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1 **Lubricious ionic polymer brush functionalised silicone elastomer surfaces**

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9 **ABSTRACT**

10 Infection, erosion of mucosal and uro-epithelial layers, tissue trauma and encrustation associated with
11 catheterisation is still an issue faced by health-care professionals and patients – effecting patients
12 subject to spinal cord injuries, chemotherapy and incontinence to name a few. Over the past decade
13 efforts have been made to optimise catheter surfaces in an attempt to reduce the occurrence of
14 trauma related complications during insertion. Organic and inorganic materials have been mooted as
15 potential methods of reducing bio-film formation and increasing lubricity. The use of charged species
16 has been further hypothesised as a potential method to reduce the occurrence of bio-film formation,
17 reducing the need for therapeutic intervention. This study investigates the feasibility of functionalising
18 silicone surfaces with charged ionic polymer brush technologies with the view to reduce urethral
19 trauma and infection for indwelling and self-catheterisation devices. A simple three step synthesis
20 route has been proposed, complimented by surface analysis and tribological assessment of the
21 surfaces. The effects of initial monomer content on the functional outcomes of the surfaces has been
22 investigated. Functionalisation of surfaces was seen to significantly reduce the hydrophobicity of the
23 surfaces. A significant reduction in the coefficient of friction from $\mu = 0.4$ to 0.005 for un-functionalised
24 and functionalised surfaces, respectively, was seen. The speed dependence and effects of lubricant
25 chemistry on the coefficient of friction have also been investigated.

26

27

28 **KEYWORDS:** Urinary Incontinence; Catheters; Polymer Brush; Aqueous Lubrication

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Since the 1940's, silicones and other hydrophobic elastomers such as poly vinyl chloride and
31 polyurethanes, have found extensive use in healthcare due to their bio-compatibility, mechanical
32 properties and durability [1]. Silicones are now ubiquitous in medicine and are used for implantable
33 devices such as catheters, drains, shunts and prosthetics as well as extracorporeal equipment, due to
34 their hemocompatibility and permeability properties. The use of silicone catheters is wide-spread for
35 the management of urine out of the bladder. This typically involves the insertion of a silicone tube into
36 the urethra or lower stomach (Suprapubic), bypassing the urinary sphincter and into the bladder. A
37 balloon is then inflated within the bladder allowing urine to flow through the catheter into a collection
38 bag. The design and use of materials for urinary catheterisation has remained relatively unchanged
39 since their inception. Pain during insertion, infection, erosion of epithelial layers, tissue trauma and
40 encrustation are still common and represent a significant burden on the health services [2]. Without
41 doubt, a functional device-biology interface is key if successful intermittent and in-dwelling medical
42 devices are to be achieved.

43 Despite its widespread use, the inherent hydrophobicity of the silicone surface makes it undesirable
44 from a tribological point of view. Values of coefficient of friction (μ) are regularly quoted and range
45 from 0.1 to 0.5 for un-functionalised silicone surfaces against a wide range of counter-body materials
46 [3, 4]. Over the past decade efforts have been made to optimise silicone surfaces in an attempt to
47 reduce friction and reduce/eliminate infection and encrustation [5]. Organic and inorganic materials
48 have been mooted as potential strategies to reducing bio-film formation and increase lubricity.
49 Hydrogel coatings (i.e. networks of crosslinked polymer chains in an aqueous solvent) are available
50 and have been shown to be effective in reducing biofilm formation, trauma and encrustation due to
51 their hydrophilic nature [6, 7]. These are often user applied with no direct bonding to the surface and,
52 as such, questions are raised regarding their durability.

53 Polymer brush surfaces consist of a layer of bio-inspired polymers with one end chemically grafted to
54 the surface [8]. Such surfaces are inspired from the bio-macromolecules observed in nature replicating
55 the highly hydrated regions of proteoglycans and phospholipid membranes [9]. The application of
56 polymer brush technologies has received much attention by researchers over the past decade as an
57 interesting class of thin-film polymer surfaces. Many investigators have shown the ability to tailor a
58 surface, in terms of fouling and friction, through selective grafting or polymer chemistry [2]. From a
59 biomedical and surface engineering point of view, charged polymers are becoming of particular
60 interest because of their bio-compatibility, low-fouling and ability to impart low coefficients of friction

61 [2, 8, 9]. Such surfaces are attractive for application such as catheterisation, drug delivery and
62 modification of elastomer prosthetic surfaces [10, 11].

63 This study aims to develop a simple method for the functionalisation of silicone surfaces with anionic
64 polymer brush technologies. The grafting of charged polymers to a surface aims to exploit the
65 biological environment for enhanced lubrication, but also provide surfaces with enhanced anti-fouling
66 capabilities as seen in other areas of bio-fouling. This study presents a simple functionalisation method
67 and systematically investigates the roles of synthesis parameters on the lubrication properties of the
68 surfaces under a wide range of loads and sliding speeds. In the long term, the produced surfaces will
69 be capable of reducing tissue trauma and infection for indwelling and self-catheterisation devices.

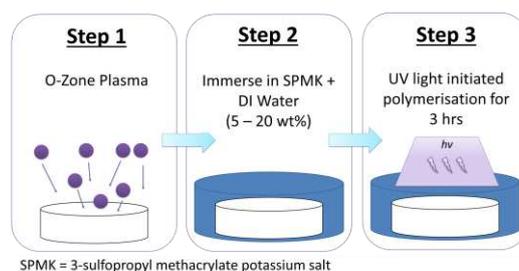
70 **2. Materials and Methodology**

71 **2.1. Materials and Reagents**

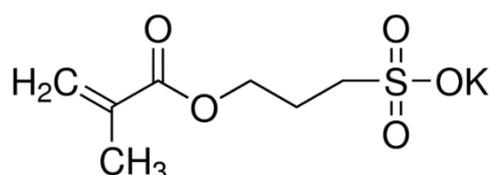
72 3-Sulfopropyl methacrylate potassium salt (SPMK) was purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used as
73 received. SPMK was dissolved in de-ionised water at three concentrations; 5, 10 and 20 wt%.
74 Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) was used as an idealised material. Samples were prepared using a
75 Sylgard 184 elastomer kit (Dow-Corning, USA). The PDMS kit was mixed at a ratio of 10:1 (by weight)
76 and poured into polystyrene moulds facilitating the production of a 4mm thick silicone slab ($E = 1.8 -$
77 2 MPa, measured in our lab). The mixtures were transferred into the mould after removing bubbles
78 under vacuum and then incubated in an oven (70 °C) for 24 hours. Samples were then cut from the
79 slabs (\varnothing 5 x 4 mm) and used as the substrate material in this study.

