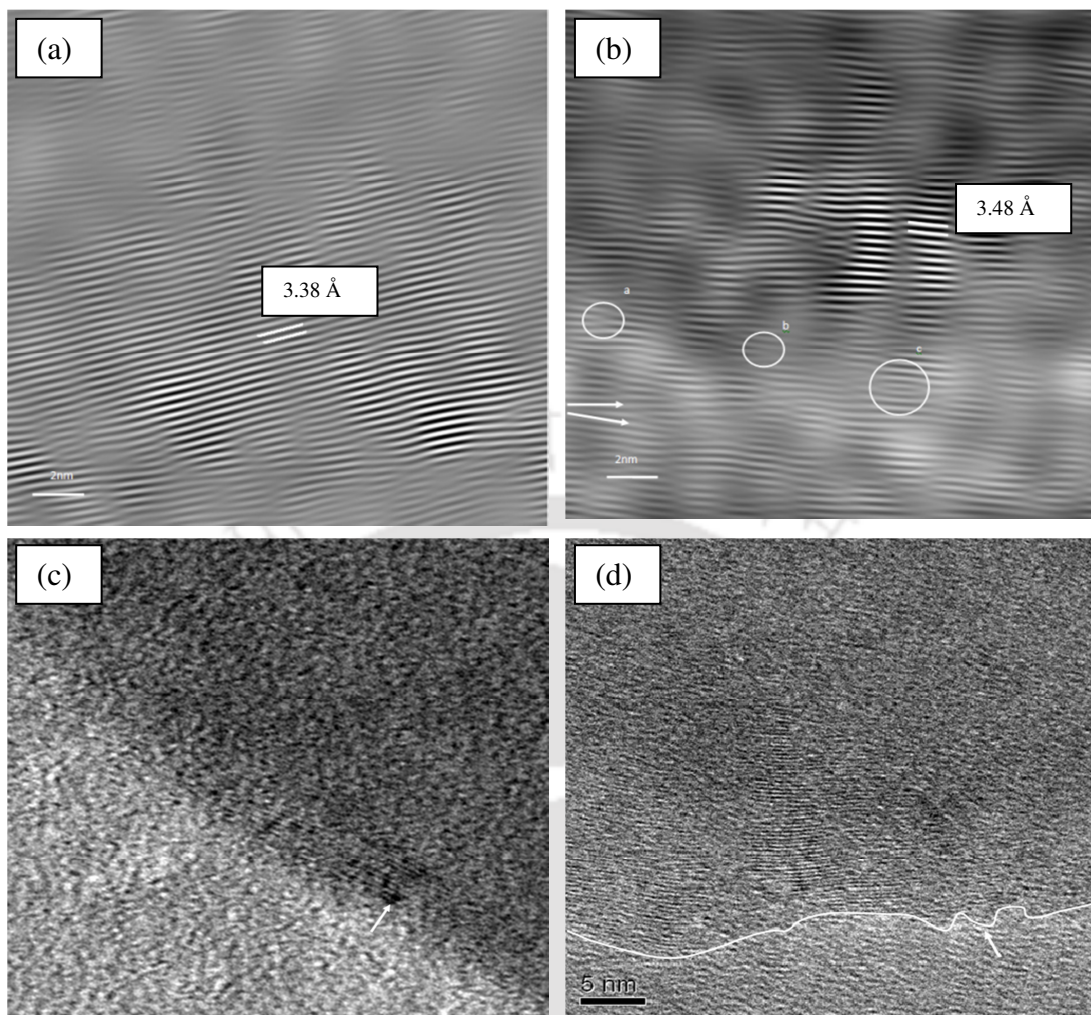


Figure 4.30. a) Interplanar spacing of (002) plane in an unirradiated MWCNT b) Interplanar spacing of (002) plane and the defects in 100 kGy irradiated MWCNT c) Formation of amorphous carbon on the outer walls d) Damage on the outer walls and the formation of curved graphitic structure after 100 kGy irradiation

the presence of amorphous carbon on the outer walls of MWCNT. The SAED pattern of irradiated MWCNT is shown in Figure 4.29f, where it is observed that the sharpness of the ring pattern was reduced compared to that of the results observed in Figure 4.29d. It indicates that the amorphous content was increased in the MWCNTs after the irradiation process due to the damage on their structure.

In order to visualize the formation of defects, the surface of MWCNT was observed under HRTEM. Figure 4.30a shows the interplanar spacing of unirradiated MWCNT, where it is observed that the interplanar spacing was found to 3.38 Å and most of the planes are found to be perfect without any distortion. Figure 4.30b shows that the interplanar spacing of 100 kGy irradiated MWCNT was increased to 3.48 Å. The defects in the planes are shown in the encircled regions, as a, b and c. The changes in the orientation are also indicated by arrows confirming the distortion of the structure of MWCNT due to irradiation. Figure 4.30c shows the damages on the outer walls of MWCNT and the formation of amorphous carbon, indicated by the arrow. Figure 4.30d shows the defects or vacancies on the outer wall of MWCNT, indicated by an arrow. The formation of curved graphitic structure also confirms the structural changes on the MWCNT surface.

Figure 4.31 shows the typical irradiation generated defects on MWCNT at 50 and 100 kGy doses. Figure 4.31a shows the MWCNT irradiated at 50 kGy, where the negative inclination indicated the presence of heptagon ring or various ring members resulting the formation of curvature of sharp bend, Ebbesen [1997]. It is also clearly observed that the diameter of the nanotube varied considerably after the sharp bend. It can also be noted that the deposition of amorphous carbon at the vertex of the bend is observed indicating a major structural damage and modification of MWCNT due to the irradiation. A similar type of observation can also be seen in Figure 4.31b, where a local modification of the periphery was occurred, and indicated by arrows. Such local modifications in the periphery of nanotubes occurred due to tetra vacancy collapsing into 5-7-7-5 ring structure, Krasheninnikov et al. [2007]. It also shows the surface defects, wall damage and the formation of amorphous carbon, as indicated by the arrows. Figure 4.31c shows the changes in internal and external diameter of MWCNT irradiated at 100 kGy,

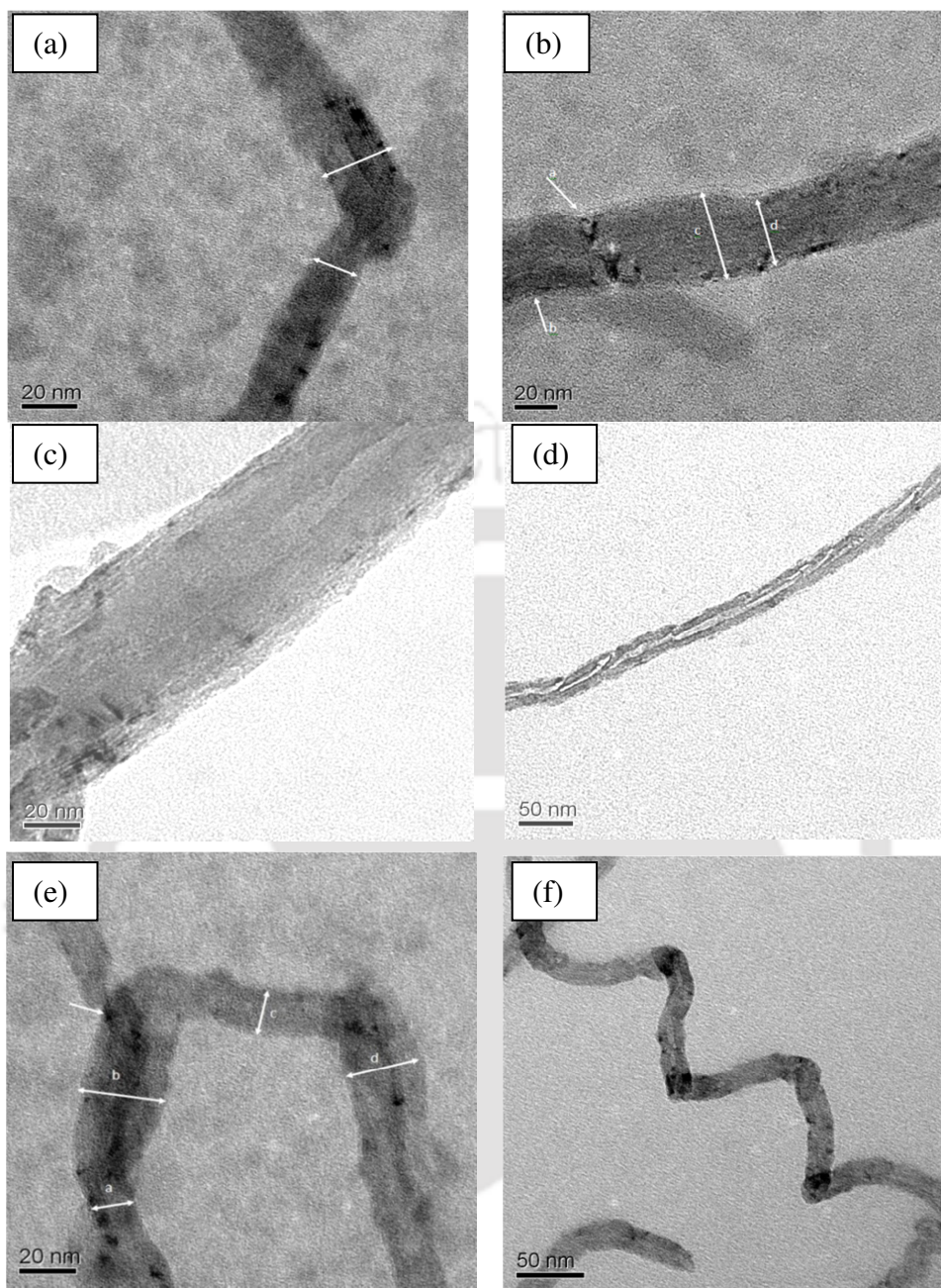


Figure 4.31. Formation of defects on gamma irradiated MWCNT at 50 and 100 kGy irradiation doses (a,b - 50 kGy and c,d,e,f - 100 kGy) a) Sharp bend and sudden variation of diameter b) Surface defects and variation of diameter c) Variation of internal diameter d) wall breakage e) Typical bend defects, variation of diameter and formation of amorphous carbon f) Zig-Zag bends which can be attributed to the presence of ring structure. Figure 4.31d shows the discontinuities in the inner wall of 100 kGy irradiated MWCNT. Figure 4.31e shows a wide variety of defects

such as sharp 90° bends, variation of diameter, indicated by arrows labeled as 'a' and 'b', and the deposition of amorphous carbon at the sharp bends of 100 kGy irradiated MWCNT. Figure 4.31f shows a severely damaged MWCNT irradiated at 100 kGy dose. Several Zig-zag bends were observed indicating the damage and the presence of defects. Such bends with different angles were formed in the presence of various ring members, and such sharp bends were resulted due to the presence of tetragonal rings or vacancies, Ouyang et al. [2001]. There is also a finite possibility of the formation of point defects, which are difficult to observe under TEM.

#### **4.3.2 Studies on crosslink density (CLD) of composites**

As the irradiation induced defects on MWCNTs are expected to react with the free radicals in the polymer, the presence of MWCNTs is likely to influence the crosslink density of the UHMWPE and its composites. In order to confirm the same, swell test was conducted on the irradiated polymer and composite samples. The CLD of the test samples was calculated using the equation 3.7 and the variables used in the equation were obtained from the swell test. The swell ratio of irradiated sample is inversely proportional to the crosslinks in the polymer, Ganji et al. [2010]. A crosslinked polymer, when immersed in a solvent, swells by absorbing the solvent. The extent of swelling depends on two forces: i) elongation of the polymer chains by the swelling action, ii) reactive elastic forces generated due to crosslinks. When these forces balance each other, the swelling of the polymer attains equilibrium. It leads to an understanding that if the number of crosslinks is more, the extent of swelling in the polymer is less due to large reactive elastic forces. Figure 4.32 shows the CLD of composites at different MWCNTs

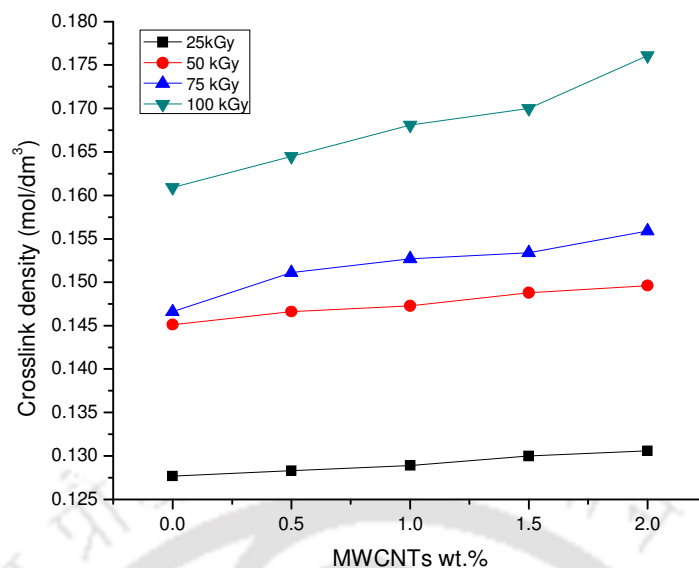
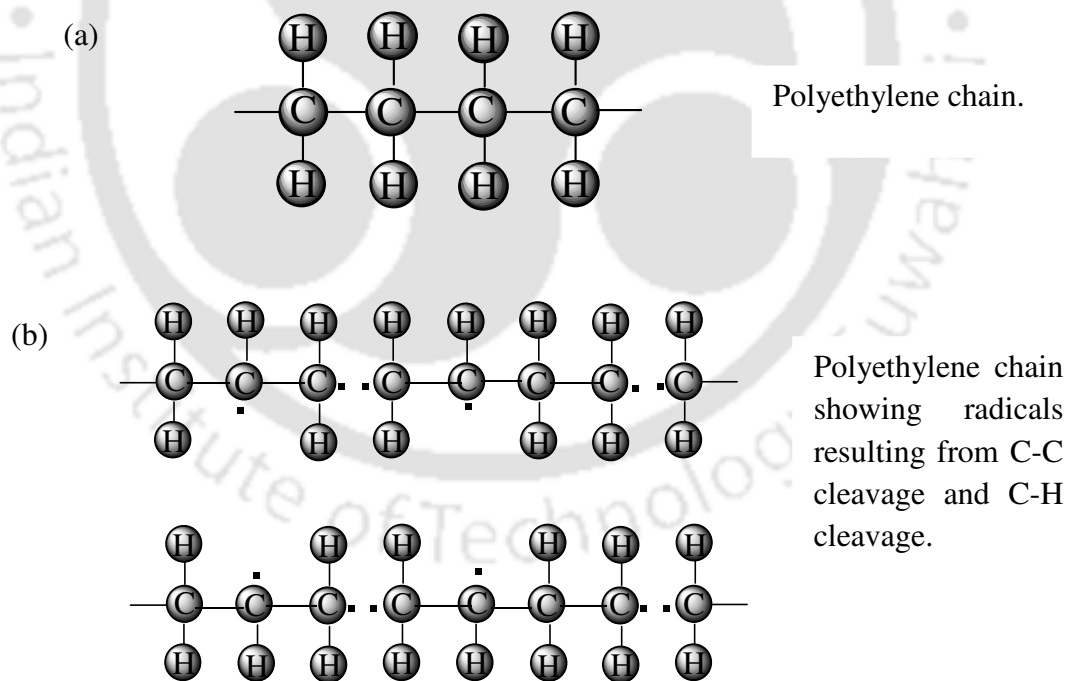


Figure 4.32. Crosslink density of composites

concentrations and irradiation doses. It is observed from Figure 4.32 that a significant enhancement of CLD of test sample was observed when both MWCNTs concentration and irradiation dose were increased. The CLD of pure UHMWPE at 25 kGy was found to be 0.1277 mol/dm<sup>3</sup>, which was increased to 0.1306 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> at 2 wt. % composites corresponding to an enhancement of 2.5 %. In case of 100 kGy irradiated test sample, the enhancement of CLD was observed to be about 10 %. The enhancement of CLD of NC0.0 and NC2.0 samples was found to be highest at 100 kGy dose compared to any other irradiation dose used in this study. The CLD of GI100NC2.0 test sample was found to be 34.8 % higher than that of GI25NC2.0 test sample. In case of pure polymer, the CLD was enhanced by 25 %.

Based on the above results, it is clear that the presence of MWCNTs in UHMWPE has increased its CLD by reacting with the free radicals generated during irradiation process. The mechanism of how MWCNTs influence the CLD of polymer is graphically represented in Figures 4.33a to 4.33e. A normal polyethylene chain structure is shown in Figure 4.33a. Figure 4.33b shows the irradiation generated radicals resulting from C-C and C-H cleavages. Figure

4.33c shows the MWCNTs acting as a chain scission inhibitor by reacting with the free radicals formed from the C-C cleavage. A crosslink formed between two adjacent polyethylene chains as a result of C-H cleavage is also shown in Figure 4.33c. Figure 4.33d shows the MWCNTs acting as a crosslink promoter by reacting with the radicals in the two adjacent chains forming an intermediate crosslink. Figure 4.33e shows the MWCNTs bonding with free radicals generated from both C-C and C-H cleavages. Though Figure 4.33 shows the schematic representation in 2D view, both the polyethylene chains and MWCNTs originally exist in a 3-dimensional network and hence the bonding can be more effective. It is expected that all the free radicals formed during the irradiation process are not taking part in bonding with MWCNTs and the unbonded free radicals led to the formation of oxidation products resulting to degradation of the properties of test samples.



