

**EFFECT OF CHEMICAL STRUCTURE AND CROSSLINKING DENSITY
ON THE THERMO-MECHANICAL PROPERTIES AND TOUGHNESS OF
(METH)ACRYLATE SHAPE-MEMORY POLYMER NETWORKS**

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**EFFECT OF CHEMICAL STRUCTURE AND CROSSLINKING DENSITY
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*To Matthew Weaver,
An exemplary man who taught me how to live and persevere.*

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ϕ_0		$2.51 \times 10^{23} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mole}^{1/2} \text{ g}^{-3/2}$
Ω		Total number of configurations
ρ		Density
ρ_c		Crosslink Density
ΔH_{vap}		Molar Enthalpy of Vaporization
2EEM		2-Ethoxyethyl methacrylate
2EHM		2-Ethylhexyl methacrylate
B		Bulk Modulus
B_t		Tacticity constant
BA		Butyl acrylate
BMA		Benzyl methacrylate
BPA468		Bisphenol A ethoxylate diacrylate M_n 468
BPA512		Bisphenol A ethoxylate diacrylate M_n 512
BPA540		Bisphenol A ethoxylate dimethacrylate M_n 540
BPA688		Bisphenol A ethoxylate diacrylate M_n 688
BPA1700		Bisphenol A ethoxylate dimethacrylate M_n 1700
BZA		Benzyl acrylate
C_∞		Characteristic Ratio
CED		Cohesive Energy Density
DMA		Dynamic Mechanical Analysis
DPPHA		Dipentaerythritol penta-hexaacrylate

DTTA	Di(trimethylolpropane)tetraacrylate
E	Elastic Modulus
E_{coh}	Cohesive Energy
E_r	Rubbery Modulus
EGPEM	Ethylene glycol phenyl ether methacrylate
F	Molar attraction constant
G	Shear Modulus
GPTA	Glycerol propoxylate triacrylate
HEXDA	1,6-Hexanediol diacrylate
IA	Isodecyl acrylate
IMA	Isobornyl methacrylate
k	Fitted constant
K	Fitted Constant
K'	Fitted Constant
K''	Fitted Constant
K_B	Boltzmann Constant
K_i	Molar stiffness constant for group i
K_x	Fitted Constant
$\langle l_v^2 \rangle$	Mean-square length of a statistical skeletal unit
M_c	Molecular weight between crosslinks
M_n	Number-average molecular weight
M_r	Molecular Weight of Repeat Unit
M_v	Average molecular weight per statistical skeletal unit

MA	Methyl acrylate
MMA	Methyl methacrylate
mol%	Mole Percent
n_r	Number of skeletal atoms in a repeat unit
n_v	Number of real and imaginary bonds in a repeat unit
NGPDA	Neopentyl glycol propoxylate diacrylate
PEGDMA550	Poly(ethylene glycol) dimethacrylate M_n 550
PEGPEA236	Poly(ethylene glycol) phenyl ether acrylate M_n 236
PEGPEA280	Poly(ethylene glycol) phenyl ether acrylate M_n 280
PEGPEA324	Poly(ethylene glycol) phenyl ether acrylate M_n 324
PETA	Pentaerythritol triacrylate
PPGA	Poly(propylene glycol) acrylate
R	Gas Constant
S	Entropy
T	Temperature
T_g	Glass Transition Temperature
$T_{g\infty}$	Glass Transition Temperature of fully extended polymer
tBA	tert-Butyl acrylate
tBMA	tert-Butyl methacrylate
TETA428	Trimethylolpropane ethoxylate triacrylate M_n 428
TETA604	Trimethylolpropane ethoxylate triacrylate M_n 604
TETA912	Trimethylolpropane ethoxylate triacrylate M_n 912

TPTA	Trimethylolpropane propoxylate triacrylate
V	Molar volume
w_i	Weight percent of polymer i
wt%	Weight Percent

SUMMARY

The objective of this work is to characterize and understand structure- mechanical property relationships in (meth)acrylate networks. The networks are synthesized from mono-functional (meth)acrylates with systematically varying sidegroup structure and multi-functional crosslinkers with varying mole fraction and functionality. Fundamental trends are established between the network chemical structure, crosslink density, glass transition temperature, rubbery modulus, failure strain, and toughness. The glass transition temperature of the networks ranged from -29 to 112 °C, and the rubbery modulus ranged from 2.8 to 129.5 MPa. At low crosslink density ($E_r < 10$ MPa) network chemistry has a profound effect on network toughness. At high crosslink densities ($E_r > 10$ MPa), network chemistry has little influence on material toughness. The characteristic ratio of the mono-functional (meth)acrylates components is unable to predict trends in thermoset toughness as a function of chemical structure, as is accomplished for thermoplastics. The cohesive energy density is a better tool for prediction of network mechanical properties. Due to superior mechanical properties, networks with phenyl ring sidegroups are further investigated to understand the effect of phenyl ring distance on toughness. This work provides a fundamental basis for designing (meth)acrylate shape memory polymer networks with specific failure strain, toughness, glass transition temperature, and rubbery modulus.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Shape-Memory Polymers

Shape-memory polymers have been of practical use since the 1960's, when radiation crosslinked polyethylene was used for heat shrink tubing. More recently, researchers have focused on biomedical applications. Novel cardiac devices have been proposed as actuators for stroke victims and self-deploying stents for treatment of arterial disease^{[1],[2]}. Other shape-memory polymers have been used for neuronal probes^[3]. The shape memory polymer cycle consists of programming and recovery. In programming, the material is heated to an elevated temperature, deformed to a new geometry, and cooled to store the new shape. The recovery process occurs when the material is heated near its transition temperature. This is a one-way shape-memory process. The thermodynamic basis for this process is rooted in the entropy of the system. From the Boltzmann equation, the entropy is determined by the conformation probability, where a highly coiled conformation gives the maximum entropy since that is the most probable state for a polymer chain^[4].

$$S = k_B \ln \Omega \quad \text{Equation 1.}$$

When above the transition temperature, these crosslinked networks display rubber elasticity, seen in Equation 2^[5].

$$G = \rho RT/M_c \quad \text{Equation 2.}$$

An applied force or G strains the network until M_c is reached, then aligns the chains, while reducing the entropy of the system. The crosslinks behave as anchors points that

hinder the chains from sliding past each other when under an applied load. Upon removal of the force, the networks springs back to its original shape in order to recover the lost entropy. An appropriate transition temperature must be chosen, typically at the glass transition temperature for the networks, in order for the shape memory process to work properly. The material is in an unfavorable entropic state in its programmed state, and returns to a more favorable state as it is heated above the transition temperature.

While the typical method of activation is direct thermal activation, indirect methods exist. Infrared light can be used to initiate the transition as seen in polyurethane medical devices^[1]. Activation has also occurred by induction heating via magnetic nanoparticles embedded into the polymer^[6]. A new method of great promise is activation by light. Distinct network have been formed where one wavelength of light forms covalent crosslinks, while a different wavelength cleaves these bonds^[7]. While these polymers may vary in chemical composition and method of activation, their ability to change and maintain distinct shapes is pivotal. With such a broad possibility of applications, an equally diverse set of polymers must be formulated.

1.2 Network Structure

The structure of (meth)acrylate networks formed through free-radical polymerization has been defined by kinetic models and experimental research^[8-12]. The network backbones are primarily carbon-carbon bonds formed by free radical polymerization with remaining backbones defined by the crosslinking monomers with finite length. The relationships between the reactivity of the double bond functional group and monomer size, fraction of monomer, conversion, free volume, and initiation have been studied as well^[11]. It has been shown that there are three regions in the rate of

polymerization for multi-functional (meth)acrylates, seen in Figure 1. The rate is initially very rapid, but starts to slow. The slower rate is referred to autoacceleration, where the radicals' mobility is reduced, thus lowering the termination rate. Since the termination rate drops, the number of radicals increases, thereby increasing the polymerization rate. Eventually, the polymerization rate obtains a maximum, and starts to decline. This is called autodeceleration, where the crosslinked network restricts the propagation reaction^[10].

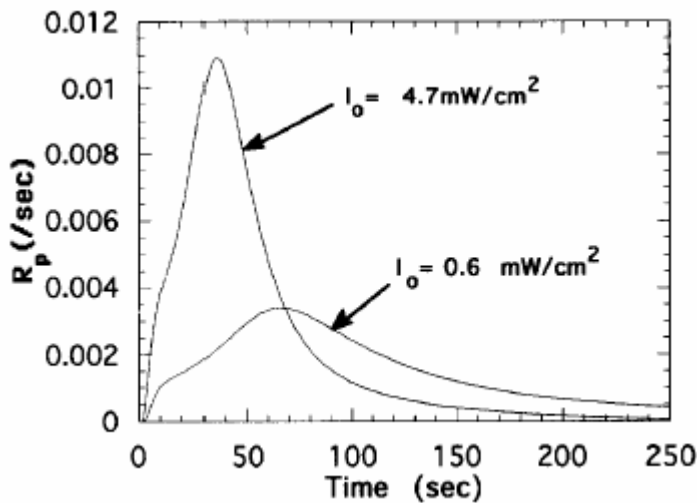


Figure 1. Polymerization rate profile for a di-functional monomer^[10].

There are polymerization differences between di-functional monomers and monomers of greater functionality in that di-functional monomers are more reactive due to lower viscosities driven by lower individual molecular weight^[12]. Also for di-functional monomers, it has been found that the average number of double bonds reacted per monomer was one at maximum conversion^[10].

Effects of temperature, light intensity, and concentration have been studied in thicker films where heat and mass transfer were taken into account. Due to the thickness

of the sample, the light intensity decreases into the film, thus a decrease in the polymerization rate. Due to the exothermic reaction and heat from light source, the polymerization reactions occurred faster in the first stage before autoacceleration starts. The larger size samples retained heat, thus allowing for greater conversion approaching unity because of the increased propagation kinetics and molecular mobility as seen in Figure 2^[13].

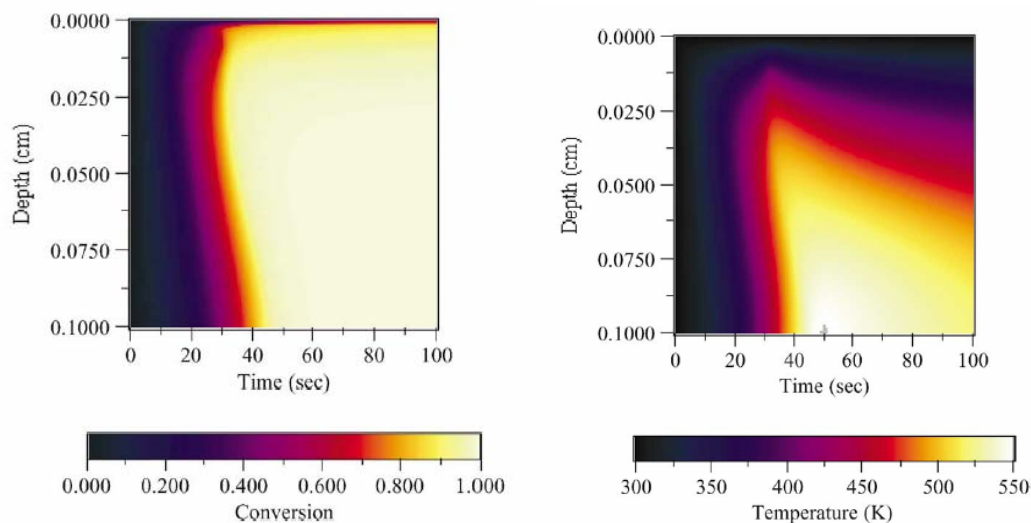


Figure 2. Conversion and Temperature Profiles as a function of Depth and Time for a Multi-functional acrylate network thick film^[13].

Lovell and Bowman have studied the effect of kinetic chain length on multi-functional (meth)acrylate networks. Using a chain transfer agent to decrease the kinetic chain length, the radicals are more mobile and able to terminate quickly. The polymerization rate and thermo-mechanical properties decrease as the kinetic chain length decreases, but the effect diminishes as the crosslinking density increases^[14].

The heterogeneity of these networks needs to be taken into consideration because multi-functional (meth)acrylates can create highly crosslinked regions which trap radicals. These highly crosslinked regions are called ‘microgels’, but unreacted monomer areas can occur as well, thus leading to a wide distribution of mobilities^[15-17]. The distribution of mobilities or relaxation times can be revealed in dynamic mechanical behavior. A distribution parameter describing the heterogeneity of these networks was found from frequency domain experiments, where as the parameter approached 0, the heterogeneity increased. From this, a relationship affecting structural heterogeneity has been observed where increasing the crosslink density increases the heterogeneity of the polymer for blends of mono-functional and multi-functional (meth)acrylates^[9]. From these studies, the polymerization kinetics have provided the relationships between structure and processing conditions.

1.3 Tailoring Shape-Memory Networks

The topic of glass transition temperature for copolymers and networks has been explored^[18-27]. The prediction of T_g for a copolymer has come in several forms, where DiMarzio and Gibbs used a simple rule of mixtures seen in Equation 3. Other common equations are Equation 4 by Fox and Equation 5 by Gordon and Taylor.

$$T_g = w_1 T_{g1} + w_2 T_{g2} \quad \text{Equation 3}^{[28]}$$

$$1/T_g = (w_1/T_{g1}) + (w_2/T_{g2}) \quad \text{Equation 4}^{[28]}$$

$$T_g = [w_1 T_{g1} + k w_2 T_{g2}] / [w_1 + k w_2] \quad \text{Equation 5}^{[29]}$$

Relationships have been developed to take into account the effect of molecular weight on T_g . The classic Fox-Flory relationship seen in Equation 6 has been modified by Fox and Loshaek to account for a broader range of M_n in Equation 7.

$$T_g = T_{g\infty} - K/M_n \quad \text{Equation 6}^{[30]}$$

$$T_g = T_{g\infty} - K'/(K''+M_n) \quad \text{Equation 7}^{[26]}$$

While these equations are often applied to linear polymers of large molecular weight $M_n \sim 10^5$, the effect of crosslinking also needs to be taken into account. By addition of another parameter to Equation 6, the increase in T_g due to crosslinking is taken into account in Equation 8.

$$T_g = T_{g\infty} - K/M_n + K_x/\rho_c \quad \text{Equation 8}^{[26]}$$

More recently, the effect of crosslinking on T_g has undergone further scrutiny. Equation 8 could not be applied to polyester crosslinks because the constants varied in an opposite way^[19]. Relationships were formed that took into account the rotational degrees of freedom, a measure of chain flexibility, and the number of repeat units between crosslinks^[23]. Epoxy resins have proven useful by providing relationships between T_g , M_w , and crosslinking functionality^[22].

The tailor-ability of the thermo-mechanical properties of (meth)acrylate networks as shape memory polymers has been established. The glass transition temperature and rubbery modulus can be varied independently of each other by varying the amount and molecular weight of crosslinker and amount of mono-functional monomer seen in Figure 3 and 4, respectively. The T_g primarily controls the free strain recovery time and E_r primarily controls the constrained recovery force. Despite what the rubbery modulus may be, the polymer will not fully recover unless the environmental temperature is close to the glass transition temperature as seen in Figure 5. The recovery force is approximately one third of the rubbery modulus of the network as seen in Figure 6, thus allowing for further tailoring of mechanical properties^[31]. Also, the effect of crosslinker concentration on E_r

has been determined in (meth)acrylate networks, where increasing the amount of crosslinker increases the E_r ^[32]. These qualities allow for the wide variety of applications mentioned previously.

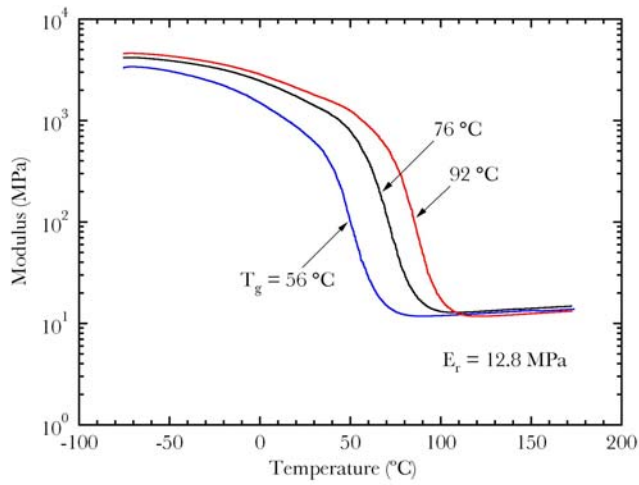


Figure 3. Independent variation of glass transition temperature.^[31]

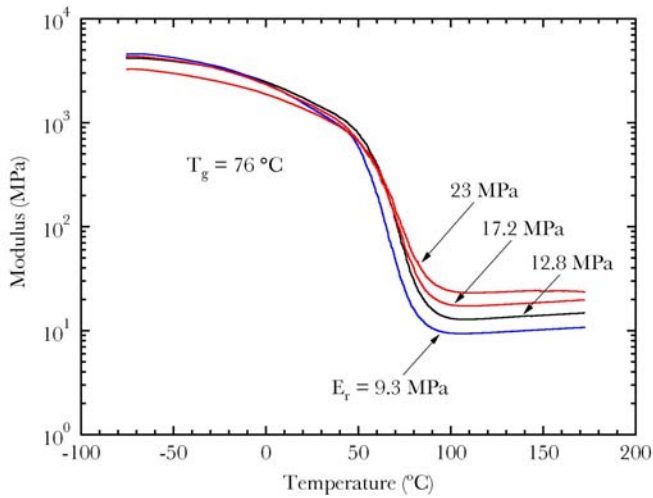


Figure 4. Independent variation of rubbery modulus.^[31]

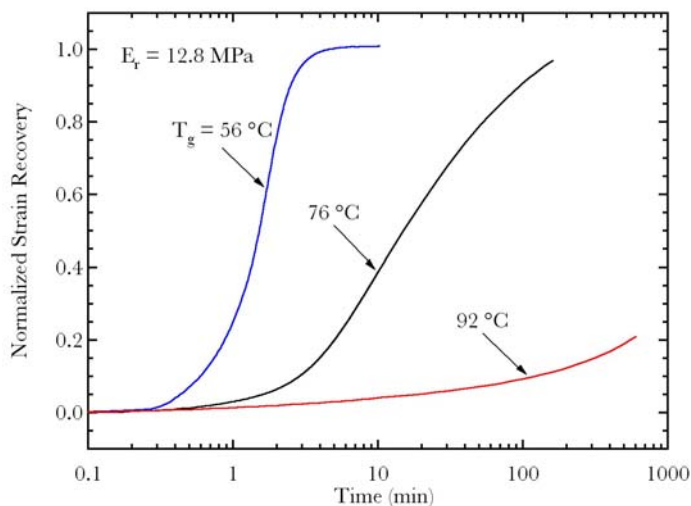


Figure 5. Effect of glass transition temperature on unconstrained recovery.^[31]

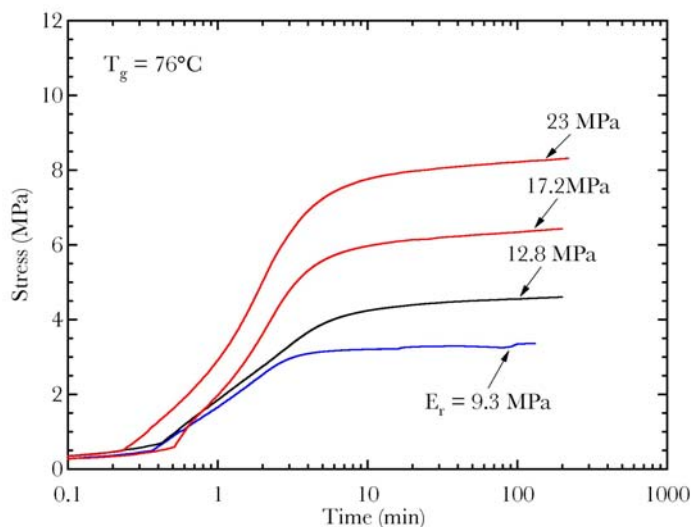


Figure 6. Effect of rubbery modulus on constrained recovery stress.^[31]

Yet, the total shape change (strain) possible in these systems has not been fully explored. It is known that if heated above the composition's T_g , (meth)acrylate networks will fully recover strains up to their failure strain due to the chemical crosslinking^[33]. Many thermosets have a strain recovery ratio of 100%, but this does not often occur in thermoplastics. Thus, the failure strain of these systems is a property of significant importance. It has been found that as the crosslink density increases, the ultimate strength

increases and the failure strain decreases. A region of insensitivity to failure strain was found at high crosslink densities for an acrylate system, where the failure mechanisms differed in regions of low and high crosslink densities^[34]. After accounting for crosslinking effectiveness through rubbery modulus, the choice of crosslinker does not drastically change the failure strain in networks formed from mono-functional and di-functional (meth)acrylates^[35]. In summary, although failure strain and rubbery modulus will be naturally traded off in a network as a function of changing crosslink density, the role of network chemistry on toughness (large strain capacity at equivalent rubbery modulus) in (meth)acrylates is relatively unexplored.