80 **2.2. Surface Synthesis**

81 Figure 1 shows the steps involved in grafting surfaces with SPMK. The 'as cast' and 'cut' PDMS surfaces
82 were cleaned using in an O-Zone plasma chamber for 60 seconds (50 W at 60 mTorr). Surfaces were
83 removed and immediately placed in a 12 well cell culture plate within a N₂ glove box. These were then
84 immersed in the monomer solution (M_i , 5, 10 & 20 wt% in de-ionised water) which had been degassed
85 with N₂ for at least 30 mins. Polymerisation was then initiated by UV irradiation for 3 hrs at 60 °C (365
86 nm at 5 mW/cm²). After polymerisation, surfaces were removed and rinsed with de-ionised water for
87 30 minutes, followed by drying with an N₂ air stream. Surfaces were then stored dry prior to testing.



(a)



(b)

88 **Figure 1** – a) Schematic representation of the three-step process for creating PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces
 89 and b) monomer used in this study.

90 To determine the average molecular weight (M_n) of the polymers after UV exposure, residual polymer
 91 solution was removed prior to the surfaces been rinsed with DI water. The viscosity of the residual
 92 polymer solution after UV exposure was measured at five different dilutions in DI water. An m-VROC
 93 (RheoSense, USA) micro-fluidic, micro-electrical mechanical based viscometer was used to determine
 94 the viscosity of the solution at a flow rate of 600 μL / minute. The intrinsic viscosity $[\eta]$ for the solution
 95 was determined and related to molecular weight using the Mark-Houwink-Sakurada relationship.
 96 Where K and α are constants, assumed to be $2.06 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mL/mg}$ and 0.5 respectively [12].

97 **Eq1:**
$$[\eta] = KM_n^\alpha$$

118 2.3. Surface Characterisation

119 Static contact angle (CA) was acquired at ambient temperature (25 °C). A droplet of 5 μL of deionized
 120 water was used as probe liquid. Five different positions were measured for each sample to get the
 121 average CA. All the contact angles were measured with about 5 seconds of residence time of water
 122 droplet on the surface.

123 Attenuated Total Reflection - Fourier Transform Infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) analysis was
 124 conducted in order to ascertain the current nature of any organic material present on the surfaces of
 125 the PDMS surfaces. ATR-FTIR scans were conducted using a Spotlight 400 (Perkin-Elmer, USA) from a
 126 wavelength of 700 to 4000 cm^{-1} . Reference spectra were taken from the Sigma library of FT-IR spectra
 127 and cross compared with the obtained spectra.

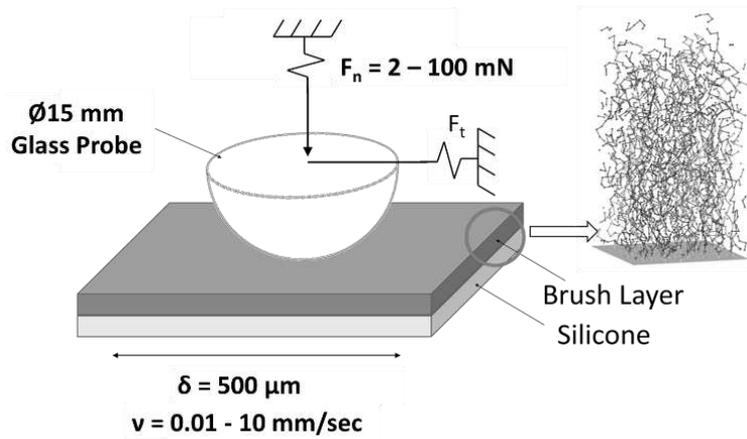
128 A Helios G4 CX DualBeam (FEI, USA) High resolution monochromated field emission gun scanning
129 electron microscope (FEGSEM) with precise Focused Ion Beam (FIB) was used to determine the dry
130 film thickness of the grafted surfaces. The microscope also facilitated energy dispersive x-ray
131 spectroscopy (EDX) enabling elemental identification. Prior to FIB cross sectioning, samples were
132 mounted, dehydrated in a light vacuum and coated with ~ 20 nm of iridium. Samples were then place
133 in the microscope and a layer of platinum deposited via an electron and ion beam respectively. This
134 was done to persevere surfaces during the argon ion beam FIB process. A 10 x 10 x 10 μm trench was
135 milled to expose a cross-section of the interface. The cross sections were imaged under FEGSEM
136 conditions to observe the film thickness. A minimum of two cross sections were made on each sample
137 with two samples of each monomer variable being observed.

138 **2.4. Tribological Evaluation**

139 Tribological evaluation was conducted using a reciprocating NTR³ tribometer (Figure 2, Anton Parr,
140 Switzerland). The tribo-couple consisted of the PDMS-g-SPMK plate and borosilicate glass hemisphere
141 probe ($\varnothing = 15 \text{ mm}$). Friction forces were spatially resolved under piezo controlled actuation across a
142 variety of loads and sliding speeds. This allowed the assessment of the load and velocity dependant
143 frictional responses for the grafted surfaces. Frictional forces (F_t) as a function of load were
144 characterised at normal loads (F_n) between 1 and 100 mN (for a total of 20 load increments) at a sliding
145 speed of 500 $\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$ using a triangle wave displacement profile. In all studies, a sliding displacement
146 (δ) of 500 μm was used. The speed dependence on F_t was also evaluated in this study under constant
147 normal load conditions ($F_n = 50 \text{ mN}$). The sliding speed was incrementally increased (total of 20
148 increments) from 0.01 – 10 mm/sec. Under all conditions, F_t was measured for a total of 50 cycles
149 with a data acquisition rate of 400 Hz. The F_t vs δ loop was used to determine the average F_t per
150 sliding cycle. This was taken as the average of the forward and reverse F_t under steady state, speed
151 independent sliding conditions. ‘Amonton’s’ coefficient of friction (μ_a) was determined from the
152 gradient of F_t vs F_n curve according to Equation 2. The instantaneous coefficient of friction (i.e. $\mu_i =$
153 $\frac{F_{tc}}{N_c}$ where F_{tc} and N_c are the tangential and normal load for a specific friction cycle ‘c’) was also
154 calculated as a comparison. All tests were completed in triplicate under lubricated conditions
155 consisting of 100 μL of de-ionised water or Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) solution. The results
156 presented represent a mean of three samples with the associated standard deviation ($n = 3 \pm \text{SD}$).