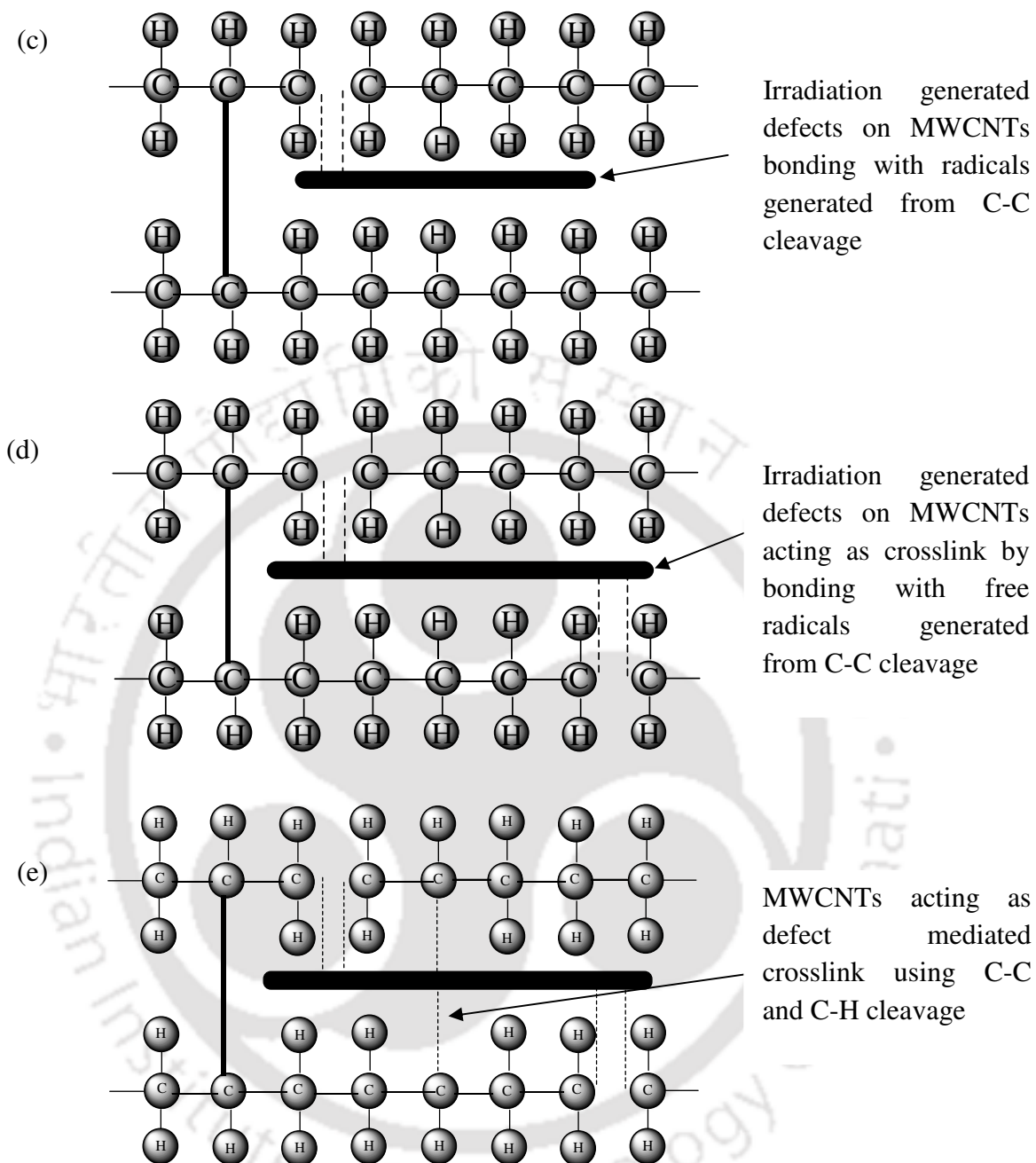


Figure 4.33. a) Structure of polyethylene molecule b) Polyethylene chains with irradiation generated free radicals c) MWCNT acting as chain scission inhibitor d) MWCNT acting as crosslink promoter e) MWCNT acting as both crosslink using C-C and C-H cleavage

Based on the above observation and the reduction of degradation of the mechanical properties of composites by the presence of defects on the surface of MWCNTs, as discussed in Section 4.2, it can be inferred that MWCNTs acted as both crosslink promoters and chain scission inhibitors using the irradiation induced defects.

### 4.3.3 Studies on CLD of $\alpha_T$ blends

$\alpha_T$  is being used as a standard antioxidant additive in orthopedic applications since 2003, Kurtz [2009]. However, the use of  $\alpha_T$  possesses certain limitations such as reduced crosslinking, as it absorbs the free radicals generated during the irradiation process, Oral et al. [2005]. Figure 4.34 shows the CLD of the  $\alpha_T$  blends. It is observed that the CLD of UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends was reduced with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  content. The pure UHMWPE has higher degree of CLD, which varied between 0.1277 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> at 25 kGy to 0.1609 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> at 100 kGy. However, the CLD of  $\alpha_T$ 0.1 blend was reduced to 0.1118 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> at 25 kGy and 0.132 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> at 100 kGy. However, there was no influence of the irradiation dose on CLD of blends having 0.3 and 0.5 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE. It is also observed that there was about 26 % enhancement of CLD of pure polymer, when the irradiation dose was increased from 25 to 100 kGy, but the

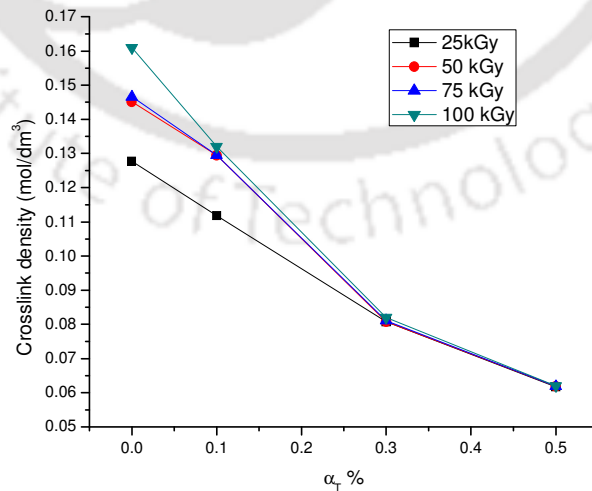


Figure 4.34. Crosslink density of UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends

enhancement was reduced to 18 % for 0.1 wt. %  $\alpha_T$ . However, it becomes negligible when the  $\alpha_T$  concentration was increased to 0.3 wt. % and beyond.

#### 4.3.4 ESR studies on composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends

The ESR studies were used to quantify the free radicals present in the composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends. Although MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  reacted with the free radicals in the polymer, there will be good amount of unbounded free radicals left over in the polymer. The free radicals that are trapped in the crystalline phases of the UHMWPE slowly diffuse towards amorphous regions and they react with atmospheric Oxygen leading to the formation of peroxy radicals. They abstract a hydrogen atom from the polyethylene chain leading to the generation of further new radicals, Oral et al. [2006], and finally it leads to the shelf ageing induced degradation of the mechanical properties. Figures 4.35a, 4.35b and 4.35c show the ESR spectra of 100 kGy irradiated composites within 10 days, 60 and 120 days after irradiation, respectively. It is observed from the spectra of irradiated samples obtained at different ageing periods that the intensity of the ESR signal is reduced with an increase of MWCNTs concentration. It indicates that the number of free radicals present in the polymer causing the degradation of its

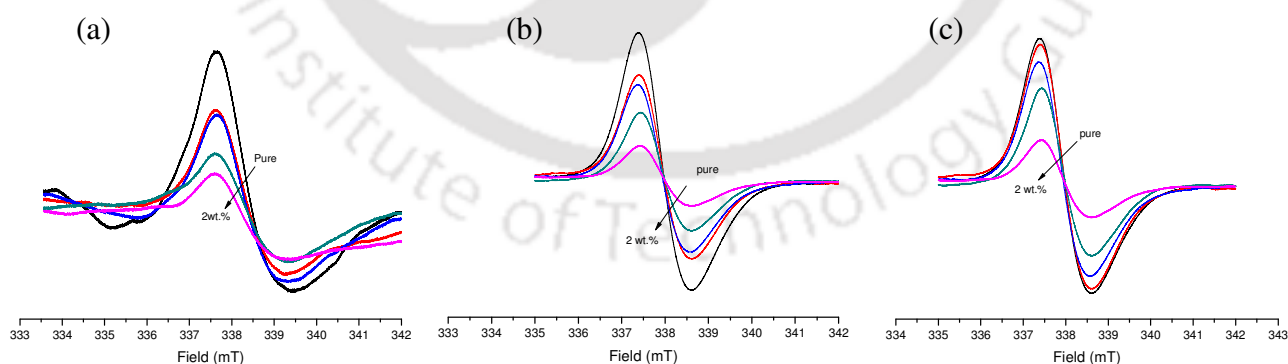


Figure 4.35. ESR spectra of 100 kGy irradiated composites at different periods of ageing a) Within 10 days b) 60 days c) 120 days after irradiation

mechanical properties reduced with an increase in MWCNTs concentration in UHMWPE.

An asymmetric broad singlet at room temperature serves as an indicator of the presence of peroxy radicals, Jahan et al. [2001]. The number of free radicals present in the test samples at any given time is proportional to the intensity of the spectrum. The spectral splitting factor ( $g$ ) is evaluated from the equation 3.5 in order to confirm the formation of peroxy radicals because it is a characteristic value for a certain species of free radicals. In the present study, the obtained  $g$ -value varied between 2.003 to 2.005 (when  $H$  is app. 338.43 mT), where the usual range of ‘ $g$ ’ for a peroxy radical is 2.001 to 2.005, Pedro et al. [2008].

The experimentally recorded first derivative of ESR spectrum, shown in Figure 4.35, is integrated to obtain the absorption curve. The absorption curve of 100 kGy irradiated composites after 120 days of irradiation is shown in Figure 4.36a. The area under the absorption curve is proportional to the radical concentration present in the test sample. It is observed from Figure 4.36a that the intensity of the absorption curve is reduced with an increase of MWCNTs

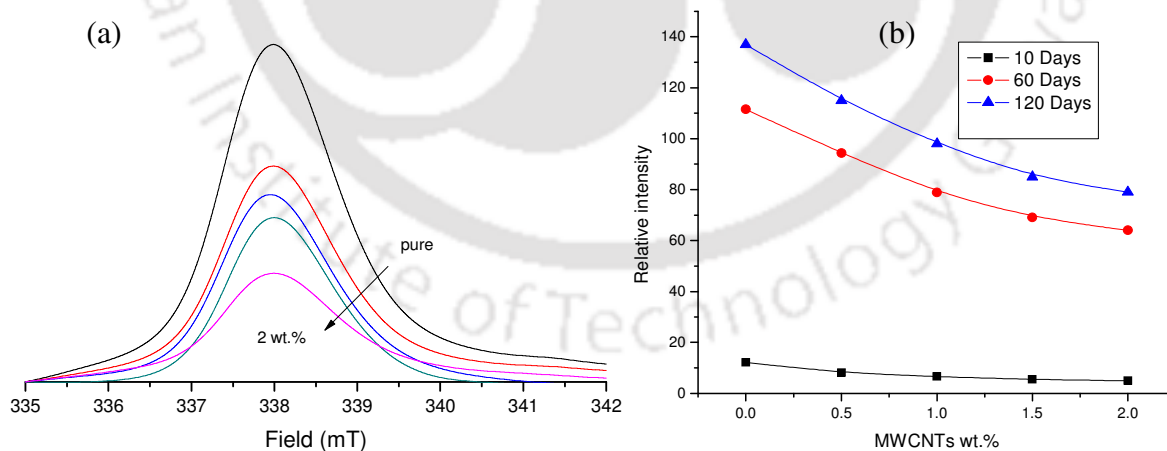


Figure 4.36. a) Absorption spectra of the ESR signal obtained from 100 kGy irradiated composites after 120 days of irradiation b) Relative intensity of the irradiated composites at different periods of ageing

concentration. The relative intensity of composites at different ageing periods at 100 kGy dose was obtained by normalizing the area under the absorption curve of each composite with that of an unirradiated sample, Suarez et al. [2003] and it is shown in Figure 4.36b. It is observed from Figure 4.36b that the reduction of relative intensity of free radicals present in the composites followed a linear trend upto 1 wt. %, beyond which the reduction rate was negligible. The relative radical intensity of pure UHMWPE after 10 days of irradiation was found to be 12.1, which was reduced to 4.9 at 2 wt. % MWCNTs corresponding to a reduction of 59 %. In case of irradiated pure UHMWPE after 120 days of irradiation, the relative radical concentration was calculated to be 137, and it was reduced to 79 for 2 wt. % composite corresponding to the reduction of 42.3 %. The presence of MWCNTs has effectively restricted the concentration of radicals present in the composites against ageing compared to that of virgin UHMWPE. It can be inferred from the above studies that the presence of MWCNTs reduced the number of free radicals in UHMWPE and thus it helps to restrict the deteriorating effects of oxidation.

The ESR spectra of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends within 10 days, 60 and 120 days after irradiation are shown in Figures 4.37a, 4.37b and 4.37c, respectively. It is observed from the spectra that the intensity was reduced with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  concentration at any given shelf ageing period. Being an antioxidant material,  $\alpha_T$  reacts with free radicals present in the polymer and thus reduces its radical concentration. The absorption curve of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends after 120 days of irradiation is shown in Figure 4.38a. Figure 4.38b shows the relative intensity of blends after different periods of irradiation. The relative intensity of pure polymer was found to be 137, which was reduced to 63 and 45 for GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.1 and GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.5 after 120 days of irradiation. The relative intensity was reduced exponentially from 0 to  $\alpha_T$  0.5

wt. %  $\alpha_T$  for 60 and 120 days aged samples. However, there was no significant influence of  $\alpha_T$  concentration on the relative intensity of the sample within 10 days after irradiation.

A comparison of the relative intensity of radical concentration of 100 kGy irradiated composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends after 120 days of irradiation is shown in Figure 4.37. It is observed that the radical intensity of virgin UHMWPE was found to be 137, which was reduced to 79 and 63 for NC2.0 and  $\alpha_T$ 0.1 blend, respectively. The relative intensity of NC2.0 and  $\alpha_T$ 0.1 was found to be reduced by 43 and 54 %, respectively compared to that of virgin UHMWPE.

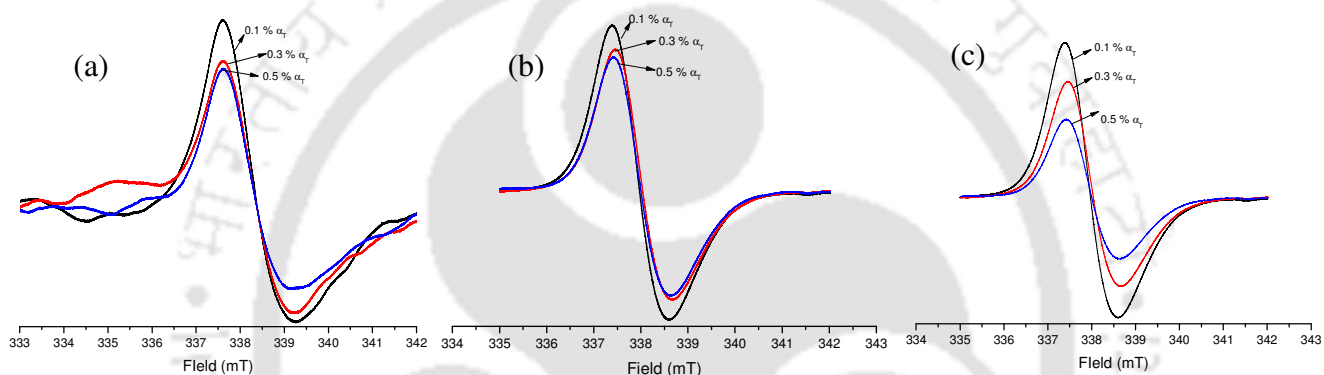


Figure 4.37 ESR spectra of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends at different periods of ageing a) Within 10 days b) 60 days c) 120 days after irradiation

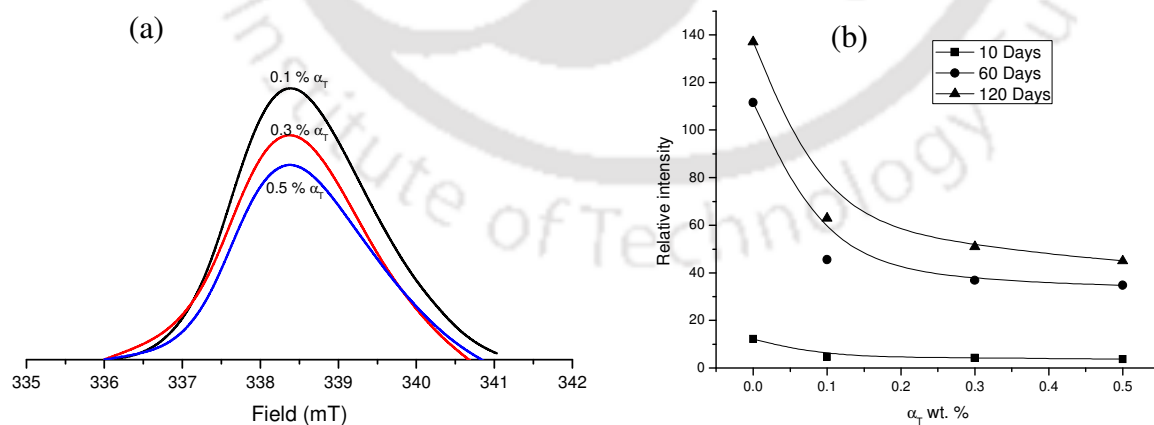


Figure 4.38. a) Absorption spectra of the ESR signal of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends after 120 days of irradiation b) Relative intensity of the UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends at different periods after irradiation

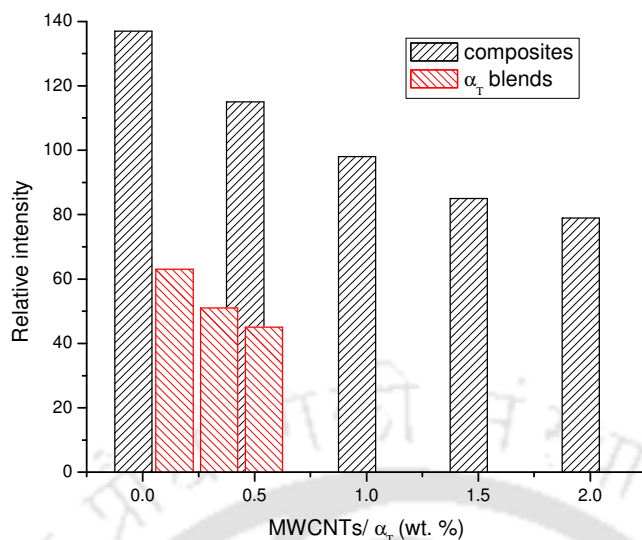


Figure 4.39. Comparison of relative intensity of 100 kGy irradiated composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends after 120 days of irradiation

Based on the above studies related to the defects formed on MWCNTs surface, CLD and ESR spectra, it is concluded that the role of 2 wt. % composites is similar to that of  $\alpha_T$  0.1 in restricting the degradation of mechanical properties after irradiation. The defects formed on the surface of MWCNTs due to irradiation act as strong radical traps due to their high electron affinity and thus reduce the radical intensity. The defective sites tend to easily trap the free radicals present in the polymer generated during the process of irradiation. Thus, the presence of MWCNTs minimized the degradation of UHMWPE and restricted the loss of mechanical properties. In case of  $\alpha_T$  blends, the free radicals absorbed by the  $\alpha_T$  leading to the reduced content of them causing the reduction of degradation of mechanical properties.