1.4 Predictive Parameters

The large strain capacity and toughness of polymers has been studied extensively in thermoplastic materials. For example, the characteristic ratio, first suggested by Flory^[36], describes the ability of a polymer chain to coil. A series of studies has described the theoretical prediction of C_∞ based upon chemical structure and trends between C_∞ and mechanical properties^[37-40]. C_∞ is calculated by using group contributions from the intrinsic viscosity of the polymer, which falls within 7% of the experimental outcomes. C_∞ can be used to define the brittle-ductile transition temperature in many thermoplastics, where polymers with C_∞ values less than 7.5 typically fail by yielding, and polymers with C_∞ values above 7.5 fail by crazing. When $C_\infty = 1$, the polymer has a random walk structure, and ideal tetrahedral skeletal bonds along the backbone chain have a $C_\infty = 2$. Thus, as the C_∞ of the polymer approaches 2, the polymer becomes intrinsically more ductile, such as polycarbonate, which has $C_\infty = 2.4$. The lowest (meth)acrylate is methyl acrylate at 7.5, which falls on the border of yielding and crazing for a thermoplastic

material. The craze-yield behavior is determined by the ratio of craze strength to yield strength. If the craze strength is higher, then the polymer will yield and vice versa. The characteristic ratio does not take into account the effect of crosslinking, and the limit of applying this parameter to networks has yet to be determined.

Another parameter used to predict chemical and mechanical properties of polymers is the cohesive energy density, which characterizes the intermolecular interactions in polymers. Originally, the cohesive energy was defined for liquids as the energy necessary to break all intermolecular bonds per mole, thus related to the molar heat of evaporation by Equation 9. The CED can be defined in one manner by Equation 10. An alternative route to calculating CED is found by using the molar attraction constant seen in Equation 11 via the relationship of Equation 12.

$$E_{\text{coh}} = \Delta H_{\text{vap}} - RT \quad \text{Equation 9}^{[41]}$$

$$\text{CED} = E_{\text{coh}}/V \quad \text{Equation 10}^{[41]}$$

$$\text{CED} = (F/V)^2 \quad \text{Equation 11}^{[42]}$$

$$E_{\text{coh}} = F^2/V \quad \text{Equation 12}^{[41]}$$

The CED can be determined by calculation through group contributions, swelling experiments, bulk modulus measurements, and modeling methods^{[30],[41-47]}. The preferred methods of determination are the characterization of bulk modulus at low temperatures and high frequencies and calculation by group contributions. Tobolsky proposed the relationship between CED and B seen in Equation 13, but has been further modified to Equation 14 to correlate closer to literature values. This method of measurement is most likely the simplest and most accurate^[48].

$$B = 8.04\text{CED} \quad \text{Equation 13}^{[49]}$$

$$B = 11CED$$

$$\text{Equation 14}^{[46]}$$

The group contribution method relies upon the assumption that E_{coh} or F can be treated as additive molar functions where each are summed over their respective groups. Fedors calculation method provides the molar volumes, but is often found to give higher E_{coh} results. The tables available from Van Krevelen are often accurate, but may be skewed if a group is very polar^[30, 41, 47].

Swelling techniques are not preferred for characterization because of the ambiguity associated with the methodology^[48]. However, recent studies have shown marked improvement in the methodology and determination for lightly crosslinked networks^[44, 45]. The CED has become a widely used parameter to predict properties such as elastic modulus, surface tension, and yield stress^[30, 41, 49]. Recent modeling has shown that as the crosslink density of an epoxy network decreases, the CED increases as seen in Figure 7.^[50] Thus as the crosslinking density decreases, the linear monomer backbone structures exert increasing influence. At present, the role of CED between linear (meth)acrylate chains, crosslinked to different degrees, is relatively unexplored.

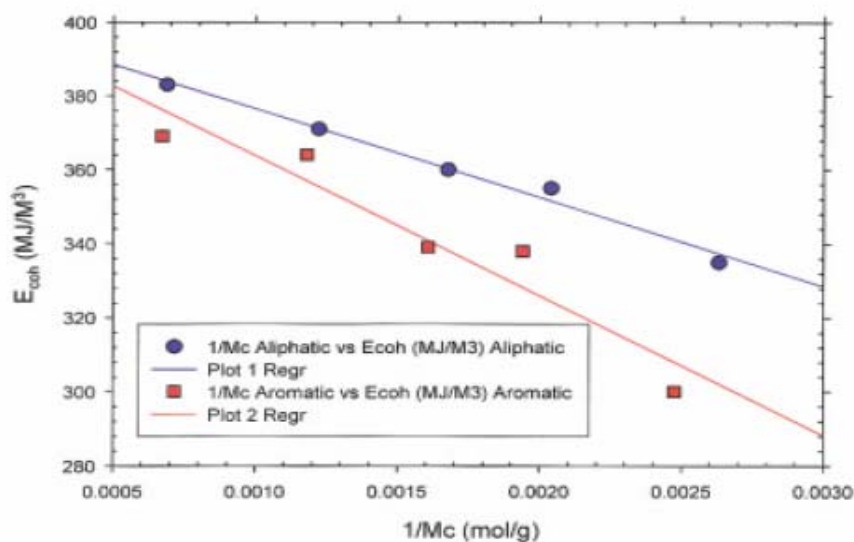


Figure 7. Cohesive energy density as a function of crosslinking density.^[50]

The purpose of this study will be to determine the effect of chemical structure and crosslinking density on both the thermal and mechanical properties of (meth)acrylate networks. The effect of chemical structure on thermal properties will be revealed through systematic variation in diverse sets of monomers. A series of networks with the same crosslinker and varying mono-functional monomer will be studied in order to assess the influence of the mono-functional monomer on the networks' properties. Emphasis will be placed on failure strain and material toughness due to the importance of these properties in shape memory polymers. The parameters, C_{∞} and CED, will be calculated for varying mono-functional monomers to probe possible correlation with the mechanical properties of the networks.

CHAPTER 2

EXPERIMENTAL

2.1 Materials

Sixteen mono-functional (meth)acrylates were used as the linear chain builders and sixteen multi-functional (meth)acrylates were used as the crosslinkers to form the polymer networks. The names, chemical structures, and molecular weights can be found in Table A1 and A2 of Appendix A. A set of networks comprised of 10 mol% PEGDMA550 were copolymerized with each mono-functional acrylate from Table A1. A set of networks comprised of 10 mol% of each crosslinker from Table A2 were copolymerized with 90 mol% tBA. These sets were calculated using the molecular weights given in Tables A1 and A2 and Equation 15.

$$\text{mol}\% = (w_1/M_{w1}) / [(w_1/M_{w1}) + (w_2/M_{w2})] \quad \text{Equation 15.}$$

. In addition, equivalent molar amounts of BMA, tBA, and 2EEM were copolymerized in varying degrees with PEGDMA550. The mol% and corresponding wt% ratios of these three sets of materials can be found in Table 1. The photoinitiator, 2,2-dimethoxy-2-phenylacetophenone, was added to each material in an amount of 0.5 wt%. Further equivalent molar amounts of EGPEM and BZA were copolymerized with PEGDMA550, which can be found in Table 2. Ternary polymer networks with a fixed 2.5 mol% PEGDMA550 are described in Table 3. The exact wt% for the ternary polymer networks can be found in Tables A3, A4, and A5 in Appendix A. All materials were purchased from Sigma Aldrich or Polysciences and used as received.

Table 1. Mole Percent to Weight Percent Conversions

Mole Percent PEGDMA550	Weight Percent PEGDMA550		
	co-BMA	co-tBA	co-2EEM
0%	0	0	0
0.08	0.33	0.45	0.37
0.16	0.65	0.9	0.71
0.32	1.25	1.75	1.41
0.64	2.45	3.45	2.8
1.25	4.85	6.5	5.45
2.5	9.37	12.5	10.5
5.0	17.6	22.5	19.4
10.0	31.4	40	33.7
21.0	51.8	60	53.4
43.0	75.7	81	75.5
100.0	100	100	100

Table 2. Additional mol% to wt% conversions for EGPEM and BZA

Mole Percent PEGDMA550	Weight Percent PEGDMA550	
	co-EGPEM	Co-BZA
1.25	4.15	5.2
2.5	8.1	10
5	15.3	18.6
10	27.7	31
21	57	54
100	100	100

Table 3. Ternary Polymer Compositions.

Fixed Mol Percent of 2.5% PEGDMA550 for Ternary Polymers	
Mol Percent BMA	Mol Percent BZA, EGPEM, or tBA
87.75	9.75
78	19.5
68.25	29.25
58.5	39
48.75	48.75
39	58.5
29.25	68.25
19.5	78
9.75	87.75

2.2 Methods

The copolymer solutions were injected into a mold composed of two glass slides separated by 1mm glass spacers. Glass slides were cleaned with Alconox then coated with Rain-X as a mold release agent. The injected molds were polymerized under a 365 nm UV lamp for an average of 20 minutes, while materials with low concentrations of crosslinker could take over 30 minutes. For each material set in Tables 1, 2, and 3, two batches of each composition were created separately.

Samples for Dynamic Mechanical Analysis were prepared by laser cutting specimens to 20mm x 5mm x 1mm from bulk material. A TA Q800 was used in tensile loading with strain of .2%, preload of 0.001N, force track of 150%, and frequency of 1 Hz. The samples were equilibrated at -50°C for 2 minutes then raised to 200°C at a rate of 5°C/min ($n \geq 2$). The glass transition temperature was defined as the peak of the $\tan \delta$ curve from the DMA testing^[25]. The rubbery modulus was determined from the storage

modulus, when it had reached a steady state above the T_g as indicated by the unchanging $\tan \delta$ curve.

Mechanical tensile testing was performed on half-sized ASTM D 638 type IV dog-bone samples, which were laser cut from 1 mm thick samples. For each material set in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 9, each composition was tested at least twice ($n=2$), one being from each batch. The testing apparatus was a MTS Insight 2 mechanical tester with 100N load cell. A thermal chamber (Thermcraft, Inc., model LBO-14-8-5.25-1X-J8249_1A) was used to isothermally test either at the glass transition temperature of each material or at another specified temperature. Once the chamber reached the set temperature, ten minutes were given to insure equilibrium. A displacement rate of one mm/min was used, and the displacement was measured by the crosshead. Toughness was calculated by integrating the area under each stress-strain curve using the trapezoidal rule.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 Theoretical Parameters

The characteristic ratios are presented in Table 4 and were calculated using the method according to Wu^[37] by the following equations:

$$C_{\infty} = (1/\phi_0)^{2/3} [(\sum K_i + Bn_r)/M_r]^{4/3} (M_v / \langle l_v^2 \rangle) \quad \text{Equation 16}$$

$$M_v = M_r / n_v \quad \text{Equation 17}$$

Table 4. Theoretical Characteristic Ratios for Mono-functional (meth)acrylates.

Monofunctional Monomer	C_{∞}
MA	7.49
MMA	8.12
BA	9.45
tBA	9.47
tBMA	10.17
2EEM	11.98
IMA	12.64
2EHM	12.89
BZA	12.97
IA	13.56
BMA	13.67
EGPEMA	16.19
PPGA	34.63
PEGPEA236	47.58
PEGPEA280	50.21
PEGPEA324	52.97

$[(\sum K_i + B_r n_r)/M_r]^{4/3}$ takes into account the intrinsic viscosity of the chain, where the numerator sums the molar stiffness of each group. n_r was taken to be 2 as the number of statistical skeletal units, consequently also equivalent to n_v for the case of acrylates. $\langle l_v^2 \rangle$ was taken to be 2.34×10^{-16} m since carbon-carbon bonds have a length of 0.153nm. The molar stiffness constants for each group such as acrylic group or phenyl rings are reproduced in Table 5. B takes into account the tacticity of the chain, where for poly(methyl methacrylate) polymerized by free radical polymerization, $B_r \sim 4.12$. Methyl methacrylate was first calculated to be 8.12, a difference of 0.02 from Wu^[37].

Table 5. Group Contributions of Molar Stiffness Constant

Group	K_i ($\text{g}^{1/4} \text{cm}^{3/2} \text{mol}^{-3/4}$)
-CH ₃	3.55
-CH ₂ -	2.35
>CH-	1.15
>C<	0
Phenyl	18.25
-CH	5
-O-	5.1
-C(=O)O-	6.4

The CED for five mono-functional meth(acrylates) was calculated using the group contribution method outlined by Van Krevelen and Fedors^[41, 47]. Likewise, the molar volume values used were for glassy amorphous polymers were also calculated from each respective source^[41, 47]. The cohesive energy density was calculated from the molar

attraction values using Equation 11 and the E_{coh} of Equation 10. Table 6 contains the group contribution data for V , F , and E_{coh} . Table 7 contains the calculated CED values. The CED values calculated using Fedors method were higher than those using Van Krevelen's data, which was expected. Regardless of the method, the monomers with aromatic sidegroups had higher CED values than the monomers with aliphatic side groups. These values are acceptable by comparing to the E_{coh} found by Lesser in epoxies^[50].

Table 6. Group Contribution Data to determine CED.

Group	$V_g^{[41]}$ (cm ³ /mol)	$V^{[47]}$ (cm ³ /mol)	$F^{[41]}$ (cal*cm ³) ^{1/2} /mol	$E_{\text{coh}}^{[41]}$ (cal/mol)	$E_{\text{coh}}^{[47]}$ (cal/mol)
-CH ₃	23.9	33.5	205.5	2300	1125
-CH ₂ -	15.85	16.1	137	1000	1180
>CH-	9.85	-1	68.5	100	820
>C<	4.6	-19.2	0	-1600	350
Phenyl	72.7	71.4	741.5	6800	7630
-O-	10	3.8	125	1500	800
-C(=O)O-	18.25	14.6	250	3200	4950

Table 7. Calculated Cohesive Energy Densities of Select Monomers.

Monomer	Cohesive Energy Density (MPa)		
	Via F from Van Krevelen	Via E_{coh} from Van Krevelen	Via E_{coh} from Fedors
BMA	396	351	488
BZA	424	382	526
EGPEM	401	359	479
2EEM	358	339	394
tBA	332	334	375

3.2 Thermo-mechanical properties of systematically varied networks

The 16 networks in Table 8 were produced by polymerizing 10 mol% of PEGDMA500 and 90mol% of the mono-functional monomers individually. 10 mol% crosslinker was chosen because it would insure a measurable rubbery modulus. The T_g and E_r measured through DMA and showed no trend relative to each other. The T_g of the networks ranged from -29 to 112 °C, and the E_r ranged from 2.75 to 17.5 MPa. Generally, the T_g increased as the pendant length decreased or by the addition of a α -methyl group. The 16 networks in Table 9 were produced from 90 mol% tBA and 10 mol% of each crosslinker. The T_g and the E_r showed no clear dependence on each other. The T_g ranged from -2 to 98 °C, and the E_r ranged from 6.48 to 129.5 MPa. As the functionality of the crosslinker increased, the E_r increased for equivalent mole fraction of crosslinking molecule. The increase in rubbery modulus is driven by the relative increase in mole fraction of crosslinking “bonds” for a crosslinker with higher functionality. The full width at half maximum of the $\tan \delta$ curves of these networks were measured and found to increase as the E_r increased as seen in Figure 8.

Table 8. Thermo-mechanical Properties of Networks Composed of 10 mol% PEGDMA550 and 90 mol% Mono-functional (meth)acrylate.

Mono-functional (meth)acrylate	T _g (°C)	E _r (MPa)
MMA	91.3	17.5
MA	23.5	11.75
BA	-15	7.3
tBA	40.5	10.7
tBMA	89.5	8.9
2EEM	19.5	11.25
IMA	112	6.45
2EHM	20.5	7.7
BZA	23	10.51
IA	-23.5	6.5
BMA	68	9.4
EGPEMA	40.5	12.75
PPGA	-29	2.75
PEGPEA236	10.5	6.1
PEGPEA280	-3.5	6.05
PEGPEA324	-9.5	4.45

The 16 networks from Table 9 were tensile tested until failure to characterize their large strain mechanical properties including failure strain and toughness. The failure strain of each network is plotted against its corresponding E_r from DMA in Figure 9. The failure strain ranged from less than 10% to over a 100%. The numbers 2,3,4,5, in the figure are noting the functionality of the crosslinkers. It can be seen that as the E_r of the network decreases as the failure strain increases by Equation 18. For most crosslinkers, as the functionality of the crosslinker decreases, the failure strain increases. Consistent with

previous results a significant effect of the crosslinker was not observed aside from that predicted by a change in crosslinking effectiveness measured through rubbery modulus.

$$\text{Failure Strain} = -0.00162 + 290.704E_r^{-0.999486} \quad \text{Equation 18}$$

Table 9. Thermomechanical Properties of Networks Composed of 90 mol% tBA and 10 mol% Multi-functional (meth)acrylate.