157 **Eq2:**
$$F_t = \mu_a F_n + F_o$$

158 Where F_o is an unknown interfacial adhesion force.



159

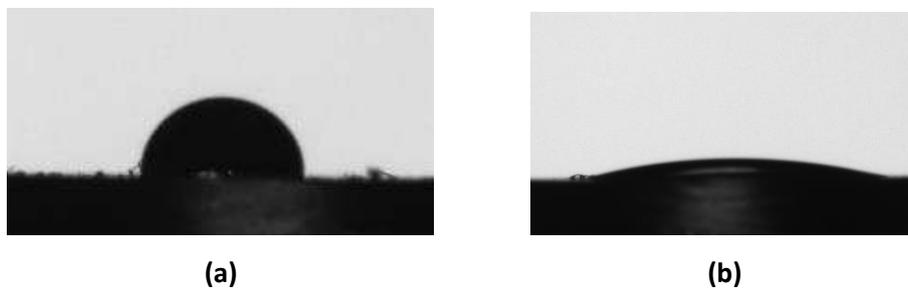
160 **Figure 2** – Schematic of tribological arrangement used in this study

161 **3. Results**

162

163 **3.1. Water Contact Angle (WCA) measurement**

164 Figure 3 shows examples of the obtained WCA for PDMS and the 20% PDMS-g-SPMK. A significant
 165 reduction in the WCA was observed indicating an increased hydrophilicity, after the grafting process.
 166 Table 1 lists the variation of WCA. A decrease from 89.85 to 19.50 ° in WCA was observed with
 167 increasing monomer content.



168 **Figure 3** – Example of WCA measurement for a) PDMS and b) 20% PDMS-g-SPMK after 3hrs UV
 169 exposure. A significant reduction in the WCA was observed between samples.

170

171 **Table 1** – Water Contact Angle measurements (WCA) for PDMS and PDMS-g-SPMK

	WCA (°) ± SD
PDMS	89.85 ± 1.73
5% SPMK	23.06 ± 0.62
10% SPMK	20.09 ± 0.92
20% SPMK	19.50 ± 0.70

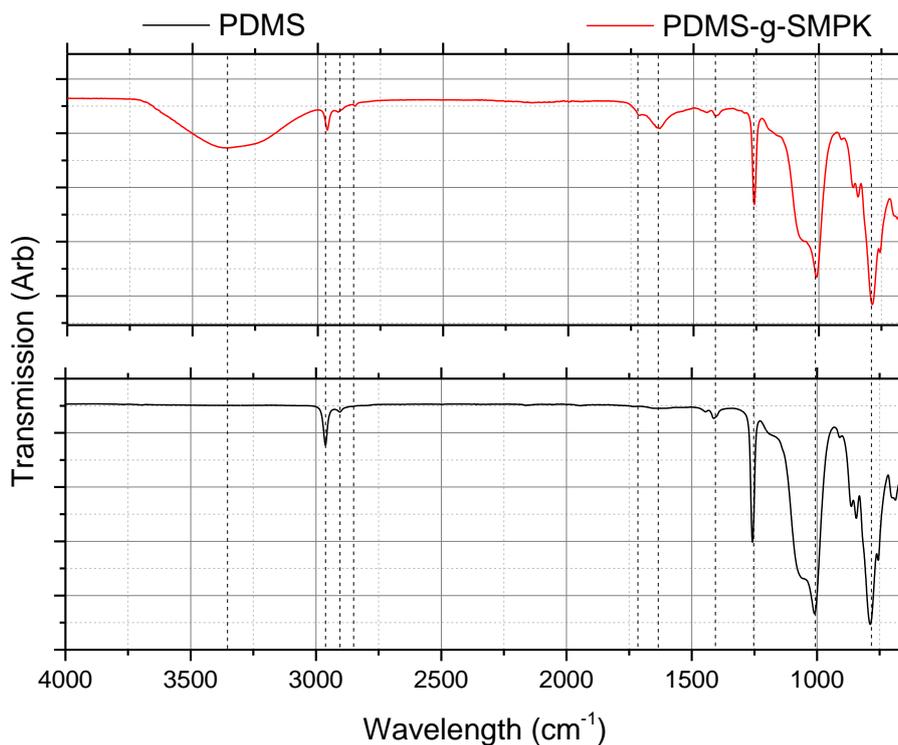
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173 **3.2. Fourier Transform Infrared Attenuated Total Reflectance Spectroscopy (FTIR - ATR)**

174 Figure 4 shows the typical ATR-FTIR spectra obtained for PDMS and PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces.
175 Differences in spectra was seen between un-grafted and grafted PDMS surfaces. No difference
176 between grafted surfaces was seen. Table 2 summarises the peaks observed and their associated
177 chemical bonding indicating the presence of SPMK on the surface. For the PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces, a
178 adsorption peak at 1412 and 3373 cm^{-1} due to the water bound to the sulfonic acid groups of the
179 SPMK was observed.

180 **Table 2** – List of peak position observed on spectra presented in figure 4. Reference spectra were
181 taken from the Sigma library of FT-IR spectra and cross compared with the obtained spectra.

	Peak position (cm^{-1})	Functional group
PDMS	2962	C-H, =C-H, -CH ₂ , -CH ₃
	2905	C-H, O-H
	1285	Si-CH ₃
	1014	Si-O-Si
	787	Si-CH ₃
PDMS-g-SPMK	3720 – 3000	O-H, S-OH, S=O
	2962	C-H, =C-H, -CH ₂ , -CH ₃
	2914	C-H,
	2858	-CH ₂
	1722	C=O
	1640	C=C
	1412	S-O, S=O
	1258	Si-CH ₃
	1014	Si-O-Si
	787	Si-CH ₃