#### 4.3.5 Summary of the studies on network parameters and radical scavenging capability of composites and $\alpha_T$ blends

The irradiation induced defects on the surface of MWCNTs were identified using suitable analytical techniques. It was observed that the number of defects observed in the MWCNTs

increased with irradiation dose. The crosslink density of composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends was assessed using swell test according to ASTM F 2214-02 standards. It was observed that the crosslink density of composites was increased with irradiation dose and MWCNTs concentration. In case of  $\alpha_T$  blend samples, the crosslink density was reduced with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The electron spin resonance studies showed a decrease in relative radical intensity with an increase of MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  concentration in UHMWPE. The reduction of free radicals in UHMWPE due to the presence of MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  led to the reduction of degradation of properties of the polymer. Based on the obtained results, a schematic molecular structure model was proposed to elucidate how the presence of MWCNTs in UHMWPE could reduce the degradation of properties by acting as a crosslink promoter and a chain scission inhibitor using the irradiation induced defects. It is concluded that the defects generated on the surface of MWCNTs have high electron affinities and are responsible for trapping the free radicals in the polymer. Thus, the presence of MWCNTs has reduced the deteriorating effects of irradiation on the reduction of mechanical properties of UHMWPE.

#### **4.4 Studies on wear behaviour of composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends before and after irradiation**

##### **4.4.1 Hardness of composites and $\alpha_T$ blends before and after irradiation**

As the hardness of the test surface strongly influences its wear performance, the hardness of all the samples at different irradiation doses and MWCNTs concentration is obtained and it is shown in Figure 4.40. It is observed that the hardness of composites was increased with both MWCNTs concentration and irradiation doses, but the enhancement of irradiation induced hardness was not as significant as that of MWCNTs concentration. The hardness of unirradiated NC0, NC0.5, NC1.0, NC1.5, and NC2.0 composites was found to be 26.1, 29.1, 38.2, 41.2 and

45.7 MPa, respectively and the corresponding enhancement was 0, 11.5, 46.4, 57.8 and 75 %. The reason for the improved hardness of UHMWPE with an increase of MWCNTs concentration is due to increase of its crystallinity, which was also confirmed by the DSC studies and supported by Perepechko [1981]. As higher crystallinity of the polymers also makes them harder and rigid, Crompton [2006], the hardness of polymer was increased with MWCNTs concentration. A similar type of observation was also found in the literature, where the hardness of epoxy, PMMA and UHMWPE was increased by 30%, [Wang et al. [2008]], 50 %, [Jia et al. [1999]], and about 12%, [Bakshi et al. [2007]], respectively by the reinforcement of MWCNTs. The hardness of UHMWPE obtained from the present study was 26.1 MPa, which is approximately closer to the value reported by Wang et al. [2007], i.e. 28.5 MPa. Such deviations in polymer are expected due to the differences in processing conditions and operating parameters. The hardness of virgin UHMWPE and NC2.0 sample was enhanced by 16.5 and 7.5 %, respectively when the irradiation dose was increased from 0 to 100 kGy. The hardness of GI100NC2.0 test sample was increased by 89 % compared to that of unirradiated virgin polymer. An increase of hardness of UHMWPE with irradiation dose was expected due to restructuring of the polymer network caused by the crosslinking and oxidation process, Benson [2002]. The presence of MWCNTs in UHMWPE during the irradiation process was expected to reduce the oxidation induced degradation due to their ability to react with the free radicals in the test sample, which was also confirmed earlier, and thus it helped to reduce the severity of polymer oxidation. The oxidation index of irradiated polyethylene was also found to be significantly reduced by the reinforcement of MWCNTs, Sreekanth et al. (2012). Thus, the increase of hardness of irradiated NC2.0 test sample was relatively less compared to that of virgin UHMWPE.

The hardness of  $\alpha_T$  blended UHMWPE before and after irradiation process is shown in Figure 4.40b. The hardness of the UHMWPE was found to be unaffected by the presence of  $\alpha_T$  prior to irradiation. However, it has shown a decreasing trend with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  content in UHMWPE after the irradiation process. The hardness of virgin UHMWPE at 100 kGy was found to be 30.4 MPa, which was reduced to 29.3, 28.2 and 26.3 MPa at 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 wt. % of  $\alpha_T$  concentration, respectively. Although the hardness of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE was increased by 16 % compared to unirradiated polymer, the hardness of  $\alpha_T$ 0.1,  $\alpha_T$ 0.3 and  $\alpha_T$ 0.5 was about 3.7, 8 and 14 % lower than that of GI100NC0.0. The reason for the reduction of hardness is due to the fact that  $\alpha_T$  reduced the CLD of the polymer. In addition to that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE during the irradiation process acted as a plasticizer, Tomita et al. [1999] causing the reduction of hardness of UHMWPE.

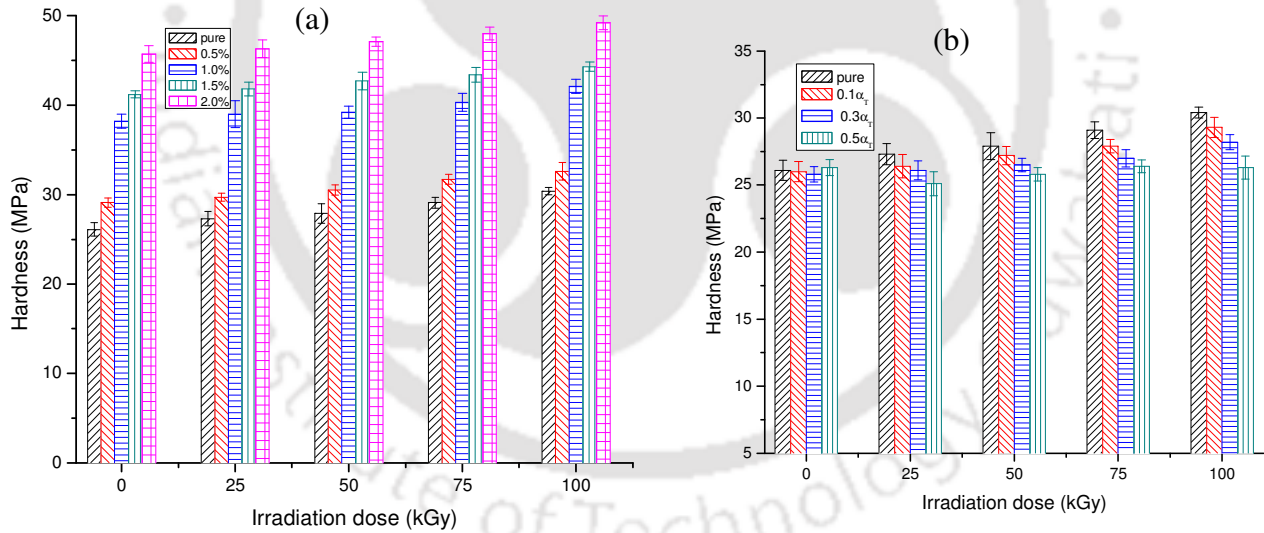


Figure 4.40. Hardness of a) Composites b)  $\alpha_T$  blends at different irradiation doses

#### 4.4.2 Wear studies on unirradiated composites and $\alpha_T$ blends

Figure 4.41a shows the wear volume of UHMWPE and its composites against sliding distance. The total wear volume of the test sample is contributed by the transient wear (initial

wear) and the linear wear (steady state). The initial wear of the test samples was found to be very high and non-linear nature, where the surface irregularities were flattened when the traction force was applied. The steady state wear of the samples was reached after the transient effects, where the wear volume was increased linearly with sliding distance. It is also observed that the steady state wear rate of all the test samples was observed to be the same. However, the final wear volume of the test sample was lowest for a composite having 2 wt. % MWCNTs. It is due to the

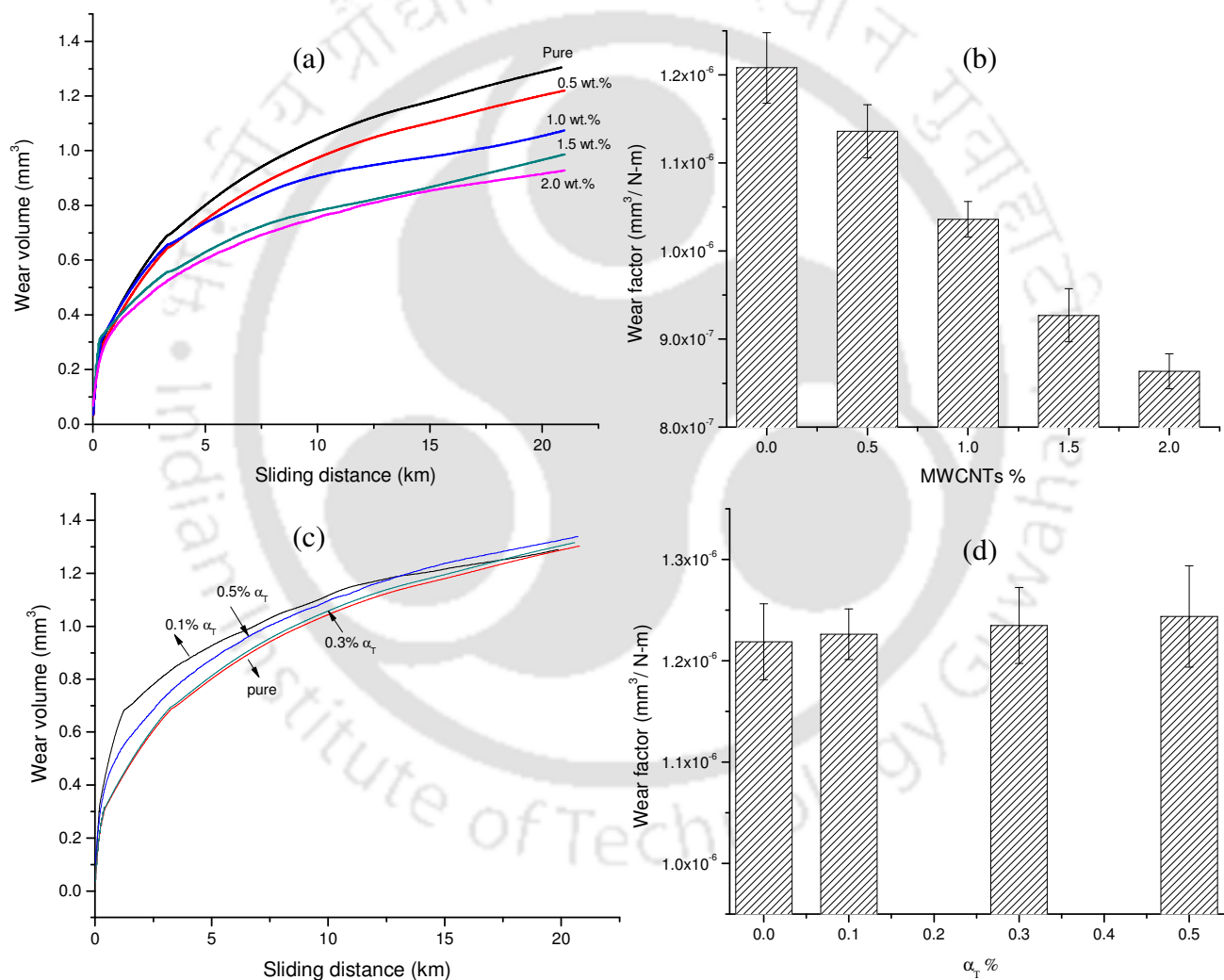


Figure 4.41. a) Wear profile of composites b) Wear factor of composites c) Wear profile of  $\alpha_T$  blends d) Wear factor of  $\alpha_T$  blends (under unirradiated condition)

fact that the initial wear of the composites was significantly influenced by the concentration of MWCNTs. It is observed from the previous results that the hardness of UHMWPE was increased with MWCNTs concentration leading to the significant reduction of the severity of initial wear of UHMWPE. It is also observed from Figure 4.41a that the wear volume of pure UHMWPE sample was found to be  $1.33 \text{ mm}^3$  after 20 km sliding distance, which was reduced to 1.25, 1.14, 1.02, and  $0.92 \text{ mm}^3$  for NC0.5, NC1.0, NC1.5 and NC2.0 sample, respectively and the corresponding reduction of wear volume is 7, 18.6, 26 and 31 %. The wear factor, which is defined as the volume of the material worn per one Joule of work done, is calculated for all the irradiated test samples and it is shown in Figure 4.41b. The wear factor was found to be reduced with increasing concentration of MWCNTs in UHMWPE and it was found to be the lowest for NC2.0 composite compared to that of pure UHMWPE. It was observed that the wear factor of virgin UHMWPE was found to be  $1.208 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$ , which was reduced to  $8.63 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$  by incorporating 2 wt. % MWCNTs. The reason for increased wear resistance of composites is due to their higher work to failure and hardness compared to that of pure UHMWPE.

The wear volume of  $\alpha_T$  blend samples against sliding distance is shown in Figure 4.41c. It is observed that there was no significant difference in the wear volume of the blends after the sliding distance of 20 km. Though minor deviations were observed during the transient wear stage, but it has not affected the final wear volume of the  $\alpha_T$  blends attained during the steady state. The wear factor of all the  $\alpha_T$  blended samples is shown in Figure 4.41d, where it is observed that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE prior to irradiation process did not have any influence on the wear factor of the blends. This is due to the fact that  $\alpha_T$  is used only as an additive to prevent the oxidation during the irradiation process.

The variation of coefficient of friction of the unirradiated composite samples with sliding distance is shown in Figure 4.42. The direction of the arrow in the plot indicates the increase of MWCNTs from 0 to 2 wt. %. It is observed that the coefficient of friction was decreased initially with sliding distance during the run-in stage for all the materials and it was not significantly changed during the later stages from the average value. The initial reduction of coefficient of friction is due to shearing of the interlocked surface asperities and smoothing of the surfaces in contact. It is also observed from Figure 4.42 that the coefficient of friction in the steady state period was reduced with an increase of MWCNTs concentration. The coefficient of friction of pure UHMWPE was found to be 0.125 at steady state condition, which was reduced to 0.12, 0.117, 0.115 and 0.112 at 0.5, 1.0, 1.5 and 2 wt. % MWCNTs, respectively. The reduction of coefficient of friction with an increase of MWCNTs concentration can be attributed to their self-lubricating characteristics, Qianming et al. [2008]. A similar observation was made by Chen et al. [2003] and Cai et al. [2004] for PTFE/CNT and polyimide/CNT composites, respectively.