Multi-functional (meth)acrylate	T _g (°C)	E _r (MPa)	FWHM tan δ (°C)
BPA1700	-2.75	7.35	27.5
BPA540	70.5	8.15	28.5
BPA688	43.5	8.25	14.5
BPA512	64.5	9.0	10.5
BPA468	59.5	8.8	13.5
NGPDA	62.5	6.48	15.5
HEXDA	68.5	10.85	15.5
PEGDMA550	40.5	10.7	16
PETA	98	42.5	53
TETA428	83	25	18.75
TETA604	55	16.65	14.5
TETA912	24.5	15.95	17.25
TPTA	58	23	16.5
GPTA	69.5	15.5	16.25
DTTA	92	49.5	48
DPPHA	74	129.5	75

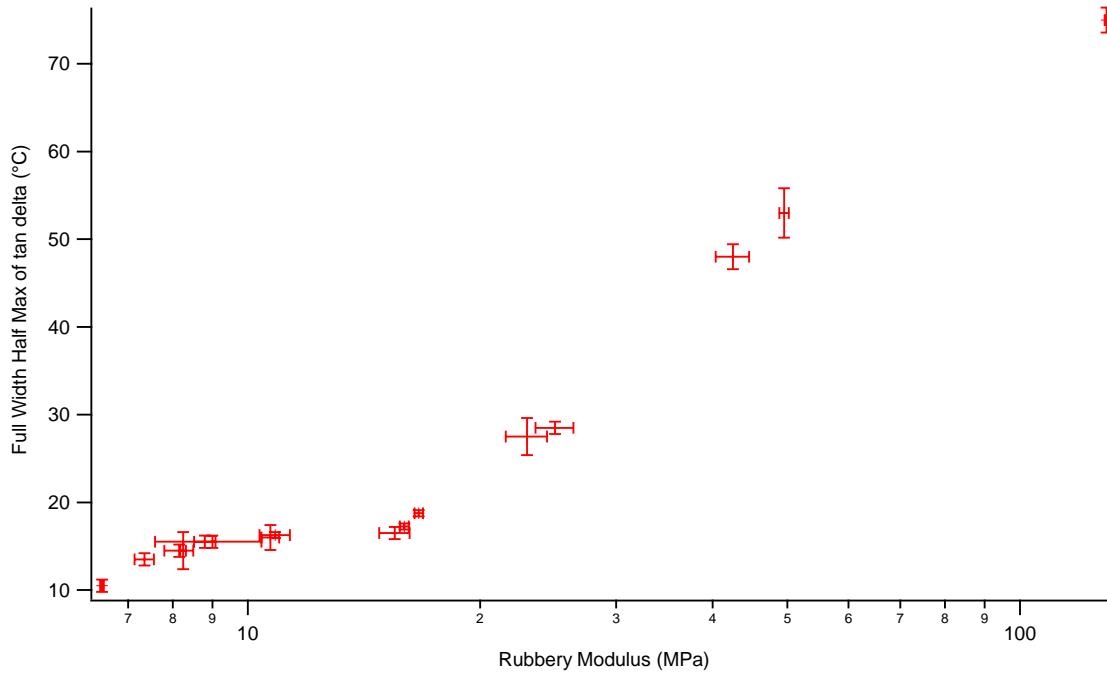


Figure 8. Spread of tan delta as a function of rubbery modulus of Networks from Table 9.

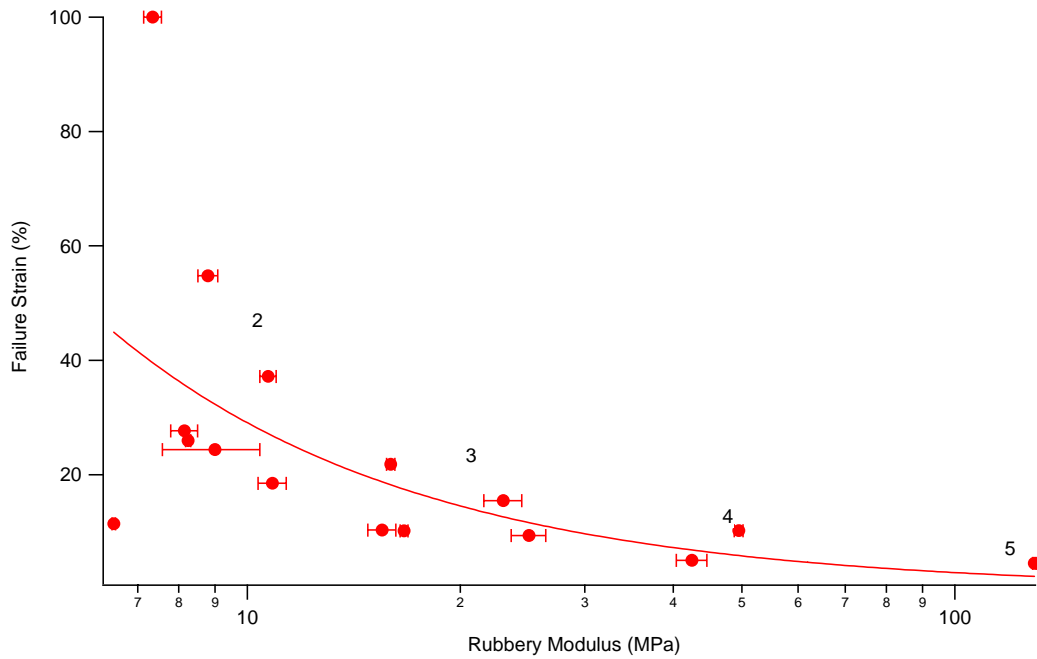


Figure 9. Failure Strain as a function of Rubbery Modulus of Networks in Table 9.

3.3 Thermo-mechanical properties and mechanical behavior of five select networks

DMA curves showing the change in crosslinker concentration with five different mono-functional (meth)acrylates are found in Figures 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14. The five linear (meth)acrylates were selected based on their difference in chemical structure and initial thermo-mechanical testing data. In all of these figures, the curve with the highest E_r is the pure PEGDMA550 curve. As the crosslinker concentration was decreased, the E_r decreased. As the concentration of crosslinker approaches zero, the E_r plateau disappears and E_r steadily decreases with increasing temperature. The T_g of each network increased as the concentration of crosslinker decreased. A non-linear trend is observed in Figure 15, which shows the T_g of each composition from Tables 1 and 2. If wt% is used instead of mol%, a linear trend between T_g and composition is found in Figure 16. Equation 3 and Equation 4 were plotted as well, where Equation 3 provided a better fit to the experimental data. Figure 17 displays the trend of the decreasing E_r as the crosslinker concentration decreased for the five systems. Systems start at the same point since each was originally composed of 100% PEGDMA550. Systems approach 0 MPa as the crosslinker concentration approaches 0%.

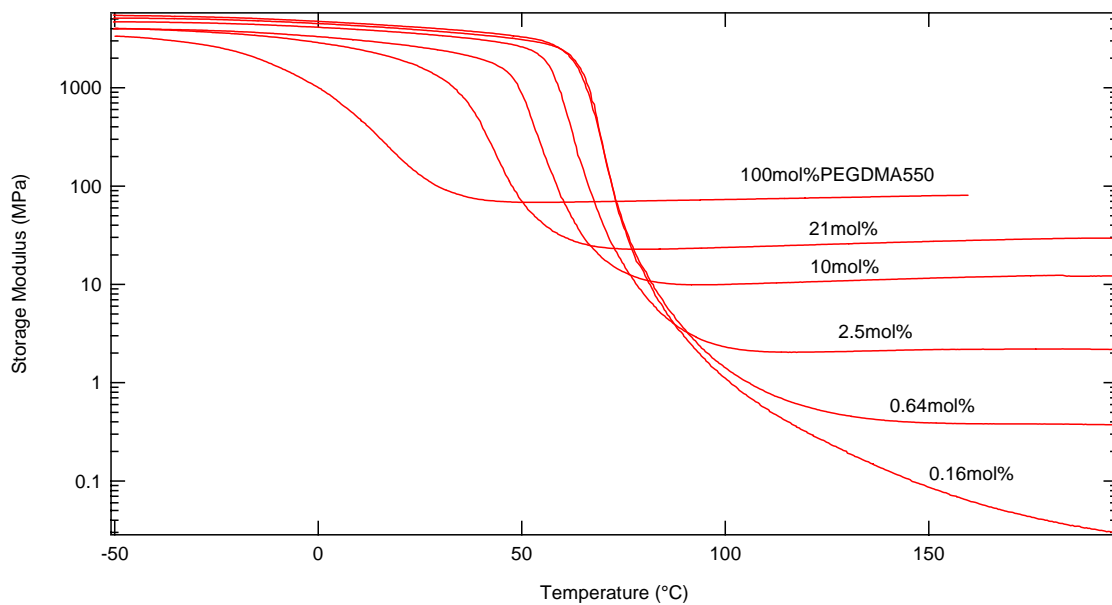


Figure 10. DMA curves of BMA-co-PEGDMA550

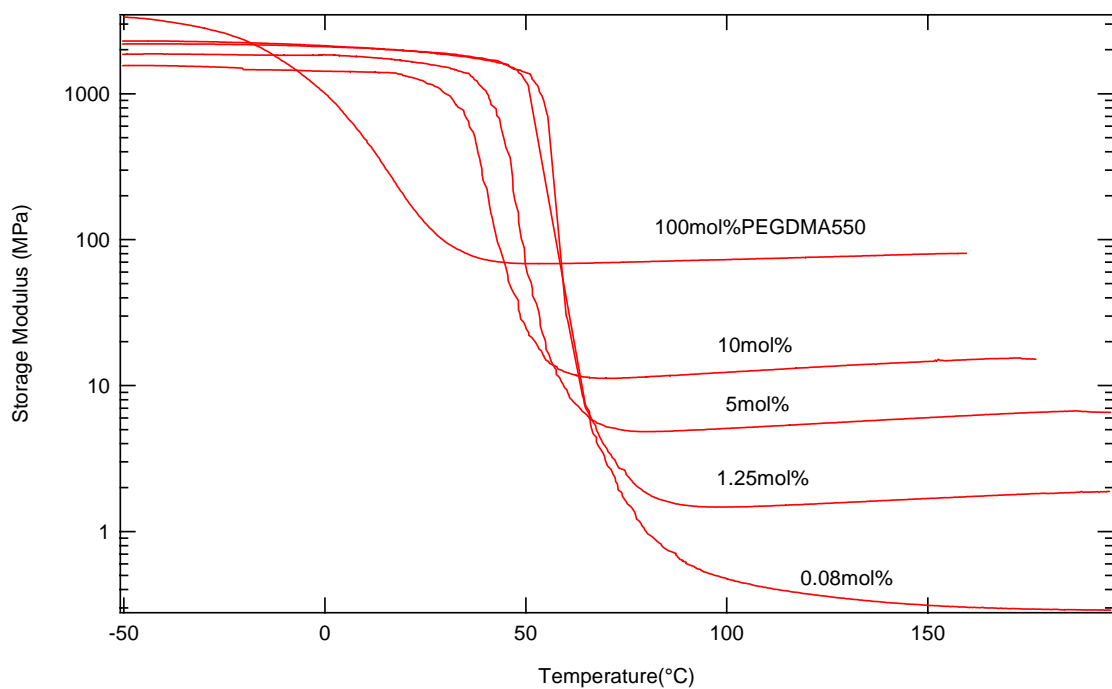


Figure 11. DMA curves of tBA-co-PEGDMA550

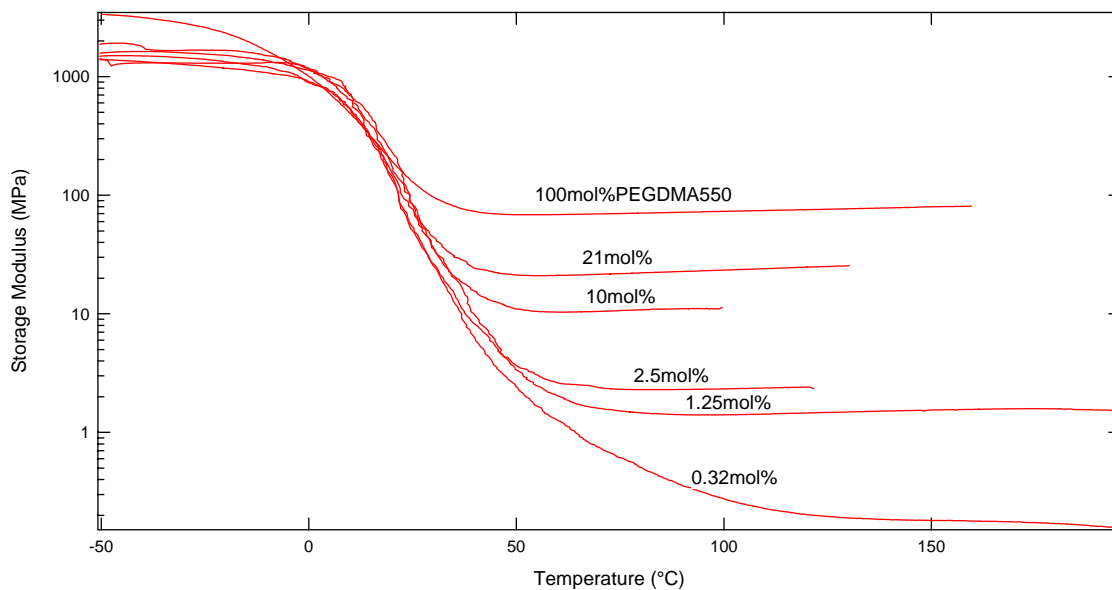


Figure 12. DMA curves of 2EEM-co-PEGDMA550

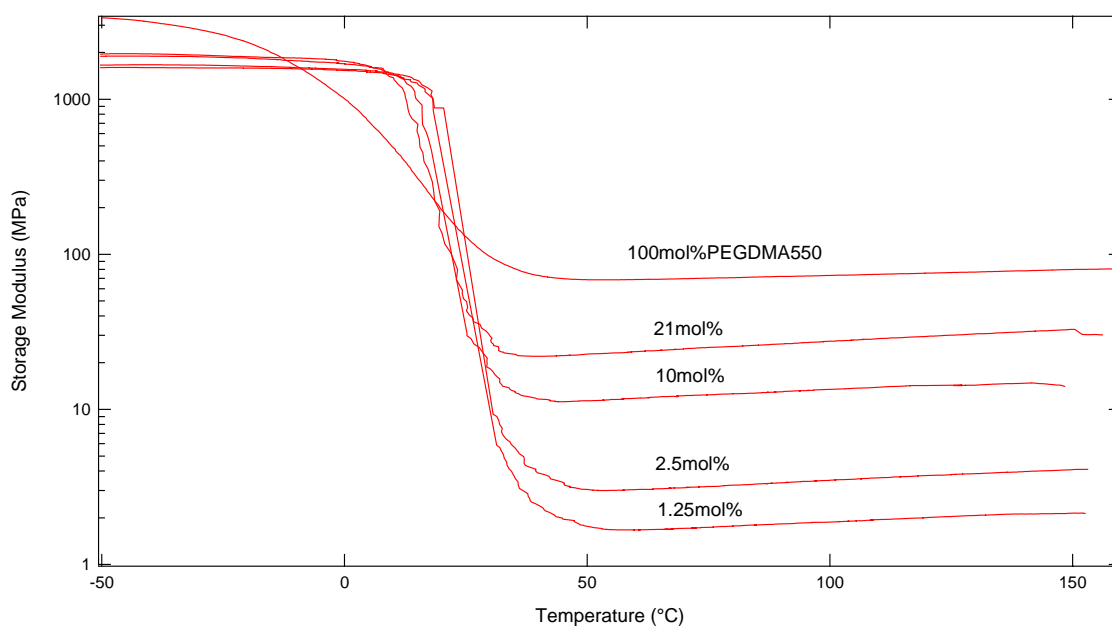


Figure 13. DMA curves of BZA-co-PEGDMA550.

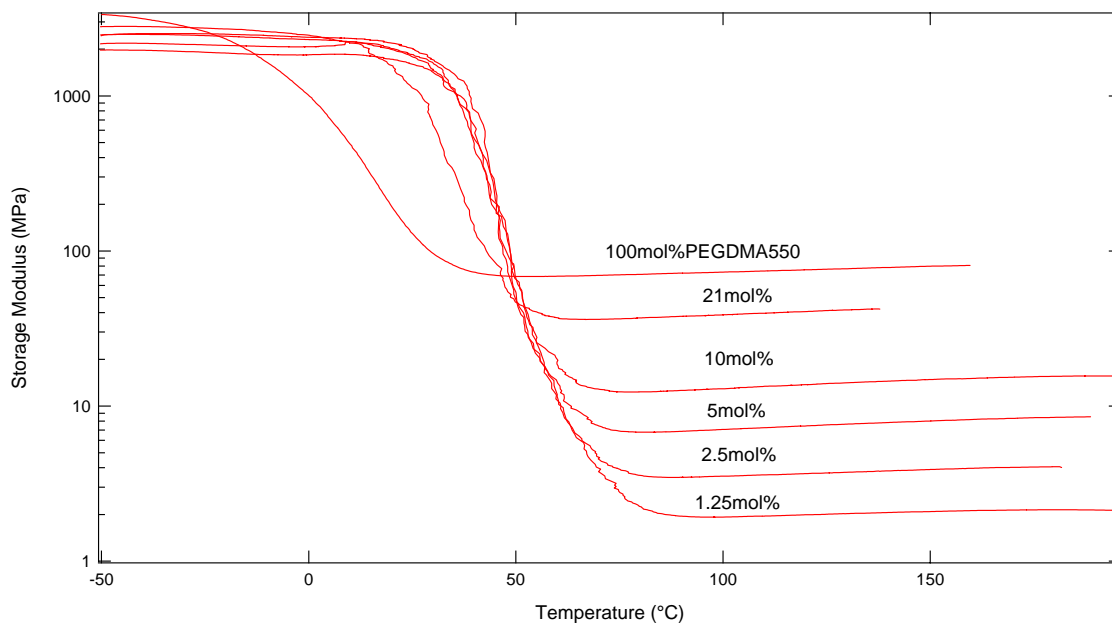


Figure 14. DMA curves of EGPEM-co-PEGDMA550.

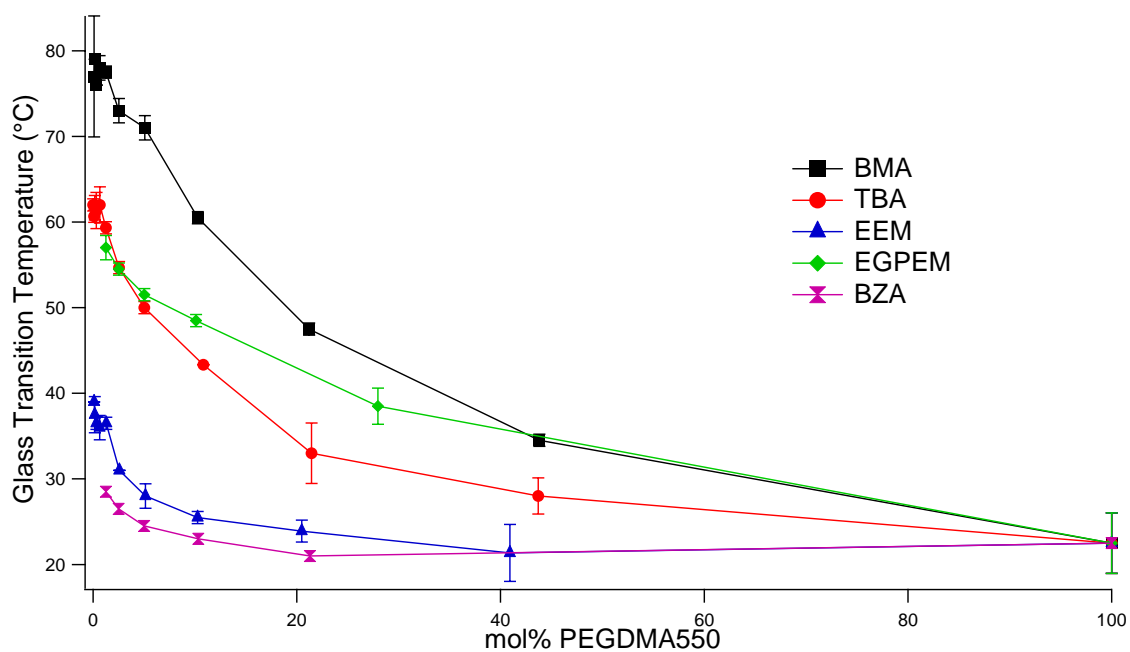


Figure 15. Glass Transition Temperature as a function of Crosslinker concentration for networks in Tables 1 and 2.

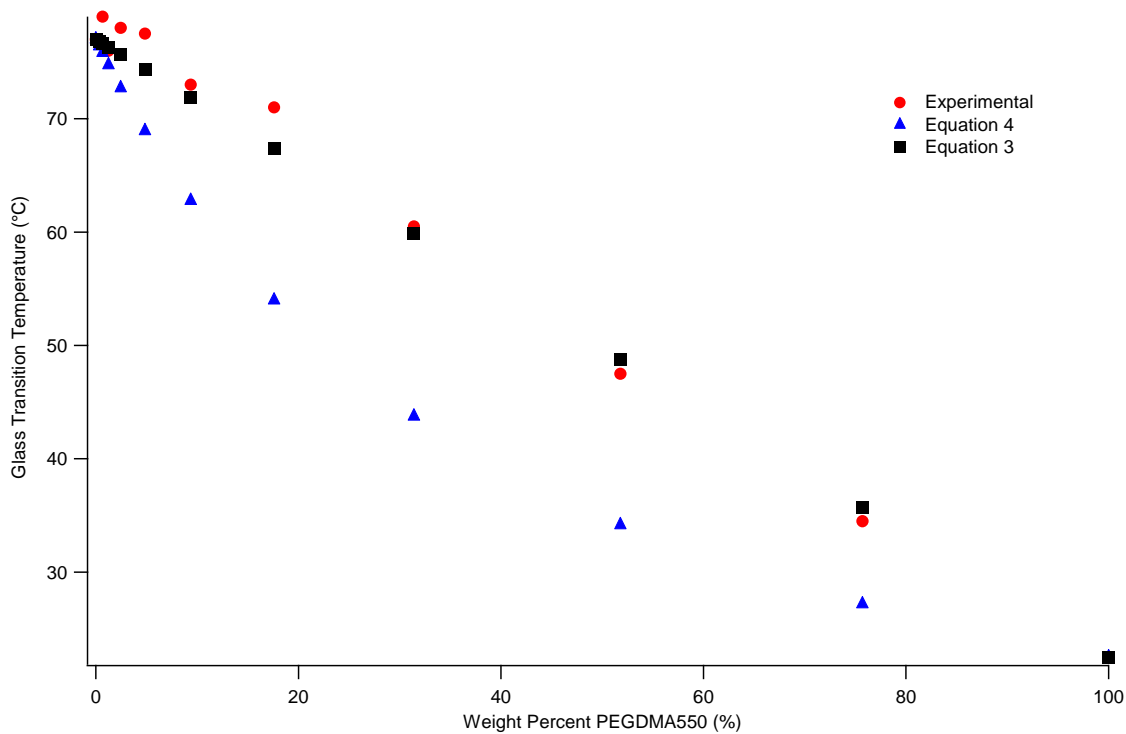


Figure 16. Glass Transition Temperature as a function of wt% PEGDMA550-co-BMA

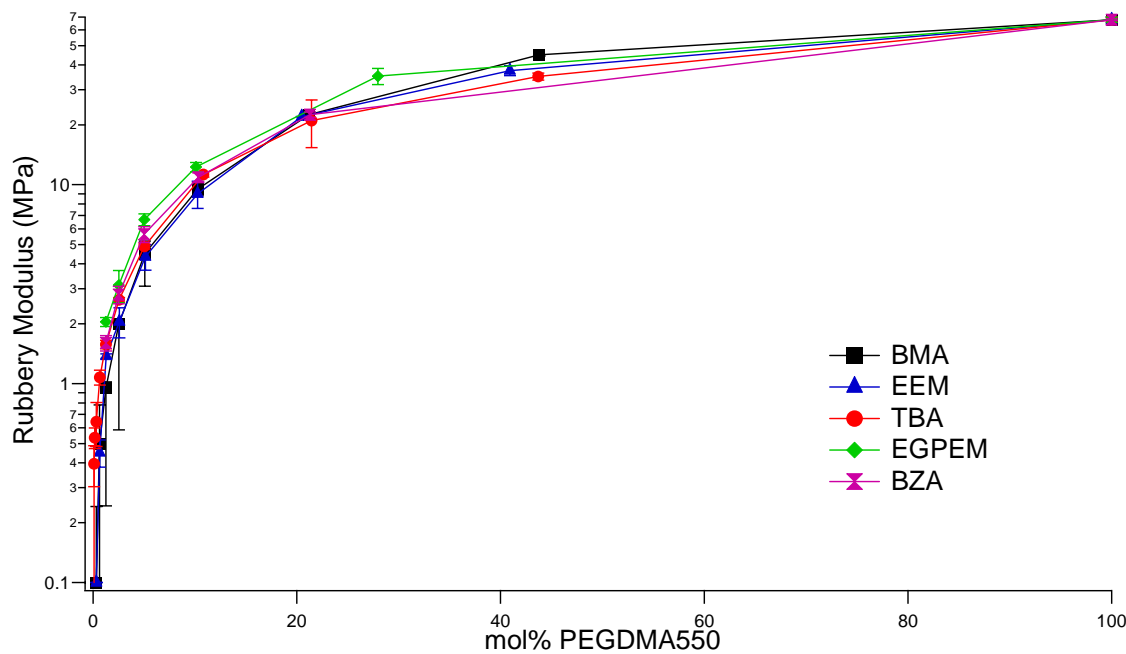


Figure 17. Rubbery Modulus as a function of Crosslinker concentration for networks in Tables 1 and 2.

The compositions from Tables 1 and 2 were tensile tested to understand the effect of structure on the large strain behavior of the networks. The stress-strain curves of each system can be found in Figures 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22. The failure strain of each network was plotted against its respective mol% crosslinker, which shows the tradeoff between failure strain and mol% crosslinker in Figure 23. The failure strain of each composition from the tensile test was plotted against its respective E_r from DMA in Figure 24. The results were plotted against E_r to eliminate any differences that may be a result of different “effective” crosslink density in the networks and thus isolate the effects of the linear monomer chemistry as a function of increasing crosslinker concentration. In addition, all tests in Figure 24 were conducted at the T_g of the respective polymer to assure all networks were in an equivalent state of macromolecular motion. At E_r greater than 10 MPa (high crosslink density) the five systems had similar failure strains for all compositions. At E_r lower than 10 MPa the network failure strains diverged. As the E_r further decreased below 1 MPa, the networks did not display reliable rubbery plateaus, thus the data were excluded.

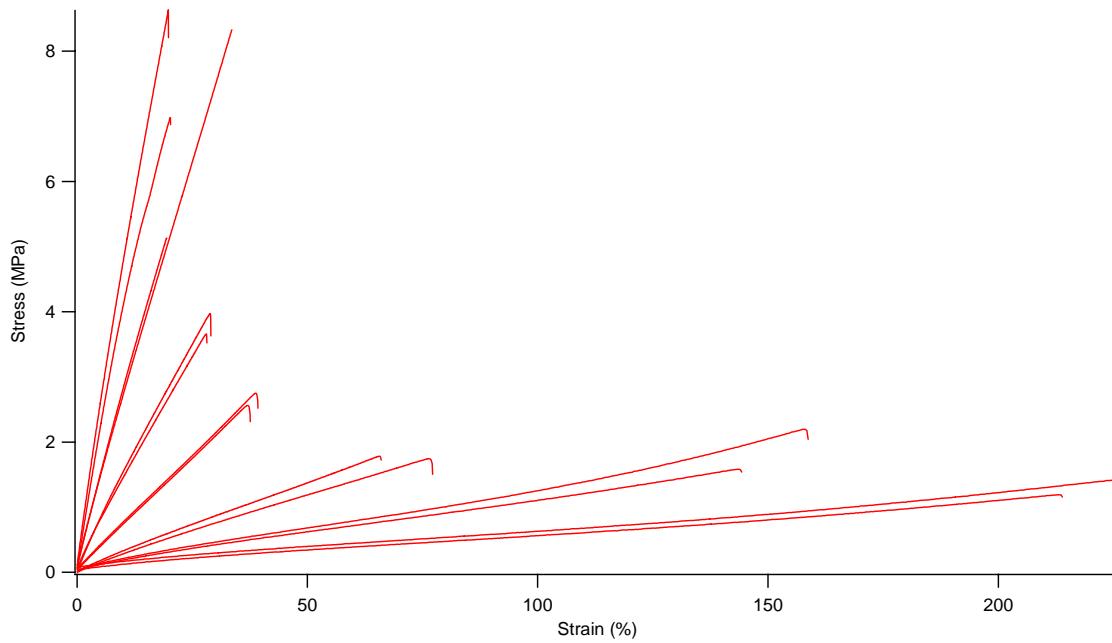


Figure 18. Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA550-co-BMA

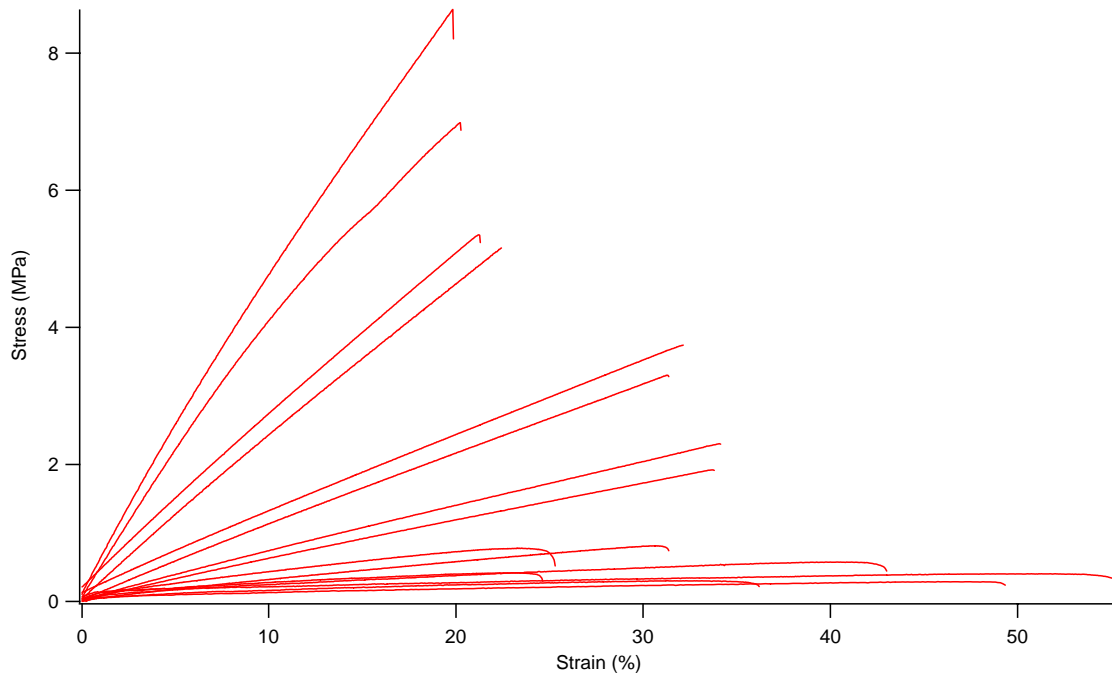


Figure 19. Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA550-co-tBA

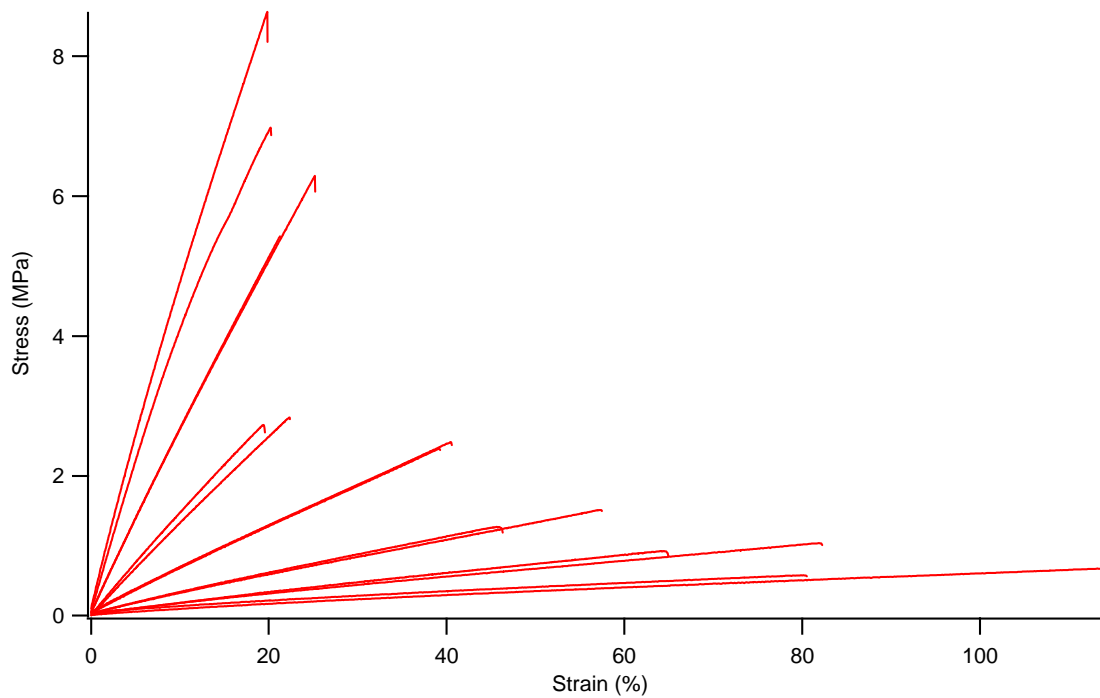


Figure 20. Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA550-co-2EEM

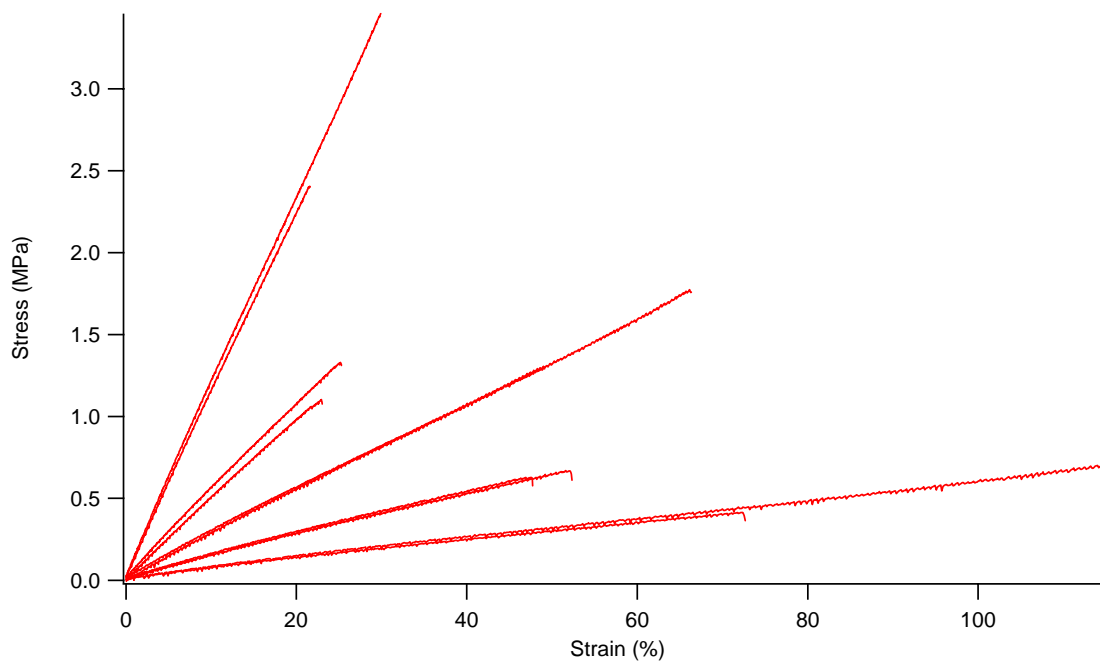


Figure 21. Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA550-co-BZA

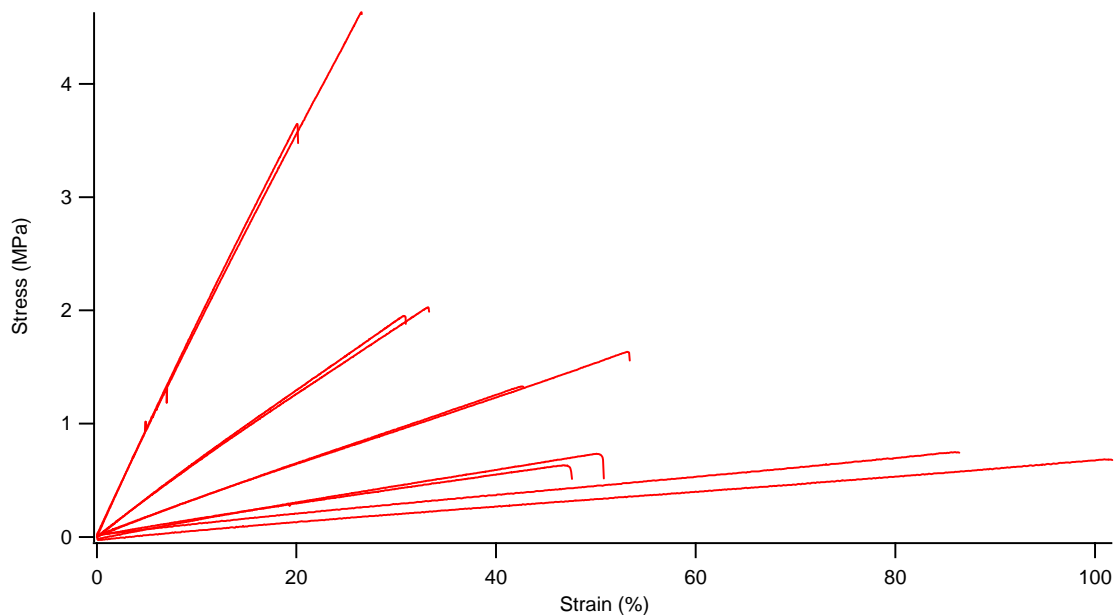


Figure 22. Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA550-co-EGPEM

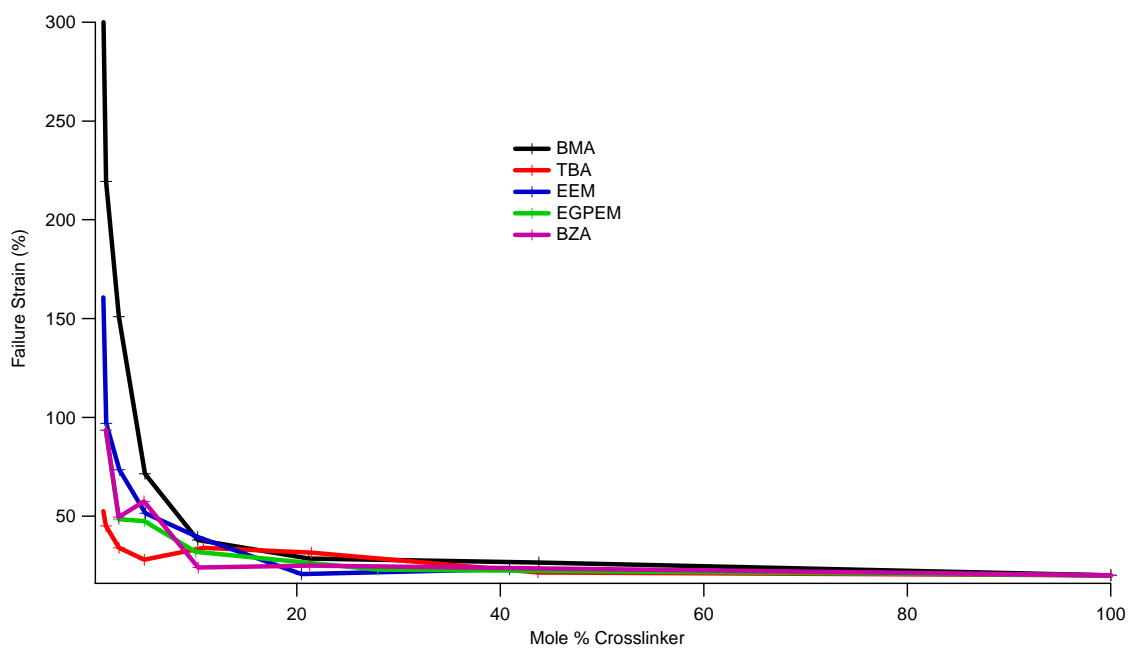


Figure 23. Failure strain as a function of mol% crosslinker

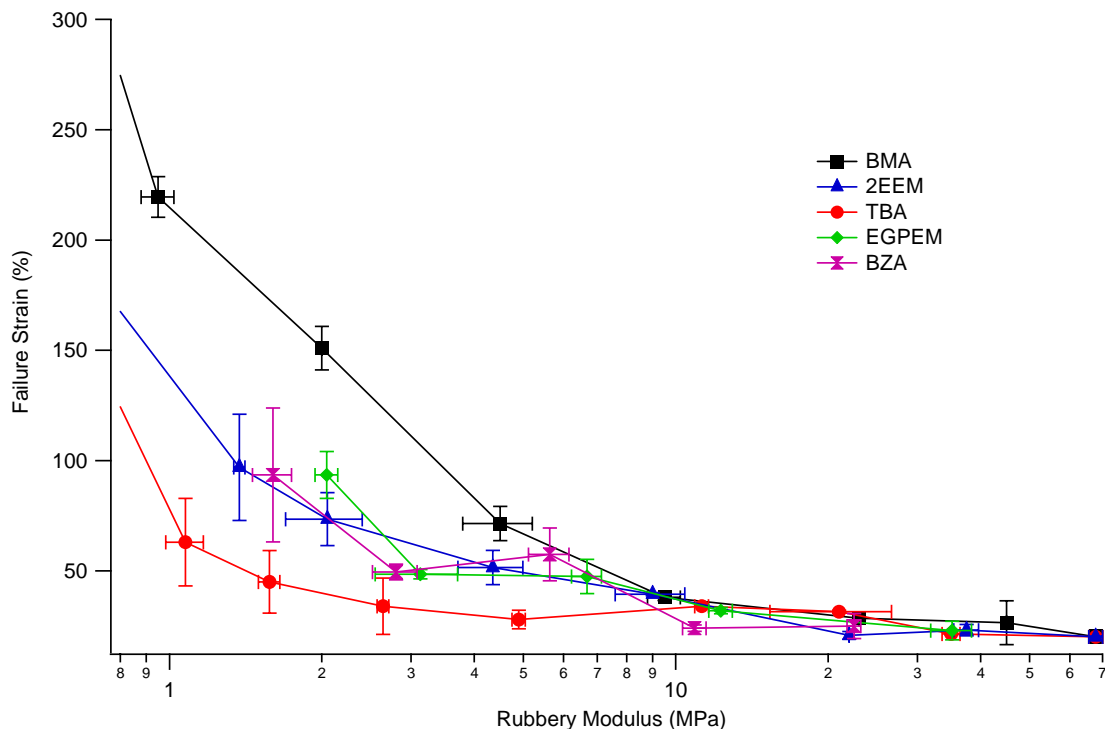


Figure 24. Failure Strain as a function of Rubbery Modulus for networks in Table 1 and Table 2.

Figure 25 displays representative stress-strain curves of the five systems with increasing rubbery moduli. For all five materials, as the E_r drops, the failure strain increases. The tBA, 2EEM, BZA, and EGPEM also show a decrease in strength as E_r decreases. Unlike the other systems, the BMA system does not show a steady decrease in strength as the E_r decreases. The BMA has relatively higher failure strains and failure strengths as compared to the other materials even for nearly equivalent rubbery modulus.

Figure 26 displays toughness, calculated as the area under stress-strain curves of the systems, as a function of the E_r . The systems have similar toughness at relatively higher E_r values, and the systems diverge at E_r values below 10 MPa. The tBA, 2EEM, BZA, and EGPEM systems have toughness values nearly a third of BMA. The point of divergence, the shape of the BMA stress-strain curves, and the increased toughness are

points of interest to be further studied. Figure 27 displays the characteristic ratio as a function of toughness for the five networks. The toughness is the average toughness of the networks below the divergence point. Three systems, EGPEM, 2EEM, and BZA, have similar average toughness values near 0.3, but have different characteristic ratios. Figure 28 displays the relationship between the rubbery modulus and the elastic modulus of the five networks at and below the divergence point. Equation 19 gives the average relationship between E_r and E .

$$E_r = 1.677 E \quad \text{Equation 19}$$

By applying Equation 13 and Equation 14 to the average of CED values from Table 7, the predicted values for E , assuming $E = B$, are found in Table 10. These values are 10^3 larger than the values of E and E_r from Figure 28.

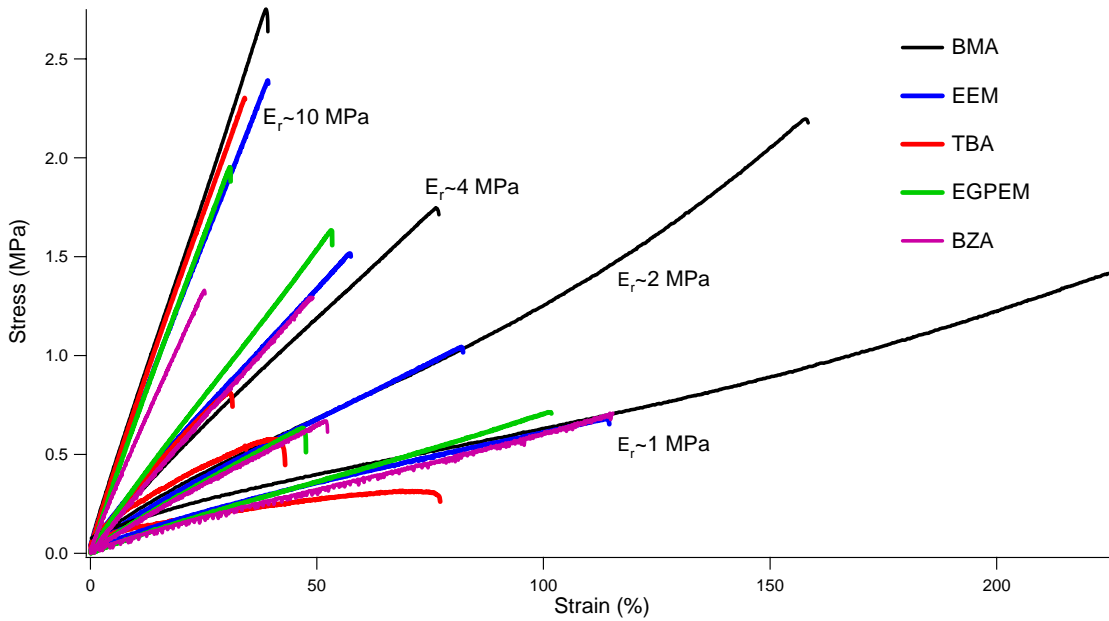


Figure 25. Stress-strain curves of varying moduli from Figure 24.

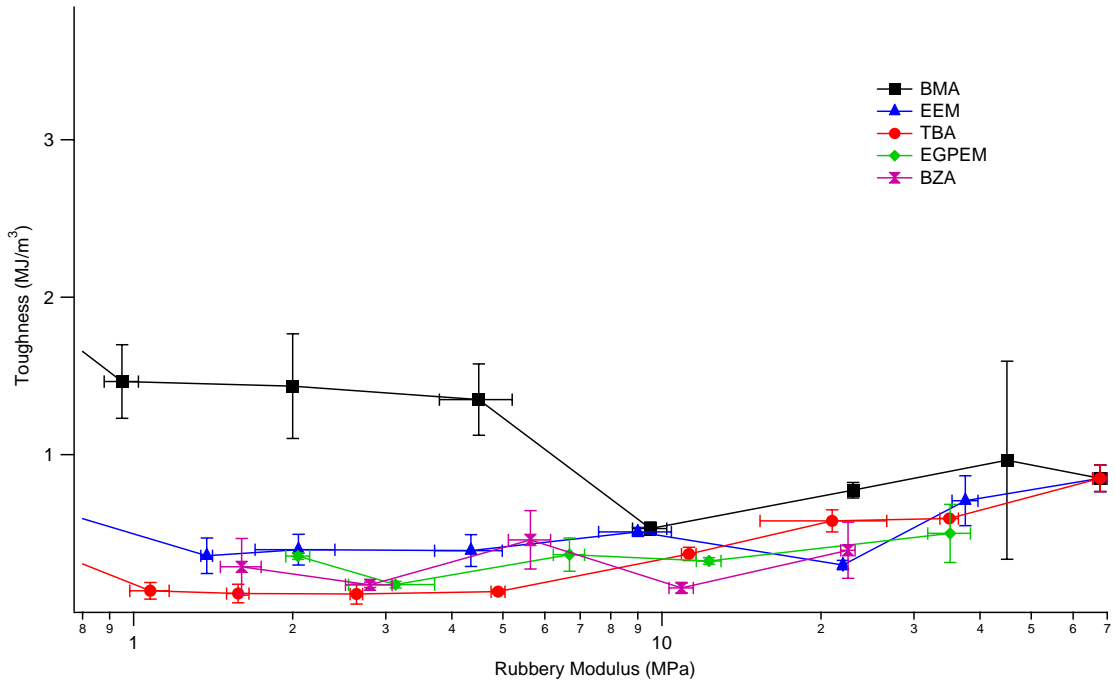


Figure 26. Toughness as a function of Rubbery Modulus for networks in Table 1 and 2.

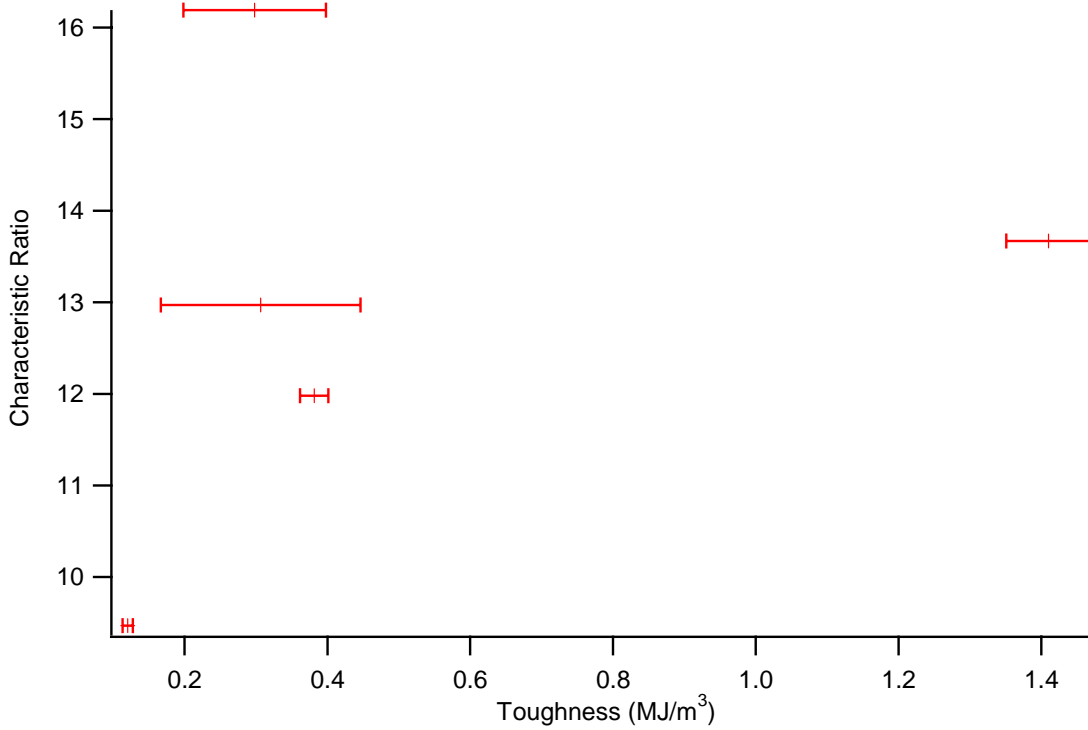


Figure 27. Characteristic Ratio as a function of Toughness

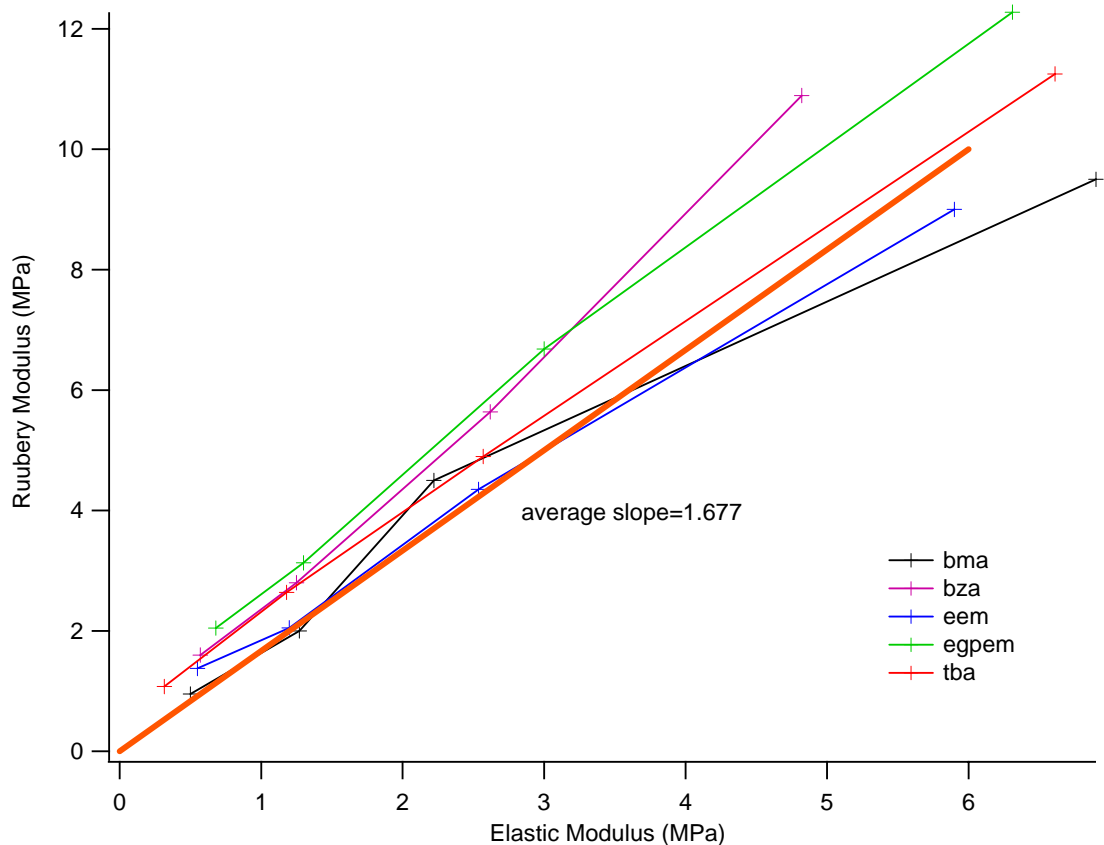


Figure 28. The relationship between Rubbery Modulus to Elastic Modulus

Table 10. Predicted Elastic Modulus from CED

$E^{[49]}$ (MPa)	$E^{[46]}$ (MPa)
3310	4528
3570	4884
3321	4543
2924	4000
2790	3817

Networks composed of 2.5 mol% PEGDMA550-co-BMA or PEGDMA550-co-tBA from Table 1 were tensile tested across a range of temperatures, represented in

Figures 29 and 30. Brittle behavior was present at temperatures below T_g , marked as low temperature. Ductile behavior was present at temperatures above T_g , marked as high temperature. The scatter in the stress-strain curves of Figure 30 at low temperature were due to repeated flushing of liquid nitrogen. The objective of this testing was to verify that the relatively high toughness of the BMA material compared to tBA was not merely an artifact of a relative test temperature difference. The strain to failure in Figure 31 is plotted at temperatures relative to each composition's respective T_g , $T - T_g$. A peak in failure strain is seen 15 to 20°C before the T_g , then the curves level off when well into their respective rubbery region. The toughness in Figure 32 is plotted also plotted at temperatures relative to each composition's respective T_g . It can be seen that at temperatures leave the glassy region and approach the T_g , T_g-20 , the toughness of BMA is greater than that of tBA. Well below the T_g in the glassy region, the error in measuring the toughness occurs do the differences in failure strain, where some materials fail early, while others can undergo extended amounts of deformation. tBA may have a higher average toughness in the glassy region due to a lower glassy modulus. The PEGDMA550-BMA failure strain curve reaches a higher peak and is broader than the PEGDMA550-tBA curve, highlighting the inherent toughness difference in the two materials that is not driven by a difference in effective crosslink density or temperature relative to T_g .

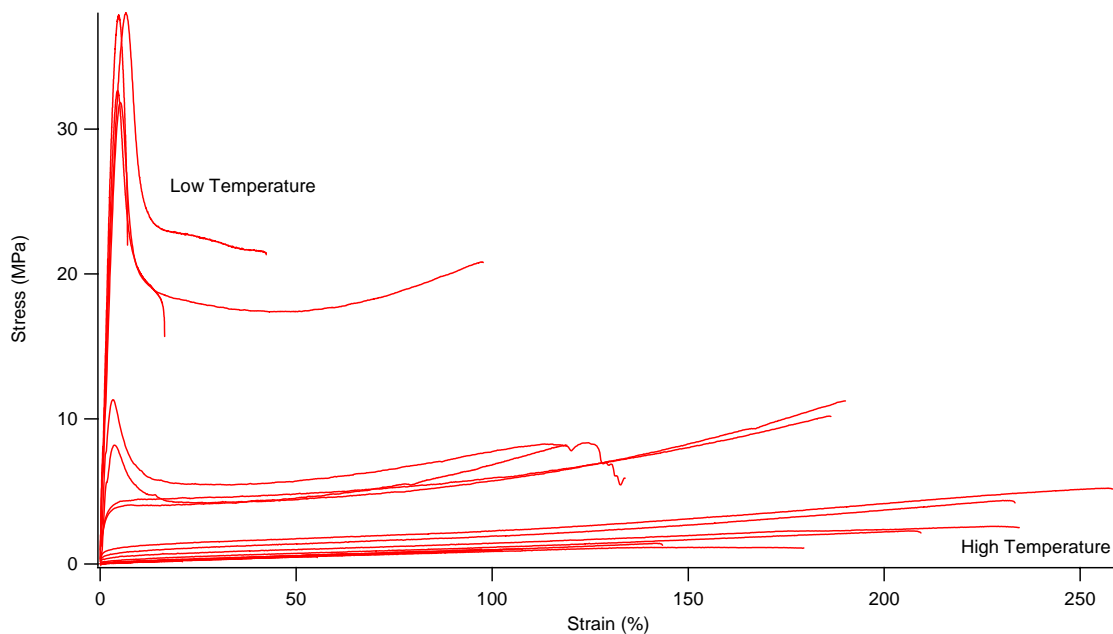


Figure 29. Stress-Strain curves for PEGDMA550-co-BMA at varying temperatures.

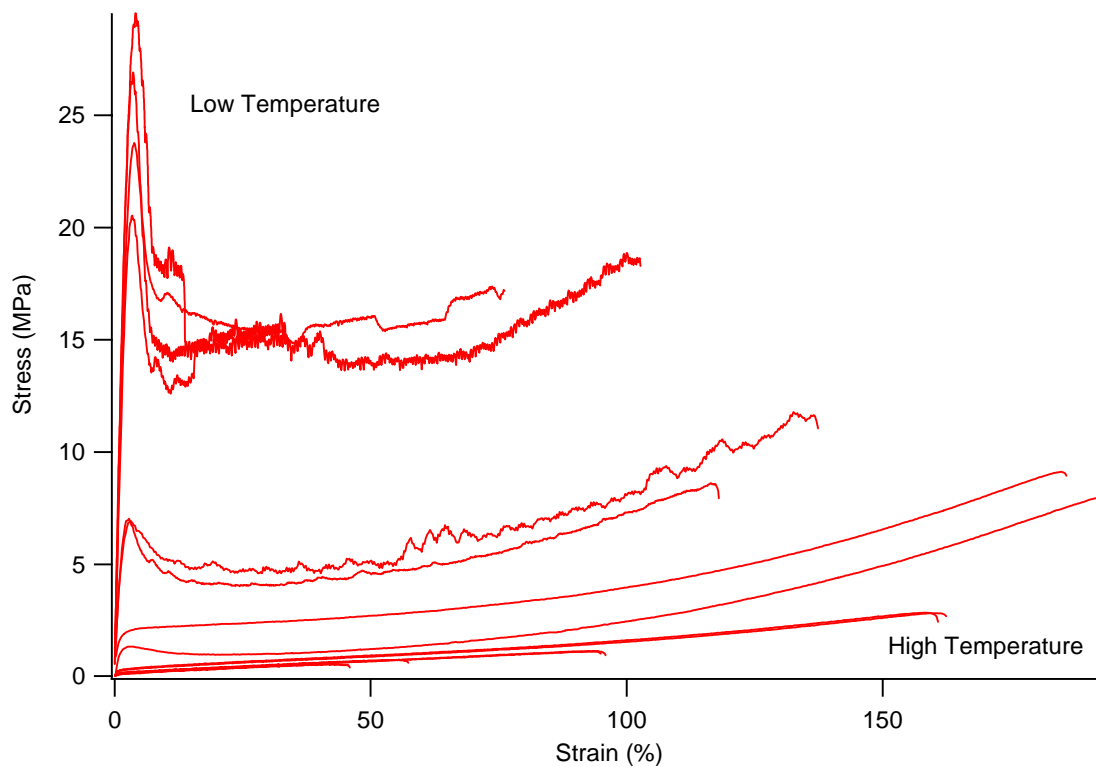


Figure 30. Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA550-co-tBA at varying temperatures.

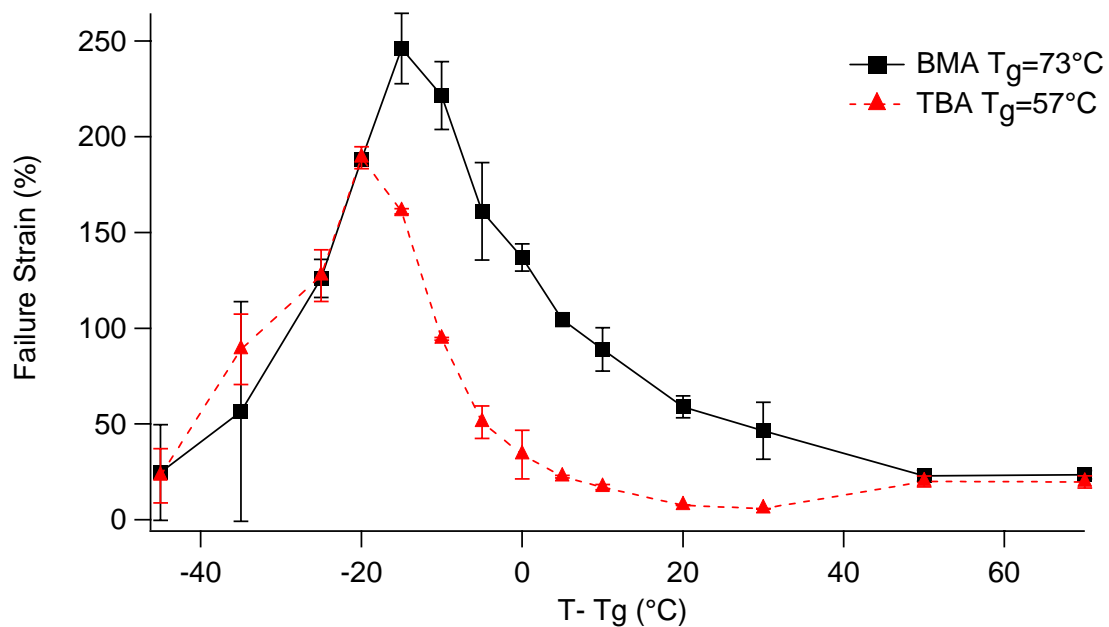


Figure 31. Failure Strain as a function of $T - T_g$ for 2.5 mol% PEGDMA550-co-BMA or co-tBA.

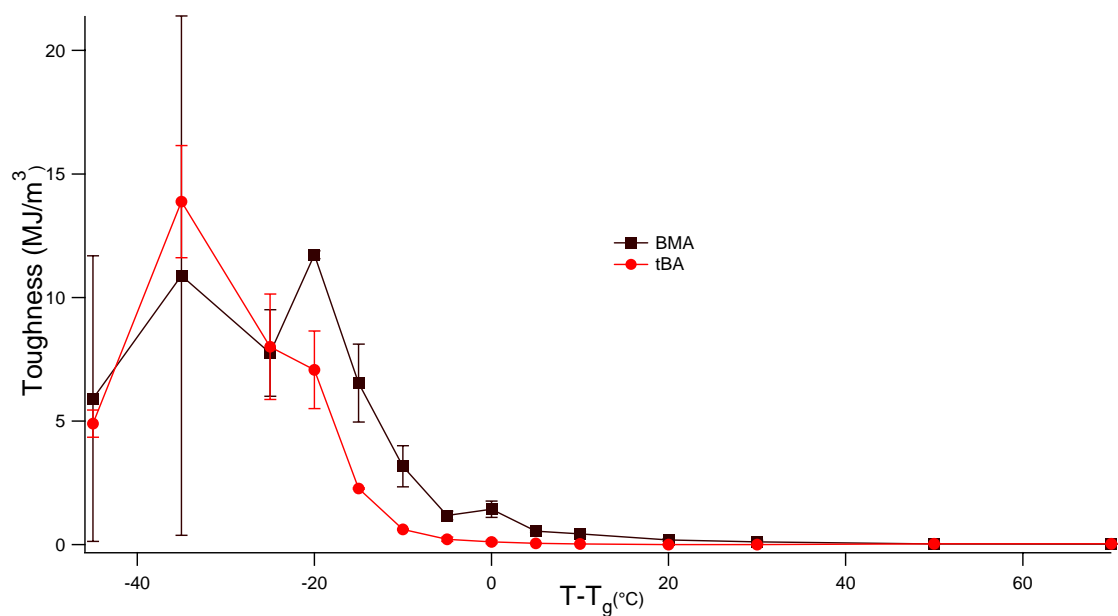


Figure 32. Toughness as a function of $T - T_g$ for 2.5 mol% PEGDMA550-co-BMA or co-tBA.

3.4 Ternary network properties

Mixtures of the various linear monomers were created with equivalent crosslinker concentration to determine how mechanical properties evolved from one network to another. From the ternary systems in Table 3, representative DMA curves for each of the three network systems can be found in Figures 33, 34, and 35. Representative stress-strain curves of the three networks can be found in Figures 36, 37, and 38. These networks have similar modulus, as expected since they contain the same concentration of crosslinker. Figure 39 shows the failure strain as a function of mol% BMA in three other linear monomers (all materials contain 2.5 mol% crosslinker). As the concentration of BMA increases, the failure strain increases. This trend is also seen in Figure 40, which describes the effect of increasing the concentration of BMA on the toughness of the networks. By increasing the concentration of BMA, the T_g rose for all three systems, which is displayed in Figure 41. The EGPEM and tBA had similar T_g values across all concentrations of BMA. Since 2.5 mol% PEGDMA550 was used in all mixtures, it would be expected that the E_r would be nearly constant across the range of compositions, which is seen in Figure 42.

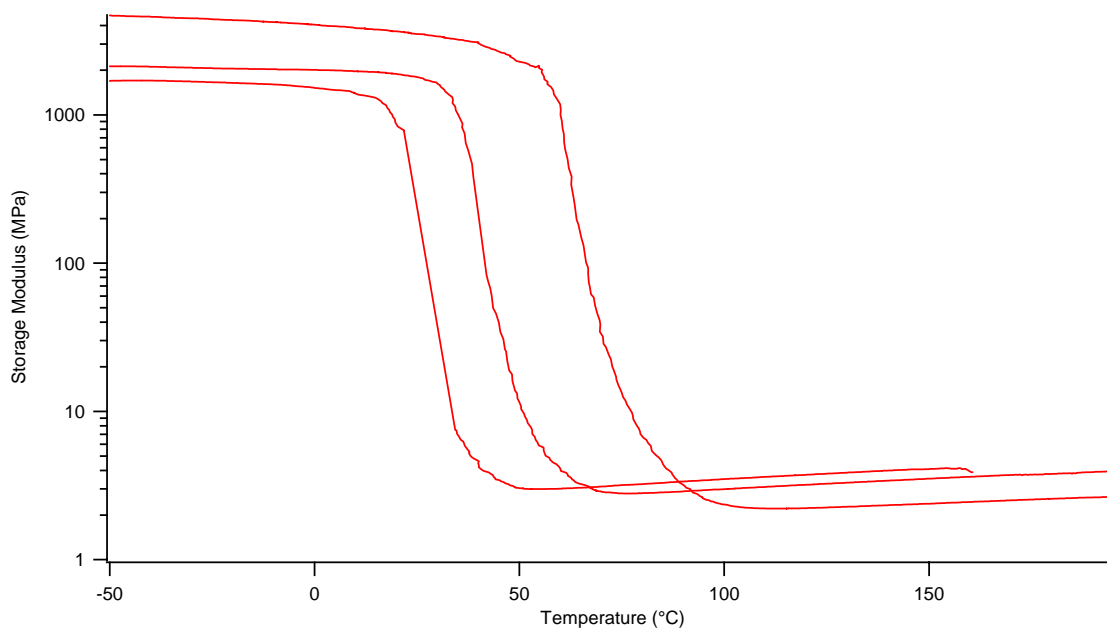


Figure 33. Representative DMA curves of PEGDMA-BMA-BZA.

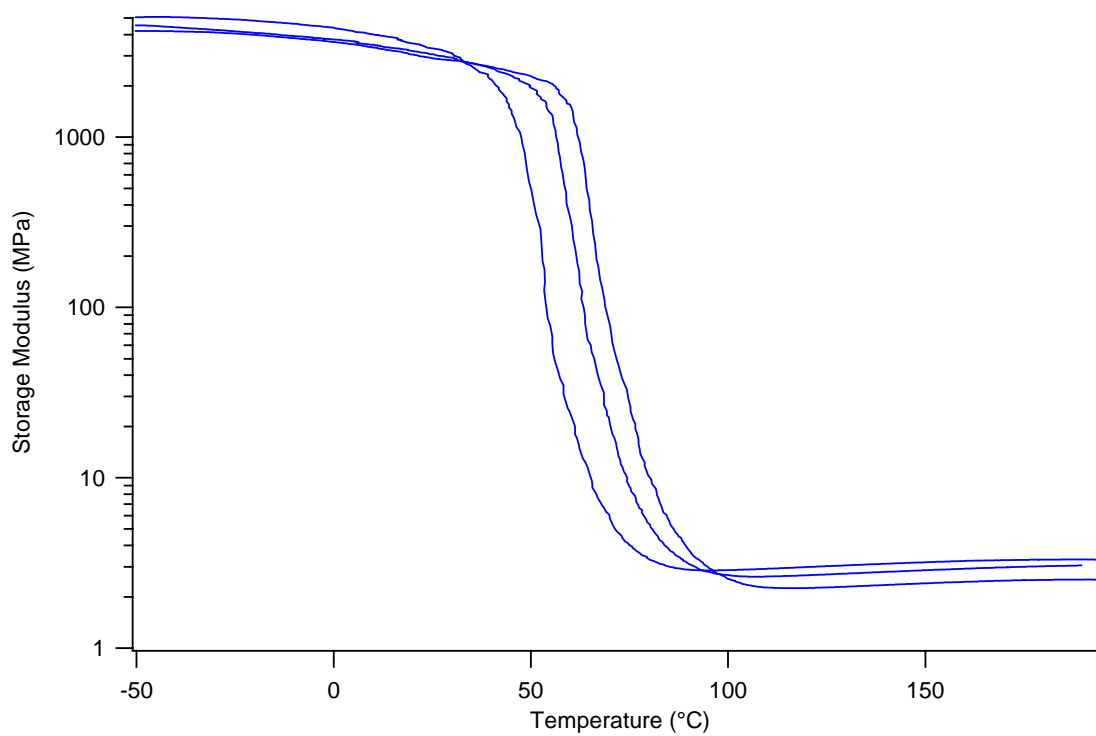


Figure 34. Representative DMA curves of PEGDMA-BMA-EGPEM.

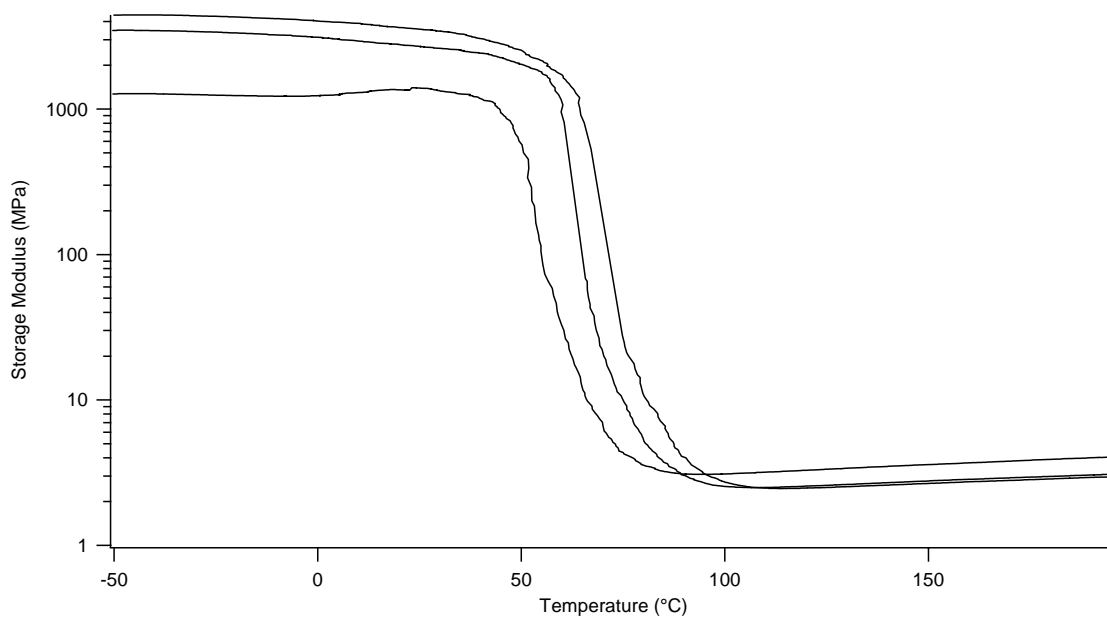


Figure 35. Representative DMA curves of PEGDMA-BMA-tBA.

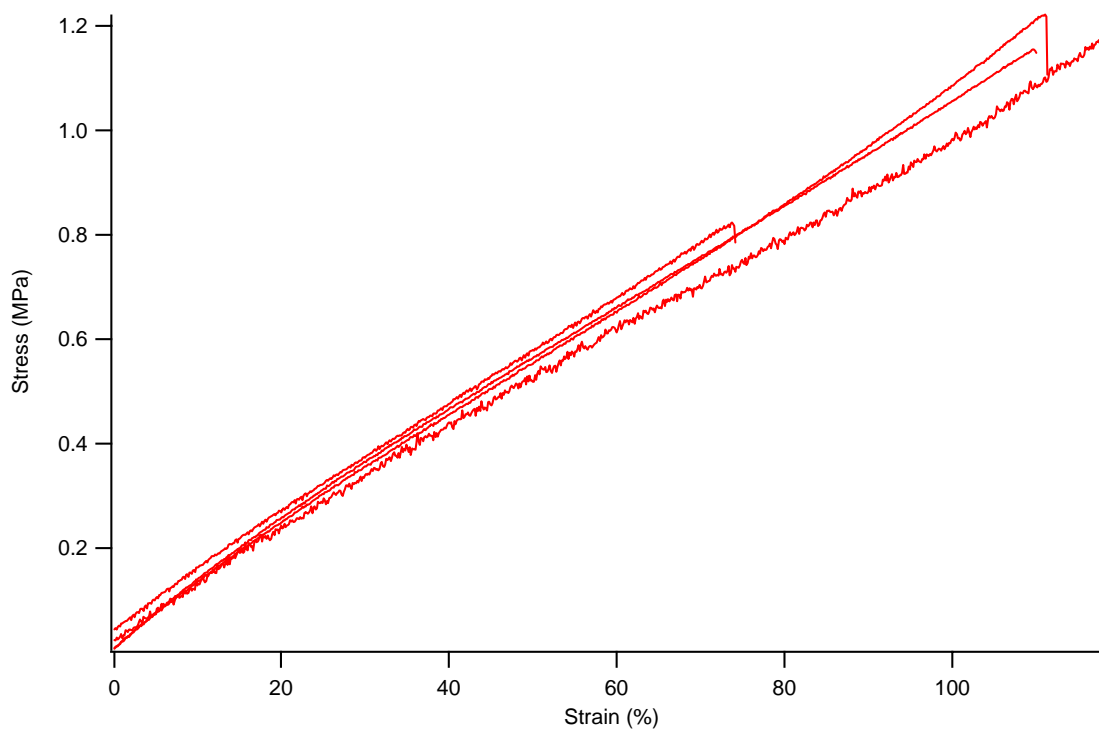


Figure 36. Representative Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA-BMA-BZA networks.

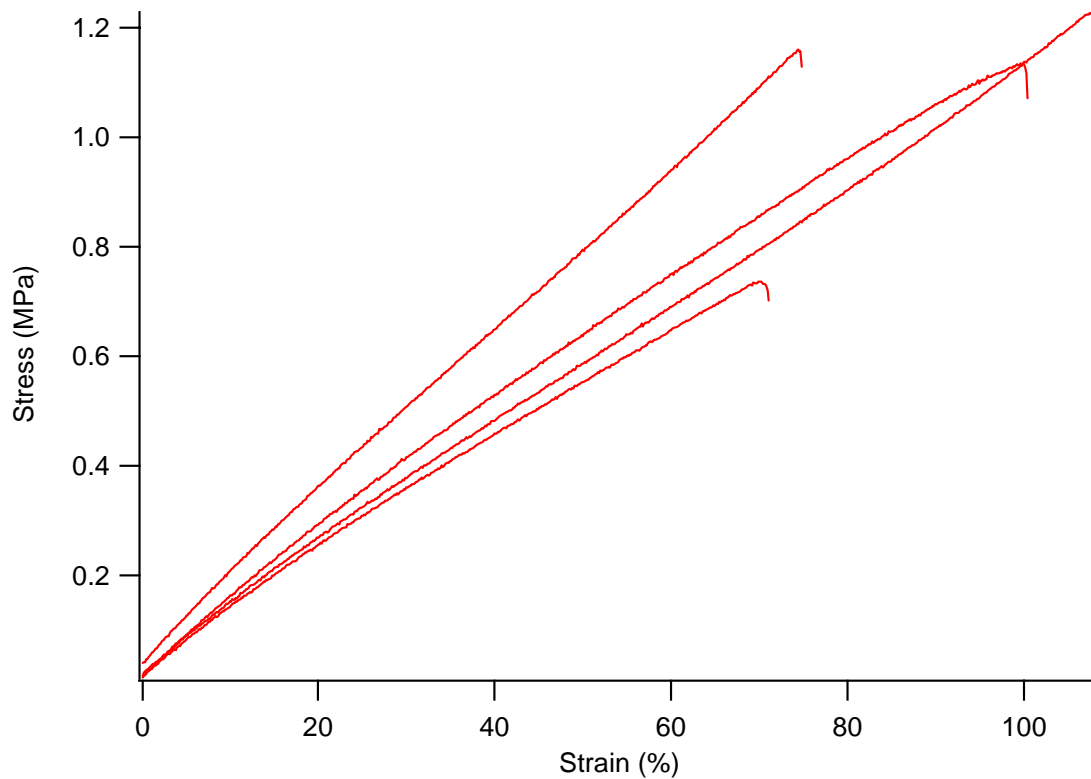


Figure 37. Representative Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA-BMA-EGPEM networks.

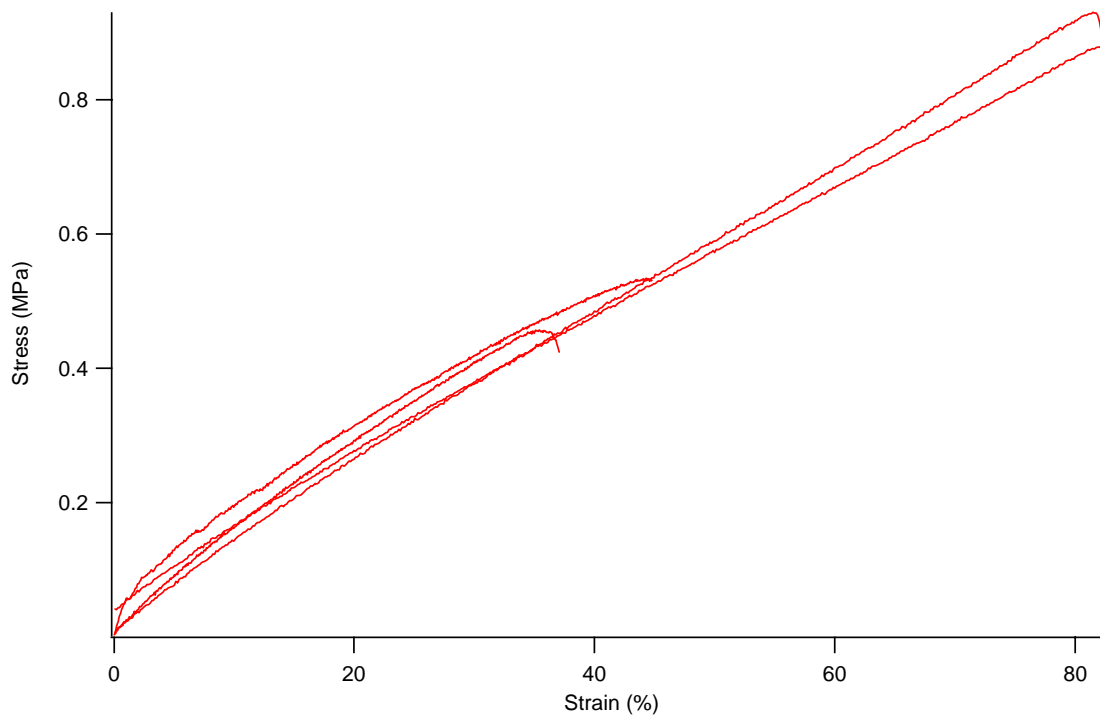


Figure 38. Representative Stress-Strain curves of PEGDMA-BMA-tBA networks.

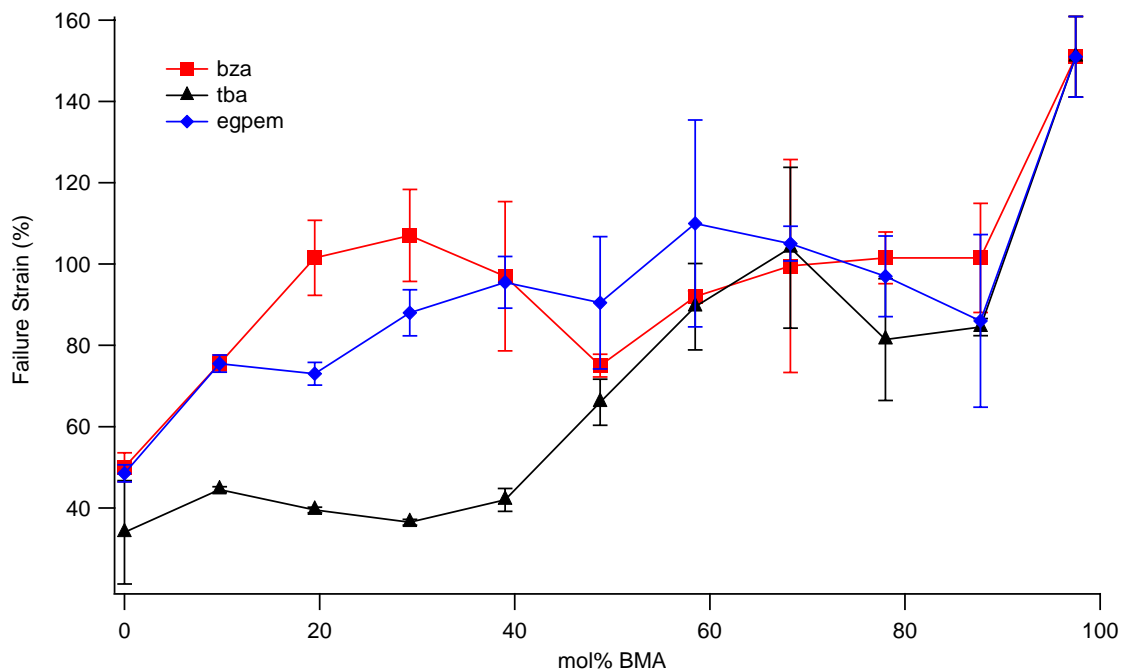


Figure 39. Failure strain as a function of mol % BMA-co-3rd monomer.

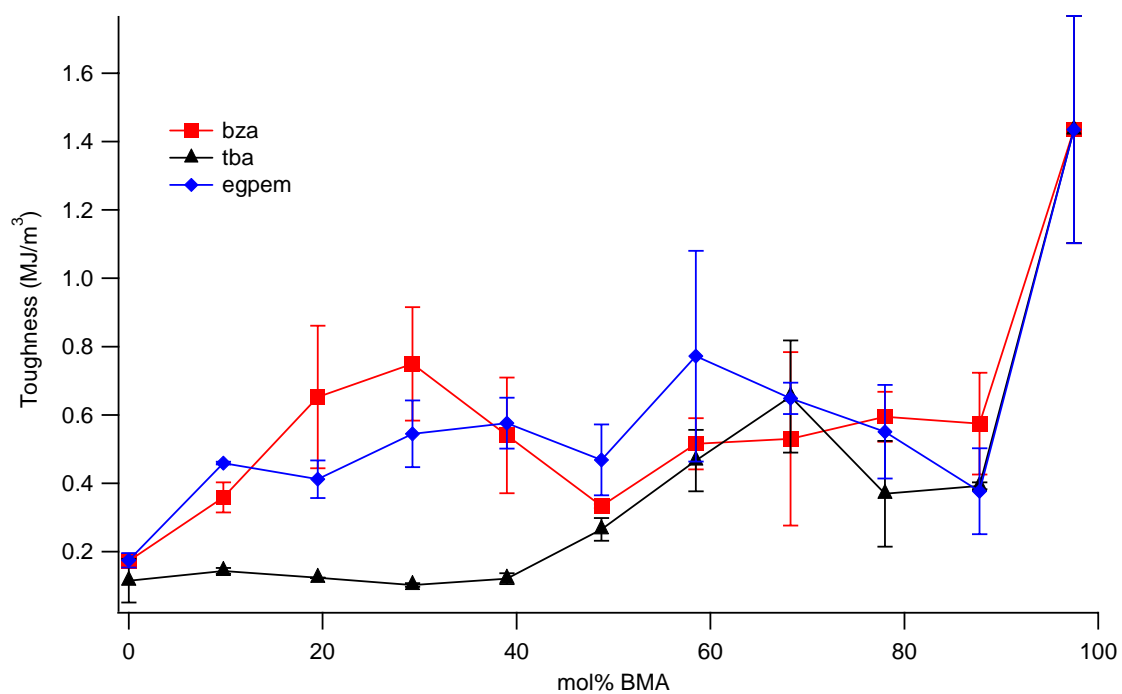


Figure 40. Toughness as a function of mol% BMA-co-3rd monomer.

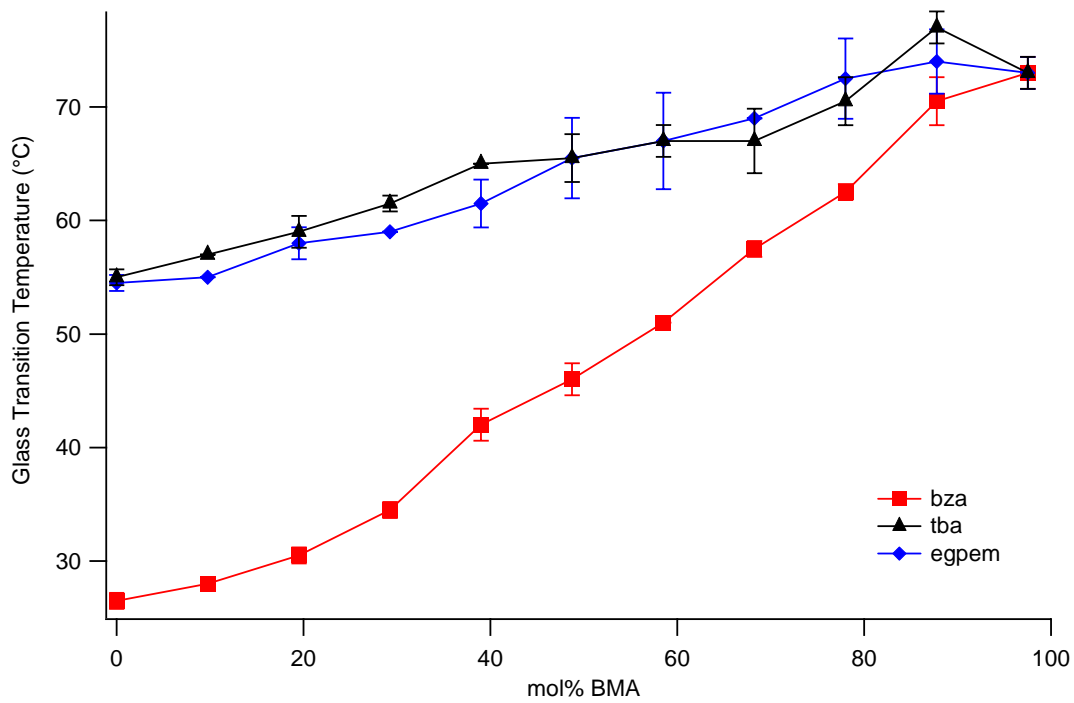


Figure 41. Glass Transition Temperature as a function of mol% BMA-co-3rd monomer.

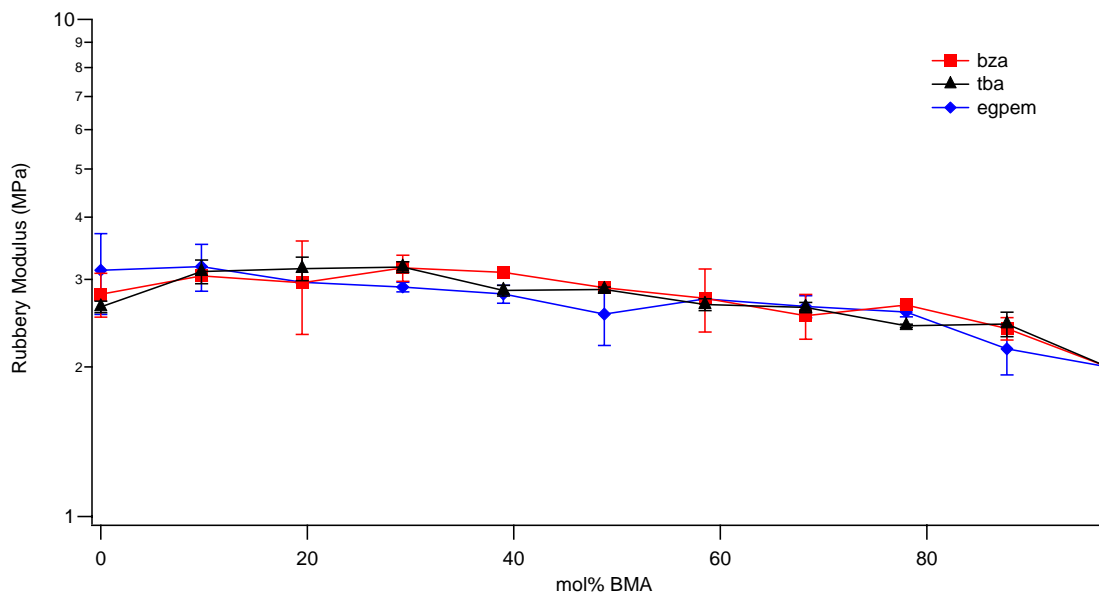


Figure 42. Rubbery Modulus as a function of mol% BMA-co-3rd monomer.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Polymer networks based on (meth)acrylate monomers have the potential for a broad range of thermo-mechanical properties as demonstrated in prior work and were reproduced for the large set of materials herein. In order to understand the role of various component of these networks, mono-functional and multi-functional (meth)acrylates were used to synthesize a broad array of polymer networks. Structure-property relationships were determined in these networks by studying their thermo-mechanical transitions and stress-strain response for systematically varied monomer functionalities, concentrations, and chemistries.

By holding crosslinker concentration constant, the effect of the mono-functional (meth)acrylate chemistry on the networks properties was determined. Chain stiffness and cohesive energy are the main influences on T_g , but conformational motion, crosslinking, and other factors also participate^[30]. The mono-functional (meth)acrylates with long sidegroups had the lowest T_g as may be expected based on the reduction of steric hindrance due to the high flexibility of the methylene and ester groups^[51]. As the sidegroup length decreased and α -methyl side groups were added, the T_g increased due primarily to local steric hindrance of segmental motion and increased cohesive energy between chains^[52]. The effects are clear when combining the structures in Table A1 with the T_g data from Table 8. Even though these (meth)acrylates all have the same backbone, the sidegroup structure determines the T_g , and similar results in epoxies can be seen where changing the chemical structure of the amine changes the T_g ^{[22],[53]}. In summary,

the combination of both α -methyl groups and short, rigid pendant groups on each side of the chain's backbone increases the T_g as can be seen in MMA and IMA.

In order to understand the effect of the crosslinker functionality on the networks, the mono-functional acrylate, tBA, was held constant and polymerized with various crosslinkers. By increasing the functionality of the network, the heterogeneity of the network increases as does the crosslinking density as measured by the rubbery modulus. This can be seen in Figure 8, where the spread of the $\tan \delta$ increases as the rubbery modulus increases. The most identifiable trend was the relationship between the crosslinkers' functionality and E_r . It is known that as the crosslinkers' functionality increases, the network crosslink density increases, thus increasing E_r . This trend can also be viewed in Figure 9, where the failure strain is plotted against the E_r . Driven by different crosslinking effectiveness, the 16 networks trade off failure strain and rubbery modulus. The majority of the networks with low E_r had higher failure strains than the high E_r networks. The materials with high E_r due to higher functionality were relatively brittle due to high crosslink density.

Aside from basic thermo-mechanical properties, it is important for some applications, and for deeper fundamental understanding, to examine large strain behavior of the networks. Prior work has examined the effect of varying crosslinker length and concentration on the large strain behavior of acrylate networks^[35]. Here we focus on the reciprocal problem of varying the type of mono-functional monomer with the same crosslinker added in varying concentrations. Five mono-functional monomers were chosen for differences in their transition temperatures, chemical structure, C_∞ and CED values.

In order to determine an appropriate testing temperature and provide a rough measure of crosslink density, T_g and E_r were measured for all five materials across all crosslink densities. Representative data for the systems is presented in Figures 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14. As expected, the E_r decreases as the concentration of the crosslinker decreases in all networks. Since the selected crosslinker has a relatively low T_g value when homopolymerized, the addition of it to all linear monomers serves to reduce T_g while increasing rubbery modulus. At 1 mol% crosslinker, the networks had approached their final T_g , thus further characterization was not continued for the BZA and EGPEM systems. Also, below a 1 mol% crosslinker concentration, the networks start to effectively transition to a thermoplastic, which is signified by a loss of their rubbery modulus plateau. The breadth of the transition from the glassy to rubbery state decreases as the concentration of crosslinker decreases, as is expected because highly crosslinked systems have increased heterogeneity. The results here are consistent with previous studies where concentration of crosslinker was varied in acrylates^[35]. The results in Figures 15 and 17 demonstrate one of the advantages of commercially available (meth)acrylate systems; using combination of linear monomers and crosslinkers, one can independently tailor glass transition temperature and rubbery modulus.

The baseline thermo-mechanical experiments were necessary to assure that the selected test temperature is in the same proximity of an individual composition's T_g and maintain equivalent states of molecular motion during large strain testing. Driven by their potential application, networks are often tested at room temperature, which can impair the development of structure-property relationships^{[48],[54],[55],[56],[57]}. A key finding of the tensile test was the existence of a divergence point, seen in Figure 24 at a rubbery

modulus of 10 MPa. Above 10 MPa, the crosslinking dominates the mechanical properties of the network and a relatively brittle response is observed. Although the choice of the mono-functional monomer has minimal impact on mechanical properties at these high crosslink densities, it will influence T_g of the network and consequently impact mechanical properties at a constant testing temperature. As E_r is decreased below 10 MPa, the large strain mechanical properties of the networks diverge and the capacity for strain and toughness depends on the choice of mono-functional monomer. Soon after entering the mono-functional monomer dominated region, the T_g of each network has reached close to a steady state value and thus there is no correlation between the T_g of the network and the failure strain. This is evident in 2EEM and BZA having lower T_g than tBA, but higher failure strains.

The stress-strain behavior at several rubbery moduli was examined to understand the divergence of the failure strain. In general, the networks transition from brittle to ductile behavior as the E_r decreased as seen in Figure 25. An inherent trade-off between strength and strain is evident in most networks with exception to the BMA network which exhibited strain-hardening. This can be attributed to the reorientation of chains in the tensile direction^[58]. Clearly, as E_r decreases it becomes increasingly important to consider structural parameters of the monofunctional monomers. The failure strain results do not correlate inversely with C_∞ values as is common for thermoplastics. For example the C_∞ value for tBA is significantly lower than C_∞ for BMA although the latter has significantly higher failure strain at equivalent rubbery modulus. This observation implies that the capacity for network backbone chains to coil, as measured by C_∞ , is incapable of predicting failure strain and toughness properties once these chains are

moderately crosslinked. It seems that factors that toughen thermoplastics, such as coilability and high entanglement density are rendered less important due to chemical crosslinking^[38]. From Figure 28, it can be seen that the E_r and E do not exactly match, but differ by a factor of 1.677. Using the CED values calculated according to Van Krevelen and Fedors, E could be calculated using either Equation 13 or Equation 14 as seen in Table 10. These values of E are 10^3 times higher than the values of E_r . This is expected because Equation 13 and Equation 14 apply to the polymer at temperatures below T_g . Modified equations need to be developed to predict CED from E or E_r at temperatures near or above T_g , but must also take into account the crosslinking density of the network. On the other hand, the CED may be used for relative comparison to determine if a material will strain farther through enhanced network toughness, as seen by combining Table 7 and the trends from Figure 24. For example, networks with phenyl rings exhibit higher failure strains as the E_r decreases due to the increasing CED. Thus, in networks, which have chemical crosslinks dominating deformability, strain to failure can be enhanced through improved toughness by increasing CED between chains.

Toughness was evaluated because of its importance for producing high recovery forces and high strains. Similar to failure strain, toughness diverges at 10 MPa, as seen in Figure 26. The toughness was near constant as E_r varied below 10 MPa due to the trade-off between strength and strain. Due to the strain hardening that is observable in the stress strain behavior, BMA has the highest toughness within this region while the other linear monomers have the same lower amount of toughness. The parameter C_∞ further breaks down when examining network toughness. From Figure 27, BZA, EGPEM, and 2EEM have different calculated C_∞ , but exhibit similar levels of toughness. Therefore, C_∞ is not

applicable as a measure of toughness in (meth)acrylate networks, even at low crosslink densities.

In order to verify the *inherently* superior mechanical properties of BMA networks, the test temperature should be ruled out as a factor affecting mechanical properties. To assure test temperature was not a factor in comparison of the networks, PEGDMA550-co-BMA and PEGDMA550-co-tBA at the same mol% crosslinker, were tested over a wide temperature range. These two materials were chosen because their failure strains and test temperatures differed by 100% and by more than 10°C, respectively. Considering a sweep of test temperatures, the PEGDMA550-co-BMA network has an inherent capacity for more deformation as seen in Figure 31 and Figure 32. Conclusive structure-property relationships were made using relative temperatures from T_g . The $T-T_g$ indicates the temperature at which the maximum failure strain will occur, not which network will strain farther. Thus, the choice of mono-functional monomer controls the strain capacity under identical conditions of crosslinking density and relative test temperature.

To ascertain the influence of different mono-functional monomers on mechanical properties, binary mixtures of mono-functional monomers with constant crosslinker concentration were formulated. With the BMA network as an upper bound of properties, the failure strain and toughness rise as BMA concentration increases, seen in Figure 39 and 40. The properties of the BMA-BZA mixtures increase as the concentration of the α -methyl group increases, suggesting that the increased steric hindrance from the α -methyl group affects the mechanical properties. Likewise, the properties of the BMA-EGPEM mixtures increase as the phenyl ring is moved closer to the backbone by the subtraction

of flexible ethylene glycol groups. Given these two trends, the transition from 100% tBA to 100% BMA is significant because both α -methyl and phenyl ring groups are being added to the network with increased BMA concentration. tBA lacks substantial deformation capacity because the failure strain and toughness do not increase until the majority of the network is BMA. Selection of materials can be guided by combining the failure strain, toughness, and T_g as a function of concentration, available in Figure 41. BMA-EGPEM and BMA-tBA have different mechanical properties at low concentrations of BMA, but have similar T_g throughout the systems. Therefore, the mechanical properties are governed by the monomer structure, not the T_g , at constant crosslinker concentration.

A method to theoretically predict (meth)acrylate network properties based upon the *chemistry and structure* has yet to be established. From this study, properties such as failure strain, toughness, T_g , and E_r can be tailored by varying the components of the network. The macromolecular parameter C_∞ is incapable of predicting failure strain and toughness in moderately crosslinked networks while CED can be used with moderate success in acrylate networks. New predictive parameters need to be developed or previous ones augmented to take into account key characteristics of network structure. For instance, the monomer structure dominates the network in the glassy region and can be treated like a thermoplastic, while the crosslinked structure, not the individual monomer components, controls the properties of the material in the rubbery region. The viscoelastic region is of great importance because shape-memory polymers rely on approaching their T_g for actuation. In this region, both the monomer and network structure play a role in the properties of the material^[48] as was demonstrated here.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The T_g of (meth)acrylate networks increases by adding α -methyl groups and moving bulky sidegroups close to the backbone. The crosslinking density rises as the functionality of crosslinkers increases, thus increasing the E_r and lowering failure strain. By varying chemistry and crosslinking density, a divergence point is revealed, which delineates the crosslink-dominated region from the mono-functional monomer-dominated region. C_∞ was not an accurate predictor of network mechanical properties, particularly failure strain and toughness at equivalent crosslink density. However, CED provided relative estimates of network strain to failure and toughness. (Meth)acrylates with phenyl rings close to the backbone proved to have superior large-strain mechanical properties. This was confirmed across a range of temperatures and by ternary polymer systems. This study provides insight into relating structure-mechanical property relationships in (meth)acrylates, but an encompassing theory for the prediction of large-strain properties of networks of mono-functional and di-functional (meth)acrylates that incorporates chemical structure needs further study.

APPENDIX A

CHEMICAL STRUCTURES, MOLECULAR WEIGHTS, AND CONVERSIONS

Table A1. Mono-functional Monomers

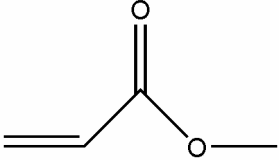
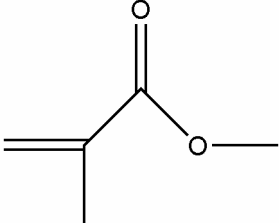
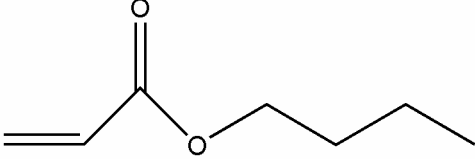
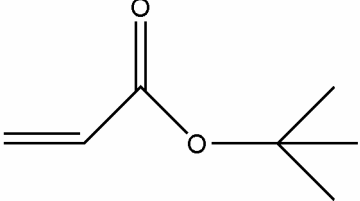
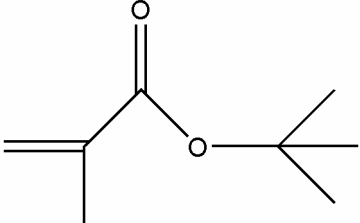
Monomer	Structure	Molecular weight(g/mol)
Methyl acrylate (MA)		86.09
Methyl methacrylate (MMA)		100.12
Butyl acrylate (BA)		128.17
tert-Butyl acrylate (tBA)		128.17
tert-Butyl methacrylate (tBMA)		142.20

Table A1. Continued

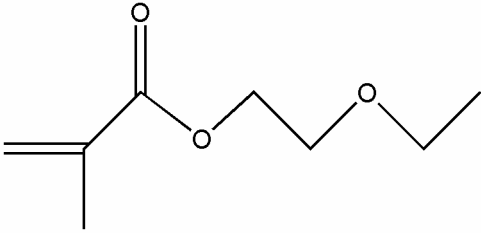
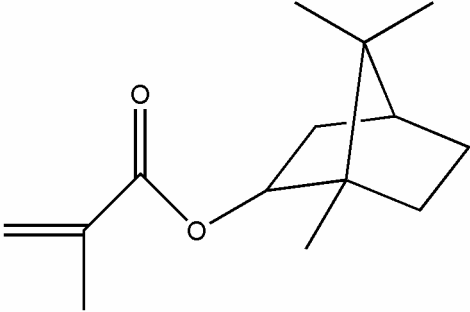
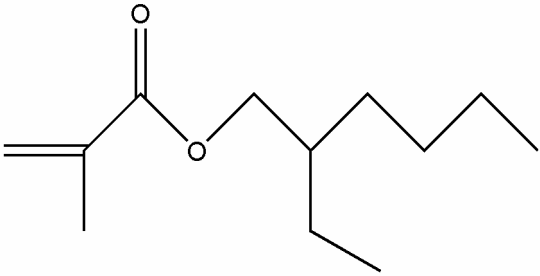

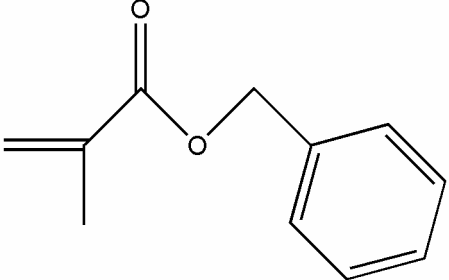
2-Ethoxyethyl methacrylate (2EEM)		158.19
Isobornyl methacrylate (IMA)		222.32
2-Ethylhexyl methacrylate (2EHM)		198.3
Isodecyl acrylate (IA)		212.33
Benzyl methacrylate (BMA)		176.21

Table A1. Continued

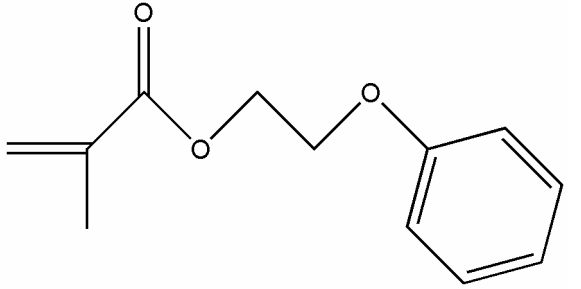
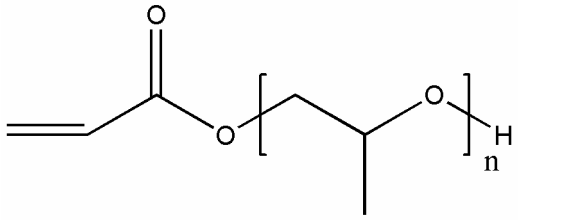
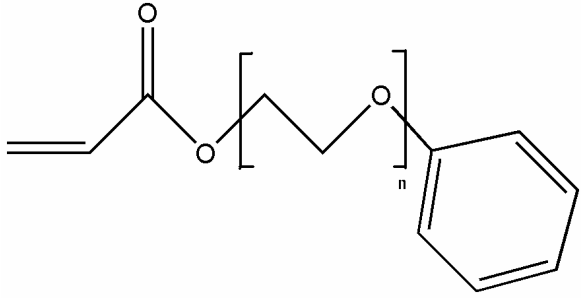
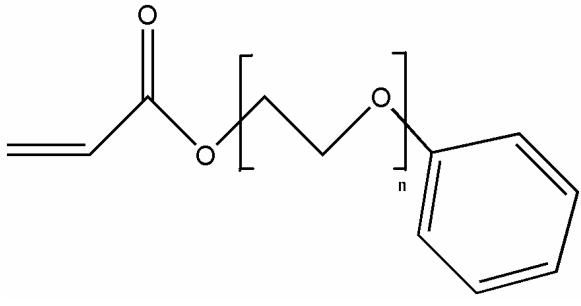
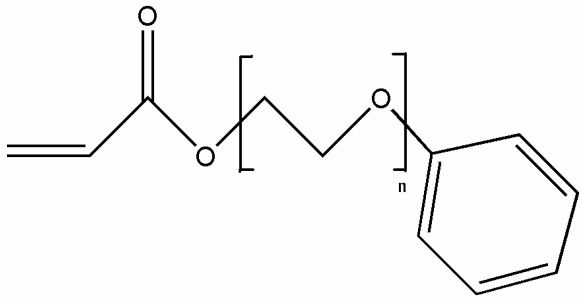
Ethylene glycol phenyl ether methacrylate (EGPEM)		206.24
Poly(propylene glycol) acrylate (PPGA)		547
Poly(ethylene glycol) phenyl ether acrylate M _n 236 (PEGPEA236)		384
Poly(ethylene glycol) phenyl ether acrylate M _n 280 (PEGPEA280)		428
Poly(ethylene glycol) phenyl ether acrylate M _n 324 (PEGPEA324)		472

Table A1. Continued

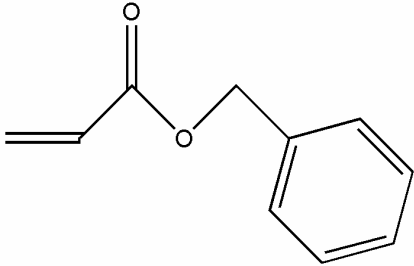
Benzyl acrylate (BZA)		162.2
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Table A2. Multi-functional Monomers

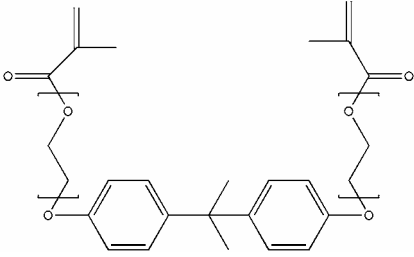
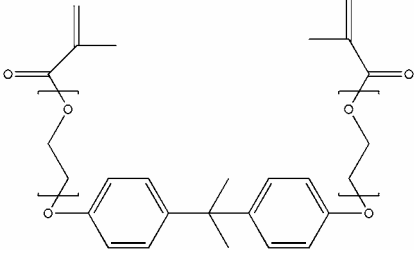
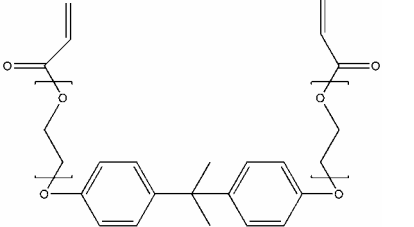
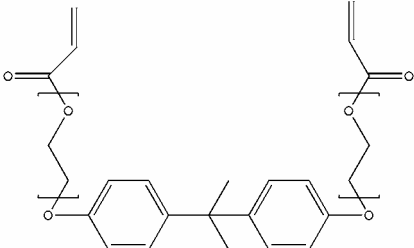
Monomer	Structure	Molecular Weight
Bisphenol A ethoxylate dimethacrylate M_n 1700 (BPA1700)		~1700
Bisphenol A ethoxylate dimethacrylate M_n 540 (BPA540)		~540
Bisphenol A ethoxylate diacrylate M_n 688 (BPA688)		~688
Bisphenol A ethoxylate diacrylate M_n 512 (BPA512)		~512

Table A2. Continued

Bisphenol A ethoxylate diacrylate M_n 468 (BPA468)		~468
Neopentyl glycol propoxylate diacrylate (NGPDA)		328
1,6-Hexanediol diacrylate (HEXDA)		226
Poly(ethylene glycol) dimethacrylate M_n 550 (PEGDMA550)		704
Pentaerythritol triacylate (PETA)		298

Table A2. Continued

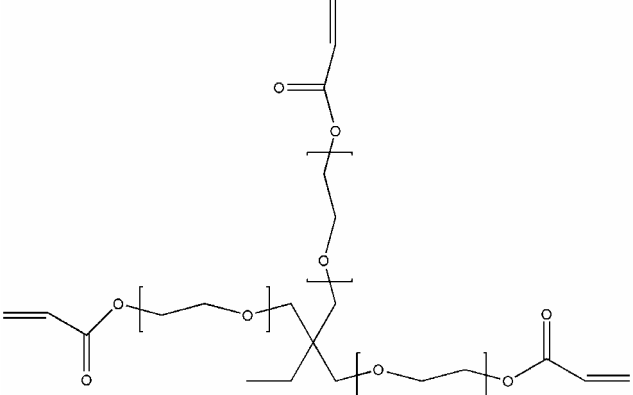
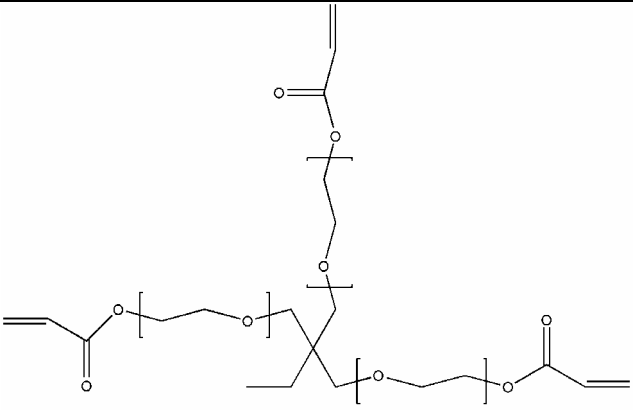
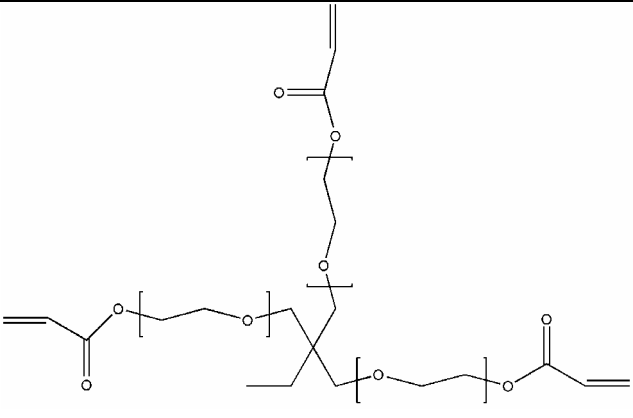
<p>Trimethylolpropane ethoxylate triacylate M_n 428 (TETA428)</p>		<p>~428</p>
<p>Trimethylolpropane ethoxylate triacylate M_n 604 (TETA604)</p>		<p>~604</p>
<p>Trimethylolpropane ethoxylate triacylate M_n 912 (TETA912)</p>		<p>~912</p>

Table A2. Continued

<p>Trimethylolpropane propoxylate triacrylate (TPTA)</p>		<p>~644</p>
<p>Glycerol propoxylate triacrylate (GPTA)</p>		<p>~428</p>
<p>Di(trimethylolpropane) tetraacrylate (DTTA)</p>		<p>466</p>
<p>Dipentaerythritol penta/hexaacrylate (DPPHA)</p>		<p>524</p>

Table A3. Wt% Conversion of Ternary Networks of PEGDMA550-BMA-BZA

Wt% PEGDMA550	Wt% BMA	Wt% BZA
0.094	0.822	0.084
0.094	0.736	0.169
0.095	0.649	0.256
0.096	0.560	0.344
0.096	0.471	0.433
0.097	0.379	0.524
0.098	0.287	0.616
0.099	0.193	0.709
0.099	0.097	0.804

Table A4. Wt% Conversion of Ternary Networks of PEGDMA-BMA-tBA

Wt% PEGDMA550	Wt% BMA	Wt% tBA
0.095	0.837	0.068
0.098	0.763	0.139
0.100	0.686	0.214
0.103	0.604	0.293
0.106	0.518	0.376
0.109	0.426	0.465
0.112	0.329	0.559
0.116	0.226	0.658
0.120	0.117	0.764

Table A5. Wt% Conversion of Ternary Networks of PEGDMA-BMA-EGPEM

Wt% PEGDMA550	Wt% BMA	Wt% EGPEM
0.092	0.804	0.105
0.090	0.704	0.206
0.089	0.607	0.304
0.088	0.513	0.400
0.086	0.421	0.493
0.085	0.332	0.583
0.084	0.246	0.671
0.083	0.161	0.756
0.082	0.080	0.839

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