182

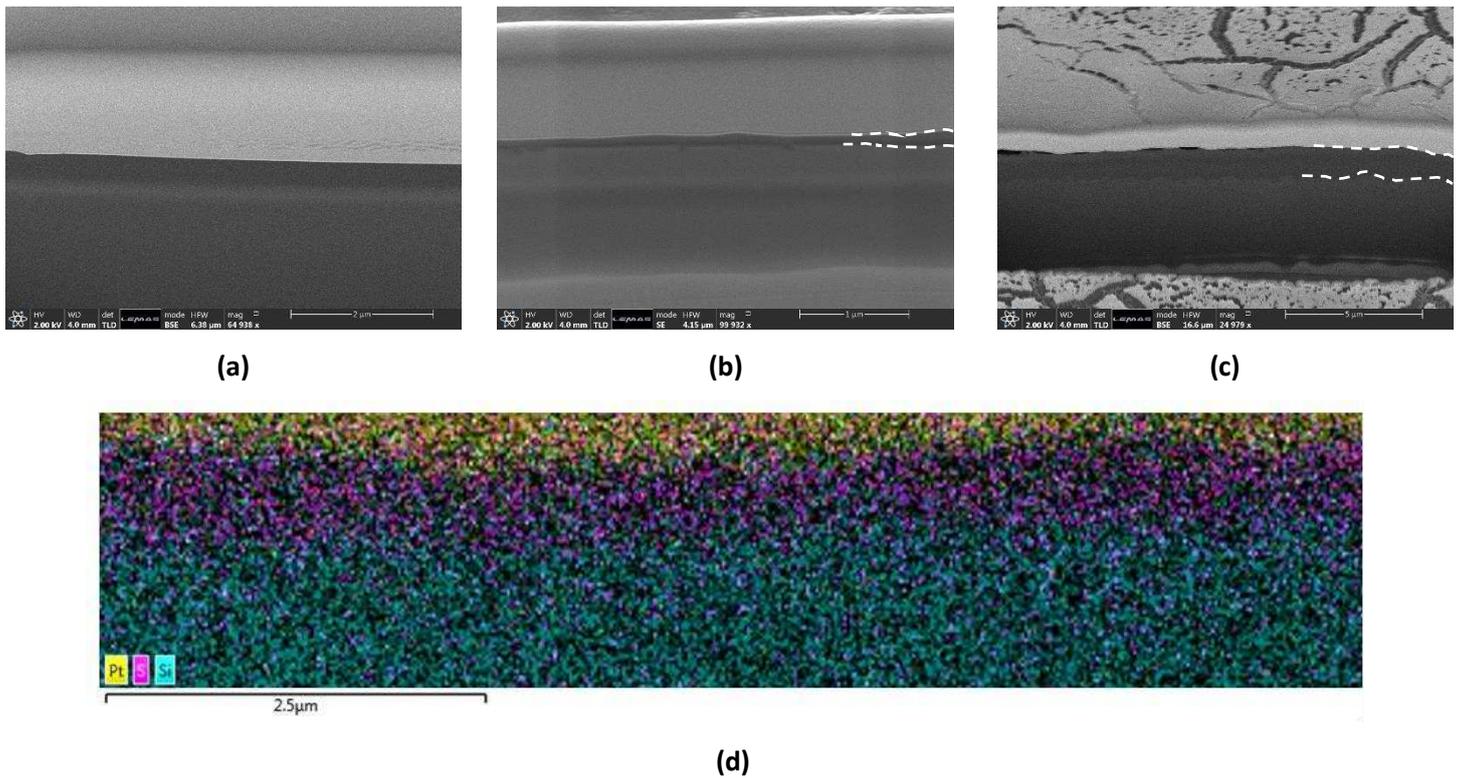
183 **Figure 4** – FTIR-ATR Spectroscopy of un-grafted a) PDMS and b) PDMS-g-SMPK surfaces.

184 **3.3. Focused Ion Beam-Scanning Electron Microscopy**

185 Figure 5 shows the cross-sectional FIB-SEM images of the dry grafted surfaces. Films of varying
 186 thickness were observed depending upon the initial monomer density, with thicker films observed
 187 with the higher initial monomer content. Due to charging of the sample, surfaces grafted with the
 188 lowest initial monomer content did not show evidence of a grafted film on the surface. Elemental EDX
 189 mapping of the interface demonstrated a concentration of sulphur at the PDMS interface further
 190 indicating the presence of a polymer SMPK layer. Dry film thicknesses in the region of 110 ± 53 and
 191 1339 ± 148 nm were observed for initial monomer concentrations of 20 and 30 wt% SMPK. Table 3
 192 lists the intrinsic viscosity and molecular weight of the polymer solutions after UV exposure.

193

194



195 **Figure 5** – FIB-SEM cross section images of films prepared with a) 10 b) 20 and c) 30 wt % SPMK
 196 solutions. Image d) shows elemental EDX mapping of the interface. Clear evidence of a polymer film
 197 was observed for surface grafted using 20 and 30 wt % initial monomer solutions, indicated by the
 198 white dashed lines.

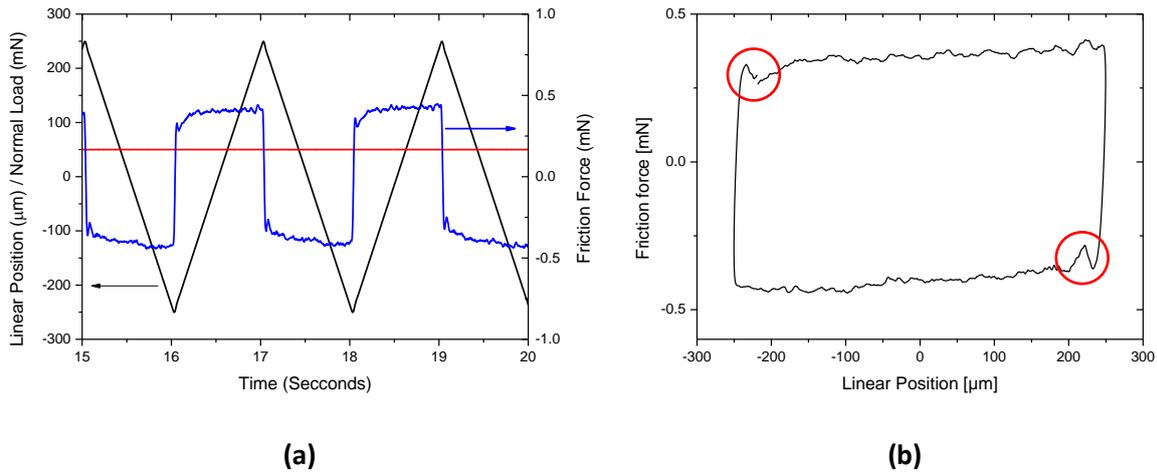
199 **Table 3** – intrinsic viscosity $[\eta]$ and molecular weight (M_w) of polymer solutions after UV exposure. The
 200 molecular weight was calculated using Equation 1.