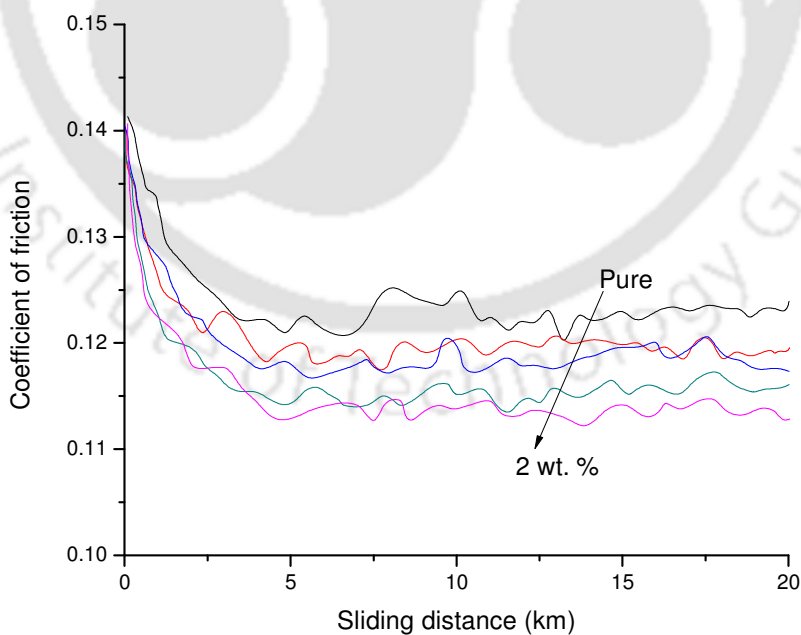
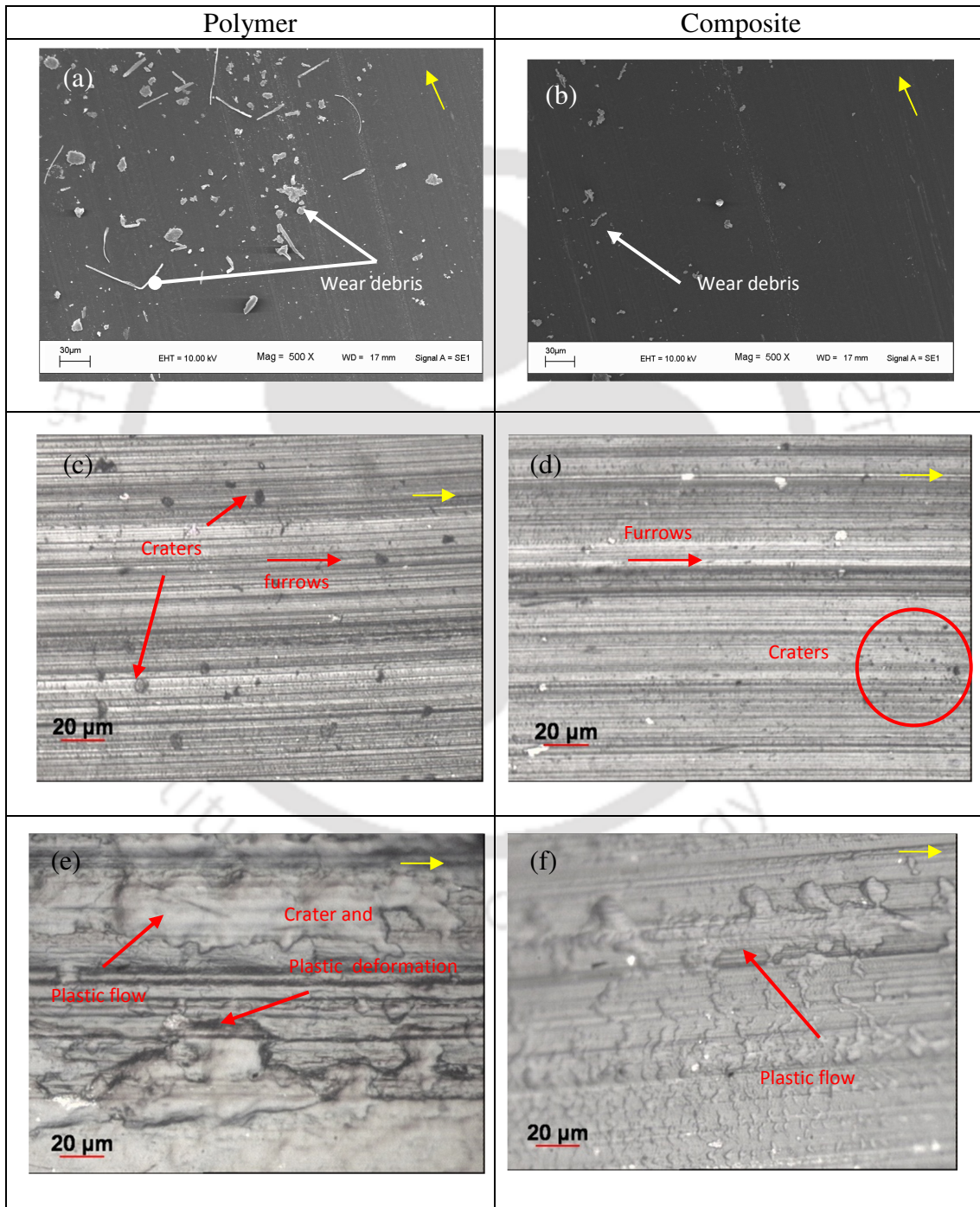


Figure 4.42. Coefficient of friction of unirradiated composites against sliding distance

Figure 4.43 shows the representative SEM and optical microscopic images of the wear debris and wear tracks of the test sample. The wear mechanisms were explained based on the observation made from these figures. Figure 4.43a shows the wear debris of NC0.0, where both long needle like fibrils and particulate wear debris were observed. Figure 4.43b shows the wear debris produced from the NC2.0 test sample. It is observed from Figures 4.43a and 4.43b that the size of most of the wear debris obtained from the pure polymer and 2 wt. % composite sample was approximately 10  $\mu\text{m}$  or less and very few particles were observed to be outside the range. The length of long needle like fibrils, which are indicated in Figure 4.43a, varied between 50 to 90  $\mu\text{m}$ . However, these type of fibrils were not observed in NC2.0 sample. Although the size of the particulate wear debris generated from the pure polymer and composites was not varied, the particulate density was found to be less in case of NC2.0 sample compared to that of virgin UHMWPE. Figures 4.43c and 4.43d show the formation of wear craters resulted due to initial adhesive wear on the surface of pure polymer and NC2.0 test samples, respectively. The wear craters are indicated by an arrow in Figure 4.43c and encircled in Figure 4.43d. In addition to wear craters, the abrasive wear furrows were also observed on the test surface. The generation of craters is resulted due to the relative motion between the counterface and test surface.

Polyethylene underwent deformation at the asperity contact due to the normal force, which led to the reduction of the height of asperities and consequently an adhesive bond was created at the interface of the materials in contact. If the relative motion is continued, a portion of the soft material is pulled off leaving behind a crater or cavity, Bhushan [1999]. If the pulled off material continues to bond with the counterface material, it forms a transfer film or wear debris if it is slipped off. Although the wear craters observed in both polymer and composites, the dimension and number of craters observed in the composites are found to be less than that of virgin

UHMWPE and it is shown in Figure 4.43d. It may be due to the fact that MWCNTs have strong bond with polyethylene due to the chemical groups attached on their surface. Thus, the amount of adhesive force required to pull off the soft material is increased significantly, and resulted in fewer wear craters on the composites.



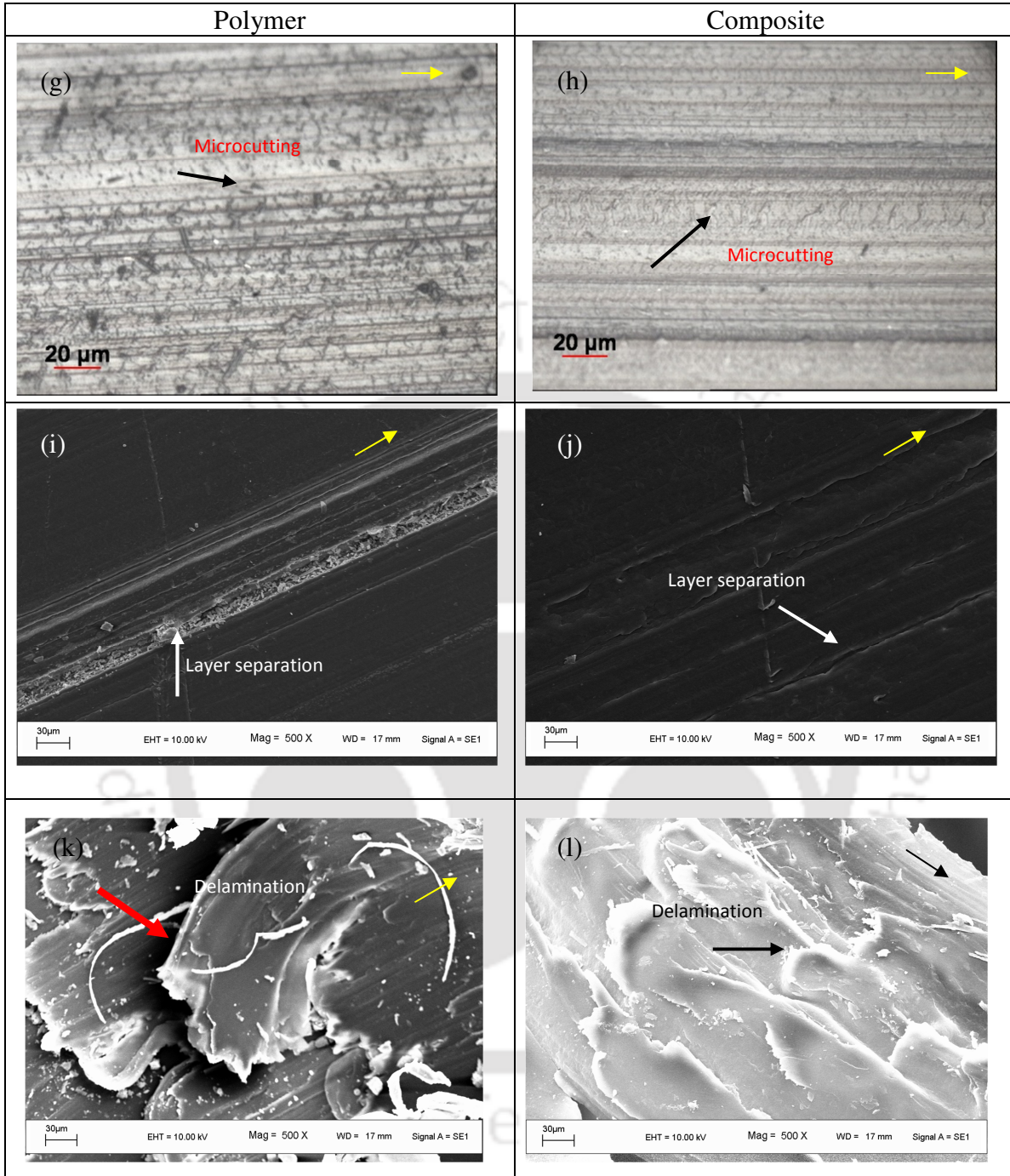


Figure 4.43. Representative SEM and optical microscopy images of the test samples before irradiation showing different wear mechanism. (a, b) Wear debris showing micron particulate and fibrils (c, d) Wear craters due to initial adhesive friction e) Plastic flow and wear craters f) Plastic flow (g, h) Micro cutting and abrasive wear furrows (i, j) Cracks and layer separation (k, l) Delamination of fibrils from underlying test sample

Figure 4.43e shows the wear crater on the surface of UHMWPE, which was further aggravated by the plastic flow and deformation resulted due to frictional heating of the test sample. Figure 4.43f shows the intensity of plastic flow resulted in the NC2.0 test sample, which is found to be less than that of virgin UHMWPE. It may be due to the fact that MWCNTs have superior thermal properties compared to that of polymer. The thermal conductivity of MWCNTs is 3000 W/m-K, Yang et al. [2009]; while the same for UHMWPE is 0.41 W/m-K, Ticona data sheet [2010]. The temperature of polymer raised due to frictional heating leading to its softening and thus it influenced the plastic flow. Due to higher thermal conductivity of MWCNTs, a significant portion of heat generated due to frictional heating was dissipated by them and thus it reduced the plastic flow and deformation of the composites. Figures 4.43g and 4.43h show the surface of the UHMWPE and NC2.0 test samples, respectively, subjected to microcutting. This type of wear mechanism primarily occurs due to the abrasive action of the generated wear particles, which cut the polymer surface, Imbeni et al. [2001]. It is observed from Figure 4.43h that the severity and intensity of microcutting in the composites are observed to be less than that of virgin UHMWPE. It is due to the fact that the hardness of NC2.0 sample was 75 % higher than that of pure polymer and it is a known fact that the harder materials offer better resistance against cutting than the soft materials. Figure 4.43i shows the cracks formed on the polymer surface, which was further aggravated by third body wear leading to separation of a layer. In case of NC2.0 composite, the cracks were found to be mild and the separation of a layer due to third body wear was not much significant compared to that of pure polymer and it is shown in Figure 4.43j. Figures 4.43k and 4.43l show the delamination of the fibrils from the underlying material of pure polymer and NC2.0 test samples, respectively. The primary mechanism for the delamination wear of the test sample is that the hard asperities of the metal counterface

penetrated into the soft material leading to its plastic deformation or fracture. It proceeded in an incremental way till the relative motion at their interface continued. Due to severe fatigue resulting from the repeated loading and plastic deformation, the cracks were formed at the subsurface of the test materials, which propagated due to the combined effect of compressive loading on the crack and shear deformation at the crack tip, Qianming et al. [2008]. These cracks were expected to propagate and join among them, which eventually formed a long and thin sheet of delamination, as observed in Figure 4.43k. The delamination wear of pure UHMWPE was significantly reduced by the reinforcement of MWCNTs as shown in Figure 4.43l due to their superior properties and interfacial bonding between polymer and MWCNTs.

Figure 4.44 shows the surface topography and typical wear profile of the test samples. Figure 4.44a shows the topography of pure polymer and it is observed that the material on the surface of polymer was piled up due to its plastic flow. The height of the piled up material was observed to be 0.542  $\mu\text{m}$  above the mean level, and it is shown in Figure 4.44b. Figure 4.44c shows the formation of wear crater on the pure polymer, where the depth of the wear crater was about 0.40  $\mu\text{m}$  and it is shown in Figure 4.44d. Figure 4.44e shows the stacking up material on NC2.0 test sample. The plastic flow of the material caused by frictional heating and subsequent pushing under compressive force were expected to influence the formation of stacked layers. The surface profile of the stacks is shown in Figure 4.44f. It is observed that the height of the stacks reduced gradually in a sequential order confirming their formation. Figures 4.44g and 4.44h show the typical wear furrows formed on the NC0.0 and NC2.0 test samples, respectively, where the corresponding wear furrow was observed to be 3.35 and 1.95  $\mu\text{m}$ . The images observed in AFM are strongly supporting the observation and discussion made against wear mechanism shown in Figure 4.44.

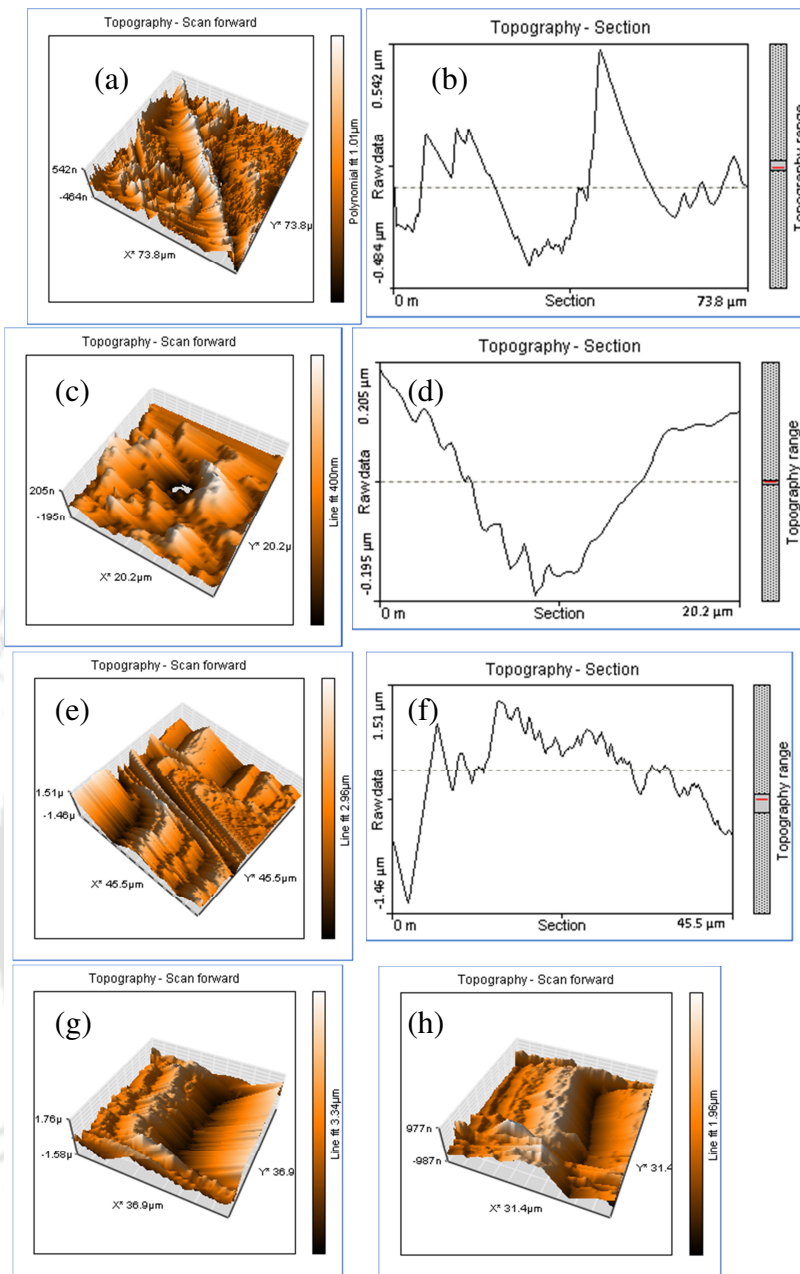


Figure 4.44. Surface topography and typical wear profiles observed on the test samples (a, b, c, d and, g corresponds to polymer; e, f and, h corresponds to 2 wt. % composite) a) Plastic deformation b) Surface profile of (a) c) Wear crater d) Surface profile of (c) e) Piling of material due to plastic flow f) Surface profile of (e) g and h) Wear furrow

### 4.4.3 Wear studies on irradiated composites and $\alpha_T$ blends

#### 4.4.3.1 Wear studies on irradiated composites

Wear studies were performed on both composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends after irradiation. The wear volume of the composites against sliding distance at 25 and 100 kGy irradiation doses is shown in Figures 4.45a and 4.45b, respectively. It is observed that the trend of wear volume was similar to that of unirradiated samples. It is also observed that the wear volume of virgin UHMWPE at 25 kGy was found to be  $1.29 \text{ mm}^3$ , which was reduced to  $0.88 \text{ mm}^3$  by reinforcing 2 wt. % MWCNTs corresponding to a reduction of 31 %. In addition to that the GI100NC2.0 composite exhibited 40 and 73 % reduction of wear volume compared to that of GI100NC0.0 and unirradiated pure polymer samples, respectively. Figure 4.45c shows the wear factor of polymer and its composites at different irradiation doses and MWCNTs concentration. It is observed that the wear factor of the test samples was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose and MWCNTs concentration. The wear factor of GI25NC0.0 test sample was found to be  $1.036 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N-m}$ , which was reduced to  $5.363 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N-m}$  upon irradiation at 100 kGy corresponding to almost 50 % reduction. Similarly, the wear factor of GI25NC2.0 sample was also reduced by 50 % at 100 kGy irradiation dose. The combined effect of 2 wt. % MWCNTs reinforcement and 100 kGy irradiation was observed to be considerably more than that of the individual effects due to defect mediated crosslinks in the polymer.

