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Targeting functionalised carbon nanotubes at the interphase of Textile Reinforced Mortar (TRM) composites

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Abstract

Performance of textile reinforced inorganic matrix composites depends on the matrix-to-fabric bond strength, the weak chain in the system. In this work, we investigate the role of multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) dispersion in an amorphous silica nano-coating for AR-glass and carbon fabric Textile Reinforced Mortar (TRM) composites. Two lime mortars are considered at 56-day curing. Comparative mechanical testing in uni-axial tension show remarkable enhancements in terms of mean ductility, strength and energy dissipation capabilities. Besides, coating successfully prevents telescopic failure and delamination, which significantly narrows data scattering and benefits design limits. Crack pattern analysis reveals that coating promotes diffuse cracking in the specimen, with gradual and progressive damage buildup. Indeed, mean crack width and mean crack spacing are consistently reduced. BET, optical and E-SEM microscopy supports the action mechanism of the coating, that promotes wettability, surface roughening and imparts a remarkable increase in the specific surface area of the reinforcement.

Keywords: Textile Reinforced Mortar, Silica nano-coating, Carbon nanotubes, mechanical performance

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1 1. Introduction

Despite the interesting advantages that Textile Reinforced Mortar (TRM) 2 composites display over the well-established class of Fibre Reinforced Polymer 3 (FRP) composite materials [1], their application as externally-bonded reinforcement (EBR) for strengthening and retrofitting of existing structures is rather limited, in light of the poor bonding quality at the fibre-to-matrix interphase [2, 3, 4, 5]. Lack of compatibility between the fibres and the inorganic binder, as 7 well as the presence of coarse aggregates in the mortar, result in unsatisfactory adhesion mechanisms, which trigger inconsistent failure modes, such as fabric delamination and telescopic failure. The latter is the typical failure mechanism 10 in TRM, and consists of inner filaments in the fibres (the core) slipping over 11 outer filaments (the sleeve) that are bonded to the mortar, as in the unfolding of 12 a telescope. Indeed, the spacing between two adjacent fibres within a multifila-13 ment yarn (few microns) is several orders of magnitude lower than the average 14 diameter of mortar grains, which is typically around 0.5 - 1 mm. Consequently, 15 mortar is unable to penetrate inside the filaments and bonds rest confined to 16 the sleeve. In addition, poor chemical affinity (i.e. low hydrophilicity of the 17 fibres) prevents from the formation of strong chemical bonds at the interphase, 18 even for sleeve filaments. In contrast to FRP, the poor bonding quality affect-19 ing TRM/TRC impairs fibre-matrix congruence during deformation and, as a 20 result, the rule of mixtures cannot be safely adopted to build reliable models 21 [6]. Furthermore, failure occurs unreliably, according to multiple mechanisms, 22 whence elevated scattering ensues. As a result, design limits are strongly pe-23 nalized and the strengthening potential of the reinforcing fabric remains almost 24 unexploited [7, 8]. 25

A few attempts are documented in the literature to remedy this intrinsic weakness of TRM, most often directed at matrix modification [9, 10], also by CNT addition [11, 12]. In particular, polymeric modification of the inorganic matrix, that is admitted up to 5%wt over the inorganic component by the guidelines [13], goes under the name of Fibre Reinforced Cementitious Matrix

(FRCM) [3]. However, fibre coating appears as the most promising approach 31 to bridge the performance gap between organic and inorganic composites, for 32 it addresses precisely the matrix-to-fibre interphase. Specifically, capitalizing 33 over the large body of expertise already developed for FRP, organic coatings 34 represent the most natural option [14]. Evidence shows that organic coatings 35 are capable of penetrating in between the reinforcing filaments and effectively 36 prevent telescopic failure. In Donnini et al. [10], quartz sand is added to epoxy 37 to roughen the matrix-to-fibre surface. Dvorkin et al. [15] experimentally docu-38 ment the reduction of fluid transport of aggressive ions inside carbon filaments 39 induced by epoxy coating, thus promoting durability. In general, epoxy coatings 40 have proved remarkably successful in enhancing mechanical performance, also 41 through healing defects on the fibre surface [16]. Besides, fine-tuning epoxy for-42 mulation [17] and viscosity [18] highly improves the overall behaviour of coated 43 TRM. It is noteworthy that the embedding matrix is capable of shielding the 44 epoxy coating from the negative effects associated to high temperature exposure 45 [19]. 46

Nonetheless, the presence of an organic component is generally undesirable, 47 mostly on the same grounds by which organic matrices are being replaced by 48 inorganic binders. As a result, much interest lies in investigating inorganic 49 coatings. As an example, silicon dioxide (in the form of micro-silica fume and 50 silica nano-particles) exploits concentrated pozzolanic reactivity to good advan-51 tage, by strengthening the interphase zone (IZ), namely the thin mortar layer 52 surrounding each fibre [20, 21]. Owing to its pronounced hydrophilic nature, 53 silica appears as a promising fully-inorganic coupling agent, especially for alkali 54 resistant glass (ARG) fabrics [22]. The addition of nano-fillers in the coating 55 formulation can also be pursued and preliminary investigations are ongoing. In 56 the paper by Cohen and Peled [23], mechanical performance of textile reinforced 57 concrete (TRC) is assessed against the application of organic and inorganic 58 nanofillers for inducing high friction resistance. Nano-particles suitable for this 59 purpose comprise, among many, carbon-based fillers or organoclays [24, 25, 26]. 60 In particular, multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) are nested concen-61

tric single-wall graphene hollowed particles with high aspect ratio (around 500)
and specific surface area [27, 28]. Their outstanding tensile strength and stiffness, combined with negligible mass, make for a promising reinforcing technique
[29, 30].