	wt% SPMK		
	5	10	20
$[\eta]$	0.05	0.40	0.83
M_n	477.19	37,709.80	163,907.00

201

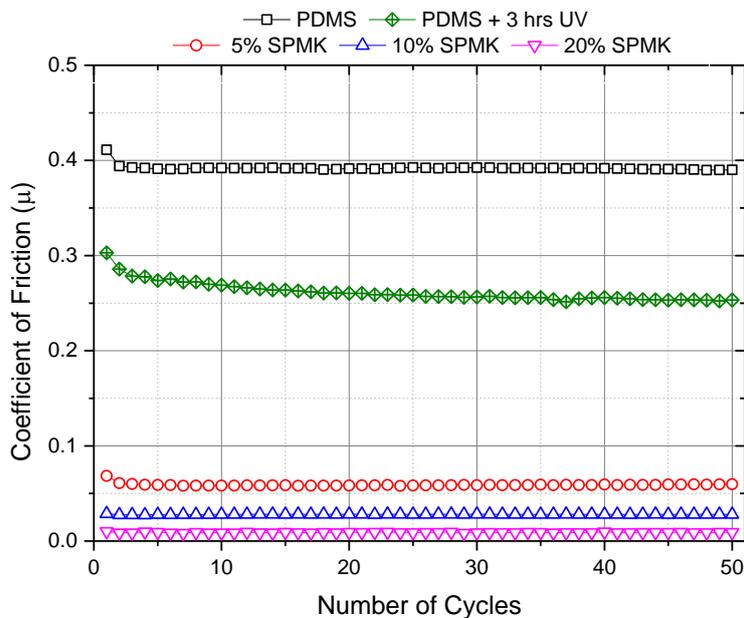
202 3.4. Tribological Characterisation

203 Figure 6 shows an example of the raw data obtained during tribological evaluation. F_t traces were
 204 obtained, showing clear regions of steady state sliding under constant velocity. Figure 6b shows the
 205 F_t vs δ of which the average F_t per cycle was calculated (taken between $\pm 200 \mu\text{m}$). Evidence of stick-
 206 slip transition was observed, highlighted in red on Figure 6b, which become more pronounced with
 207 increasing load.



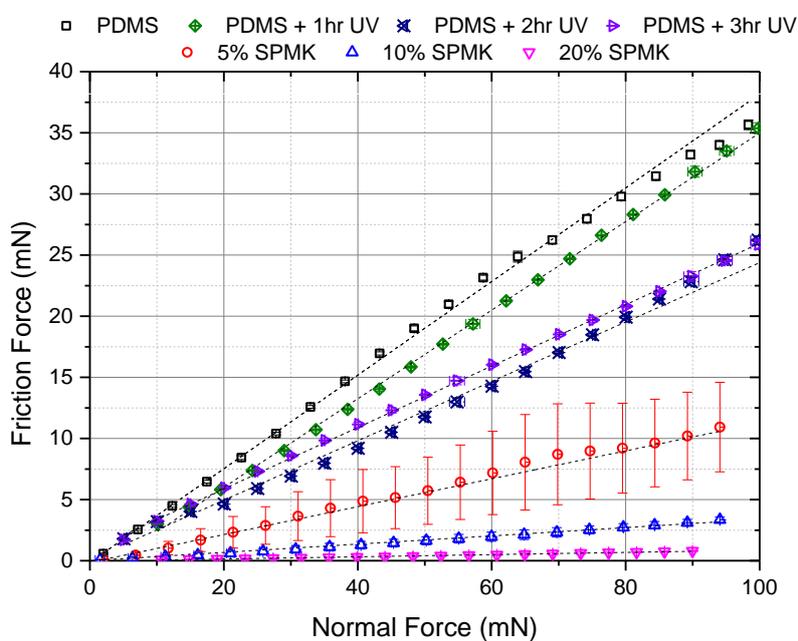
208 **Figure 6** – Example of typical a) normal load (red), linear position (black) and tangential force (blue)
 209 and b) friction force hysteresis loop at for 30 wt% PDMS-g-SPMK at $F_n = 50$ mN.

210 Figure 7 shows a representative example of instantaneous coefficient of friction as a function of time
 211 for the PDMS, PDMS after 3hrs of UV exposure in the absence of monomer and PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces
 212 lubricated with PBS at 50 mN. Over the 50 cycles μ_i was seen to be stable varying from 0.06 to 0.009
 213 for the polymer functionalised surfaces depending on the initial monomer grafting concentration. No
 214 significant difference in μ_i was seen as the load was increased incrementally for any of the monomer
 215 concentrations tested. This was substantially lower than that observed for the as-cast PDMS and
 216 PDMS subjected to plasma and UV exposure.



217
 218 **Figure 7** - Representative instantaneous friction (μ_i) vs time for each loading time and monomer
 219 content. The normal load (F_n) was at 50 mN

220 A comparative plot of F_t vs F_n , obtained according to the protocol outline in section 2, is shown in
 221 Figure 8. In all cases a near linear increase in F_t was observed with increasing F_n . A decrease in the
 222 coefficient of friction from $\mu_a = 0.382 \pm 0.03$ to 0.250 ± 0.04 was observed for surfaces subjected to
 223 plasma and UV exposure in the absence of monomer when compared to the as-cast PDMS surfaces.
 224 A substantial reduction in the coefficient of friction was observed for PDMS surfaces when exposed to
 225 UV in the presence of monomer. From Figure 8, it is evident that as M_i increases, a decrease in friction
 226 was observed. The average coefficient of friction calculated according to Eq 1 for the lowest M_i was μ_a
 227 $= 0.117 \pm 0.06$. This was seen to further decrease to $\mu_a = 0.035 \pm 0.002$ and 0.009 ± 0.001 for PDMS-g-
 228 SPMK surfaces prepared using 10 and 20 wt% monomer solutions respectively. Frictional data
 229 demonstrates a significant decrease in friction when compared to un-functionalised silicone surfaces
 230 ($\mu_a = 0.382 \pm 0.03$).



231
 232 **Figure 8** - Normal load vs friction force for different monomer content in PBS at 500 $\mu\text{m}/\text{sec}$

233 To investigate the role of the lubricant on friction, a small subset of experiments were carried out to
 234 investigate the presence of dissolved ions on the frictional properties of the PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces.
 235 In this case, the same tribological assessment was carried out as described above in de-ionised water
 236 for PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces prepared in 20 wt% monomer solution. Lower frictional forces were
 237 observed when lubricated with de-ionised water. The average coefficient of friction was $\mu_a = 0.009 \pm$
 238 0.001 and 0.005 ± 0.001 for surfaces examined in PBS and de-ionised water respectively. Table 3
 239 summarises the observed μ_a values in this study.