The coefficient of friction of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE and composite test samples against sliding distance is shown in Figure 4.45d and it is found to be decreased initially with sliding distance during the run-in stage similar to that of unirradiated samples. At 100 kGy irradiation dose, the average coefficient of friction was found to be 0.110, 0.109, 0.104, 0.098, and 0.093 for pure polymer, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 wt. %, respectively. The coefficient of friction

of 100 kGy irradiated sample was decreased compared to that of unirradiated test sample, which was discussed against Figure 4.42. The reduction of coefficient of friction at 100 kGy irradiation dose is attributed to the generation of less wear debris due to increased crosslink density, Zhou et al. [2005]. It could also be due to molecular chain rearrangement and restructuring of the lamellae below the articulating surface parallel to the sliding direction, Klapperich et al. [1999].

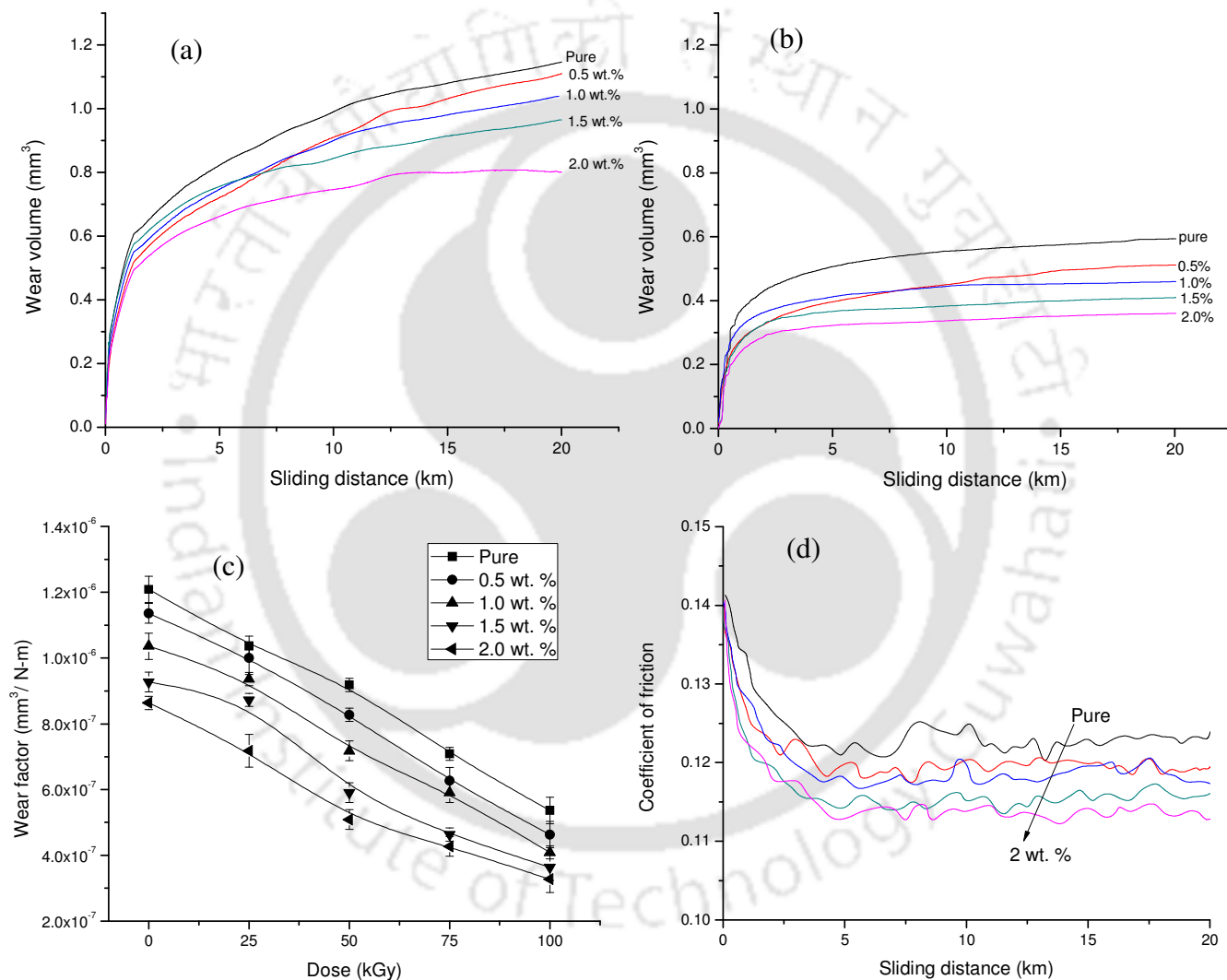


Figure 4.45. Sliding distance vs. wear volume at a) 25 kGy b) 100 kGy c) Wear factor of composites at different irradiation doses d) Coefficient of friction of composites at 100 kGy dose

Figure 4.46 shows the surface morphology of 100 kGy irradiated wear test samples. It is observed from Figure 4.46a that the wear debris formed on the GI100NC0.0 test sample was found to be very fine powder of less than 1  $\mu\text{m}$  size. It is due to the fact that UHMWPE reduced its ductility due to irradiation induced oxidation. The wear debris generated from the test sample may possibly be trapped and leading to third body wear between the test sample and the counterface material. During the process, the particles were pulverized into fine wear debris. Figure 4.46b shows the size of the wear debris of the composites, which was not varied significantly before and after gamma irradiation. Figures 4.46c and 4.46d show the plastic flow and deformation caused by the frictional heating on the 100 kGy irradiated NC0.0 and NC2.0 samples, respectively. It is observed that the intensity of plastic flow and deformation was less in case of composite compared to that of pure polymer. Moreover, the severity of plastic flow of both UHMWPE and composites under irradiated condition was found to be less than that of unirradiated condition. It is due to the fact that the irradiation of UHMWPE led to increase of its surface hardness, which was also confirmed in section 4.4.1. Figures 4.38e and 4.38f show the microcutting and wear furrows in NC0.0 and NC2.0 wear test sample, respectively. It is observed that the irradiation of test samples reduced the effect of microcutting due to increase of their hardness. It is also observed that the wear mechanism of UHMWPE is not affected by the irradiation dose and the presence of MWCNTs but its severity was significantly reduced.

Figure 4.47 shows the AFM images of 100 kGy irradiated samples. Figures 4.47a and 4.47b show the deformation due to plastic flow in the NC0.0 and NC2.0 test sample, respectively. It is observed that the deformation was more severe in NC0.0 sample compared to NC2.0 sample. Figures 4.47c and 4.47d show the wear craters on NC0.0 and NC2.0 test sample, respectively. The depth of wear craters in NC0.0 and NC2.0 was observed to be 0.3 and 0.23  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively.

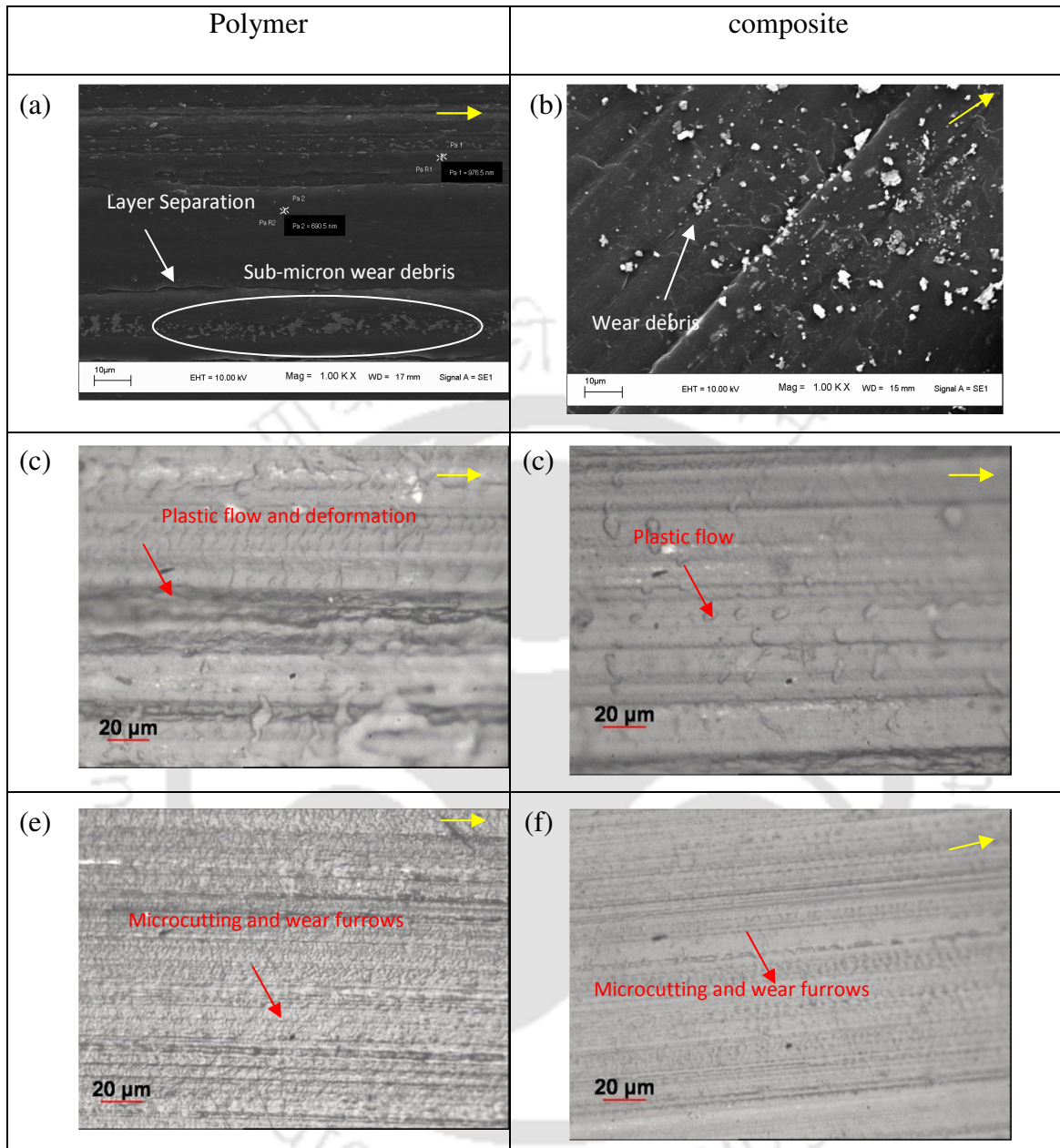


Figure 4.46. Representative SEM and optical microscopy images of the test samples after 100 kGy gamma irradiation showing different wear mechanisms. (a, c, e - for NC0.0; b, d, f – for NC2.0 samples). (a, b) Wear debris and cracks formed on the test surface (c, d) Plastic flow and deformation (e, f) Micro-cutting and wear furrows on the test surface

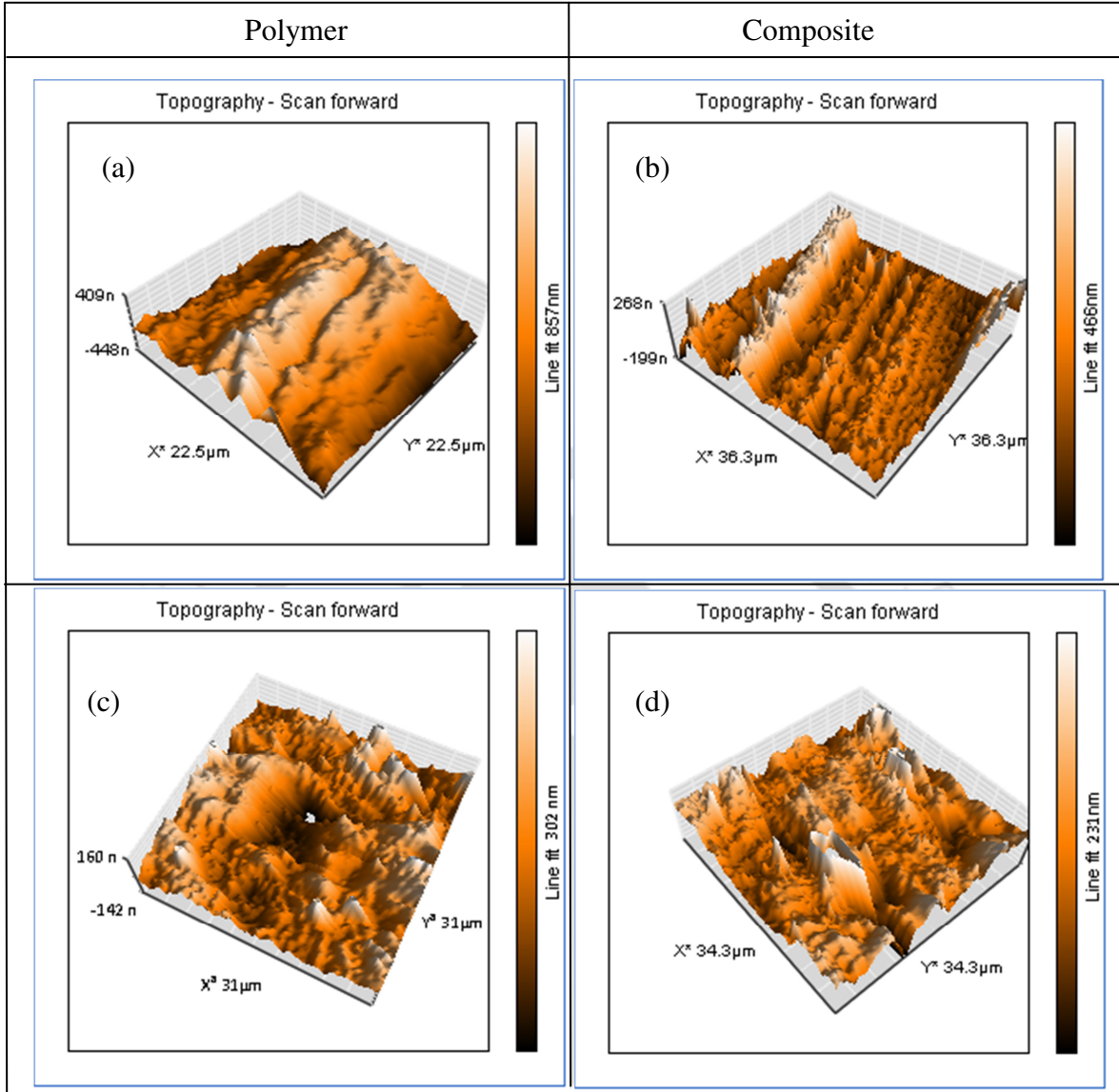


Figure 4.47. Surface topography of the 100 kGy irradiated test samples (a and c correspond to polymer; b and d correspond to 2 wt. % composite). (a,b) Plastic flow and deformation (c,d) Formation of wear craters

#### 4.4.3.2 Wear studies on irradiated $\alpha_T$ blends

As the work to failure of 25, 50 and 75 kGy  $\alpha_T$  blends was found to be within the experimental deviation as that of unirradiated pure polymer, which is discussed in detail in

section 4.2.1, and a noticeable enhancement of the work to failure of the sample was observed only at 100 kGy irradiation dose, the sample irradiated at 100 kGy was tested and reported. Figure 4.48a shows the wear volume pattern of 100 kGy irradiated  $\alpha_T$  blended UHMWPE against sliding distance. It is observed that the wear volume of 100 kGy irradiated UHMWPE sample was increased from  $0.59 \text{ mm}^3$  to 0.73, 0.91 and  $0.93 \text{ mm}^3$  by the addition of 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 wt. %  $\alpha_T$ , respectively, corresponding to an increase of 23.7, 54.2 and 57.6 %. It is due to the fact that the presence of  $\alpha_T$  restricted the process of crosslinking and the plasticizer effect of  $\alpha_T$  caused the softening of the polymer leading to reduced work to failure of UHMWPE. The wear factor of  $\alpha_T$  blend samples after a sliding distance of 20 km is shown in Figure 4.48b and the results are compared with that of pure polymer. The wear factor of 100 kGy irradiated pure UHMWPE was found to be  $5.363 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N-m}$ , which was increased to  $8.453 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mm}^3/\text{N-m}$  for GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.5 sample. It is observed that the wear factor of pure UHMWPE at 100 kGy dose was found to be increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration.

Assuming that the wear volume of unirradiated virgin UHMWPE as 100 percent, the percentage wear volume of the unirradiated and irradiated composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends is calculated and the corresponding wear factor was also inscribed in the plot and it is shown in Figure 4.49. It is observed that the wear volume of NC2.0, GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.1, GI100NC0.0, and GI100NC2.0 test samples, respectively, after 20 km sliding distance was reduced to 71, 59, 44 and 27 % of the wear volume of unirradiated virgin UHMWPE. It can be concluded that the combined effect of MWCNTs reinforcement and 100 kGy irradiation reduced the wear factor of UHMWPE significantly.