Kostopoulos et al. [31] highlight the role of MWCNT at improving impact 66 and post-impact resistance of carbon FRP for aerospace applications. As dis-67 cussed in the exhaustive review by Liew et al. [32], the adoption of CNTs in 68 cementitious materials has been investigated only in fairly recent times, as an 69 attempt at reducing micro-cracking within the conglomerate. In addition, CNT 70 successfully dispersed in concrete have proved to improve the damping proper-71 ties of cementitious composites [33]. This outcome is mainly due to the bridging 72 effect exerted by CNT at the nanoscale and to the simultaneous reduction of 73 the core porosity of the conglomerate [34, 35]. In a recent paper, Cui et al. [36] 74 thoroughly examine how geometrical properties (e.g. tubes length and diam-75 eter) as well as functionalisation techniques of MWCNT tune the compressive 76 and flexural response of concrete. According to these findings, the optimum as-77 pect ratio of nanotubes should range at about 100 and hydroxyl-functionalised 78 (namely highly hydrophilic) nanotubes convey remarkable strength gains, since 79 the hydration products are diffusely and firmly bonded to the nano-fillers sur-80 face. Han et al. [37] point out that a CNT interpenetrated network in the 81 conglomerate core favours leakage of hydration heat, thus reducing autogenous 82 cracking. Finally, electrical conductivity of CNTs may impart smart sensoring 83 capabilities to structures, which become able to detect damage and incipient 84 failure by carrying out time-scheduled non-destructive resistance measurements 85 (see e.g. [38, 39] and references therein). Within the framework of cementitious 86 materials, Irshidat and Al-Shannaq [40] study the dispersion of CNTs in the 87 cementitious embedding mortar of textile composites and provide strong evi-88 dence as to performance and durability enhancements. In the subsequent paper 89 [12], they present the findings of an experimental program concerning bend-90 ing of reinforced concrete (RC) beams strengthened with MWCNT-modified 91 TRM laminates. As far as 1-ply laminates are concerned, the most impressive 92

results regards the initial stiffness of the reinforced beam, rather than the flexural capacity, which appears highly sensitive to the binder's formulation. All
the aforementioned contributes agree on the fundamental role played by surfactants, which unlock the remarkable benefits of well dispersed unbundled CNTs
[41, 42, 43].

In this paper, we consider a 0.5% wt. stabilized suspension of MWCNTs 98 in an amorphous silica coating solution for application on synthetic continuous 99 fibres, namely alkali resistant (AR) glass and carbon. In contrast to the existing 100 literature, we consider a functionalised dispersing medium (i.e. silica sol) and 101 modification is restricted to the fibres' surface, as opposed to modification of the 102 embedding matrix. Compared to control specimens, remarkable improvements 103 in terms of ultimate strength, ductility and energy dissipation capability are 104 found. This outcome is related to a dramatic increase of the fabric specific 105 area, accompanied by important enhancement in terms of hydrophilicity, i.e. 106 the capacity to establish stronger chemical fibre-to-matrix cross-links. Optical 107 and E-SEM microscopy reveal that CNT-induced surface roughness effectively 108 prevents telescopic failure and fabric slippage inside the matrix. 109

¹¹⁰ 2. Materials and methods

111 2.1. Materials

Two different fine-grained lime-based mortars and two reinforcing textiles are considered.

Physical, compositional and mechanical properties are gathered in Table 1. The first mortar, labelled MS (Lime Mortar, $f_{ck} = 5$ MPa), consists of a natural hydraulic lime-based mortar with siliceous and carbonatic aggregates. Cement content is lower than 5%wt. The second mortar, tagged GC (Hybrid Mortar, $f_{ck} = 15$ MPa), presents coarse aggregates (up to 1.4 mm diameter) and blended lime and cement binder [17].

Two different multifilament fabrics are considered as the reinforcing phase (Figure 1): AR glass (G) balanced biaxial mesh with open square grid and hightenacity carbon (C) uniaxial fabric with ARG yarns in the weft direction. The

Characteristic	Unit	\mathbf{MS}	\mathbf{GC}
Aggregate maximum size	mm	1.0	1.4
Density (fresh state, UNI 1015-6)	$\rm kg/dm^3$	1.50	1.73
Min. compression strength at 28 days	MPa	5.0	15.0
Min. flexural strength at 28 days (EN $196/1$)	MPa	1.0	3.4
Adhesion strength at 28 days	MPa	0.4	1.0
Water content	%	21	21
Longitudinal elastic modulus (EN 13412)	GPa	n.a.	9.0

Table 1: Mortars' properties (as provided by the manufacturer)

main mechanical properties of the fabrics are displayed in Table 2. Fabrics are
coated with a sol-gel silica solution where MWCNTs are dispersed. MWCNTs
(Sigma, Merck Group) properties are reported in Table 3.



Figure 1: AR-glass (a) and carbon (b) multifilament fabrics are considered as the reinforcing phase

126 2.2. Amorphous silica nano-coating with dispersed MWCNT

CNT dispersion is obtained taking advantage of the water excess required 127 to accommodate hydrolysis of the acid-catalysed silica sol-gel. A stable CNT 128 aqueous dispersion is obtained by adding sodium dodecyl benzene sulfonate 129 (NaDBS) as surfactant, as reported in the research by Haghgoo et al. [44]. In a 130 covered beaker, a 3.3% wt solution (with respect to deionized water) of CNTs is 131 mixed with NaDBS powder in a 2:3 CNT/NaDBS weight ratio. The suspension 132 is placed on a magnetic stirrer for 5 minutes and then sonicated for 60 minutes, 133 in order to allow the surfactant to distribute within the nanotubes interstices 134 and favour disaggregation [45]. The suspension is added to TEOS/isopropyl 135

Characteristic	Unit	G	\mathbf{C}
Yarn count	g/km	1200	800
Total (warp) specific weight per unit fabric area	g/m^2	300	220
		(150)	(150)
Grid spacing (along the warp direction)	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{m}$	12	5
Dry fabric cross-sectional area (per unit width), A_f	$\mathrm{mm}^2/\mathrm{cm}$	0.72	0.88
Ultimate strength along warp with epoxy (per unit	$\rm kN/cm$	0.72	1.80
width)			
Elastic modulus, E_f	GPa	74	240

Table 2: Multifilament fabrics properties (as provided by the manufacturer)

Characteristic	\mathbf{Unit}	Value
Density (at $25^{\circ}C$)	g/cm^3	2.1
Bulk density	$ m g/cm^3$	$0.06 \div 0.08$
Outside diameter	nm	10
Inside diameter	nm	4
Length	nm	4000
Aspect ratio	_	$350 \div 550$
Walls	No.	$6 \div 8$
Surface area (BET)	m^2/g	$280 \div 350$
Surface resistivity	Ω/sq	$700 \div 900$
Melting Point	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$	$3652 \div 3697$

Table 3: Multi-walled carbon nanotubes properties (as provided by the manufacturer)

alcohol solution together with nitric acid in stoichiometric ratio to trigger solgel transition, see also [46]. The silica solution, with an overall CNT weight ratio of 0.5%, is stirred for 2 hours at 50°C and then sonicated for further 15 minutes before fibres' dip-coating. Cut-to-size textiles are then immersed for 5 minutes in the suspension and subsequently left at laboratory conditions for a few minutes. Finally, fabrics are dried in a muffle at 110 °C for 15 minutes.

- 142 2.3. Experimental programme
- 143 2.3.1. Coating quality assessment

Fibre hydrophilicity is measured through a Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) analysis [47], which is commonly used to gain insight on the specific (per unit mass) surface area (SSA) of a solid. SSA is an indicator of the adsorption and of the reactive capability of a surface. BET provides an accurate evaluation of

the SSA of a material at the solid phase by expressing its nitrogen adsorption 148 as a function of relative pressure. SSA is evaluated by computing the amount 149 of adsorbate gas corresponding to a monomolecular layer on the surface of the 150 material. This technique encompasses both external surface and pore area to 151 determine the total SSA. Fabric specimens weighting between 0.5 and 1 g are 152 coated and then dried overnight at 60°C to remove residual humidity. Finally, 153 measurement is performed in a Gemini V2.00 porosimeter (Micromeritics) on 154 both uncoated and MWCNT coated fabric. Coating quality and uniformity are 155 determined through optical stereo-microscopy (Leica EZ4D) and environmental 156 scanning electron microscopy (E-SEM, Quanta-200, Fei Company). 157

158 2.3.2. Mechanical testing

Comparative uni-axial tensile tests are carried out on TRM specimens with (S-CNT) and without (control group, UC) silica coating with dispersed MWC-NTs. Specimens are manufactured on an individual basis by means of a dismountable polyethylene formwork and each test group consists of at least four specimens. 1-ply prismatic laminates are manufactured following the recent guidelines [48, 49], as detailed in [50, 51]:

- The first layer of fresh mortar is applied on the lubricated formwork in between two constraining removable laths, which provide guideline for the prescribed thickness of the embedding layer and for fabric placing.
- The reinforcing textile, either uncoated (UC) or S-CNT pre-preg, is placed on the fresh mortar onto which it is gently pressed to promote mortar interlocking.
- The mortar over-layer is then applied in between a second set of constraining laths, that is stacked on top of the first.
- Specimens are cured for 7 days, tightly wrapped in a polypropylene self detaching bag to simulate moist-curing.
- Finally, specimens are stripped and stored at laboratory conditions (T =

176 $(20\pm2)^{\circ}$ C, $RH = (65\pm5)\%$) for 49 days. Indeed, 56-day curing is proven 177 to positively affect durability for lime-based composite laminates [52].

• Prior to testing, two pairs of 100-mm long G-FRP tabs are epoxy glued at the specimen ends to accommodate the gripping mechanism at testing.

Specimens have prismatic shape (coupons), are 7-mm thick and their gauge 180 length is $L_q = 250$ mm. Width equals 36 mm or 32 mm, and it is designed as to 181 accommodate 3 or 7 strands, respectively for ARG and carbon fabric. Tensile 182 tests are carried out on an electro-mechanic Instron 5567 universal testing ma-183 chine (UTM), equipped with a 30 kN load cell. The clamping system consists 184 of two hinges connected with stainless steel wedge clamps that apply lateral 185 friction to the laminates. The test set-up is compliant with the prescriptions 186 of the most common guidelines for characterization of Fibre Reinforced Cemen-187 titious Matrix (FRCM) composite materials [53]. Tests are carried out under 188 displacement control at the nominal displacement rate of 0.50 mm/min. DIC 189 analysis lends the actual elongation rate by subtracting the contribution of the 190 sliding motion at the clamp-to-coupon interface. The latter is usually about 191 10% of the nominal rate [54]. 192

¹⁹³Before embedment, uncoated and pre-preg (coated) fabrics are investigated ¹⁹⁴through optical stereo-microscope LEICA EZ4D and environmental scanning ¹⁹⁵electron microscope (E-SEM, Quanta FEI, The Netherlands) to evaluate the ¹⁹⁶quality of the surface coating. During testing, the crack pattern evolution is ¹⁹⁷recorded by DIC. Finally, failed specimens are investigated through optical mi-¹⁹⁸croscopy, in order to characterise the distribution of carbon nanoparticles on ¹⁹⁹the fibres surface and the quality of the impregnation.

200 3. Results and discussion

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- 201 3.1. Coating characterization
- 202 3.1.1. Surface analysis and hydrophilicity

The effect of the coating on the SSA is well illustrated in the bar-charts presented in Fig.2, where a logarithmic scale is adopted. A remarkable increase



Figure 2: Specific surface area (SSA) for uncoated (UC) and silica+carbon nanotubes (S-CNT) coated fabrics, as obtained by BET analysis (logarithmic scale)

of the surface area is clearly achieved through S-CNT coating, and the relative 205 outcome is even more pronounced for glass fibres. This outcome is not entirely 206 unexpected given the affinity of glass with silica. Coating conveys a surface 207 area enhancement that fares about 40 and 27 times the SSA of the control 208 group, respectively for glass and carbon. This notable increase of surface area 209 may effectively promote the hydrophilicity of the fabric and thus the adhesion 210 capacity at the interphase. The accuracy of BET measurements is supported 211 by the coefficient of determination in the linear regression of the BET diagram 212 $(v^{-1}\varphi(1-\varphi)^{-1} \text{ vs } \varphi)$, that is practically 1 except for the G-UC sample $(R^2 =$ 213 (0.794), due to the extremely low SSA. In the BET diagram, v represents the mass 214 of adsorbed gas and φ is the ratio between the equilibrium and the saturation 215 pressure of adsorbates at the temperature of adsorption [47]. Typical BET 216 diagrams are presented in Figure 3.



Figure 3: BET diagrams for all the tested groups

218 3.1.2. Optical and E-SEM microscopy

Quality and uniformity of the coating are investigated through optical and 219 electron microscopy. Figures 4(a) and (c) present an optical investigation of 220 the surface of uncoated glass and uncoated carbon textiles, respectively, to be 221 compared with the corresponding coated specimens, Fig.4(b) and (d). In the 222 case of glass fibres, the presence of bundles of CNT, which stand out of the clear 223 background, is quite evident. Conversely, CNT presence on carbon fibres can 224 be appreciated only when light shines at a large incident angle to the sample 225 surface. Sharper results are obtained through E-SEM: Figure 5 shows a sin-226 gle carbon coated multifilament yarn at $1000 \times$ and $4000 \times$ magnification. The 227 presence of CNT individual nano-particles cannot be singled out, most likely 228 as a result of the embedding role of silica molecules that surround CNTs. Yet, 229 fibres appear coated by a thin layer of silica, which can penetrate inside the 230 inner part of the yarn. Patches of residual salt deposits, most likely due to 231 the surfactant employed to disperse CNTs, are seldom identified on the fibres 232 through an energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) microanalysis. 233



Figure 4: Optical stereo-microscopy investigation for AR-glass (a-b) and carbon (c-d) fabrics without and with S-CNT coating

- 234 3.2. Mechanical tests
- 235 3.2.1. Glass fabric

Figure 6 presents mean strength (i.e. stress-strain) curves for AR-glass textiles embedded in MS and GC mortar. An almost perfectly tri-stage behaviour is consistently observed across the S-CNT coated groups. The first stage is elastic and it holds until the first cracking strength (FCS) is attained. The elastic stage is followed by an intermediate regime (cracking stage) characterized by



(a) S-CNT coated (E-SEM $1000 \times$) (b) S-CNT coated (E-SEM $4000 \times$)





Figure 6: Mean stress-strain curves for uncoated (UC, black fine-dashed) and coated (S-CNT, red solid) glass fabric-reinforced coupons. $(1 \text{ mstrain} = 10^{-3} \text{ mm/mm})$

the opening of several successive cracks. This regime ends when new cracks 241 cease to appear and the existing ones widen. In this final, post-cracking stage, 242 the specimen is more compliant (i.e. less stiff) than in the elastic regime, owing 243 to the absence of the mortar contribution. The formation of several new cracks 244 at the cracking stage is supported by many small stress drops in the strength 245 curve, which account for the appearance of a diffuse cracking pattern. This, 246 in turn, leads to high levels of mechanical energy being dissipated at failure 247 (toughness) [55]. In stark contrast, the cracking stage appears very shortly in 248 the uncoated specimens, where wide-spaced large cracks immediately develop 249 with irreversible damage to the interphase, as a consequence of the high bursts 250 of mechanical energy that are being released and cannot be dealt with elastically 251 by the interphase. Accordingly, failure at the interphase brings about detach-252 ment between the fabric and the embedding mortar, sliding of the fibres and 253

internal delamination. On the overall, this mechanism possesses a lower bearing 254

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capacity than that in the coated group. For these reasons, CNT-coating provides remarkable improvement both in terms of strength and ductility, that is 256 particularly striking for the hybrid lime-cement mortar (namely, mortar G).



Figure 7: Ultimate strength (a) and strain (b) with ± 1 standard deviation band for uncoated (UC, grey) and coated (S-CNT, red) groups for all G-TRM.

A bar-chart comparison of the mean ultimate tensile strength (UTS) and 258 elongation of G-TRM composites at failure is presented in Figure 7. Labels 259 code for mortar (GC or MS), reinforcing fabric (G or C) and coating (S-CNT) 260 or lack thereof (UC). For example, GC-G-UC stands for GC-matrix reinforced 261 with uncoated glass fabric. It is very important to observe that coating sig-262 nificantly decreases data scattering, especially for GC mortar, and this has a 263 strong positive bearing on design limits [21]. In fact, this very outcome is es-264 pecially valuable for TRC/TRM materials, whose inconsistent performance is 265 their major drawback. 266

The beneficial effect of the coating on mechanical performance of G-TRM 267 specimens is best appreciated through the data provided in Table 4, which 268 compares the mean ultimate tensile strength, $\mu(f_u)$, mean elongation, $\mu(\varepsilon_u)$, 269 and mean dissipated energy, $\mu(W_u)$, across all tested groups, together with the 270 relevant standard deviation. There, $\mu(\cdot)$, $\varsigma(\cdot)$ and CoV represent the mean 271 value, the standard deviation and the coefficient of variation of the sampling, 272 respectively; $\Delta(\cdot)$ provides the percent variance of the relevant quantity in the 273 coated against the uncoated group. In order to take into account data scattering, 274 characteristic values (5%-fractile) are computed through Eqn.(1), assuming that 275

	UC			S-CNT				Δ		
m	$\mu(f_u)$	$\varsigma(f_u)$	CoV	$f_{u,k}$	$\mu(f_u)$	$\varsigma(f_u)$	CoV	$f_{u,k}$	$\Delta \mu(f_u)$	$\Delta f_{u,k}$
MS GC	256 317	123 43	48 14	$\begin{array}{c c} 54 \\ 246 \end{array}$	511 947	78 23	15 2	383 909	+100 +198	+600 +270
	$\mu(\varepsilon_u)$	$\varsigma(\varepsilon_u)$ [mstrain]	CoV [%]	$arepsilon_{u,k}^{}$	$\mu(\varepsilon_u)$ [mstrain]	$\varsigma(\varepsilon_u)$ [mstrain]	CoV [%]	$arepsilon_{u,k}$	$\Delta \mu(\varepsilon_u)$ [%]	$\Delta \varepsilon_{u,k}$
MS GC	$13.5 \\ 8.6$	$3.0 \\ 2.7$	23 31	8.6 4.2	$19.7 \\ 27.0$	4.8 1.8	$\frac{24}{7}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.8 \\ 24.0 \end{array}$	+46 +214	$+38 \\ +476$
	$\mu(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	$\varsigma(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	CoV [%]	$W_{u,k}$ _[J/mm³]	$\mu(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	$\varsigma(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	CoV [%]	$W_{u,k}$ _[J/mm³]	$\Delta \mu(W_m)$	$\Delta W_{u,\mu}$
MS GC	$2.10 \\ 2.65$	$1.11 \\ 0.60$	$53 \\ 22$	$\begin{array}{c c} 0.28 \\ 1.67 \end{array}$	$5.93 \\ 16.1$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.15 \\ 0.91 \end{array}$	19 6	$\begin{array}{c} 4.0\\ 14.6\end{array}$	+183 +508	+1346 +777

Table 4: Glass reinforcement – Mean UTS $\mu(f_u)$, mean strain $\mu(\varepsilon_u)$ and mean dissipated energy $\mu(W_u)$ across all tested groups, alongside their standard deviation ς , coefficient of variation CoV and percent variance Δ . $f_{u,k}$ is the characteristic strength in a normal distribution

²⁷⁶ data are normally distributed [56].

$$(\cdot)_k = \mu(\cdot) - 1.64 \varsigma(\cdot) \tag{1}$$

The corresponding percent variance of the coated vs the uncoated group is 277 denoted by $\Delta f_{u,k}$. We observe a striking five-fold increase in the mean dissi-278 pated energy for coated specimens embedded in the GC mortar against uncoated 279 ones, as a combination of enhanced ultimate strength (+198%) and elongation 280 (+214%). For the MS mortar, the corresponding result is also very significant, 281 albeit not so impressive (+183%). Most significantly, data scattering is also 282 strongly reduced by CNT-coating: consideration of the CoV for strength in 283 the MS mortar (GC mortar) jumps from 48% (14%) in the UC group to 15%284 (2%) in the coated group. Similar observations can be made for elongation and 285 energy dissipation. Such results support the idea that consistency in ultimate 286 performance is strictly connected to the suppression of telescopic failure and of 287 intralaminar textile sliding, which are inherently inconsistent mechanisms. 288

Stereo-microscopy provides clear evidence of interphase compatibility improvement, as in Figs.8 and 9 referring to the surface of glass fibres emerging in



Figure 8: 8X magnification of uncoated (a) and coated (b) glass yarns at failure.



Figure 9: 35X magnification of uncoated (a) and coated (b) glass yarns at failure.

the failure zone. Indeed, while UC strands are clean as they have been "pulled-291 out" as a result of telescopic sliding (unfolding generates misalignment of the 292 filaments of a single yarn), fibres in the S-CNT group maintain good alignment 293 and to them many mortar patches and CNT bundles are diffusely attached. 294 The distribution of MWCNTs appears not uniform over the fibre surface, which 295 fact enhances micro-roughness and prevents slippage with the mortar at the 296 interphase. In addition to providing a functionalising dispersing medium, silica 297 enhances the chemical interlocking with the mortar and bonds fibres together 298 [46]. To these benefits, the contribution of CNT is superposed and it consists of 200 strengthening the interphase zone and the fibre-to-matrix adhesion capability. 300

301 3.2.2. Carbon fibres



Figure 10: Mean stress-strain curves for uncoated (UC, black fine-dashed) and coated (S-CNT, red solid) carbon-fabric reinforced specimens

Similar considerations may be put forward with regard to specimens rein-302 forced with uniaxial carbon fabric. However, as already observed in Signorini 303 et al. [51], silica coating appears less effective on carbon fabric than on AR-304 glass. This can be ascribed to the lower chemical affinity of the silica-carbon 305 system, as compared to silica-glass. In fact, the latter is expected to perform 306 significantly better, as a result of the chemical composition of the coating and 307 of the substrate being essentially the same. A consistent picture emerges when 308 MWCNTs act as high-strength interphase nanofillers in the coating. Figure 309 10 presents the mean stress-strain curve in uni-axial tension obtained for ms 310 and GC mortars. Strikingly, coating impairs performance in the MS mortar, 311 although this negative outcome is compensated by significant benefits in terms 312

of ductility and the overall effect is positive for mean energy dissipation (yet neutral in terms of characteristic value).



Figure 11: Mean ultimate strength (a) and strain (b) with ± 1 standard deviation bands for uncoated (UC, grey) and coated (S-CNT, red) carbon fabric reinforced specimens

For better comparison, bar-charts are given in Figure 11 which illustrate ultimate performance alongside standard deviation bands for the MS and GC mortars. Data on mean ultimate strength, elongation and specific energy dissipated at failure are gathered in Table 5, where the percentage variance is also given. Again, characteristic values are computed following Eqn.(1).

In general, a positive effect is still brought by CNT-coating on carbon fabric 320 specimens. However, data scattering shows a mixed response. Interestingly, 321 S-CNT coating is most advantageous for mortar G, which is characterized by 322 higher nominal compressive strength and stiffness and lower nominal ductility. 323 This seems to partly contrast the observations drawn by Signorini et al. [46], 324 according to which best performance is associated to higher lime content in the 325 binder. However, in contrast to the present study, Signorini et al. [46] employ a 326 high compressive strength mortar which contains glass microfibers. Indeed, the 327 benefit of adding dispersed microfibres to the mortar in terms of tensile response 328 is well-documented in the literature [57, 58]. It is therefore concluded that me-329 chanical performance in traction of the embedding mortar plays a fundamental 330 role in determining the overall tensile response of the composite. 331

In the case of both mortars, coating brings about a significant increase in the mean ultimate elongation, that is +40% for MS and +33% for GC. In terms of ultimate strength, coating induces an unexpected 24% UTS loss for mortar MS.

				S-CNT				Δ		
m	$\mu(f_u)$	$\varsigma(f_u)$	CoV [%]	$f_{u,k}$ [MPa]	$\mu(f_u)$	$\varsigma(f_u)$	CoV [%]	$f_{u,k}$ [MPa]	Δf_m [%]	$\Delta f_{u,k}$
MS GC	713 756	$\begin{array}{c} 58\\ 150 \end{array}$	8 20	618 510	$540 \\ 911$	24 266	5 29	$501 \\ 475$	-24 +20	-19 -7
	$\mu(\varepsilon_u)$ _[mstrain]	$\varsigma(\varepsilon_u)$ _[mstrain]	CoV [%]	$arepsilon_{u,k}$	$\mu(\varepsilon_u)$	$\varsigma(\varepsilon_u)$ [mstrain]	CoV [%]	$arepsilon_{u,k}^{}$	$\Delta \varepsilon_m$ [%]	$\Delta \varepsilon_{u,k}$ ^[%]
MS GC	$11.3 \\ 13.3$	$0.8 \\ 3.7$	7 27	10 7.2	$15.7 \\ 17.7$	$2.8 \\ 3.3$	18 18	$11.1 \\ 12.3$	$+40 \\ +33$	+11 +70
	$\mu(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	$\varsigma(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	CoV [%]	$W_{u,k}$ _[J/mm³]	$\mu(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	$\varsigma(W_u)$ _[J/mm³]	CoV [%]	$W_{u,k}$ _[J/mm³]	ΔW_m	$\Delta W_{u,\mu}$
MS GC	$3.94 \\ 8.74$	$0.40 \\ 3.06$	$\frac{10}{35}$	3.28 3.72	$4.91 \\ 23.54$	$1.05 \\ 11.64$	$21 \\ 49$	$3.19 \\ 4.45$	+25 +169	-3 +20

Table 5: Carbon reinforcement – Mean ultimate tensile strength $\mu(f_u)$, mean strain $\mu(\varepsilon_u)$ and mean dissipated energy $\mu(W_u)$ across all tested groups, alongside their standard deviation ς , coefficient of variation CoV and percent variance Δ . $f_{u,k}$ is the characteristic strength in a normal distribution

However, this detrimental bearing is outweighed by ductility enhancement so that the combined effect works out beneficial on toughness (i.e. energy dissipation), that is still improved of about 25%. The outcome is far more impressive for GC mortar, for which toughness increases by 169%, ductility by 70% and UTS by a mere +20%.



Figure 12: 8X magnification of uncoated (a) and coated (b) carbon yarns at failure.

Optical microscopy depicts a scenario that is consistent with the findings provided by mechanical tests. Fig.12 and 13 show fibres emerging from failed C-TRM specimens with GC mortar at 8X and 35X magnification, respectively.



Figure 13: 35X magnification of uncoated (a) and coated (b) carbon yarns at failure.



Figure 14: Mean crack spacing (data fit) as a function of strain during testing of AR-glass (a) and carbon (b) specimens in GC mortar. Uncoated specimens are represented with black lines, whilst S-CNT ones with red lines. For the sake of comparison, relevant groups have the same line type (e.g. solid for GC mortar and dash-dotted for MS mortar).

Despite generally good impregnation of the coated yarns, supported by the presence of diffuse mortar patches on the surface, wide zones still exist where the coating is not attached any mortar grain (see detail in Figure 13(b)). These areas suggest random lack of adhesion, possibly accompanied by the occurrence of slippage, and either phenomenon is attached to large data scattering. Also, the strength curve exhibits a blurred behaviour where the three stages are no longer well distinct.

350 3.3. Crack analysis

The evolution of the crack pattern during tensile testing provides information about incipient damage mechanisms correlated with matrix-to-fabric adhesion. Two important features are identified by DIC post-processing: the average crack spacing, which is related with the interphase bond and the apparent composite

		UC		S-CNT			
Mortar/Fabric	S_1	α	R^2	S_1	α	R^2	
	[mm]	[-]	[-]	[mm]	[-]	[-]	
MS/G	123.5	0.28	0.985	55.0	8.09	1.000	
MS/C	67.2	0.79	0.976	49.7	0.77	0.953	
GC/G	50.0	1.78	1.000	41.5	0.56	0.991	
GC/C	90.0	0.17	0.979	33.6	0.10	0.964	

Table 6: Parameters for the mean crack spacing Eq.(2), as obtained by data fitting

stiffness [59], and the average crack width. The latter strongly affects durability,
for serviceability of structures is endangered by extensive crack opening. Fig.14
illustrates the evolution of the crack spacing, that is the mean spacing between
two adjacent cracks. Data are fitted, as a function of strain, to an exponential
model proposed by Mobasher [2] and successively adopted by Signorini et al.
[52] for durability considerations

$$S(\varepsilon) = S_1 + S_0 \exp\left[-\alpha(\varepsilon - \varepsilon_1)\right], \qquad \varepsilon \ge \varepsilon_1.$$
(2)

Here, S_1 represents the saturation value for crack spacing, that is an important 361 index of interphase strength, ε_1 is the first strain value in the dataset and 362 $S(\varepsilon_1) = S_0 + S_1$ the corresponding spacing. The decay parameter α and the 363 characteristic saturation mean crack spacing S_1 are fitted for each group and 364 reported in Table 6. Better performance is associated to lower saturation crack 365 distances, implying a diffused crack pattern. Indeed, as already discussed, all 366 coated groups consistently present several closely-spaced cracks, as opposed to 367 uncoated specimens for which a few far-spaced cracks appear. Interpretation of 368 the decaying exponent α , which indicates the capacity of the laminate to crack 369 at an early stage, appears more difficult. Indeed, α appears little changing, 370 with the noticeable exception of a striking increase occurring for G fabric in MS 371 mortar. For carbon-based systems, the index is not significantly modified by the 372 coating, while, for GC/G, a slight reduction is found. Such fluctuations can be 373 ascribed to the coexistence of several competing cracking mechanisms, also in 374 the brittle matrix, and to the confining effect of the gripping system in the test 375



Figure 15: Longitudinal displacement colour map, obtained by DIC post processing, at fixed elongation $\bar{\varepsilon} = 13$ mstrain, for uncoated (upper) and S-CNT coated (lower) TRM specimens



Figure 16: Mean crack width as a function of strain during testing for AR-glass (a) and carbon (b) samples for MS mortar. Uncoated samples are represented by grey dash-dotted lines and square markers, whilst S-CNT specimen behaviour is denoted by circular markers connected by violet dotted lines

set-up [60]. Fig.15 presents a colour map description of the displacement field 376 in the longitudinal direction and compares coated with uncoated samples at the 377 prescribed strain level $\bar{\varepsilon} = 13 \, \text{mstrain}$. The presence of cracks is highlighted 378 in red colour. While uncoated specimens present a coarse crack pattern, with 379 few large cracks spanning the direction y orthogonal to the loading, coated 380 coupons exhibit a diffused pattern of fine cracks throughout the gauge length. 381 This behaviour is directly associated to enhanced adhesion, consistently to the 382 findings presented in previous papers and related to plain nano-silica coating 383 [51] and to epoxy coating [17]. 384

The same pattern is described by Figures 16 and 17, where the evolution of the average crack width and of the average crack spacing is presented as a



Figure 17: Mean crack width as a function of strain during testing for AR-glass (a) and carbon (b) samples for GC mortar. Uncoated samples are represented with grey dash-dotted lines and square markers, whilst S-CNT ones with violet dotted lines and circular markers.

³⁸⁷ function of strain. Comparing coated and uncoated specimens for any fixed
³⁸⁸ value of strain (namely, at the same instant of the test) after the cracking stage,
³⁸⁹ the former present lower values than the latter for both indices.



390 4. Conclusions

Figure 18: Comparison, in terms of mean strength curves (a) and mean specific energy dissipated at failure (b), for different coating strategies applied to AR-glass in mortar GC: no coating (UC), nanosilica (NS), microsilica (MS) and silica+MWCNTs (S-CNT). Results for microsilica and nanosilica are taken from [21] and [46], respectively

We analyse the application of a mineral silica sol-gel coating, loaded with dispersed multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs), to AR-glass and carbon Textile Reinforced Mortar composites for structural purposes. Two inorganic lime-based mortars at 56-day curing are considered as embedding medium. Remarkable gains in terms of mechanical performance are highlighted in uni-axial traction tests, especially with respect to glass fabric. Investigation of the chemical adhesion at the fibres-to-matrix interphase, through optical and E-SEM
microscopy, supports the role of the coating in preventing delamination and
telescopic failure. The following conclusions can be drawn:

• Silica coating takes advantage of pozzolanic reactivity in the neighbourhood of the thin mortar layer surrounding the fabric yarns (i.e. the socalled interphase transition zone) [61];

• The addition of well-dispersed MWCNTs produces a two-fold increase, in terms of strength, with respect to the already significant contribution of plain-vanilla silica coating; thus, an almost optimal performance is attained, that scores slightly below the tensile strength of the dry glass fabric (i.e. around 1200 MPa);

For AR-glass embedded in GC mortar, Fig.18 compares, in terms of strength curves (a) and specific dissipated energy at failure (b), the present findings with the outcome of different coating strategies, pertaining to micro-silica [46] and nano-silica [21] sol-gel. It shows that adding CNTs roughly double the best outcome both in terms of strength and energy dissipation;

CNTs provide a striking increase in the specific surface area (SSA) of the
reinforcement and effectively roughen its surface. The resulting composite
system exhibits a diffuse crack pattern, with high dissipation capability,
and a prolonged cracking stage associated to several small stress drops in
the strength curve.

• Coating successfully prevents delamination and telescopic failure, whence it warrants consistent performance (narrows data scattering), to great advantage of design limits;

Sol-gel coating is especially effective for AR-glass, while mixed results are
 retrieved for carbon;

- Matrix composition strongly affects the overall behaviour, with stronger binders being, in general, better performing;
- The inorganic nature of the coating (as opposed to epoxy coating) preserves the attractive features connected to TRM materials.

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437 Declaration of interest

438 None

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