240 **Table 3** – Average coefficient of friction for each monomer content and lubricant tested

	PDMS	PDMS	PDMS	PDMS	SPMK monomer content (wt %)		
		+ 1 hr UV	+ 2 hr UV	+ 3 hr UV	5%	10%	20%
PBS	0.382 ± 0.03	0.365 ± 0.02	0.255 ± 0.03	0.250 ± 0.09	0.120 ± 0.06	0.035 ± 0.002	0.009 ± 0.001
DI Water					-	-	0.005 ± 0.001

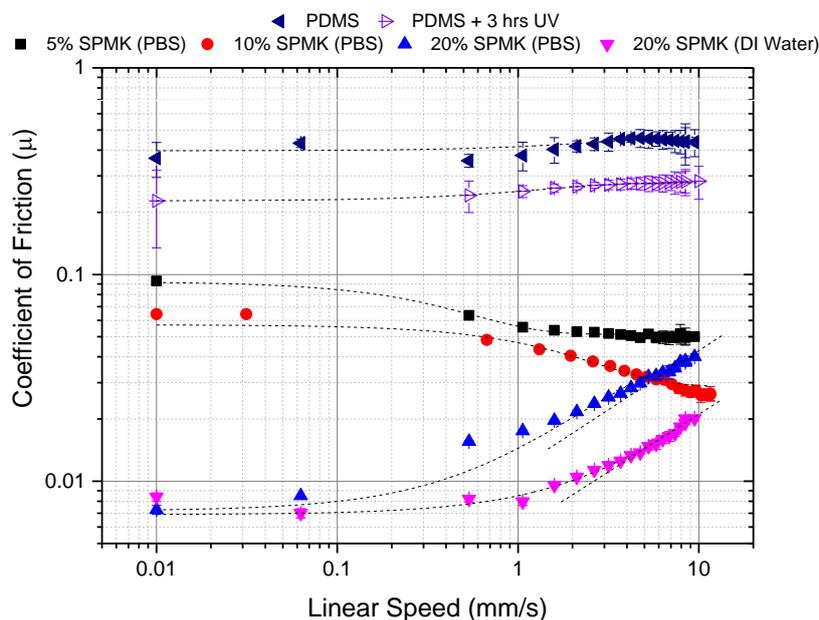
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242 The speed dependant properties of the PDMS, PDMS after 3 hrs of UV exposure (PDMS + 3hrs UV) and
 243 PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces were also assessed (Figure 9). For these experiments the coefficient of friction
 244 was measured and averaged over the 50 cycles at a constant normal load of 50 mN. The plasma and
 245 UV exposure steps was seen to reduce the coefficient of friction when compared to the as-cast PDMS.
 246 However when compared to the PDMS surfaces prepared in the presence of monomer, a very
 247 different response in the coefficient of friction was observed. Surfaces prepared with a lower M_i
 248 content solutions demonstrated a more traditional speed dependence when compared to the surfaces
 249 grafted with 20 wt% solutions, albeit at a much lower coefficient of friction when compared to
 250 traditional lubricated engineering contacts. As M_i increased, a further reduction in the coefficient of
 251 friction was observed.

252 For surfaces grafted in 5 wt% SPMK and lubricated in PBS, $\mu_i = 0.091 \pm 0.005$ at the lowest sliding speed
 253 of 0.01 mm/sec. A transition in the coefficient of friction was observed as sliding speed increases.
 254 Coefficient of friction reached a plateau at $\mu_i = 0.05 \pm 0.002$ at sliding speeds greater than 2 mm/sec.
 255 As the initial monomer content increased, the coefficient of friction at lower sliding speeds also
 256 decreased. At 0.01 mm/sec, $\mu_i = 0.064 \pm 0.001$ and 0.009 ± 0.001 for surfaces grafted in 10 and 20 w%
 257 SPMK solutions respectively. For the surfaces grafted in 10 wt% SPMK, a similar decrease in coefficient
 258 of friction was seen when compared to surfaces grafted with 5 wt% SPMK. However no plateau in the
 259 coefficient of friction was observed with increasing sliding speed. Surfaces grafted with the highest
 260 initial monomer content demonstrated a different speed dependant coefficient of friction response
 261 when compared to the other two experiments. At 0.01 mm/sec, $\mu_i = 0.009 \pm 0.001$ which gradually
 262 increased with sliding speed. At higher sliding speeds > 4 mm/sec, a rate change of coefficient of
 263 friction was seen increasing to the power of 0.5 with respect to sliding speed.

264 The speed dependent coefficient of friction for PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces grafted in 20 wt% monomer
 265 solutions were also studied in the absence of dissolved ions (i.e. de-ionised water). Figure 9 shows
 266 that grafted surfaces tested in de-ionised water exhibited a lower coefficient when compared to those
 267 in PBS; in line with results presented above. At 0.01 mm/sec, $\mu_i = 0.004 \pm 0.002$ which gradually
 268 increased with sliding speed. At higher sliding speeds > 2 mm/sec, a rate change of coefficient of

269 friction was seen, increasing to the power of 0.5 with respect to sliding speed. The point in which this
270 rate change was observed occurred earlier for surfaces lubricated with de-ionised water.