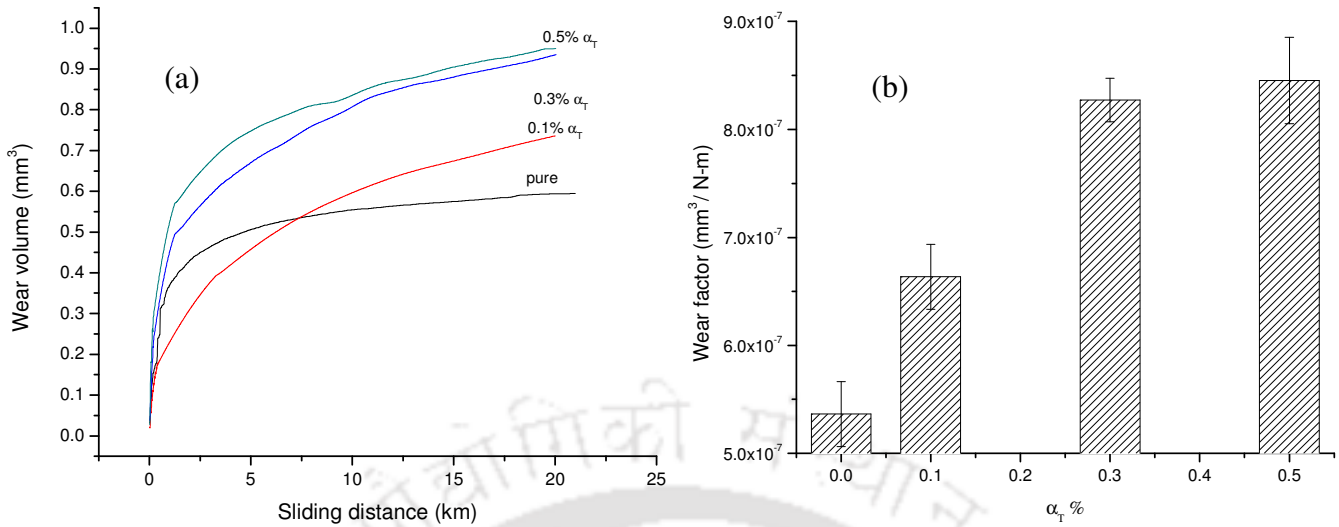


Figure 4.48. a) Sliding distance vs. wear volume of 100 kGy irradiated  $\alpha_T$  blends b) Wear factor of 100 kGy irradiated  $\alpha_T$  blends at a sliding distance of 20 km

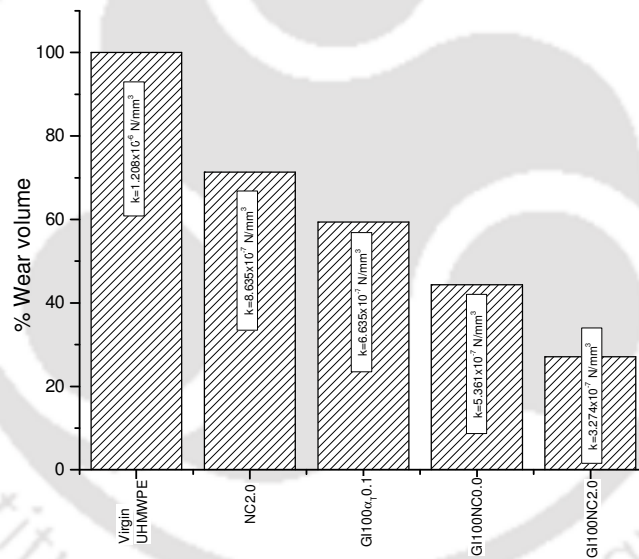


Figure 4.49. Percentage wear volume and wear factor of unirradiated, irradiated composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends

The wear results obtained from the present study were compared with the literature. Comparison would be very difficult in the wear studies as the sliding conditions such as sliding distance, sliding velocity, lubricant etc would be varied. However, the same was made to the extent possible. Comparison of wear results from different literature is a mere indication to estimate the

feasibility of the developed composite. It is to be noted that there are significant differences in the wear testing conditions, which influence the wear characteristics of the materials.

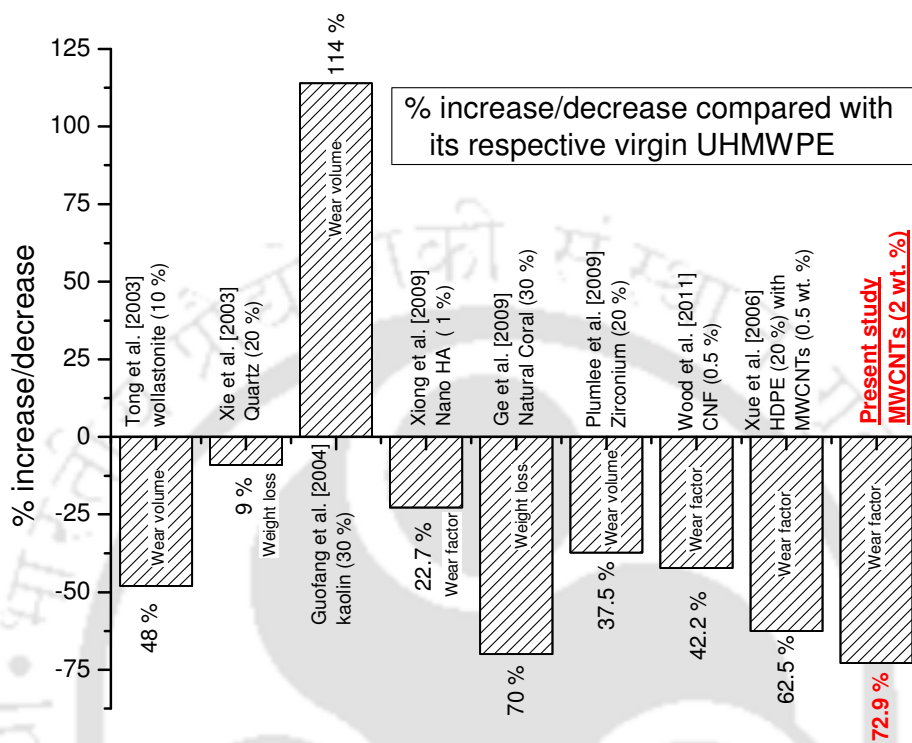


Figure 4.50. Comparison of wear results obtained from literature with the present study

Figure 4.50 shows the percentage/increase of wear volume/wear factor/mass loss of different composites compared with its respective virgin UHMWPE. It is observed from Figure 4.50 that the wear volume/wear factor/mass loss of UHMWPE was reduced by reinforcing different fillers.

#### 4.4.4 Summary of the studies on wear behaviour of composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$ blends before and after irradiation

Wear primarily depends on surface hardness and roughness of the test samples. As the roughness of the test sample was kept constant, the hardness of all the test composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends was

studied using the Nanoindenter. It was observed that the hardness of the sample was increased with MWCNTs concentration and irradiation dose. In case of  $\alpha_T$  blends, the hardness was reduced with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  concentration but increased with irradiation dose. The wear studies on composites and  $\alpha_T$  blend samples were performed over a sliding distance of 20 km under dry sliding conditions against SS316L disc conforming to ISO-5832-1 standards. It was observed that the wear volume and the coefficient of friction of UHMWPE were reduced with an increase of MWCNTs concentration. Different wear mechanisms such as microcutting, ploughing, plastic flow, wear crater formation, and delamination were observed in the test samples. However, the severity of these effects was found to be reduced in case of irradiated composites compared to that of virgin UHMWPE. In case of  $\alpha_T$  blends, the wear volume was increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration. The wear volume of both composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose. The wear volume of NC2.0, GI100 $\alpha_T$ 0.1, GI100NC0.0, and GI100NC2.0 test samples, respectively, after 20 km sliding distance was reduced to 71, 59, 44 and 27 % of the wear volume of virgin UHMWPE.

#### **4.5 Biocompatibility studies on composites**

The success of any material intended for biomedical application depends on its biocompatibility. Thus, some preliminary biocompatibility tests such as simulated body fluid test, platelet adhesion test and *in vivo* subcutaneous tests were conducted. In order to reduce the number of animals involved in the study for *in vivo* characterization, the test was performed only on the 2 wt. % composite.

##### **4.5.1 Simulated body fluid (SBF) studies**

The composites were soaked in the SBF solution for a predefined period and incubated at 37 °C to replicate the human body temperature. The weight of the samples was monitored at predefined regular intervals after soaking them in SBF to assess the coating of HA. The effect of immersion time of the samples on the pH value of SBF solution was also studied. Figure 4.51a shows the percentage enhancement of weight of the sample at different soaking time with respect to its initial weight, where a rapid enhancement of the sample weight was observed during the initial period of soaking. The sample weight was increased by 11.7 % after 7 days of soaking, but it was limited to 12.9 and 13.2 % after 15 and 30 days of its immersion, respectively. It indicates that the deposition rate of apatite has attained an equilibrium after 15 days of the sample immersion in SBF. The Ca and P required for the apatite formation were extracted from the SBF solution. The formation of apatite layer on the surface of composites was a dynamic process, where the apatite layers were initially precipitated on the material surface and then dissolved. The precipitation and dissolution of the salts on the surface of the composites occurred simultaneously. During the initial period of time, the amount of dissolution was very slow as it was proportional to the surface area of the precipitated salts and thus the rate of increase of weight of the sample was high. The surface area of the precipitated salts increased with time and the dissolution rate was also increased consequently. The process of dissolution and precipitation reached an equilibrium over the time and thus, the enhancement of the sample weight attained a constant value, which is shown in Figure 4.51a. Figure 4.51b shows the influence of the immersion time of composites on the pH value of SBF. It is observed that the pH value of SBF solution was 7.35 before immersion of the test sample, which is similar to that of human blood plasma, Xin et al. [2009]. The pH value of SBF solution was increased slightly with immersion time of the sample during the early stage, which was resulted from the accumulation of OH<sup>-</sup> in

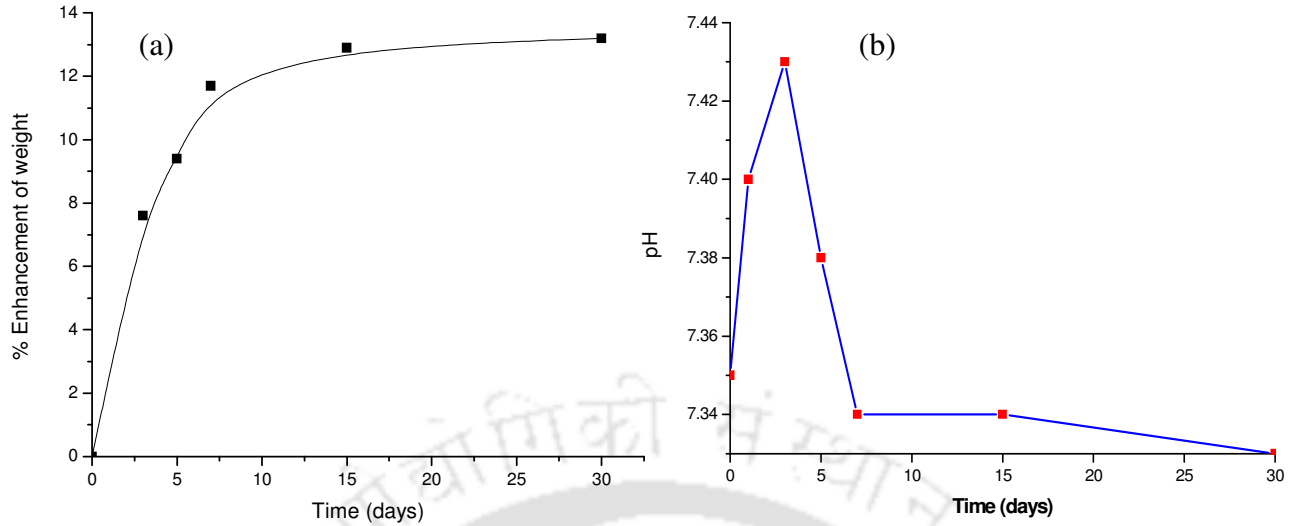


Figure 4.51. a) Enhancement of the sample weight against soaking period in SBF b) pH value of SBF solution at different soaking periods of the test sample

the solution due to the deposition of  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$  ions on the test surfaces. Thus, the pH value of SBF solution reached its maximum i.e.  $\sim 7.43$  on the 3<sup>rd</sup> day, which is slightly higher than the normal value of human blood plasma. After immersion of the sample for 30 days, the pH value of SBF was reduced to 7.33 which is equivalent to the normal value of human blood plasma. Due to the deposition of Ca and P on the surface,  $\text{OH}^-$  is now extracted from the SBF solution to form apatite and thus the pH value decreased gradually during the later stages of sample immersion.

The SEM images of the apatite layer formed on the surface of composites are shown in Figures 4.52a-4.52f. Figure 4.52a shows the apatite layer formed on the composite surface with few uncovered regions of the test sample. A very thin layer of HA was observed on the test sample after one day of soaking. The leaf like apatite disappeared with an increase of soaking time and the number of thicker and denser spherical crystals was increased after 3 and 7 days of soaking period, which is shown in Figure 4.52b and 4.52c, respectively. It is clearly observed that the density of the coating was increased with the soaking period of the test sample. Figure

4.52d shows the test surface after 15 days of soaking period, where the apatite layer grew very thick and no crystals were visible but a dense film of apatite was formed and covered the surface

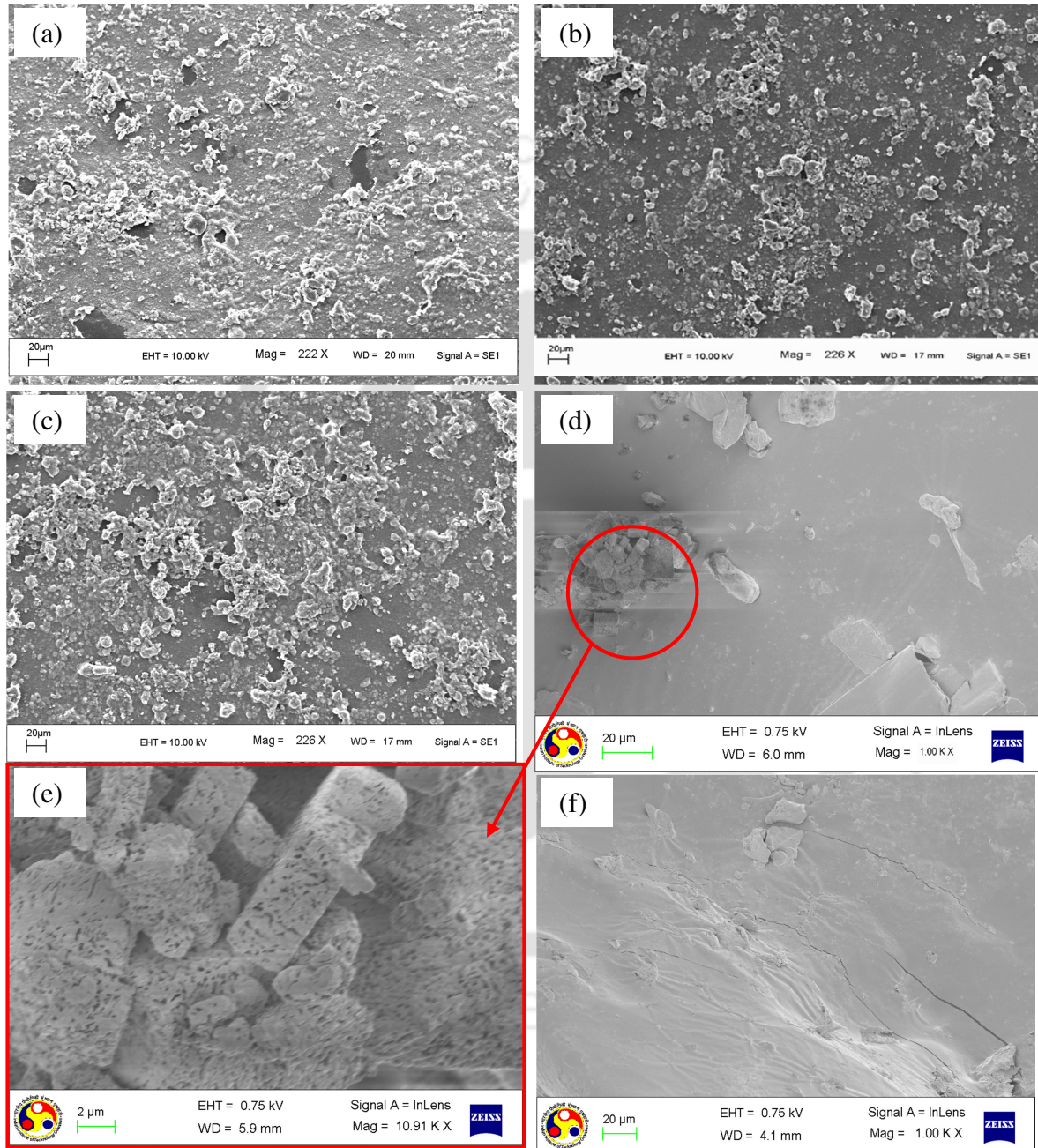


Figure 4.52. Formation of apatite layer on the surface of composites after different periods of soaking a) 1 day b) 3 day c)7 day d) 15 day e) magnified view of a particle observed on 15 day f) 30 days

of the sample. Figure 4.52e shows the magnified view of the apatite particles, where pores are observed. As the duration of soaking period increased, the thickness of the apatite layer formed on the test surface was also increased. Few cracks were observed on the apatite layer, shown in Figure 4.52f, due to its brittle nature and poor mechanical properties, Sousa et al. [2003].

The sequence of formation of the apatite layer described above agrees well with the mechanics of formation of bone-like apatite as described by Eichert et al. [2005] and Kokubo et al. [2004]. In order to further confirm the formation of apatite, EDAX and micro-Raman spectra were obtained and shown in Figures 4.53a and 4.53b, respectively. The formation of Ca and P was confirmed by EDAX spectra, which is shown in Figure 4.53a. Figure 4.53b shows the Raman spectra confirming the presence of mineral phase of the hydroxyapatite. Raman peaks are observed at 962 and 3576  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  symmetric stretching modes and OH stretching, respectively. The band observed in the range of 400- 490  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  also corresponds to internal  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  modes. It is noted from Reisel et al. [2002] that the formation of peak at 962  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is a strong indication of the formation of HA and broadening of the same indicates the presence of amorphous region of calcium phosphate.

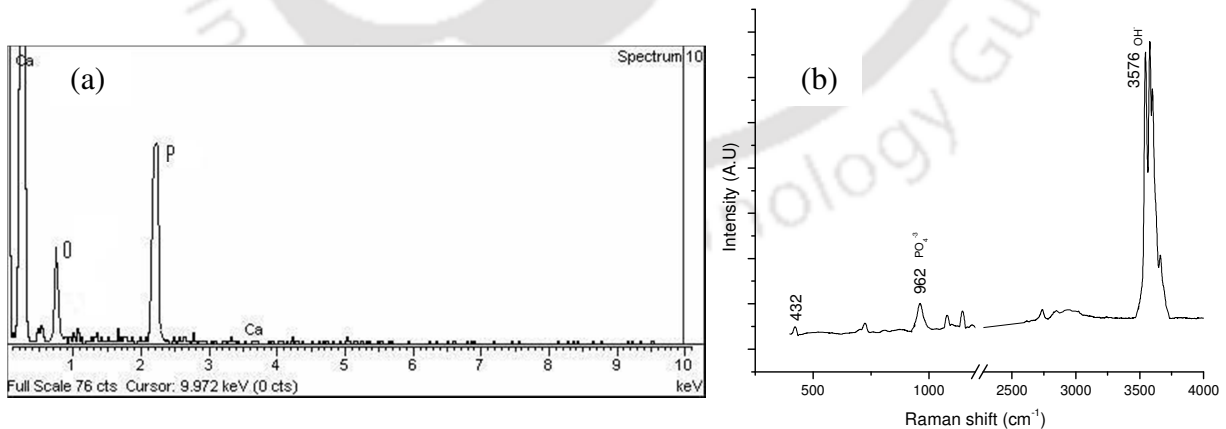


Figure 4.53. a) EDAX b) Raman spectra of the apatite layer formed on the composites

### 4.5.2 Platelet adhesion test

The potential blood compatibility of the composites was tested by assessing its anti-thrombus characteristics by observing the platelets adhered on the surface of the test material. The platelets adhered on the surface of pure UHMWPE and 2 wt. % composites under the same conditions were shown in Figures 4.54a-4.54d. It is observed from Figures 4.54a and 4.54b that the number of adhered platelets on composites was lesser compared to that of pure UHMWPE. However, the shape of platelets was not varied significantly for 2 wt. % composite after 30 minutes of incubation. It can also be observed that the adhered platelets were not conglomerated and most of them fall in the range of single platelet having the dimension of 2-4  $\mu\text{m}$  and it was also supported by Ren et al. [2005]. When the incubation period was increased to 3 hours, the number of adhered platelets was also found to be increased for both pure polymer and 2 wt. % composite, which are shown in Figures 4.54c and 4.54d, respectively. There was no change in the shape of the platelets in both cases. It is also observed that there was no severe conglomeration of platelets even after 3 hours of incubation, which confirmed that the platelets were not in activated state. Figure 4.54e and 4.54f show the number of platelets adhered on the test sample, where it is observed that the presence of MWCNTs has slightly reduced the number of adhered platelets. After 30 min. of incubation, the number of platelets adhered on the surface of UHMWPE per 1000  $\mu\text{m}^2$  was 56, which was reduced to 45 for 2 wt. % composite corresponding to 20 % reduction. The number of platelets adhered after 3 hrs of incubation was reduced from 142 to 129 for pure UHMWPE and 2 wt. % composite, respectively corresponding to 9.1 % reduction. From the above study, it is observed that the addition of MWCNTs has not affected the anti-thrombic nature of UHMWPE. According to Ko et al. [1993], the qualitative assessment score of activation status of adhered platelets varied from 1 (unactivated) to 5 (highly

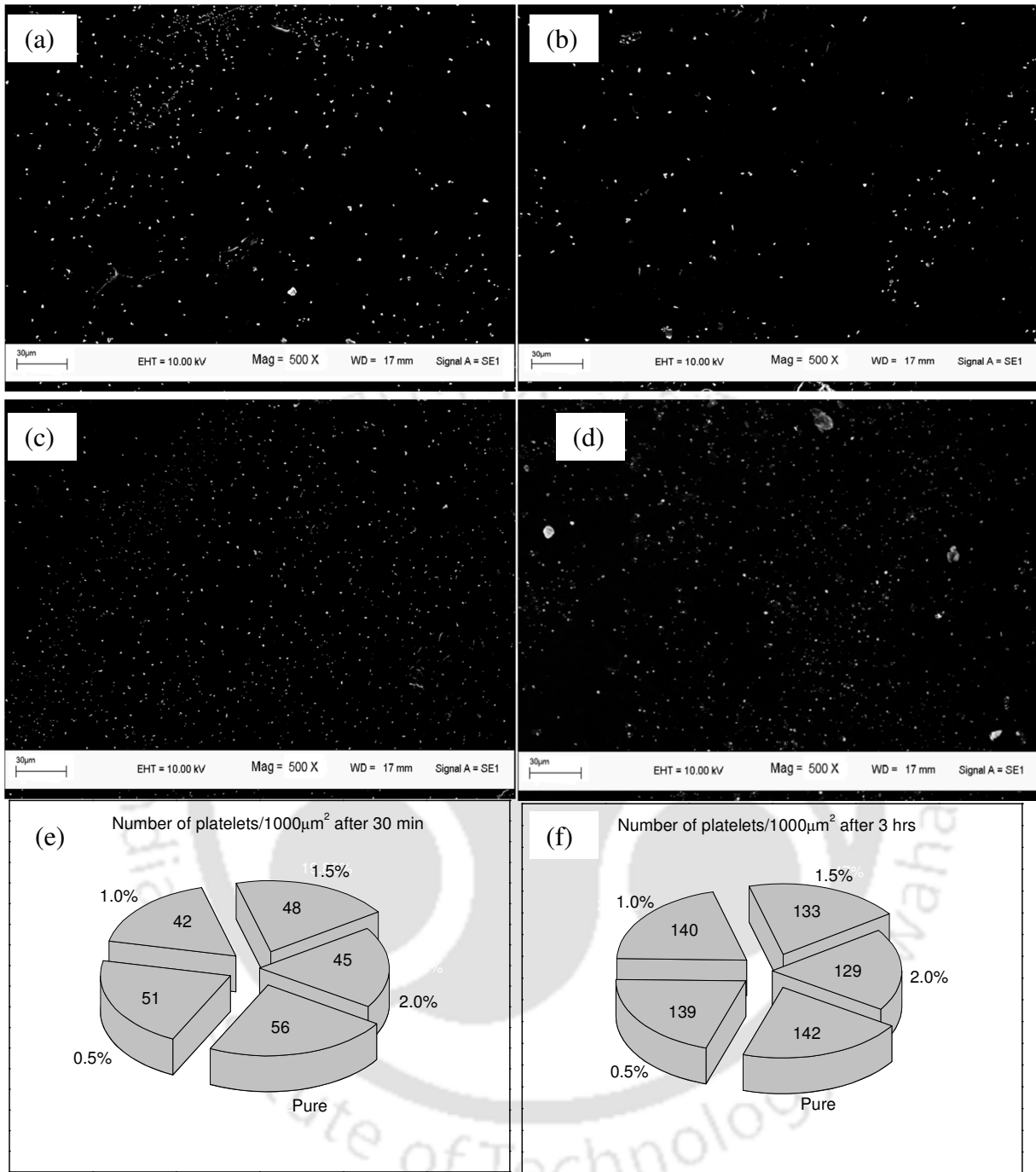


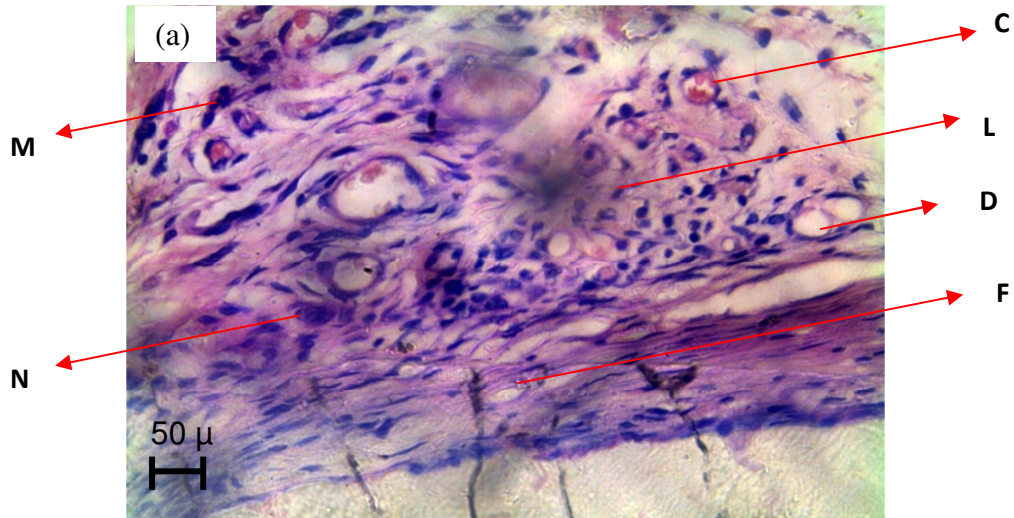
Figure 4.54. (a) SEM images of platelets adhered on UHMWPE within 30 min. b) SEM image - 2 wt. % composite within 30 min. c) SEM image - UHMWPE after 3 hrs d) SEM image 2 wt. % composite after 3 hrs e) Number of platelets adhered on test samples after 30 min. f) Number of platelets adhered on test samples after 3 hrs

activated). The same classification was further elaborated by Rhodes et al. [2007] based on the shape of the platelet, which are described as follows: 1- round; 2- dendritic; 3- spread-dendritic; 4- spreading and 5- fully spread. It is observed that most of the platelets were found to be round in shape (score 1), confirming their unactivated state. A few platelets with a very mild dendritic shape were also observed occasionally, hence a score of 1.5 was given for the 2 wt. % composite. It is concluded that the anti-platelet adhesion characteristics of pure UHMWPE was not affected by the reinforcement of MWCNTs.

### 4.5.3 *In vivo* subcutaneous test

All the animals survived during the entire test period and no abnormal behavioral changes in animals were observed. The histopathology slides of UHMWPE and 2 wt. % composite are shown in Figures 4.55a – 4.55e. The inflammatory mediators were released after implantation of test and reference materials in experimental animals. The inflammatory mediators were polymorphonuclear (PMN), macrophages, lymphocytes, plasmacells that were examined and quantified depending on their occurrence in the slide: Nil (0), occasional (0.5), mild (1) moderate (2) and severe (3). After quantification of these values according to the method given by Upman et al. [1998], the nature of the material is identified as non-irritant (0-2.9), slight irritant (3-8.9), irritant (9-15) and severely irritant (>15) characteristics.

PMN plays an important role in both acute and chronic inflammation and it is crucial for defense mechanism in the host, Khan et al. [2001]. PMN cells assume different shapes, regulate immune responses, participate in angiogenesis and play a crucial role in tumor biology. Different types of cells that are observed in the histopathological slides were represented in Figure 4.55a. In the present study, these cells occasionally observed in some test slides as well as in reference slides. Plasma cells were also observed in few slides occasionally, and their primary function is



C-Capillaries, D- dilatation of blood capillaries, F- Fibrosis, L- Lymphocytes, M- Macrophages, N- Polymorphonuclear cells (Neutrophils or PMN).

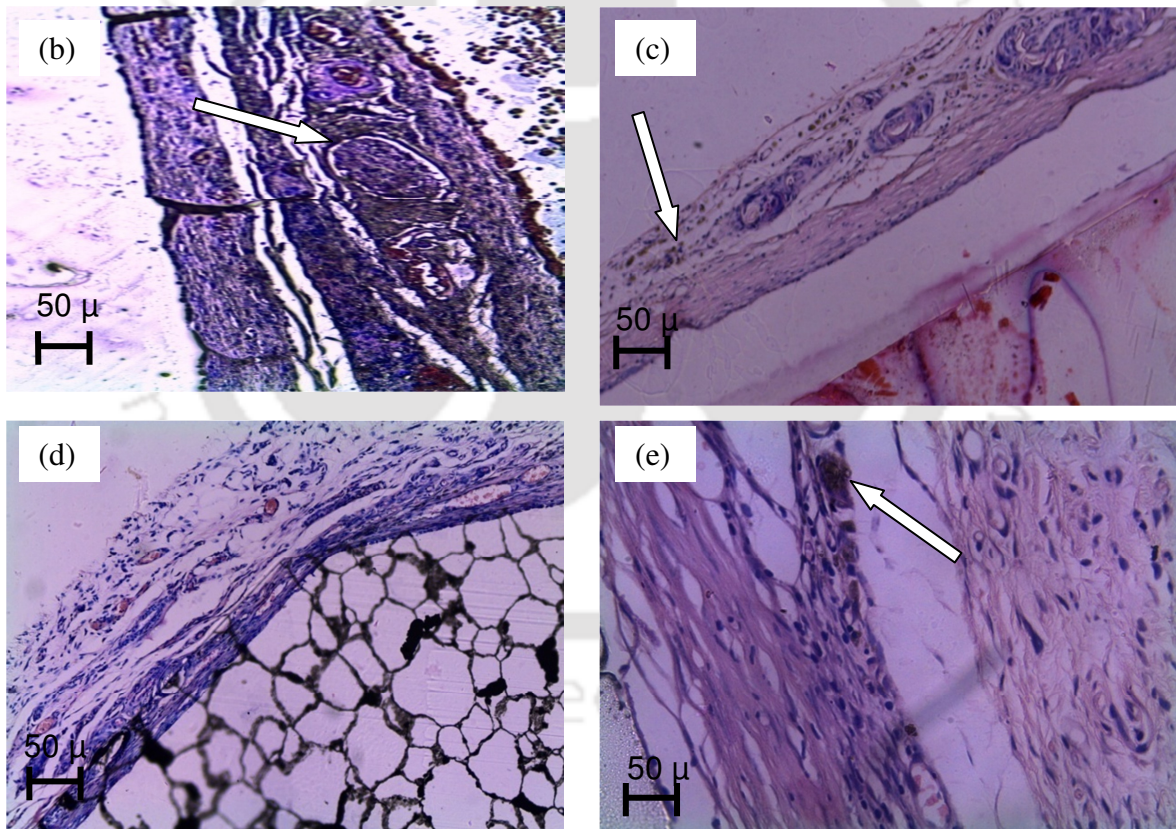


Figure 4.55. a) Histopathological slide of UHMWPE showing different elements b) Arrow indicating granulomatous inflammation with macrophages in UHMWPE c) Arrow showing macrophages d) Pathological slide of 2 wt. % composite e) Macrophages observed in 2wt. % composite indicated by the arrow

to produce antibodies and thus form an important part of immune system, Sato et al. [2008]. Lymphocytes, responsible for immune responses, were seen predominantly in all the slides. Lymphocytes are primarily two types and the secretions from them stimulate the functional activities of other type of cells and thus these are very frequently present at the sites of chronic inflammation indicating an allergic response to foreign material, Cassatella [2003]. Differentiation of monocytes in tissues produces macrophages, which function in both specific and nonspecific type of defense and their principal role is to engulf and then digest the cellular debris or any other foreign material. Giant cell is produced by the fusion of many cells and usually 2 to 3 macrophages are fused to form a giant cell to engulf the large particles, Kapoor et al. [2009]. Giant cells and necrosis are not observed in any slide, either in test or in reference sites. Mild fibrosis was observed in all the slides, whereas fatty infiltrate was not observed in any of the slides.

Table 4.2 Scoring based on the occurrence and presence of different cells at the site of implantation

	2 wt.% composite (TEST)					UHMWPE (STANDARD)				
Animal No:	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Inflammation	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0
PMN										
Lymphocytes	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2
Plasma cells	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
Macrophages	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	3	1
Giant cells	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Subtotal x 2	6	8	6	10	8	6	6	8	10	6
Necrosis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fibrosis	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Fatty infiltrate	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sub total	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	7	9	7	11	9	7	7	9	11	7
Group Total	43					41				
Average = TEST – Standard = 43-41=2										

Table 4.1 shows the scoring given for composite and UHMWPE reference based on the occurrence of different types of cells as observed in the histo-pathological slides shown in Figures 4.55b- 4.55e . As observed from Table 4.2, the average scoring was calculated to be 2, indicating the non-irritant characteristics of the developed composites. Under the above discussed experimental conditions, it is concluded that composites made by UHMWPE/MWCNTs will not trigger any severe biological responses.

#### **4.5.4 Summary of the biocompatibility studies on composites**

As biocompatibility forms an important component in the success of the developed composites, preliminary biocompatibility studies such as simulated body fluid, platelet adhesion test and *in vivo* subcutaneous studies were performed. It was concluded that the bone bonding ability and non thrombogenic characteristics of UHMWPE were not affected by the presence of MWCNTs. Local effects after *in vivo* subcutaneous implantation revealed that the developed composites were non-irritant in nature. However, some more in depth *in vivo* studies as per ISO 10993 standards are required to be carried out prior to any clinical trials.

## Chapter 5

### Conclusions and future scope

#### 5.1 Conclusions

UHMWPE/MWCNTs composites have been prepared and studied their mechanical properties at 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5 and 5.0 wt. % of MWCNTs and the optimum concentration of filler was obtained. The various mechanisms involved for the enhancement of mechanical properties upto an optimum concentration and the reduction thereafter were suggested and confirmed. Further studies on the composites were limited upto an optimum concentration of MWCNTs. UHMWPE/ $\alpha_T$  blends were also studied with 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5 wt. % and compared with MWCNTs reinforced composites in order to study the influence of ageing on the mechanical properties. The composites and UHMWPE/ $\alpha$ -T blends were subjected to gamma irradiation at 25, 50, 75 and 100 kGy irradiation doses. The mechanical properties of irradiated samples within 10 days, and 60 and 120 days after irradiation were studied. The presence of MWCNTs in UHMWPE reduced the deteriorating effects of irradiation. Network parameters and the free radical concentration of composites and pure polymer were also identified. The reduction of mechanical properties of MWCNTs reinforced composites was compared with that of  $\alpha$ -T blended UHMWPE. An attempt was also made to identify the irradiation induced defects on the MWCNTs. Wear studies on unirradiated and irradiated composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were also performed and the different wear mechanisms were confirmed and identified. Finally, an attempt was made to study the preliminary biocompatibility studies on the developed composites.

The specific conclusions of the present work are summarized as follows.

#### **A. Properties of MWCNTs composites and $\alpha_T$ blends before irradiation**

- The optimum concentration of MWCNTs in UHMWPE was found to be 2 wt. %. The work to failure, fracture stress, fracture strain and yield stress of the medical grade UHMWPE were enhanced by 176, 93, 70 and 44 %, respectively at an optimum concentration of MWCNTs.
- The reasons for the enhancement of mechanical properties of composites upto an optimum concentration of reinforcement were attributed to (i) inherent properties of the reinforcement; (ii) homogeneous dispersion of MWCNTs in UHMWPE matrix; (iii) increased crystallinity of the composites and (iv) the effective stress transfer from matrix to filler.
- The rheological percolation threshold was obtained at 0.4 wt. % of MWCNTs, which indicates better debundling and homogeneous dispersion of them in UHMWPE.
- Though the mechanical properties were observed to be reduced beyond 2 wt. % composites, the crystallinity of them was increased till 5 wt. % of reinforcement.
- The reasons for the reduction of mechanical properties of composites beyond optimum concentration of reinforcement were ascertained to (i) the increased viscosity of composite melt; (ii) the reduced amount of polymer available to wet the increased surface area of MWCNTs and (iii) the large difference in thermal properties of the matrix and filler. The above said reasons caused incomplete consolidation of the polymer leading to large number of voids which act as defective zones.
- The surface hardness and Young's modulus of UHMWPE were increased with MWCNTs concentration, while the plasticity index was found to be reduced.

- The mechanical properties of unirradiated UHMWPE were not influenced by the presence of  $\alpha_T$ .

### **B. Properties of MWCNTs composites and $\alpha_T$ blends after irradiation at different time periods**

- The work to failure and yield load of the composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were increased with irradiation dose immediately after irradiation due to irradiation induced crosslinks between the polymer chains whereas the strain at fracture of both test samples was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose.
- The work to failure and yield load of composites were increased with MWCNTs concentration, whereas the same was found to be reduced with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  concentration in an irradiated UHMWPE.
- The mechanical properties of composites and  $\alpha_T$  blends were decreased after 60 and 120 days of irradiation due to free radical induced oxidation. The degradation of properties was found to be increased with irradiation dose. However, it was restricted with an increase of both MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  concentration in UHMWPE.
- There was no influence of ageing on fracture strain of composites having more than 1 wt. % of MWCNTs.
- The degradation of mechanical properties of UHMWPE was found to be decreased exponentially with an increase in MWCNTs concentration, whereas a linear trend was observed for the same in case of  $\alpha_T$  blends.

### **C. Studies on crosslink density, radical intensity and MWCNT defects**

- The crosslink density (CLD) of the UHMWPE was increased with irradiation dose and MWCNTs concentration. In case of  $\alpha_T$  blends, the CLD was reduced with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  concentration.
- The free radical concentration present in the irradiated sample was found to be reduced with an increase of MWCNTs and  $\alpha_T$  concentration in UHMWPE.
- The antioxidant activity exhibited by 2 wt. % MWCNTs is similar to that of 0.1 wt. %  $\alpha_T$  in UHMWPE. MWCNTs act as crosslink promoters and chain scission inhibitors in UHMWPE and the same has been schematically represented.
- The d-spacing of MWCNTs was increased with irradiation dose confirming its irradiation induced micro straining. In addition to that the presence of amorphous carbon was also found to be increased with irradiation dose.

### **D. Wear studies on composites and $\alpha_T$ blends**

- The hardness of UHMWPE was increased with MWCNTs reinforcement and irradiation dose. However, the same was reduced with an increase of  $\alpha_T$  concentration.
- The wear factor of UHMWPE was reduced with an increase of irradiation dose and MWCNTs concentration. In case of  $\alpha_T$  blends, the wear factor of UHMWPE was increased with  $\alpha_T$  concentration.
- The coefficient of friction of UHMWPE was reduced with an increase in MWCNTs concentration. It was also found to be reduced with an increase of irradiation dose.
- The severity of plastic flow, deformation and wear delamination of irradiated composites was found to be reduced compared to pure polymer.

- The wear mechanism of unirradiated pure polymer was not affected either by the irradiation dose or MWCNTs reinforcement but the severity of wear was significantly reduced by both variables.
- The wear factor of unirradiated UHMWPE was reduced to 71, 59, 44 and 27 % upon adding 2 wt. % MWCNTs, 100 kGy irradiated 0.1 wt. %  $\alpha_T$ , 100 kGy irradiation and a combination of 2 wt. % MWCNTs and 100 kGy irradiation, respectively.

#### E. Biocompatibility studies on composites

- Preliminary *in vitro* biocompatibility studies revealed that
  - (i) The formation of HA on the composites was found to be same as that of pure UHMWPE,
  - (ii) The non-thrombic characteristics of UHMWPE were not affected by the presence of MWCNTs.
- *In vivo* subcutaneous studies revealed that the developed composites were non-irritant and not expected to trigger any biological reactions.

In general, it is concluded that the MWCNTs reinforced UHMWPE composites can be explored as a potential alternative for total joint replacements to enhance the longevity of the implant material. Further, the results present in the thesis will also be useful to fine tune the properties of composites after post irradiation heat treatments. In addition to that an elaborate *in vivo* studies in animal models are required to be performed according to ISO 10993 standards prior to any clinical trials.

Schematic illustration showing the influence of  $\gamma$ -irradiation and MWCNTs on different properties of composites.

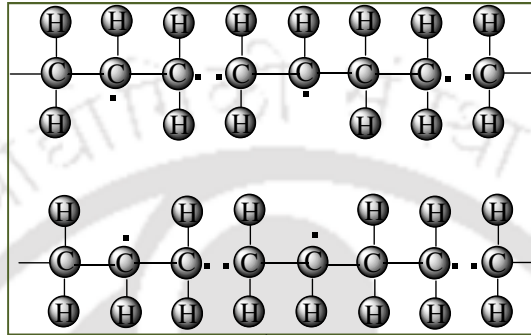
## 5.2 Scope of future work

The work presented in this thesis opens up several avenues for further development of the composites for future application of carbon nanotube based composites for orthopedic application. The scope of future work is outlined as follows:

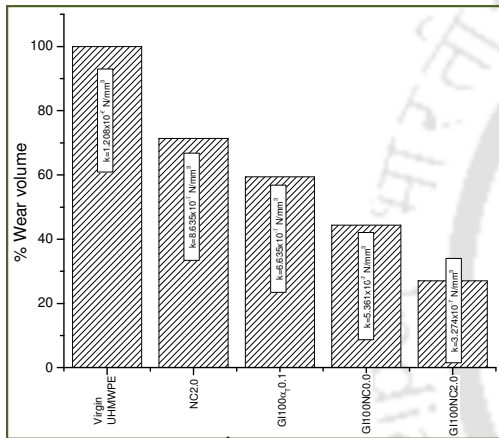
1. The effect of different aspect ratio of MWCNTs on the properties of the composites can be studied. Such studies would provide a better insight into the proper selection of MWCNTs for optimum mechanical properties of the composites.
2. Sandwich composites can be prepared with MWCNTs composite as core and virgin UHMWPE as skin to improve the fracture toughness. The same can also be explored by varying the concentration of  $\alpha_T$  at skin and core prior to irradiation.
3. The influence of ion irradiation can be compared with that of gamma irradiation in composites/polymer by following accelerated ageing protocol.
4. Wear studies can be performed under simulated body fluid or bovine calf serum lubricating condition to replicate the human physiological condition in a pin-on-disc machine. Such a study would enable to assess the wear performance of the composites in a more realistic human body environment.
5. Hip simulator studies can be performed to exactly replicate the physiological loading conditions, which can influence the wear mechanisms. Such a study would greatly enhance to envisage the performance of the developed composites.
6. Elaborate biocompatibility studies can be performed confirming to ISO 10993 standards to completely assess the behaviour of developed composites in a biological system.

Schematic illustration of influence of  $\gamma$ - irradiation

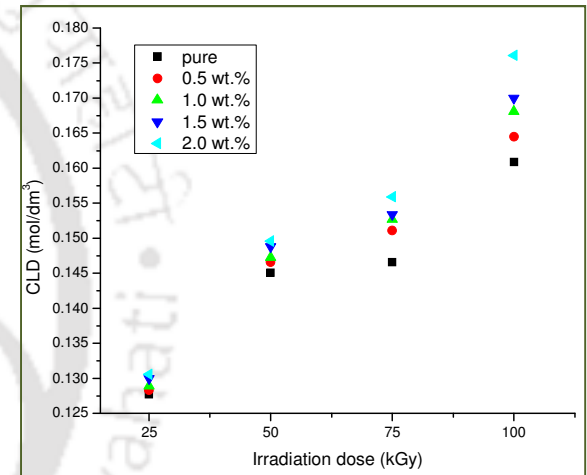
Polymer



Wear volume

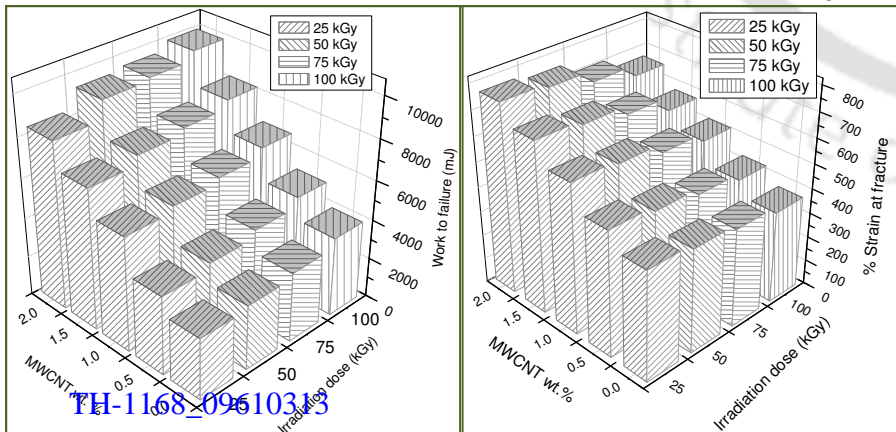


Crosslink density

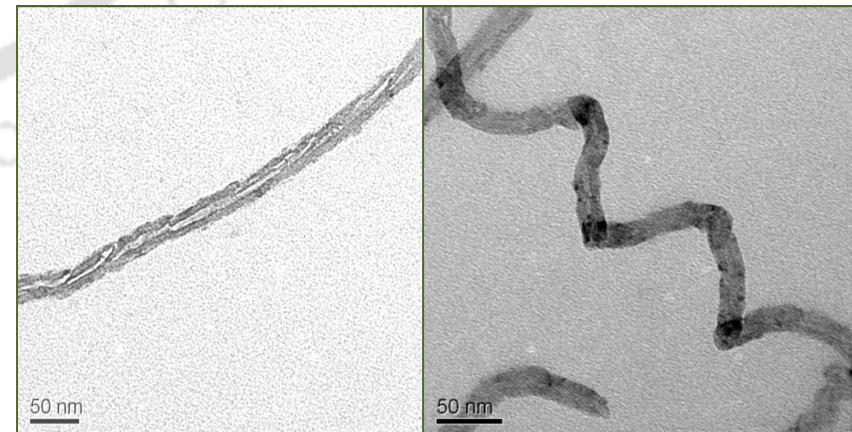


Influence of  $\gamma$ - irradiation

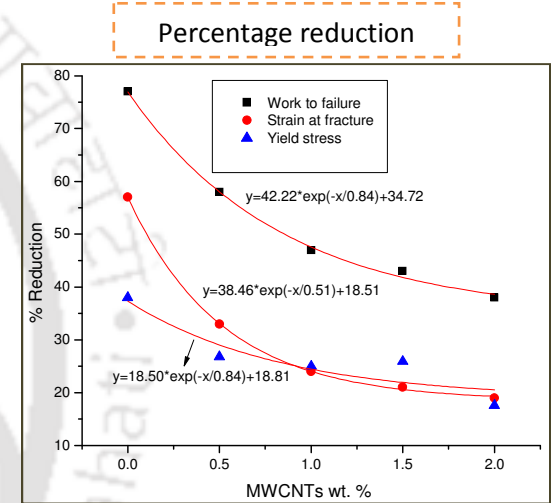
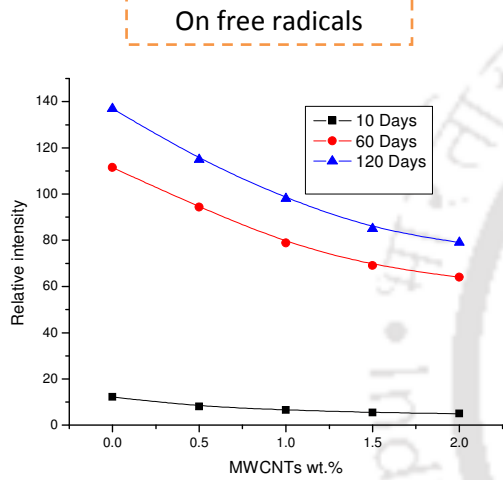
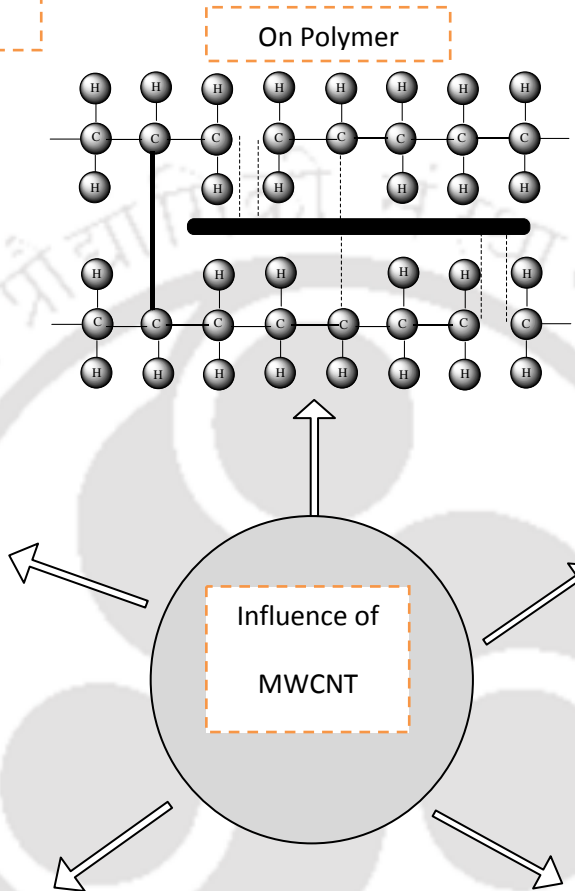
Mechanical properties



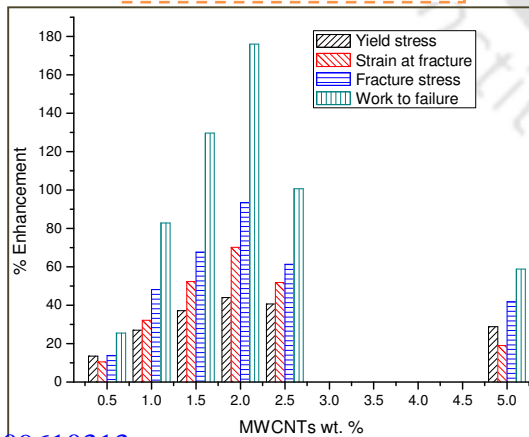
MWCNTs morphology



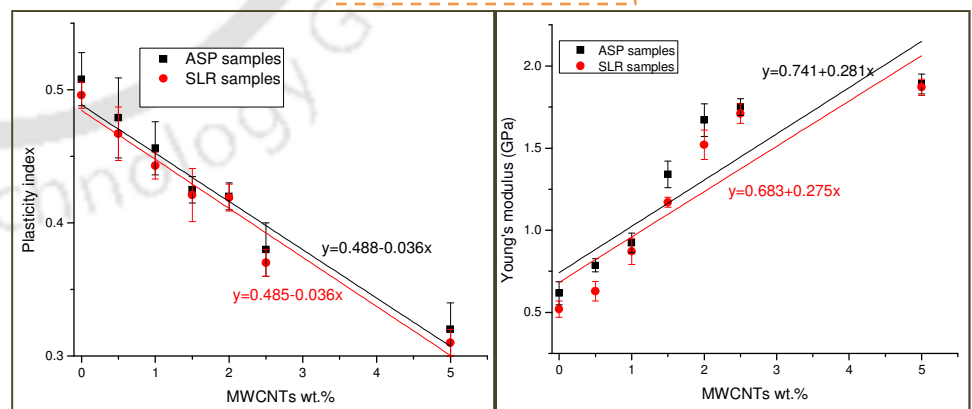
Schematic illustration of influence of MWCNTs



Mechanical properties



Nanoindenter



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2. P. S. Rama Sreekanth, S. Kanagaraj. Biocompatibility studies on MWCNTs reinforced ultra high molecular weight polyethylene nanocomposites. 27(1), 2013. (Accepted-Trends in Biomaterials and Artificial organs)
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#### **Book chapter**

1. P. S. Rama Sreekanth and S Kanagaraj. Wear of Biomedical implants, in: Tribology for Scientists and Engineers: From Basics to Advanced Concepts, editors: Sudeep I, Michael N, Kailas SV, Lovell MR, Menezes PL. Springer publications, USA (Accepted), 2012.

#### **Papers presented in international conferences:**

1. P. S Rama Sreekanth, S. Kanagaraj, Feasibility studies on UHMWPE/MWCNTs nanocomposites for total joint replacements-A Pre and Post gamma irradiation study. Intl conference on design of biomaterials, IISc Bangalore<sup>\*</sup>, India, December 9-11, 2012.
2. P. S. Rama Sreekanth, S. Kanagaraj. Studies on UHMWPE/MWCNT nanocomposites for total joint replacements. Adv. Nano Materials, Chennai<sup>\*</sup>, IIT Madras, October 17- 19, 2012.

3. P. S. Rama Sreekanth, S. Kanagaraj. Antioxidant activity of carbon nanotubes in preventing the loss of mechanical properties of  $\gamma$  irradiated UHMWPE/MWCNT nanocomposites used in orthopedic application. 9<sup>th</sup> World Biomat. Congress, Chengdu, China, June 1– 5, 2012.
4. P. S. Rama Sreekanth, N. Naresh Kumar, Ravindra Reddy, Mangala Lahkar, B. Bhaskar, S Kanagaraj. A study on the bioactive and hemocompatibility of UHMWPE/MWCNT nanocomposites. 9<sup>th</sup> World Biomat. Congress, Chengdu, China, June 1–5, 2012.
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\*presented by supervisor/colleague

