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4 **Strain and damage monitoring in carbon-nanotube-based composite under cyclic strain**
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7 **Luigi Vertuccio^{1,*}, Vittoria Vittoria^{1,2}, Liberata Guadagno¹, Felice De Santis¹**
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9 ¹Department of Industrial Engineering – DIIn - University of Salerno
10

11 Via Giovanni Paolo II 132, 84084 Fisciano (SA), Italy
12

13 ²IMAST S.c.ar.l. - Technological District on Engineering of polymeric and composite Materials and
14 Structures, Piazza Bovio 22, 80133 Napoli, Italy
15

16 *lvertuccio@unisa.it; vvittoria@unisa.it; lguadagno@unisa.it; fedesantis@unisa.it*
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21 **Abstract**
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23 The resistive behavior of multi-walled carbon nanotube (MWCNT)/epoxy resins, tested under mechanical
24 cycles and different levels of applied strain, was investigated for specimens loaded in axial tension. The
25 surface normalized resistivity is linear with the strain for volume fraction of MWCNTs between 2.96×10^{-4}
26 and 2.97×10^{-3} (0.05 and 0.5% wt/wt). For values lower than 0.05% wt/wt, close to the electrical
27 percolation threshold (EPT) a non-linear behavior was observed. The strain sensitivity, **in the range**
28 **between 0.67 and 4.45**, may be specifically modified by controlling the nanotube loading, in fact the
29 sensor sensitivity decreases with increasing the carbon nanotubes amount. Microscale damages resulted
30 directly related to the resistance changes and hence easily detectable in a non-destructive way by means
31 of electrical measurements. In the fatigue tests, the damage is expressed through the presence of a
32 residual resistivity, which increases with the amount of plastic strain accumulated in the matrix.
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4 **Keywords**

5 A. Carbon nanotubes

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7 A. Thermosetting resin

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9 B. Electrical properties

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11 D. Mechanical testing

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15 **1. Introduction and background**

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19 Filled polymer can be designed to have many distinct properties that may be exploited to develop the next
20 generation of sensors. In particular, thermosetting and thermoplastic polymer filled with specific nano-
21 structured particles can be manufactured to have integrated electrical, electromagnetic, and possibly other
22 functionalities that work in synergy to provide a new generation of stimuli-responsive materials. This is a
23 revolutionary approach that should lead to the creation of a new generation of sensors with desired
24 properties and design flexibilities.

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30 In this context the sensors of stress/strain play a predominant role in the civil, mechanical and aeronautic
31 engineering fields, in fact, the importance of online structural health monitoring (SHM) is increasing
32 because natural disasters, environmental effects like temperature changes, impact loading and other
33 deteriorating conditions affect the strength and the serviceability of the structures. To prevent any failure
34 of the critical members in advance, various SHM and/or nondestructive evaluation (NDE) techniques
35 such as acceleration-based modal testing, x-ray inspection and ultrasonic inspection have been widely
36 used [1].

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43 In aeronautic engineering fields the fiber reinforced polymers (FRPs) are structural materials, specifically
44 designed for lightweight constructions, for which extremely high mechanical performances are generally
45 expected [2]. Since the breakage of composite structures often occurs by interfacial delamination and/or
46 matrix cracking, the investigation of reliable methods for the failure detection in FRPs has recently
47 attracted the interest of both the scientific and industrial community. Therefore, experimental techniques
48 for the in situ monitoring of the strain and/or damage behavior of composite structures could represent an
49 important aspect to increase their reliability. Both traditional methods (based on the application of strain
50 gauges and piezoelectrics) and innovative monitoring techniques (i.e. through fiber optics) usually make
51 use of sensors that, placed either inside or outside the structure, are invasive and relatively expensive [3].
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4 A new possible approach to solve such a problem consists in the design and construction of polymeric
5 materials designed with the required properties. Polymeric materials filled with conductive nanofillers
6 such as carbon nanotubes (CNTs) or other carbon nanostructured forms or magnetic nanoparticles show
7 very interesting properties that can be applied in the field of sensing devices.
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11 To date, two types of resistance-type strain sensors have been developed, i.e., CNT buckypaper sensors
12 and sensors made from various polymer composites with different fillers, including SWCNTs,
13 multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) and carbon nanofibers. The advantage of these novel
14 composite sensors, which is of primary importance, is the higher sensitivity compared to conventional
15 strain sensors such as metal-foil strain gauges [4].
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19 Baughman et al. [5] first reported the electromechanical actuation behavior of nanotubes. Inherent
20 coupling of electrical and mechanical properties makes nanotubes excellent candidates for in situ sensors.
21 Recent reports have utilized nanotubes-based materials as electromechanical actuators [6, 7] and in a
22 variety of sensing applications, [8] including mass sensors [9], humidity sensors [10], and strain sensors
23 [11, 12].
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27 Long-term durability and performance of advanced fiber composites are governed by properties of the
28 polymer matrix and the fiber/matrix interface [13].
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32 Using electrical techniques has been established as a non-invasive way to monitor damage in carbon-
33 fiber-reinforced composites under static and dynamic loading conditions [14-17]. This approach does not
34 give much insight into matrix-dominated mechanisms of fracture that affect durability and is not
35 applicable to composites where fibers are non-conducting (such as glass or aramid fibers). Thostenson et
36 al. [18] bypass the problem, in fact they process glass fiber–epoxy composites and utilize multi-walled
37 nanotubes dispersed in the epoxy phase as distributed sensors to evaluate the onset and evolution of
38 damage in advanced fibrous composites.
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42 Another advantage of CNTs is that the resin filled with CNTs reaches the electrical percolation threshold
43 (EPT) with very low percentage of filler. In particular, it was found that the EPT is closely related to
44 chemical nature of the polymeric matrix and the procedure used to disperse the nanofiller inside the
45 polymer [19, 20]. The EPT can be lower than 0.3% wt/wt for polymeric matrix based on epoxy resins or
46 epoxy mixtures [19, 21, 22].
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50 The highest sensitivity in composite type sensor is obtained near the percolation threshold due to the
51 tunnelling effect between adjacent CNTs and decreases with further increase of carbon-nanotube loading
52 [23-25]. This makes the performance of composite sensors highly dependent on processing conditions
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4 and material properties such as CNT volume fraction and conductance, curing temperature, mixing rate
5 and barrier height of polymer matrix [23, 26]. To some extent, the overall performance can be dominated
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7 by matrix properties rather than the intrinsic characteristics of CNTs.
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10 In this paper, the resistive behavior of multi-walled carbon nanotubes (CNTs) embedded inside an epoxy
11 matrix based on diglycidyl ether of bisphenol A was investigated for samples loaded in axial tension and
12 in fatigue tests, in which the samples were subjected to increases/decreases of strain, and the synchronism
13 of the resistive response was checked. The dependence of the performance of composite sensor, on CNT
14 volume fraction has been evaluated.
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17 The aim was to put in evidence the dependence of the composite sensor performance on CNT volume
18 fraction, and to quantitatively estimate the minimum concentration of carbon-nanotubes able to impart
19 reproducible sensing properties to the composite. This concentration, (beyond the EPT), can allow to
20 manufacture a sensor which meets some requirements of the sensor such as: high sensibility, reliability
21 and reversible response.
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28 29 30 **2. Experimental section** 31

32 33 **2.1 Materials and sample preparation** 34

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36 The epoxy resins diglycidyl ether of bisphenol A (DGEBA), the hardener 4,4 diaminodiphenylsulfone
37 (DDS) were supplied by Aldrich Chemicals. Multi-walled carbon nanotubes, 3100 Grade, (CNTs) were
38 obtained from Nanocyl S.A. The morphological parameters of the MWCNTs has been carried out by high
39 resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM). Most of MWCNTs show an outer diameter from
40 10 to 30 nm, but also an outer diameter lower than 10 nm or larger than 80 nm has been observed.
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44 Nanotubes length is from hundreds of nm to one mm. Number of walls, varies from 4 to 20 in most
45 nanotubes [27]. The weight ratio between epoxy precursor and DDS was 10/2.85; they were mixed at
46 120 °C and the fillers powder were added and dispersed with high power ultrasonic probe (*Hielscher*
47 model UP200S-24kHz) for 20 minutes. The mixtures were cured at 150 °C for 1 hour followed by 3
48 hours at (220 °C). The samples are coded as Epoxy-XCNT, where X is the carbon nanotube
49 concentration, (for example Epoxy-1.0CNT means a concentration of CNTs of 1% wt/wt).
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54 The prepared samples are summarized in the Table 1.
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57 To evaluate the volume fraction of CNTs inside the filled samples, the following equation was used
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$$f = \left(\frac{w}{\rho_{MWCNT}} \right) \bigg/ \left(\frac{w}{\rho_{MWCNT}} + \frac{(1-w)}{\rho_{Epoxy}} \right) \quad (1)$$

were w is the weight fraction of carbon nanotubes, ρ_{MWCNT} the carbon nanotubes density (2.09 g/cm³) [28], and ρ_{epoxy} the matrix density (1.237 g/cm³).