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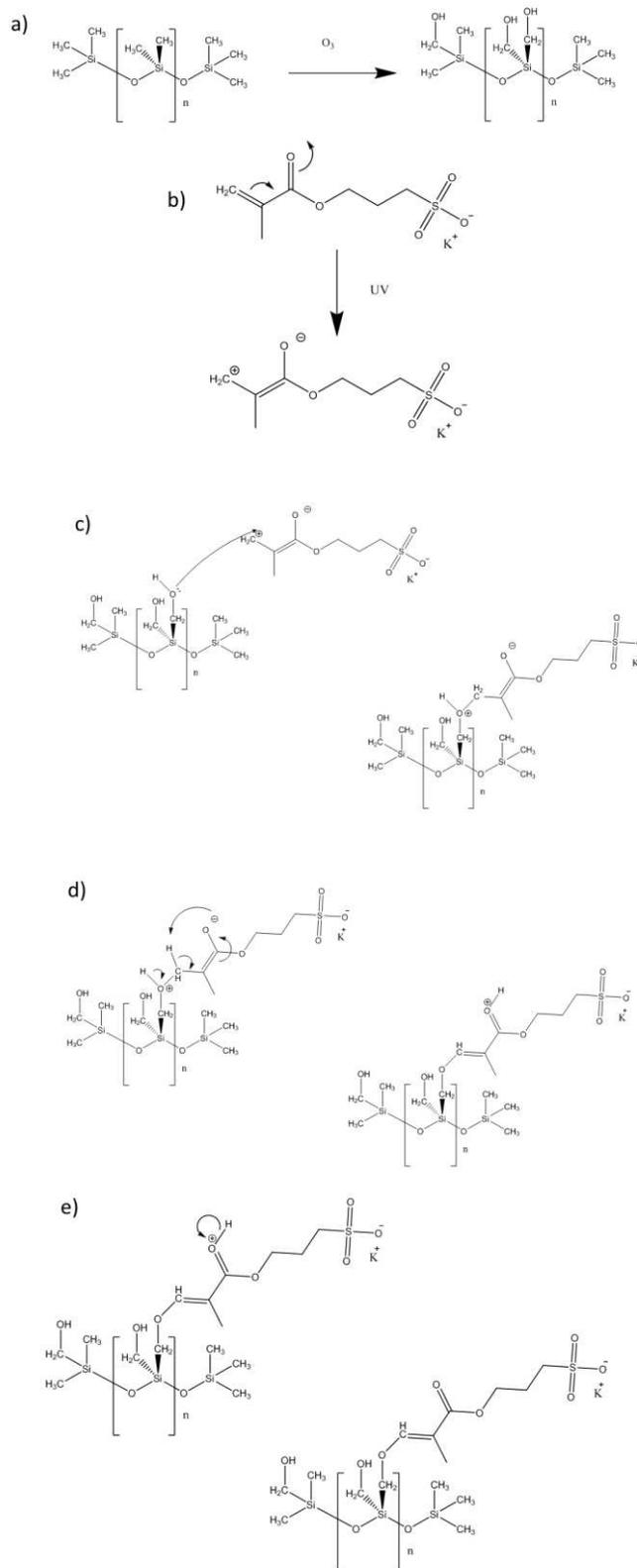
272 **Figure 9** – Speed dependant friction for different monomer content at 50 mN

273 4. Discussion

274 This study has demonstrated the possibility to tailor the surface properties of silicone surfaces through
275 a simple two stage grafting process. The results demonstrate the effectiveness of UV-enabled grafting
276 of anionic polymers to an elastomer surface; enhancing wettability and frictional properties of the
277 surfaces. Whilst exposure of the silicone surfaces to plasma and UV irradiation was seen to reduce
278 the coefficient of friction, the reduction was not as significant when compared to the functionalised
279 surfaces. The mechanisms pertaining to enhanced lubrication of PDMS after plasma treatment have
280 been well documented [13]. However the roles of UV are not completely clear. A reduction in the
281 coefficient of friction may arise from the combined increase in hydrophilicity and changes in
282 mechanical properties and contact compliance as a result of further UV induced crosslinking of the
283 PDMS surfaces. The results presented in this study also provide insight into the links between grafting
284 variables, load bearing capacity and the roles of the environmental on friction. Some information
285 regarding the films tenacity can also be inferred. Films demonstrated effective lubrication up to 500
286 mm of total sliding distance (20 increments of 25 mm total sliding distance at each load). This is well
287 in excess of those expected during urinary catheterisation which would be in the region of 40 and 200
288 mm for female and males respectively. Modification of medical surfaces with hydrophilic polymer
289 technologies has received considerable attention of the past years with the view to reduce friction
290 and the occurrence of fouling [2, 5, 6, 14, 15]. However only a handful of researchers have investigated

291 the tribological properties of these layers and the mechanisms in which they impart lubricity. The work
292 presented in this study shows the ability to create load bearing (within the context of medical devices)
293 and lubricious surfaces; tuneable through the synthesis parameters. The coefficients of friction
294 presented in this study are orders of magnitude lower than threshold acceptable values ($\mu < 0.3$)
295 mooted by some researchers for catheterisation. SPMK brush surfaces have also been hypothesised
296 to impart a certain degree of anti-fouling capability, which may be desirable for applications where
297 adhesion of scale or proteins (in the case of urinary catheterisation) or blood cells may not be desirable
298 [16]. The ability to produce lubricious and low fouling surfaces, without the addition of expensive
299 heavy metals or additional therapeutics, presents a number of potential opportunities. The methods
300 presented here are therefore considered to be a quick, easy and cost effective way for surface
301 modification of silicone materials.

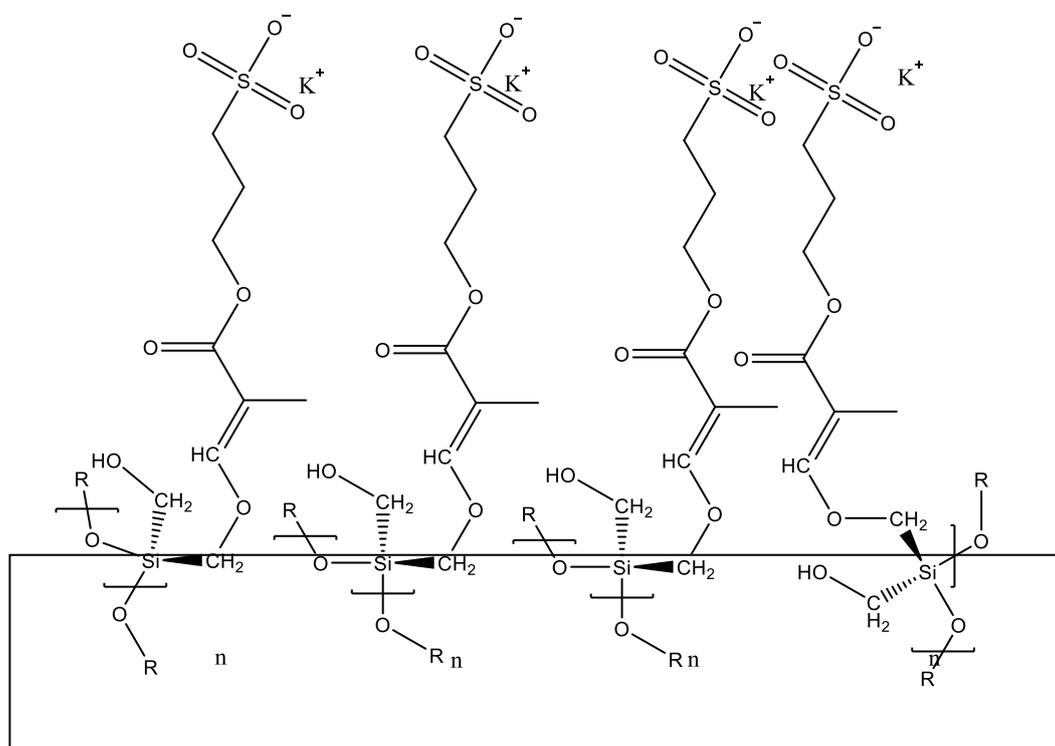
302 The grafting approach employed in this study aimed to create a layer of grafted polymers, or polymer
303 brushes, utilising the ability of the SPMK and PDMS surface to undergo free radical polymerisation
304 using UV irradiation. Assembly of such surface layers has been shown before both with or without the
305 addition of photo-initiator [17-19]. However this approach exploited the covalent grafting of SPMK to
306 the PDMS surface due to its charged nature and intended application. The hypothesised route of
307 reaction for functionalization is given below (Figure 10). Initially, a UV source and O_3 are used to
308 oxidise the C-H bonds available at the surface of PDMS. This technique is known to increase the water
309 wettability of PDMS by virtue of creating $-OH$ terminated surfaces on the upper layer on the polymer
310 [20]. The 3-Sulfopropyl methacrylate potassium salt (SPMK) is then activated towards surface
311 functionalization, again by using a UV source. This takes places as the $exo-\pi$ ($C=C$) bond converts to
312 the more stable $endo-\pi$ bond. The 3-Sulfopropyl methacrylate potassium salt (SPMK) is then activated
313 towards surface functionalization, again by using a UV source. This takes places as the $exo-\pi$ ($C=C$)
314 bond converts to the more stable $endo-\pi$ bond. This form of alkene tautomerization enhanced by the
315 presence of the electron withdrawing ester group on SPMK [21]. This generates a reactive carbocation
316 species. These species have three bonds and hold a positive charge. Carbocations are unstable as they
317 do not satisfy proper carbon valency [22]. These species are readily attacked by nucleophiles, such as
318 hydroxyl or alcohol groups [23]. The species formed is also sterically unhindered, making attack in this
319 conformation more likely. The newly created $-OH$ groups on PDMS then react with the carbocation
320 on SPMK. The oxygen's lone pair on PDMS attacks the carbocation. This creates an ether bond, C-O
321 between the SPMK and the PDMS.



322

323 **Figure 10** – Hypothesised schematic of a) hydroxylation of PDMS surface, b) UV activation of SPMK
 324 monomer, c) Attack of hydroxyl group from PDMS onto activated monomer, d) Reformation of the
 325 carbon π system and loss of a proton and e) Loss of the final proton to give a stable structure, with a
 326 conjugated π system.

327 Although difficult to conclusively prove, the proposed mechanism is the most feasible of the possible
 328 options. Hydroxylation of PDMS results in a surface that will attack electron deficient species. That is
 329 to say that, following standard chemical thermodynamics, the electron rich alcohol species is able to
 330 donate electrons into the electron deficient carbocation, thereby satisfying carbons normal bond
 331 valency and restoring normal carbon bonding [24]. The UV activation of SPMK would form such a
 332 product. The final product depicted contains a conjugated π system, imparting stability onto the
 333 molecule. Furthermore, this allows the possibility of the group to undergo further radical reactions.
 334 As a large portion of the PDMS surface will have been successfully hydroxylated, as demonstrated by
 335 an increase in water wettability, there are multiple points on which SPMK can attach to the surface.
 336 Therefore, it is highly likely that the PDMS surface has a series is SPMK molecules aligned along the
 337 upper layer. As the end group is charged, SPMK can align into a brush like structure. An example of
 338 the comb like polymer formed is given in Figure 11.



339

340 **Figure 11** – Hypothesised polymer brush structure based on the materials used in this study

341 The frictional properties of grafted polymer layers have been well investigated and shown to be a
 342 function of graft time, monomer content and tribological environment [25]. Li et al [18] demonstrated
 343 the links between polymer grafting density, tuneable physicochemical properties and the links to
 344 frictional behaviour for polyacrylamide layers brush systems. They reported a linear increase in dry
 345 film thickness with UV exposure time; with the addition of cross-linker increasing the thickness of the
 346 films relative to surfaces with no cross-linker present. Interestingly, with increasing cross-linker

347 concentration within the films, a decrease in wettability and increase in friction was observed;
348 signifying the importance of brush mediated lubrication and the role of brush terminated surfaces in
349 frictional dissipation. Similar results have also been observed by other researchers with other polymer
350 brush systems. Kyomoto et al [26] demonstrated that both initial polymer concentration and UV
351 exposure time influences film thickness. This was attributable to the fact that the length of the
352 polymer chains produced in a radical polymerization reaction correlates with initial monomer
353 concentration and polymerisation time. A similar observation has been made in this study. Figure 5
354 shows that the dry film thickness (L) of the polymer layer increases with initial monomer content. It is
355 apparent from Figure 5 and the estimation of the molecular weight after UV exposure that an increase
356 in grafting density occurs with increasing monomer content. As a result, the polymer chains are more
357 likely to be to a brush morphology as a result of a balance between an entropic effect, caused by
358 higher orientation of the chains, and an energetic effect due to minimization of the repulsive
359 interactions [27]. From the measurements presented here, it is difficult to estimate the correlation
360 between thickness of the grafted layers and graft density due to the imaging limitations of the PDMS
361 surfaces. Based on the thicknesses measured and the estimated molecular weight of the polymers
362 after UV exposure (particularly for 10 and 20 wt% SPMK), the results presented here are in good
363 agreement with the work of Ishihara and co-workers [10, 11, 17, 26], who have used similar
364 approaches to produce high molecular weight polymer brush functionalised surfaces. It must be
365 noted that the molecular weight measured for the bulk fluid is known to deviate when compared to
366 that of the surface tethered polymers [28].

367 The grafting procedure influences the mechanisms of friction and dissipation of shear at the interface.
368 Whilst it is conceivable that lubricity may be achieved through a highly solvated low-modulus
369 interface, the mechanisms in which this is achieved are complex, dependant on a number of factors
370 including brush conformity. Although the full mechanisms behind brush mediated lubrication are not
371 fully understood, the general consensus of opinion is that the hydrated brush architecture facilitates
372 sliding and low friction through viscous dissipation of frictional forces [9, 29, 30]. Singh et al [31]
373 demonstrated the effects of polymer stiffness and graft density on the hydration across the interface
374 and resultant frictional characteristics using non equilibrium-molecular-dynamics. With the increase in
375 grafting density, chains are more stretched out due to the excluded volume effect to support higher
376 normal load and ensure a thin solvent layer at the interface. Similar predicted trends have been
377 observed in this study with increasing graft density affecting both magnitude of friction and the speed
378 dependant properties.

379 For surfaces prepared with 5 and 10 wt% SPMK solutions, the coefficient of friction was seen to display
380 a 'