1
Introduction

The interaction of polymers with different materials such as metals, ceramics, other polymers, coatings, or inorganics is crucial for the adhesion at interfaces in polymer composite structural elements. The absence or weakness of interactions as well as any lack of durability are responsible for the collapse of load-bearing composite components. In 2005 the ice rink in Bad Reichenhall (Germany) collapsed, burying several people, because of adhesion failure (fatigue of the interface bonds).

Many polymers, in particular polyolefins, such as polyethylene and polypropylene are chemically inert and cannot strongly interact with other materials. The reason for this is the absence of polar and reactive functional groups in their structure. Thus, interactions with other materials are poor and so too is adhesion. Weak physical interactions only occur. J. D. van der Waals found their existence in 1879 [1]. These forces are electrostatic, induced and permanent dipoles, dispersion interactions, and hydrogen bonds. They are very weak and operate over a short range [2]. Polyolefins show only dispersion interactions among their own molecules and, thus, they are often difficult to wet or bond because of the absence of polar groups, which are able to promote interactions to the other material. Dipole or induced-dipole interactions or even chemical bonds between polymer and coating at the interface require the existence of functional groups.

Polar groups are often introduced by flaming [3] or plasma exposure [4]. Such oxidations form various oxidized polar species at the polyolefin surface, which can undergo the desired interactions to other materials. The introduction of chemical bonds at the interface is more efficient because of the much higher binding energies [5]. To install such covalent bonds between polymers and coatings, most often the production of monotype functional groups at the polyolefin surface is a necessary precondition. Such monosort functionalization is extraordinarily difficult. New processes have been developed for its realization, that is, exposure of the polyolefin surface to brominating plasma [6]. The C–Br groups could be converted into amino, carboxyl, or hydroxyl groups or consumed by amines, alcohols, and glycols [7]. The additional introduction of flexible, water-repellent, and metal-binding spacer molecules by grafting onto C–Br groups produced highly adhered and durable polyolefin composites [8].

In highly stressed polymer components for structural assemblies all forces are applied to the interface and distributed to the interfacial bonds. Either a large number of weak physical interactions or a smaller number of strong chemical bonds is needed to withstand the disruption under mechanical load along the interface. However, in general, chemically and structurally, completely different materials need to be joined together. Polymers, in particular polyolefins, show very low surface energy and metals or inorganics a much higher one. The difference amounts to two orders of magnitude (original value for polymers 30–40 mN m^{-1} and for metals 1000–3000 mN m^{-1}), which is nearly the same difference in surface energy as before polymer treatment (40–50 and 1000–3000 mN m^{-1}) [9]. At the molecular level, interactions are absent due to the chemical inertness of polyolefins.

Post-polymerization introduction of functional groups onto polyolefin surfaces has a principal problem. The (radical) substitution of H by any functional group is accompanied by C–C bond scissions of the polymer backbone because of equivalent (or lower) binding energies [10]. Thus, degradation occurs simultaneously, although C–C bonds were partially shielded from attack. Nevertheless, such a disruption of the polymer surface produces anchoring points for physical and chemical interactions but also a weak boundary layer, which is mechanically, chemically, and thermally unstable (low molecular weight oxidized material, LMWOM) [11]. Moreover, polymers, metals, or inorganics have thermal expansion coefficients that differ by two orders of magnitude. Therefore, the thus produced mechanical stress is focused onto the monolayer of interactions along the interface. As mentioned before, spacer introduction can balance this mechanical stress along the interface.

The surface modification of polyolefins must be also considered within the framework of 100 Mio tons production of polyethylene and polypropylene per year worldwide. Several technical applications demand a solution to the adhesion problem. Mechanical interlocking, chemical roughening by etching, ion and electron beam modification, UV irradiation, UV-induced graft copolymerization, laser beam or excimer lamp irradiation, ^{60}Co irradiation, flaming, corona treatment, use of adhesion promoters, glues, adhesives, etc. were successfully tested to modify polyolefin surfaces for adhesion [2]. However, all these pretreatments produce a broad variety of different functional groups.

As mentioned before, the formation of monotype functional groups followed by spacer grafting can solve the problem of moderate adhesive bond strength and durability. However, the great energy and enthalpy excess present in a plasma is most often responsible for non-selective reactions and the formation of a broad variety of products [12].

The dream of all plasma chemists is to achieve monosort functionalized polyolefin surfaces. The excess energy present in the plasma state [13] and the equivalency of C–C and C–H dissociation energies make it difficult to realize this dream [10]. However, a few chemical reactions produce end-products that are also stable towards plasma. Examples of such stable end-products are (i) in the case of bromination the electronic state of the neighboring noble gas (krypton) and (ii) silica-like SiO$_x$ layers formed in the oxidation of Si compounds in an oxygen plasma [14].

a)

**apolar polymer surface
without functional groups**

b)

**polar polymer surface
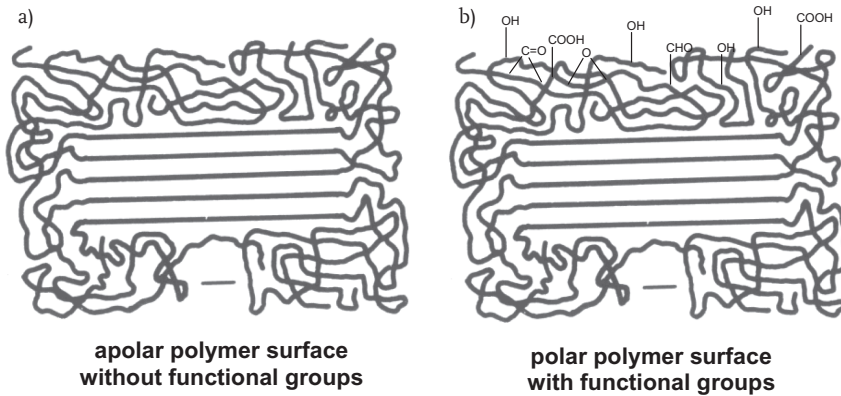with functional groups**

Figure 1.1 Assumed structure of polyethylene at the surface without functional groups (a), and after surface oxidation and introduction of oxygen-containing functional groups groups (b) and the behavior after wetting with a drop of water.

This book presents several variants of such surface techniques with monotype functional groups, such as chemical post-plasma reduction, pulse-pressure plasma polymerization, underwater plasma and glow discharge electrolysis, and deposition of functionalized prepolymers and oligomers by aerosol plasma and electrospray [15].

Polyolefins have a semi-crystalline structure, which can be represented by the model of "Fransenmicelle" as shown in Figure 1.1.

Amorphous regions are characterized by random localization of macromolecular chains, whereas crystalline regions show the parallel and close orientation of the all-trans configuration of the chain with folded loops, thus forming the lamellae as present in polyethylene [16].

The concept of polymer functionalization by plasma exposure is to attach atoms or fragments of the dissociated plasma gas as functional group by H substitution at the polymer chain. Since there are there many different fragments and atoms present in the plasma a broad variety of related functional groups is produced. The formation of at least 12 oxygen-containing groups at the surface of poly(ethylene terephthalate) has been shown after oxygen plasma exposure [17].

There is also an interrelation between plasma, polymer, surface charging, surface cleaning, surface functionalization, etching, and emission of degradation products as well as changing of plasma by the appearance of oxygen-containing groups in the gas phase and so on (Figure 1.2).

The substrate, here the polymer, gives a specific response to plasma exposure. Polymers react very sensitively to any exposure to plasmas. This is due to their complex and supermolecular structure. Polymers have some common features with living matter and therefore they are very sensitive, in almost the same manner, towards particle or radiation exposure. Thus, special knowledge of polymer chemistry, physics, and technology is necessary to understand the specific
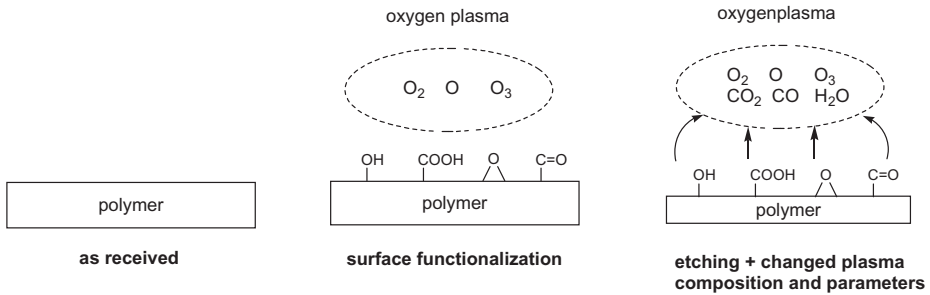
oxygen plasma

oxygenplasma

O_2 O O_3

O_2 O O_3
CO_2 CO H_2O

OH   COOH   O   C=O

OH   COOH   O   C=O

polymer

polymer

polymer

as received

surface functionalization

**etching + changed plasma
composition and parameters**

Figure 1.2 Changes in plasma phase upon polymer etching.

plasma

ions   **electrons**   **neutrals**   **VUV irradiation**
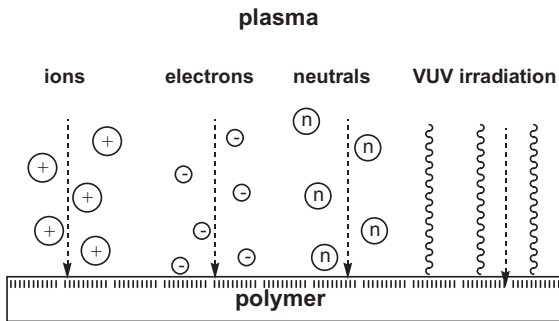
polymer

Figure 1.3 Plasma particle shower and vacuum UV (VUV) irradiation of polymer surfaces during plasma exposure.

and complex behavior of polymer surfaces on plasma exposure. Starting from plasma physics and taking simple atomic (noble) or molecule gas plasmas, which are well-defined and well-characterized but, nevertheless, are associated with high power consumption and high average electron energy the contradictoriness of flow from plasma to polymer, thus the confrontation is perfect. A shower of high-energy particles and photons bombards the polymer surface. A result of this bombardment is the formation of degraded or crosslinked products with the complete loss of original structure (Figure 1.3) [18].

As a matter of course, as a precondition, the plasma gas temperatures should be near room temperature or, in the case of energy-rich hot plasmas, a very short residence time in the plasma zone is mandatory. Low gas temperature is characteristic for low-pressure glow discharges, also known as non-isothermal plasmas or colloquially as "cold" plasmas [19]. Figure 1.4 shows schematically the prototype of such a plasma, namely, the low-pressure DC (direct current) glow discharge. The volume between the two electrodes is filled with the uniform plasma of the "positive column," which is the most suitable place for polymer treatment.
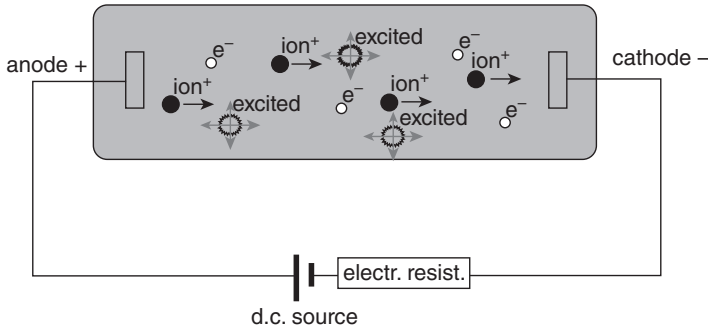
Figure 1.4 Principle of plasma formation: direct current (DC) discharge tube with electrons, ions, and energy-rich neutrals as excited states.
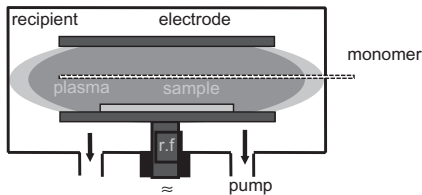

Figure 1.5 Example of a plasma reactor: a diode-like plasmatron that produces a low-pressure plasma suitable for polymer surface modification.

This type of discharge is very seldom used today because of the permanent danger of electrode contamination and coating, which influence the plasma characteristics. Capacitively or inductively coupled radio-frequency (rf) or microwave (mw) generated plasmas are used more often. Figure 1.5 shows the often used diode-like reactor type, which is the most important among the broad variety of plasmatron constructions. It is an example for the production of low-pressure plasmas, called diode-like or parallel-plate reactor. Normally, one electrode is mass (asymmetric coupling).

In contrast, the plasma bombardment of polymer surfaces (cf. Figure 1.3) is an efficient, easy, clean, comfortable, and fast way to create reactive centers at which plasma gas fragments or atoms can stick as new functional groups. The processes starts, again, with desorption and functionalization and is continued by modification of near-surface layers, etching at the surface, and photo-modification of far-from surface layers considering an overlap of all processes. The surface functionalization is limited to an O/C ratio of about 0.28; a steady-state process between continuation of introduction of functional groups and polymer etching is then established. The maximum density of functional groups at the outermost polymer surface is completed after a few seconds, most often after only 2 s [20]. Limiting the plasma exposure to such short treatment protects the polymer surface against undesired advanced degradation and formation of defects. Moreover,

applying minimal energy also preserves the original polymer structure. *Preservation of original polymer* structure is always the *best guarantee for maximum mechanical properties* and chemical integrity.

Unfortunately, the average and, especially, the maximal energy level of plasma particles and radiation, particularly that of electrons, is about an order of magnitude higher than that of the binding energies in polymers. Thus, plasma chemistry in a low-pressure glow discharge is equivalent to chemistry with a high excess of energy. This discrepancy is the most important hindrance to polymer modification by the use of plasma. Moreover, the plasma energy is continuously delivered as electrical current from a power plant and introduced into the plasma from the electrical power supply. Therefore, the electrically produced plasma is effectively an inexhaustible source of energy/enthalpy.

The list of binding energies for different chemical bonds (in $kJ\,mol^{-1}$) at $100\,kPa$ and $298\,K$ reflects the situation in polymers: $HC{\equiv}CH$ (963), $N{\equiv}N$ (950), $H_2C{=}CH_2$ (720), $N{=}N$ (418), $O{=}O$ (498), $N–N$ (163), $H_3C–CH_3$ (368), $H–C_2H_5$ (410), $H–CH_3$ (435), $H–CCl_3$ (402), $H–C_6H_5$ (460), $H–CH_2OH$ (402), $H–Cl$ (431), $H–OCH_3$ (440), $H–N(CH_3)_2$ (398), and $C–O$ (358) (3–6 eV binding energy). These binding energies match exactly the average energies in electrical glow discharges working at low pressures in the range 10^0–$10^3\,Pa$. Considering the high energy tail of the electron energy distribution function in a gas plasma (E_{kin} = 3–>20 eV) these electrons have enough energy to break all chemical bonds present in polymers (Section 4.1). It must be also considered that all electrons slowed or stopped by inelastic collisions with atoms or ions in the plasma are re-accelerated to high energies due to the applied electrical field. Thus, as noted, the plasma appears as a source of (nearly) unlimited enthalpy/energy flow.

On the other hand, plasma is a very easy tool with which to form reactive sites as radicals or functional groups independent of the inertness of polymer. In each case the plasma forms anchoring sites for further chemical reactions.

Atoms at the topmost layer of solid surfaces have generally unsaturated valences towards the gas phase. These unsaturated binding forces are responsible for the surface energy of solids. This surface energy determines wetting and gluing properties. In alkyl chains any significant dipole moment is absent; thus, polyolefins, silicones, or perfluorinated polymers have very low surface energies, composed of the dispersion component without an appreciable polar component. The introduction of functional groups forms dipoles at the surface and, thus, the polar component of the surface energy is increased strongly, as presented schematically in Figure 1.6 on an atomic level.

Drost, McTaggart, and Venugopalan, illustrated several traditional atmospheric and low-pressure glow discharge processes in industry [19, 21, 22]. Polyolefin or polymer modifications by surface functionalization were performed in atmospheric-pressure plasmas (corona, barrier, and glow discharges) [23] or low-pressure glow discharges [4]. This is because of the non-isothermal (non-equilibrium, nt) character of such plasmas, which show low gas temperatures ("cold" plasma) [24]. Thus, both the atmospheric and low-pressure plasmas were generally suited for any polymer pretreatment. Very fast and continuous corona or barrier discharge
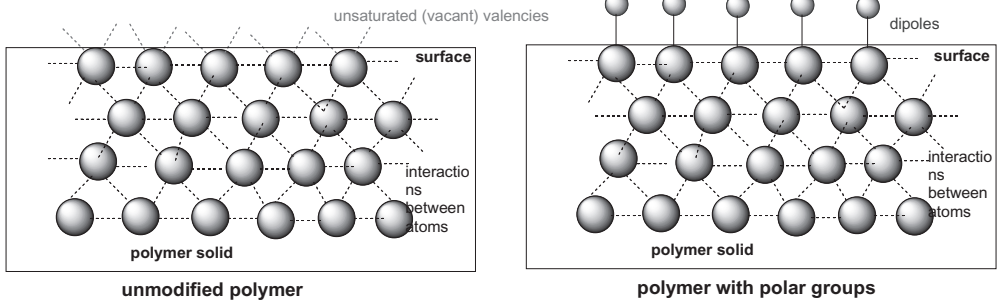
Figure 1.6 Schematics of polymer surfaces.
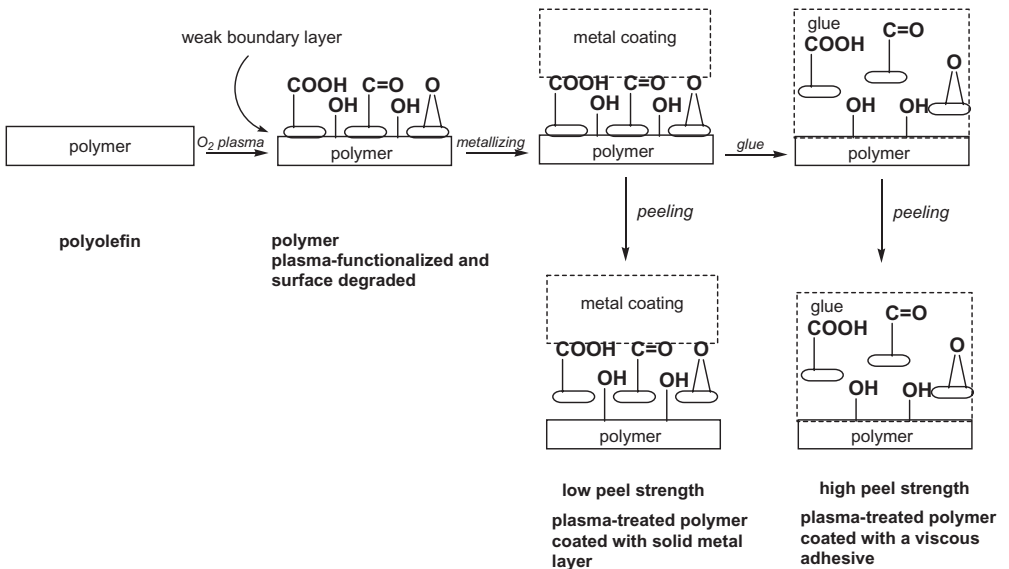
Figure 1.7 Schematic representation of a polyethylene surface before and after plasma treatment as well as after coating with a viscous adhesive.

treatments of polymer foils at atmospheric pressure are traditional plasma applications to polymers on an industrial scale [25, 26]. However, the field of applications of this atmospheric plasmas enlarged slowly because the surface modification could not be well-controlled, is afflicted with a few inhomogeneities, and degraded material (LMWOM) is formed. More recently, the atmospheric-pressure glow discharge (APGD) has compensated these disadvantages [27, 28]. The non-selective surface functionalization accompanied by uncontrolled degradation need not be accepted, as demonstrated by use of the newly developed atmospheric-pressure

Surface modification

ideal modification

polymer	

original polymer

plasma
→
polymer surface functionalization

† † † † † †
polymer

functionalized polymer

too strong modification

polymer

original polymer

intense plasma
→
surface functionalization + polymer degradation

† (ox) † (ox) † (ox)
polymer

functionalized polymer and oxidized surface (LMWOM)

plasma polymer adhesion promoter

polymer

original polymer

intense plasma
→
surface functionalization + polymer degradation

plasma polymer
polymer

adhesion-promoting interlayer

plasma etching

polymer

original polymer

intense plasma
→
surface roughening

polymer

rough surface for mechanical indenting

Composite interface

covalent or physical bonding

† † † † † †
polymer

functionalized polymer

metal deposition
→

metal
† † † † † †
polymer

covalent/physical bonds to metal atoms

worse adhesion by WBL

† (ox) † (ox) † (ox)
polymer

functionalized polymer and oxidized surface (LMWOM)

metal deposition
→

metal
(ox) (ox) (ox)
polymer

weak boundary layer (WBL)

good adhesion in spite of WBL

† (ox) † (ox) † (ox)
polymer

functionalized polymer and oxidized surface (LMWOM)

coating
→

(ox) (ox) (ox)
viscoUs coating
polymer

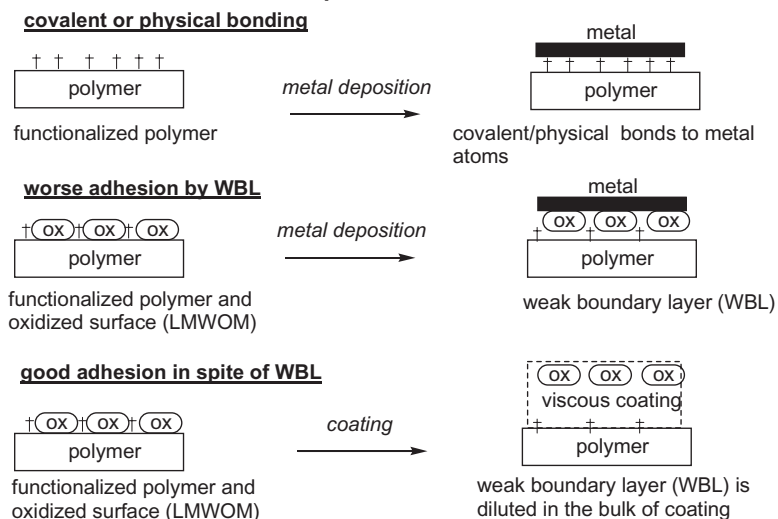weak boundary layer (WBL) is diluted in the bulk of coating

Figure 1.8 Schematics of adhesion promotion in polymer composites using the plasma technique.

plasma techniques, such as aerosol barrier discharge and electrospray ionization (ESI) film deposition [15].

The improved new plasma pretreatments aim to favor the introduction of (most advantageously: monosort) functional groups onto the surface to enhance the interactions to coatings or biomolecules or to form anchoring points for further

graft synthesis. In addition, surface roughening, crosslinking of surface-near polymer layers, polymer etching, polymer ashing, and so on are also being examined by the plastic and electronic industries and in medical techniques.

Considering the use of plasma for adhesion promotion in more detail, the more ambitious improvement of metal adhesion to polymers demands the application of low-pressure glow discharge plasmas. The polyfunctional O-containing groups are rapidly produced on exposure to the oxygen low-pressure plasma. However, polymer degradation products at the interface of a polymer–metal composite hinder the adhesion by forming a "weak boundary layer" (WBL) [29] that originates from the LMWOM. This "debris" hinders adhesion to solid-phase metal layers. In contrast, liquid paints or glues can assimilate these loosely bonded fragments, dissolve and distribute them in the liquid phase of the adhesive. Thus it does not strongly hinder the adhesion between the coating and the polymer. Now, the coating can interact directly with the non-degraded polymer surface (Figure 1.7). Roughening and crosslinking as well as plasma-chemical deposition of a thin adhesion-promoting interlayer are alternatives (Figure 1.8).

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