The density of epoxy resin was evaluated by floating method using mixtures of chloroform ($\rho=1.481$ g/cm³) and n-hexane ($\rho=0.656$ g/cm³). Before density measurement, a part of epoxy resin was dried, in an oven at 50 °C, and allowed to cool to room temperature in a dryer. After density measurement, the epoxy resin was reweighed, to the nearest 0.1 mg, in order to exclude any possible absorption.

2.2 Electrical conductivity and mechanical measurement

In order to characterize the electrical resistance of the samples, a 2-wire method was used, where the voltage was applied by *HP* E3631A 80W Triple Output Power Supply and the current was measured by a *HP* 34401A multimeter. All measurements were performed in direct current (DC) mode, at room temperature. Two copper cables were used as electrodes, they were cemented on the sample surface using silver paint on one side of the specimen. The cables were centered at the mid-span of the silver painted surface of the specimen, at a distance of 10 mm as shown in Fig. 7. The contact resistance was considered negligible, since the measured electrical resistance was in the order of k Ω . The four-probe method could be more accurate, but the two-probe method was used because it is a simpler method to be carried out for the evaluation of the resistance during tensile test, and this method has successfully been applied [29-31].

The surface resistivity ρ_s (in Ω /sq units) was calculated as

$$\rho_s = \frac{R \cdot W}{L} \quad (2)$$

where R is the surface resistance in Ω , W is the electrode length and L is the distance between electrodes.

The volume electrical resistivity was carried out according to Cabot Test Method (CTM) E043 based on ASTM D4496. Two silver paint electrodes located at the sample edges were used. The specimen length was 30 mm with 5 mm long electrodes, leaving an effective span (L) of 10 mm between the silver electrodes, The specimen width was 10 mm and its nominal thickness was 750 μ m. In order to minimize surface effects in the measurements, silver paint electrodes were painted completely covering the ends of the specimens. A DC voltage of 25 V was applied between the electrodes and the volume electrical

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4 conductivity (σ_e) was calculated using the measured electrical resistance (R) and the specimen
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6 dimensions as

$$\sigma_e = \frac{L}{A \cdot R} \quad (3)$$

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10 where A is the cross-sectional area of the specimen.

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13 In order to investigate the effects of applied tensile strain on surface resistivity, the epoxy composites
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15 sample, in rectangular geometry were tested in axial tension. The specimens were 80 mm long, with
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17 10 mm and 2 mm thickness. The displacement was applied to the composite by means of the machine
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19 cross-head motion at a speed of 2 kN/min, while the corresponding force was measured by the machine
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21 load cell and converted to axial stress (σ). Mechanical strain (ϵ) was calculated as the machine crosshead
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23 displacement normalized by the gage length of the test specimen. Two copper wires were connected on
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25 the film surface with silver paint on both sides of the specimen, to act as electrodes. Each sample type
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27 was first tested up to failure with the aim of evaluating the strain range corresponding to the elastic and
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29 plastic behavior. Tensile tests were performed on the samples using a dynamometric apparatus INSTRON
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31 (model 4301).

32 33 34 **3 Results and discussion**

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38 Surface resistivity and volume conductivity of the rectangular samples was first measured without
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40 applying any strain. Fig. 1 shows inverse of surface resistivity, $1/\rho_0$, on the left axis, and volume electrical
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42 conductivity, σ_e , on the right axis as a function of the volume fraction of CNTs, where ρ_0 is the initial
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44 surface resistivity without load.

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46 It is clear that the dispersion of CNTs into the polymer resin significantly increases the conductivity as
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48 expected. In fact, the effect of CNTs on the electrical conductivity of epoxy polymers is well-known in
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50 literature [20, 21, 32-45]. The conduction in CNTs composites has been explained by considering that
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52 conductive paths, causing the material to convert from an insulator to a conductor, are formed in the
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54 composite when the CNT concentration v increases over a threshold value v_c . The percolation theory
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56 describes the dependence of the conductivity σ on the filler concentration by a scaling law of the form

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 (v - v_c)^t \quad (4)$$

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4 where v_c is the percolation threshold and t an exponent depending on the system dimensionality [19, 20,
5 34-40, 46-48]. In particular, Bauhofer et al. [19], based on a global survey of the data available in the
6 literature, presented some general results concerning a systematic correlation characteristics of materials
7 (polymeric matrices, the CNTs type, method of synthesis, processing, etc.) and parameters which describe
8 the law percolation.
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10 As shown in Fig. 1, the composite exhibit the typical abrupt increase of the conductivity predicted by the
11 percolation theory, with the electrical percolation $f_c \leq 1.48 \times 10^{-4}$ volume fraction (0.015% wt/wt). The
12 value 6.73×10^{-7} volume fraction of the electric percolation threshold (f_c) was obtained by best fitting of
13 the experimental data with the Eq. 4, shown in terms of the inverse of the surface resistivity and volume
14 fraction in the inset in Fig. 1.
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16 In order to observe a direct relationship between strain and change in surface resistivity, the following
17 normalized quantity, defined as normalized surface resistivity, was introduced:
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$$\rho^* = \frac{\rho - \rho_0}{\rho_0} \quad (5)$$

19 where ρ_0 is the resistivity as previously defined. Finally to quantify this phenomenon, sensitivity factor
20 (SF), modeled after that of conventional strain gages (also known as gage factor) was adopted the Eq. (6),
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$$SF = \frac{\Delta R}{R_0 \varepsilon} \quad (6)$$

22 where ΔR is the change in electrical resistance, R_0 is the value of electrical resistance before loading and ε
23 is the measured strain. The mechanical tests were carried out on samples loaded in the range of weight
24 percentages [0.025÷0.5] (see Table 1). In particular, the sample was tested with increasing strain cycles,
25 in which for each elongation was evaluated the electrical resistance. At the end of the electrical
26 measurement the sample was returned to its initial conditions (no load).
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28 Fig. 2 shows the stress-strain behavior cycles for sample Epoxy-0.1CNT. The number of cycles varies for
29 each sample, in fact an increase of the amount of carbon nanotubes leads to a decrease of the strain at
30 break and a lower number of cycles obtained; a similar behavior is found in previous paper [49]. In
31 particular, the sample Epoxy-0.1CNT reaches the maximum around 3.5% wt/wt and then undergoes the
32 break following in the successive cycle (8th cycle, not shown in Fig. 2); the cycles are shifted along the x
33 axis for a better reading of the strain for each cycle. A similar mechanical behavior was observed for
34 samples filled with other CNTs percentages.
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4 Figs. 3 and 4 show a direct relationship between the strain and the change in normalized surface
5 resistivity (ρ^*) for all the samples with the weight percentage of CNTs between 0.025 and 0.500; surface
6 resistivity proportionally increases with increasing tensile strain. This can be explained by noting that, for
7 a conductor-filled polymer to be electrically conductive, the filler particles must either touch to form
8 conductive paths, or be sufficiently close to each other to enable conductance via “tunneling effect” [50,
9 51]. Conductivity (or resistivity) of a given polymer/filler system therefore is dictated by the number of
10 contact points and the distances between neighboring particles. Since applied tensile strain likely causes
11 loss of contact and widening of the inter-particle distances, hence reducing the current-carrying ability of
12 conductive network and resulting in higher electrical resistance. A very similar scenario was suggested in
13 a number of studies on carbon black-filled rubber composites, where significant rise in resistivity was
14 observed in samples subjected to high tensile strains, from tens to a few hundred percents [52-54]. It
15 should be noted that, in the case of CNTs, tensile strain could also cause realignment of the CNTs,
16 making the network more conductive after removing tensile load. This effect was explained in several
17 experiments with carbon fiber–polymer composite laminates [55, 56]. However, in the case of CNTs,
18 considering their smaller sizes with respect to carbon fibers, and the weak interaction with the polymeric
19 matrix, a such effect should be dwarfed by the increase in resistivity due to the aforementioned tensile
20 strain-induced disruption of conductive network. In Fig. 3, it is evident that the slope of the curve
21 increases with decreasing CNT loading, indicating that the sample responds more sensitively at a lower
22 carbon-nanotube content. It is worth noting that ρ^* shows a linear trend with ϵ for samples with weight
23 percentage of CNTs between 0.050 and 0.500. A similar behavior was reported by Ku-Herrera and Aviles
24 [30] with carbon/vinyl ester composites and by Njuguna et al. [57] with carbon nanotubes sandwiched
25 epoxy resins. A non-linear behavior was observed by Hu et al. [4, 23] for carbon nanofiller/polymer
26 composite fabricated by in *situ* polymerization. In particular, they report for their formulations a very
27 interesting ultrahigh strain sensitivity [4]. In this last case, the epoxy matrix was obtained by mixing the
28 bisphenol-F epoxy resin and an amine hardener; as nanofiller they used MWCNTs and vapor growth
29 carbon fibers (VGCFs) with nickel, copper and silver coatings. They found an exponential relationship of
30 ρ^* with ϵ . This different trend was explained considering the changes in tunneling resistance and the
31 distance among neighboring CNTs [23, 26, 58-63].

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Now, through the data shown in the present paper, we are able to better understand this different behavior
for sensors that can rich very high values of strain sensitivity; in fact, for the same epoxy matrix
(DGEBA) and nature of the nanofiller (MWCNTs – grade 3100) different trends are observed depending

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4 on the CNT concentration. A nonlinear behavior was obtained for the sample filled with a very low
5 concentration of CNTs (0.025% wt/wt) as it can be seen in Fig. 4.
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8 The reason of this non-linear trend can be understood in light of the previous papers and our results. In
9 fact, data here shown, highlight that a nanofiller concentration very close to the EPT, as the investigated
10 concentration of 0.025% wt/wt (Fig.4), determines a non linear trend because the conductivity is very
11 sensitive to the changes in tunneling resistance and the distance among neighboring CNTs. If we consider
12 this result considering the
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As expected, the influence of the electrical contacts and the changes in the tunneling resistance on the
conductivity of the nanocomposite is less important beyond the EPT, due to the very high number of
electrical contacts or spatial domains able to promote the tunneling effect among neighboring CNTs.

In the case of our sensors, even if the behavior of the sensor under tensile strain has been studied for high
values ϵ of strain, compared to those obtained from Hu et al. (strain<0.6%) [4, 23], the trends are similar,
in fact, for high concentrations of nanotubes, the behavior of the resistance change ratio versus the strain
is linear, whereas it exponentially increases as the concentration approaches the percolation threshold.
Concluding, the sensitivity obtained by Eq. 6, as shown in Fig. 5, decreases as the content of carbon
nanotubes increases. The evaluation of the SF of the sample, shown in Fig. 4, was obtained in the first
linear section, in other words SF was obtained for a strain lower than 1.5%.

A similar behavior has been observed by Park et al. [25]: a semi-empirical model, based on the
percolation theory, was developed to identify the relationship between applied strain and sensitivity
factor. The model suggested that the sensitivity can be tailored over a broad range by varying MWNT
loading, matrix type and sample fabrication method. In particular, Park et al. assert that in highly strain-
sensitive material can be obtained when the MWNT loading approaches the percolation threshold.

Tensile tests carried out by increasing the strain proved to be very suitable to identify the potential of the
filled systems for the sensing of stresses/strains and occurring damage. Fig. 6 shows exemplary courses of
stress and strain over time for the chosen testing procedure; the measurement was performed on the
specimens containing 0.05% wt/wt (Fig. 6A) and 0.1% wt/wt (Fig.6B) of CNTs. Each sample was
subjected to tensile loading cycles, with increasing strain per cycle. At the end of each cycle, the
crosshead returns in the initial position ($\epsilon=0$). In particular the crosshead displaces at a speed of 1

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4 mm/min up to a predetermined strain, the crosshead remains in this position for 1 minute and then it
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6 returns in the initial position in which it remains for 2 minutes. The cycle is repeated in the same
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8 conditions for 5 times. The following cycles are repeated at a predetermined strain higher than the
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10 previous. The fatigue test carried out up to a failure of sample.

11 Experiments have been carefully performed: at this purpose the experiments were performed on samples
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13 marked in the proximity of the grips, and for all the test no slippage was observed. In particular, the local
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15 deformation was detected by recording photographically the displacement of marks [31]. The schematic
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17 diagram of a single cycle is shown in Fig. 7.

18 To verify the reversibility of sensor response in tensile mode, samples were subjected to
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20 increases/decreases of strain, and the synchronism of the resistive response was checked (Fig. 8A and
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22 Fig. 8B). During the mechanical test, the samples were subjected to constant voltage in order to evaluate
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24 the temporal variations of the resistivity. The sample containing 0.05% wt/wt MWCNT presents a
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26 number of cycles higher than the sample containing 0.1% wt/wt MWCNTs (see Fig. 6) before the break.
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28 The concentration of the nanofiller inclusion influences the strain at break, and in general CNTs inclusion
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30 in polymeric matrix always decreases the strain at the break [64].
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32 The resistive response of the sample containing 0.1% wt/wt MWCNTs (Fig. 8A) is regular, in fact, the
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34 resistivity variations, at the same value of the strain, show equal values in the ratio $\Delta R/R_0$ (%). It is worth
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36 noting that when the strain exceeds the value of 0.47% (after the fifth loading cycle), a residual resistivity
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38 is detected occurs for the unloaded sample ($\sigma = 0$). This phenomenon is even more relevant for higher
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40 values of strain (see the behavior for $\epsilon=1.77\%$). A similar result was obtained by Böger et al. [65], as they
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42 show the correlation of the emerging residual strain after each cycle with the corresponding irreversible
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44 resistance change.

45 Böger et al [65] report that the incremental tensile tests proved to be very suitable to identify the potential
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47 of the nanocomposite matrix systems for the sensing of stresses/strains and occurring damage. The
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49 samples (conductive nanocomposite epoxy) were subjected to tensile loading cycles, and Böger et al [65]
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51 assert that after the fifth loading cycle, some residual strain occurs when the specimen is unloaded to zero
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53 stress. This residual strain is increasing with each subsequent loading cycle and can be attributed to
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55 plastic matrix deformation and damage occurring.

56 In our case when the crosshead returns to the initial position, for $\epsilon_{\max} < 0.47\%$, $\Delta R/R_0$ practically returns to
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58 zero after each loading cycle, indicating that significant permanent deformation or irreversible damage
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60 has not yet occurred in the composite.
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4 For larger values of ϵ_{\max} , a large residual value of $\Delta R/R_0$ is observed when $\epsilon=0$. Such a value of residual
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6 $\Delta R/R_0$ will be herein referred as “permanent” and labeled $\Delta R_p/R_0$. From Fig. 8A, it is possible to
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8 observed that the ratio $\Delta R_p/R_0$ increases with increasing ϵ_{\max} from a value 0.1% to 0.33%. A similar result
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10 was observed by Ku-Herrera and Aviles [30], indeed the permanent changes in the electrical resistance of
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12 the composite scale with the amount of plastic strain accumulated in the polymer matrix are sensitive to
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14 the loading history.

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16 The resistive response of the sample containing 0.05% wt/wt of MWCNT (Fig. 8B) is irregular; in fact for
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18 $\epsilon < 0.7\%$ the resistive response is not well highlighted. Also, for the subsequent deformation, $\Delta R_p/R_0$ does
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20 not remain constant with the number of cycles. This can be attributed, most likely, to the uneven
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22 distribution of the network of nanotubes. It should be recalled that 0.05% wt/wt is a percentage very close
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24 to the percolation threshold, and for this reason also the distribution of the contacts CNT-CNT is not
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26 uniform as that obtained for the sample containing 0.1% wt/wt of filler. After stretching, the conductive
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28 paths are altered irreversibly, and, when the sample is brought back to zero load, a new path is created
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30 that is associated to $\Delta R_p/R_0$. The value of $\Delta R_p/R_0$ does not remain constant, because the path that is created
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32 in each cycle differs from the previous. In other words, in order to have a regular and reproducible
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34 resistive response during performance of the mechanical cycles, the system must have an amount of
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36 CNT-CNT contacts suitable for reproducing the same residual $\Delta R/R_0$. The value $\Delta R/R_0$ as a function of
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38 the strain for the samples filled with 0.1% wt/wt and 0.05wt/wt of CNT is shown in Fig. 9. The sample
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40 with higher concentration of CNTs shows a linear dependence of $\Delta R/R_0$ with the strain. The composite
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42 sensor filled with 0.05% wt/wt of CNT shows higher $\Delta R/R_0$ values (at the same strain level) than the
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44 sample with lower amount of CNTs, and an exponential relationship. Böger et al. found a similar
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46 behavior [65] for two composites having the same amount of carbon fillers (0.3% wt/wt) but with
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48 different nature of the nanofiller (exponential behavior for carbon black, linear behavior for carbon
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50 nanotubes). They stated that the carbon black composite with a concentration of 0.3% wt/wt is close to
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52 the percolation region and therefore much more sensitive to the applied stress/strain and occurring
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54 damage; whereas, the composite containing 0.3% wt/wt of MWCNTs is far above the percolation
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56 threshold and therefore exhibits a much more redundant conductive network structure. Thus, the
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58 sensitivity of this system vs. damage was lower, compared to the carbon black modified matrix.
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60 In our work the relationship $\Delta R/R_0$ vs ϵ is determined by the amount of carbon nanotubes, in other words,
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62 by the density of conductive pathways.
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4 In particular, Shui and Chung [49] found a similar behavior for a composites having the same amount of
5 carbon fillers (volumetric 7%) but with different size of the filler. They found that, the relationship
6 between $\Delta R/R_0$ and strain, during cyclic loading, of carbon filament PES-matrix composite, is much more
7 linear and less noisy than carbon fiber PES-matrix composite, where PES is polyether sulfone, the carbon
8 fibers and the carbon filaments have diameter 10 μm and 0.15 μm respectively.
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11 In order to explain the phenomenon of electrical conduction in the test cycles, it is possible to consider the
12 filled samples as a system consisting of two conductive paths: a) in the condition of intensive network,
13 where the network consists of a relatively high contact number CNT/CNT, and b) in the condition of
14 sparse network, where it consists of a relatively high contact number CNT/CNT. The effect of strain
15 causes a change in resistance when the sample returns to the initial conditions ($\epsilon=0$), the irreversible
16 breakage of a contact CNT/CNT occurs and the system shows a residual permanent resistance. In the first
17 situation at the end of each cycle, for each rupture of a conductive path, most likely a new conductive
18 contact occurs, hence the value of $\Delta R_p/R_0$ does not change. In condition of sparse network, however, the
19 rate between [number of broken]/[contact number CNT/CNT] changes for each test cycle. This leads to
20 different values of $\Delta R_p/R_0$ at the end of each cycle.
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24 A similar interpretation is also valid to explain the change in the resistance for the same value of the
25 applied strain (see fig. 8B). Thus, ΔR is constant when the system Epoxy/CNT is characterized by an
26 intensive network, variable when the system is characterized by a sparse network.
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33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 **4. Conclusions**

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44 In this study, the electrical resistance of Epoxy/CNT samples subjected to tensile strains was measured,
45 and the potential applications of the material as strain sensor with a broad range of tunable sensitivity
46 were investigated.
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50 The performed tests have shown that the surface resistivity of the composites increased with the tensile
51 strain. This behavior has been attributed to the reduction of the conductive network density and to an
52 increase of the inter-tube distances induced by the applied strains. The sensor sensitivity was found to
53 decrease with the increase of the carbon nanotube amount. Fatigue tests have shown, after a series of
54 loading cycles, the presence of a residual resistivity when the specimens were unloaded to zero stress.
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56 The permanent changes in the electrical resistance of the composite increase with the amount of plastic
57 strain accumulated in the polymer matrix and they are sensitive to the content of the carbon nanotubes.
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The reproducibility in the residual resistivity value is obtained only when the CNT content is higher than a “limit concentration” which is beyond the EPT. Values higher than the limit concentration lead to reversible breakages of conductive CNT/CNT contacts occurring in a dynamic equilibrium; on the contrary, no dynamic equilibrium is reached at concentrations lower than the value corresponding to the “limit concentration”.

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Table 1 - Prepared samples

Sample	CNT [% wt/wt]	CNT volume fraction [/]
Epoxy-0.015CNT	0.015	8.88×10^{-5}
Epoxy-0.025CNT	0.025	1.48×10^{-4}
Epoxy-0.05CNT	0.05	2.96×10^{-4}
Epoxy-0.1CNT	0.1	5.92×10^{-4}
Epoxy-0.3CNT	0.3	1.78×10^{-3}
Epoxy-0.5CNT	0.5	2.97×10^{-3}
Epoxy-1.0CNT	1.0	5.94×10^{-3}

Figure 1
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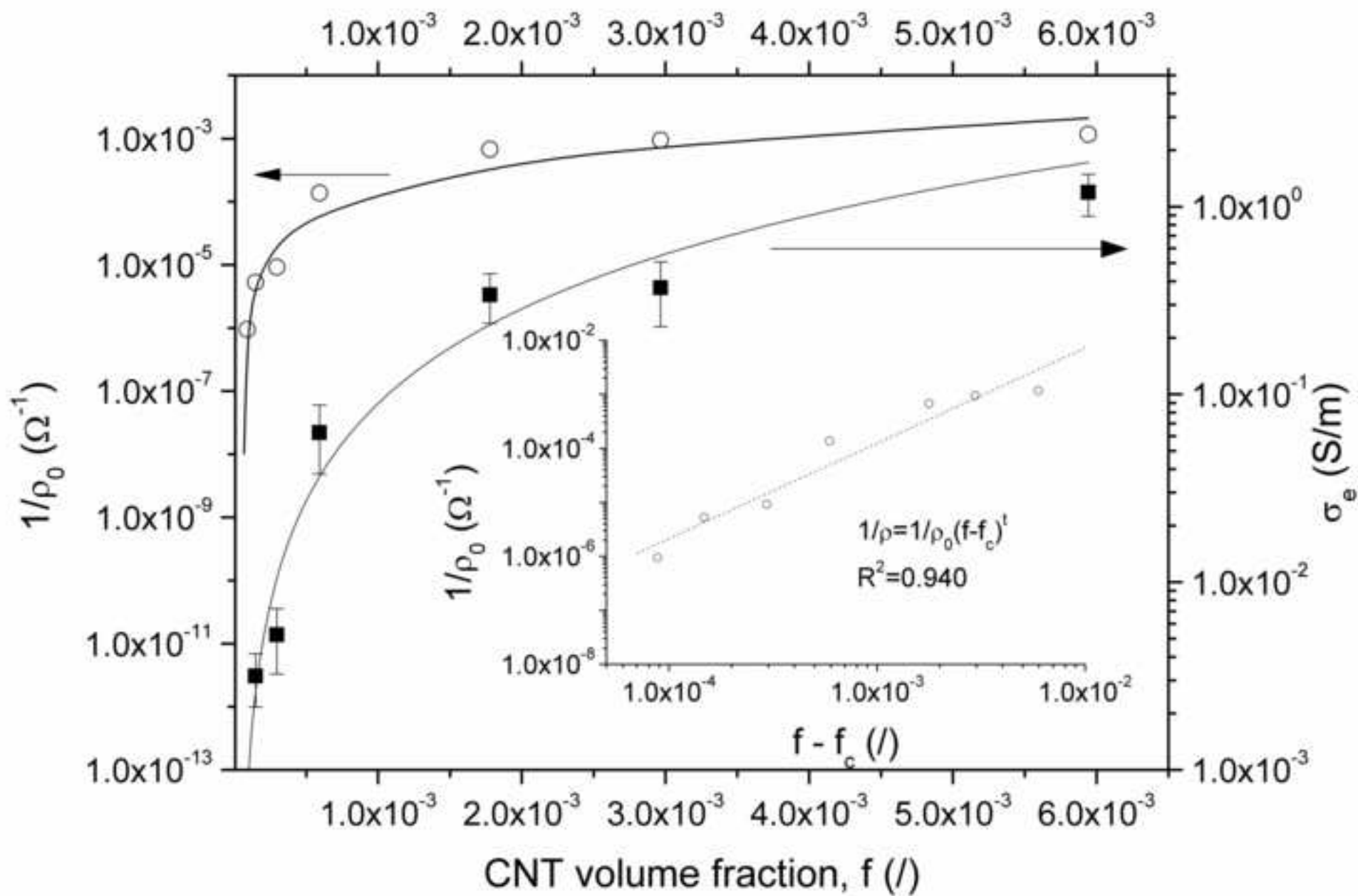


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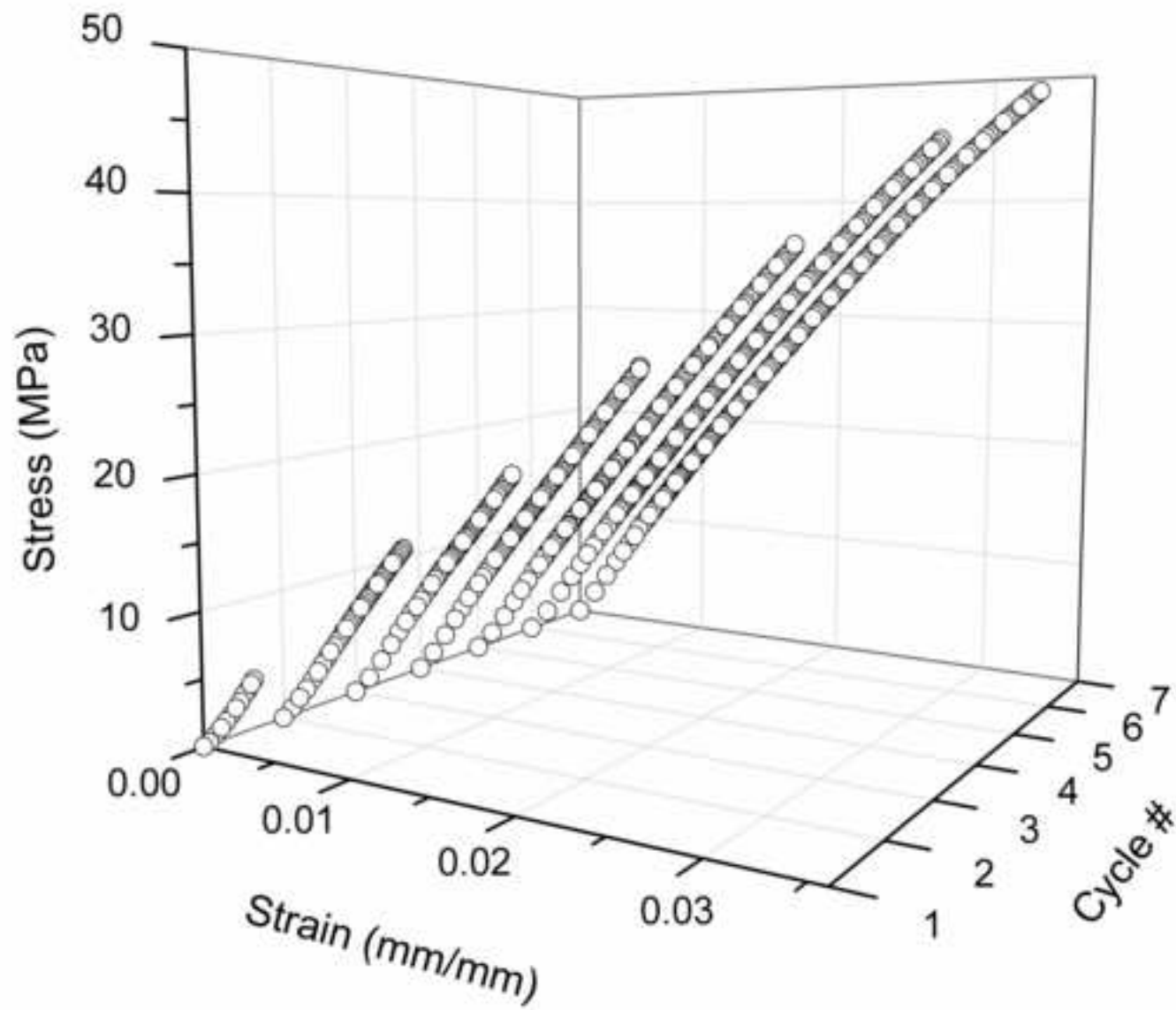


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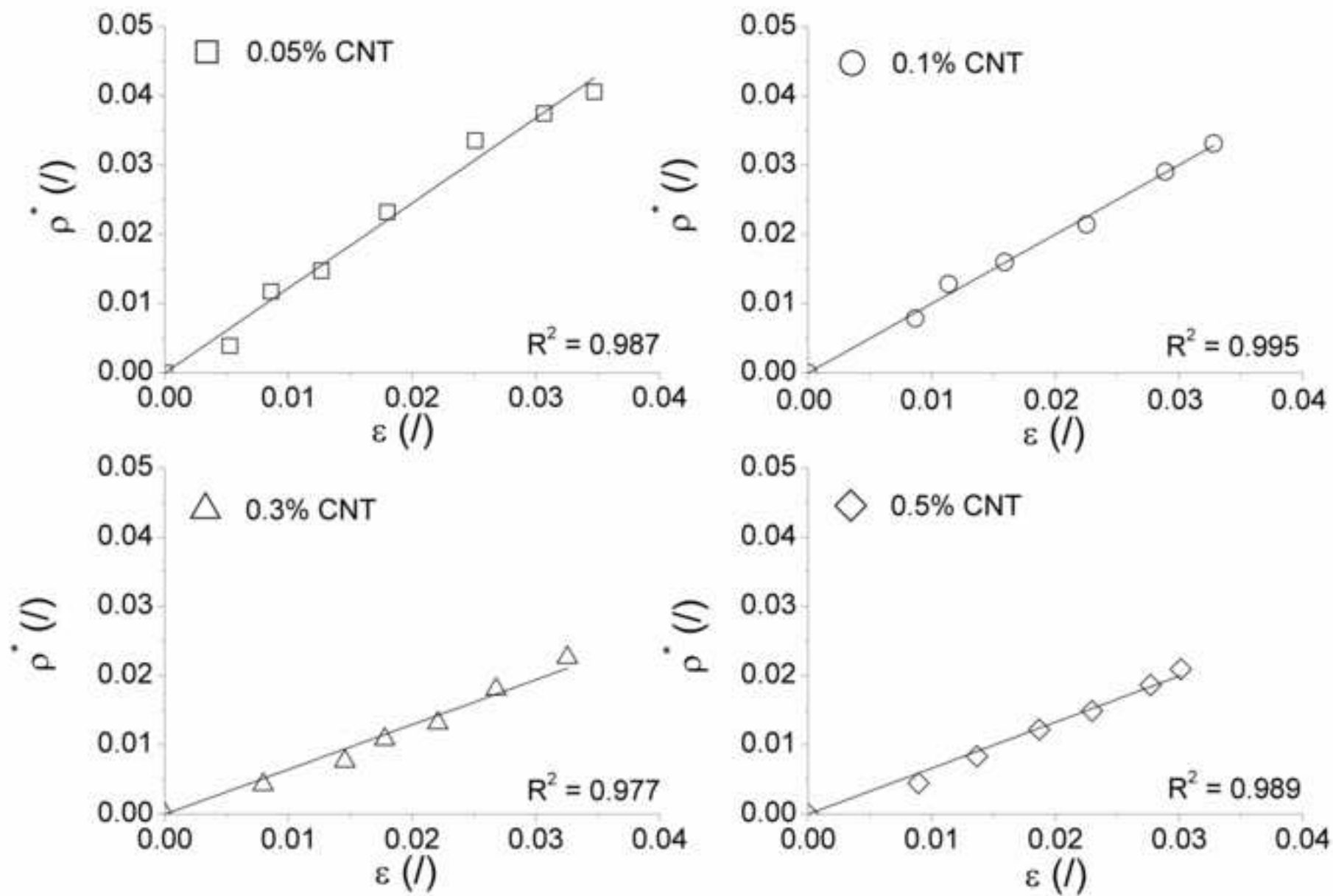


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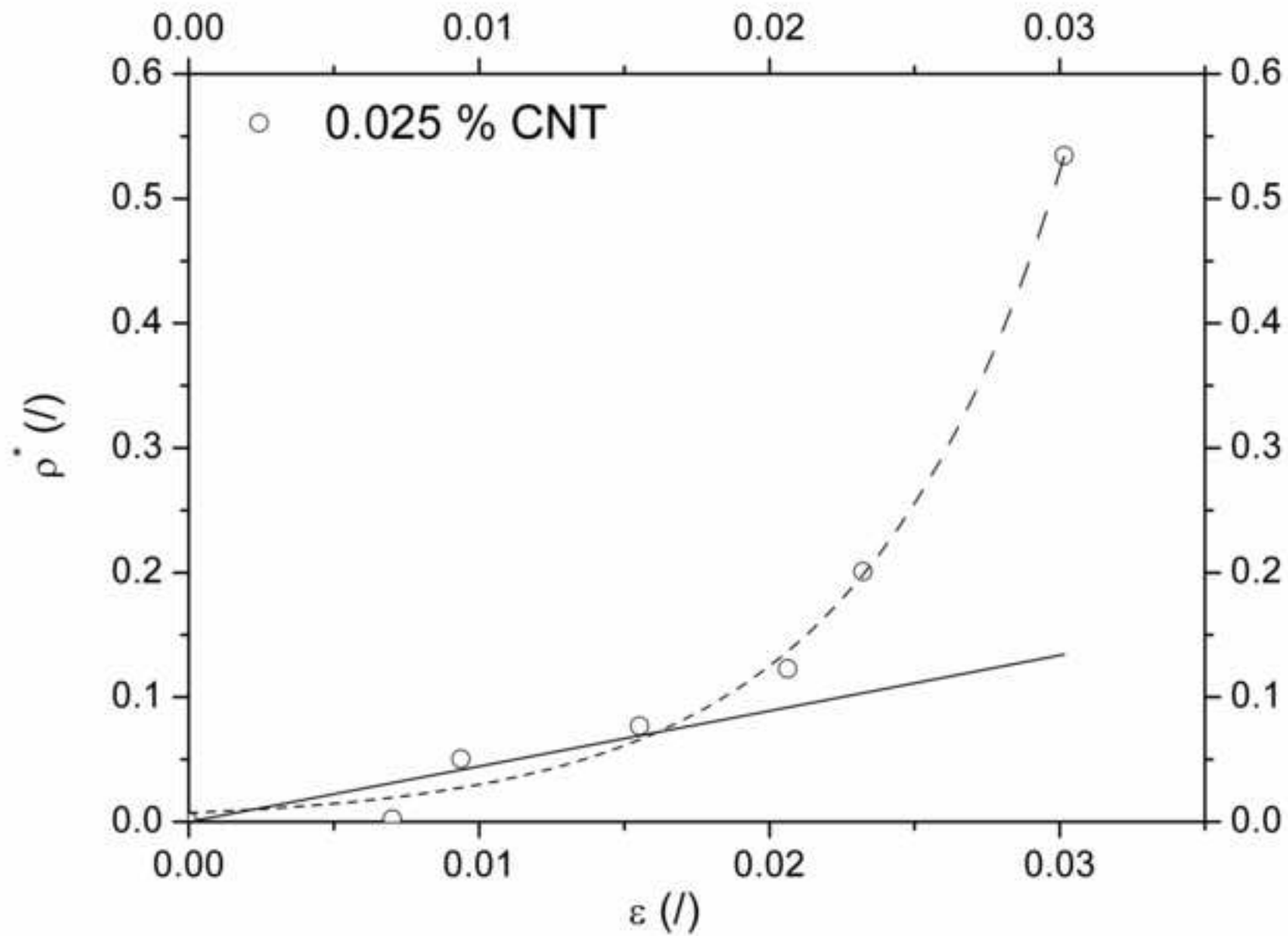


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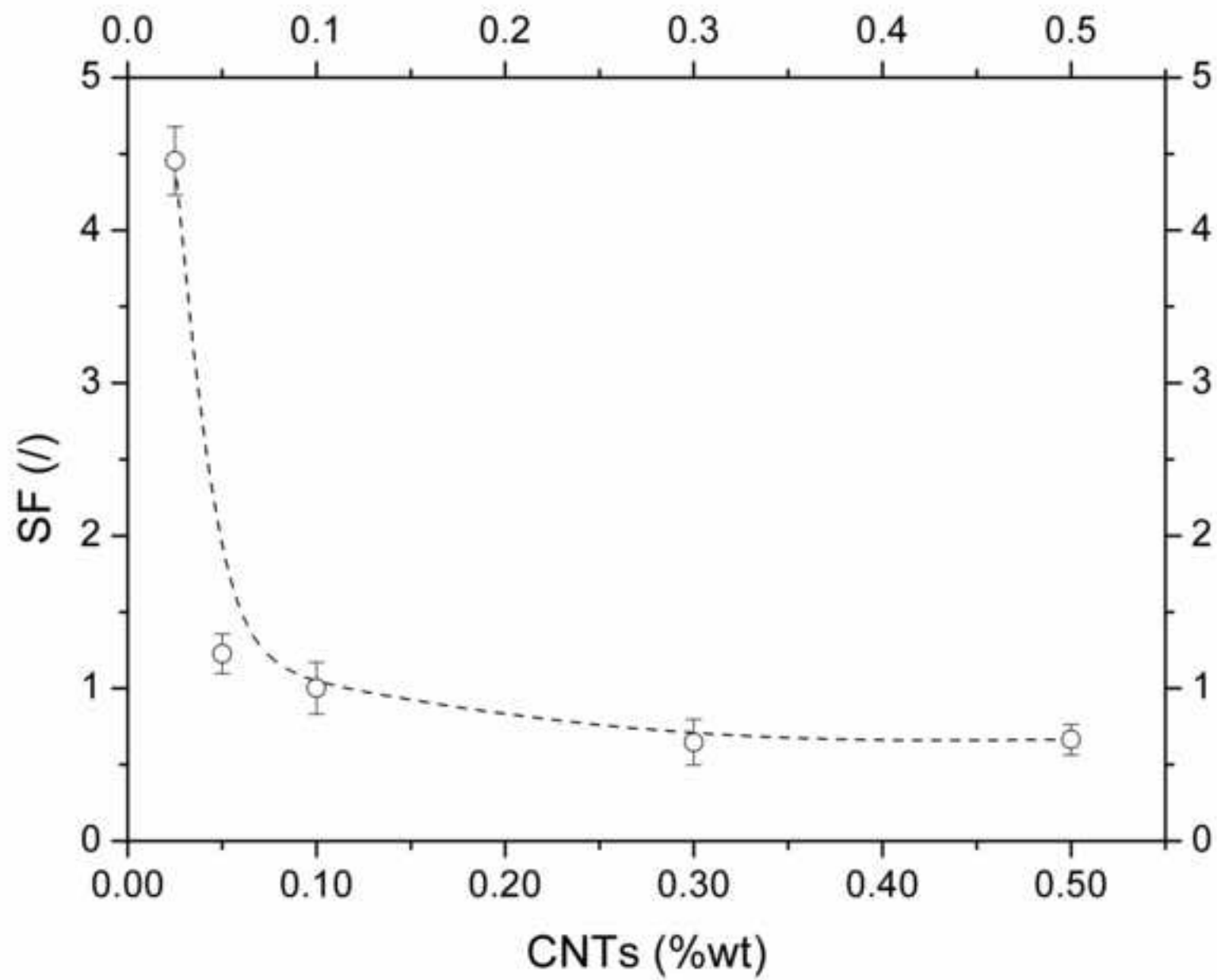


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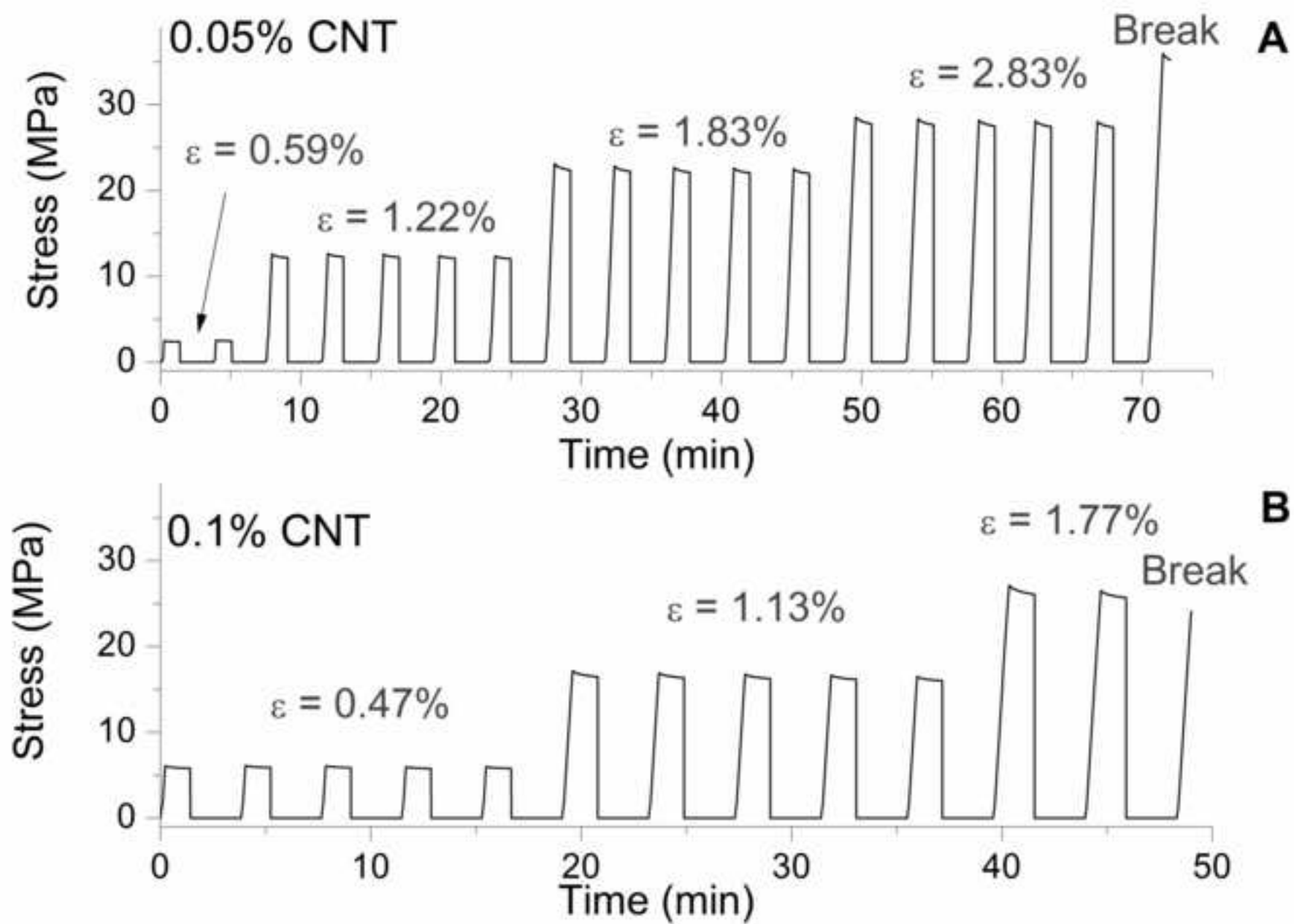


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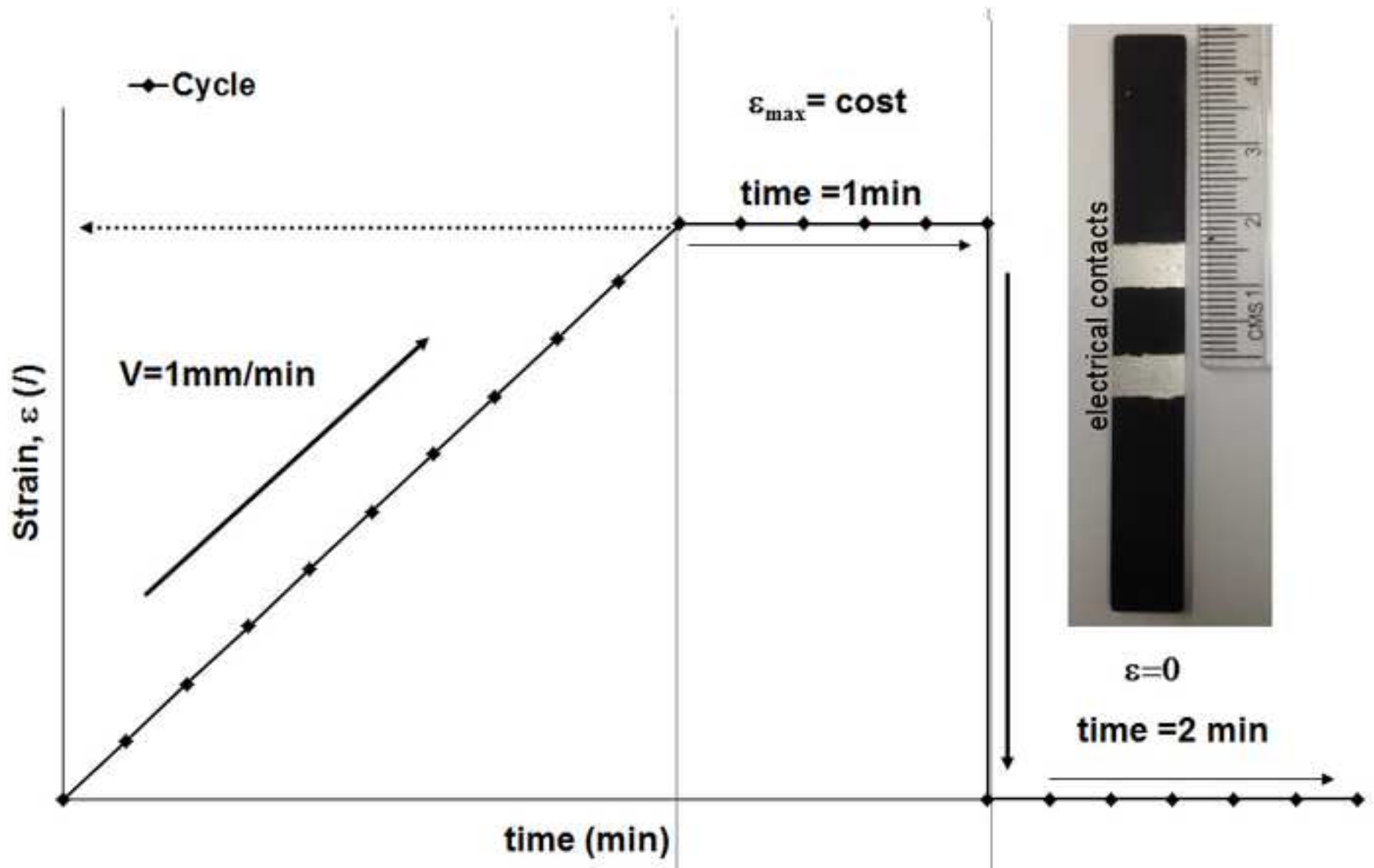


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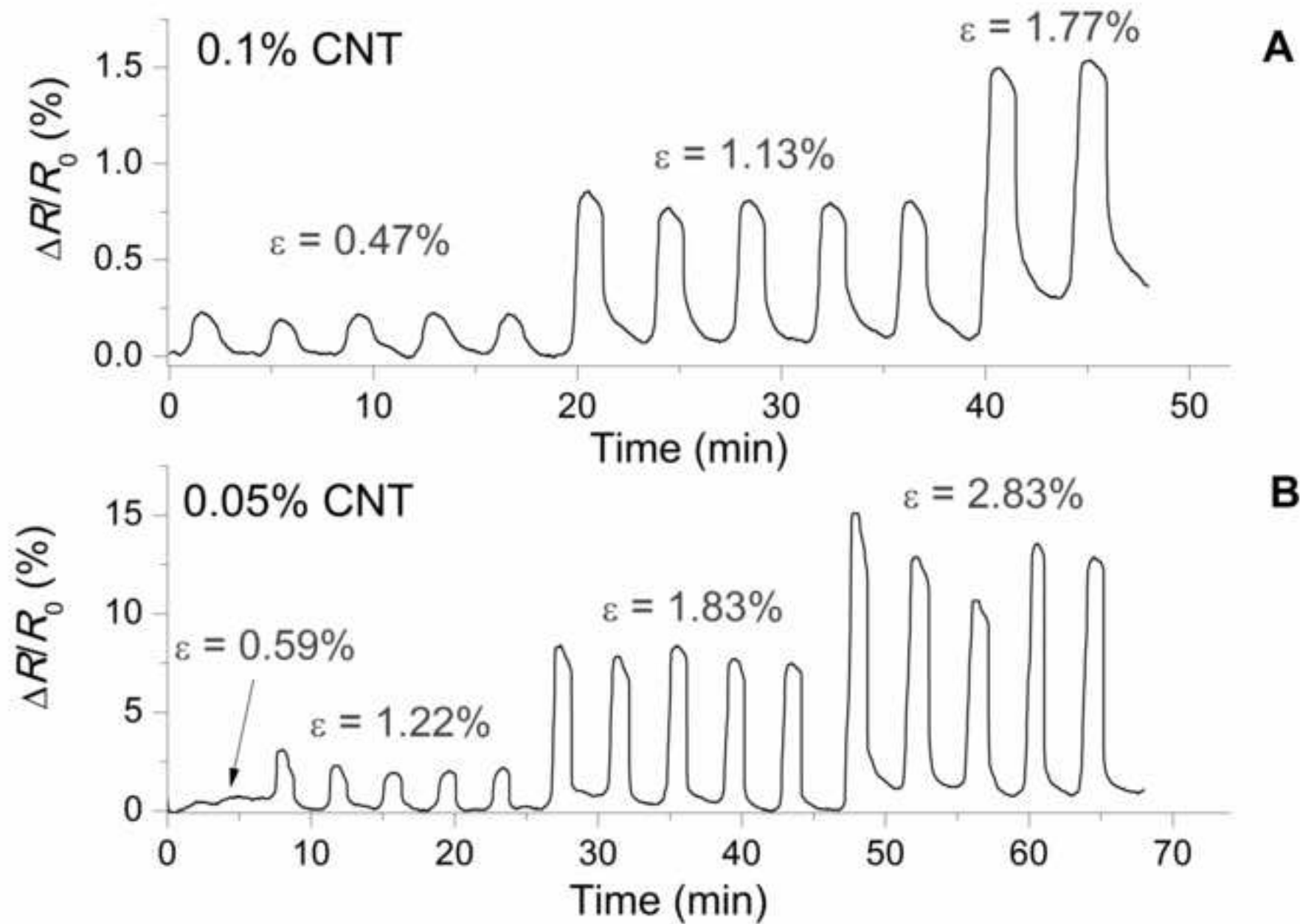
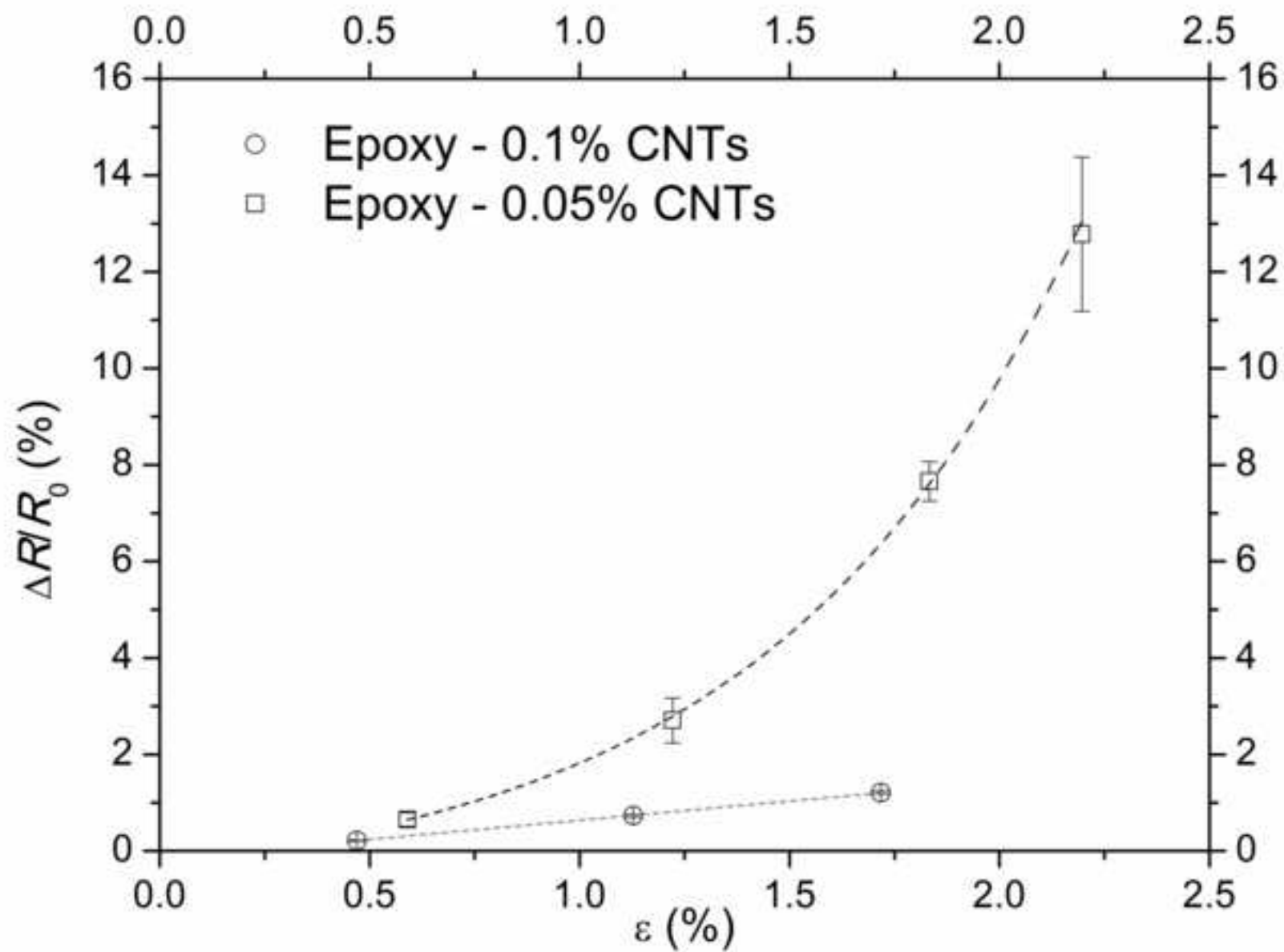


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List of Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Inverse of surface resistivity, $1/\rho_0$ on the left axis, before the mechanical tests and without any load applied and volume electrical conductivity, σ_e on the right axis, vs CNT volume fraction.

Fig. 2. Stress-strain behavior cycles for sample containing 0.1% wt/wt of CNTs.

Fig. 3. Behavior of **normalized surface** resistivity vs strain for samples in the range 0.05÷0.5% wt/wt.

Fig. 4. Behavior of **normalized surface** resistivity vs strain for the sample Epoxy-0.025CNT.

Fig. 5. Comparison of sensitivity factors for different weight percentage of CNTs.

Fig. 6. Temporal behavior of tensile stress for samples containing: (A) 0.05% wt/wt CNTs; (B) 0.1% wt/wt CNTs.

Fig. 7. The **schematic diagram of single** cycle in tensile test, and sample photo before testing.

Fig. 8. The change in electrical resistance in tensile test for samples containing: (A) 0.1% wt/wt CNTs; (B) 0.05% wt/wt CNTs.

Fig. 9. The change in electrical resistance vs strain for samples containing 0.1% wt/wt and 0.05% wt/wt CNTs.

List of Table Captions

Table 1 - Prepared samples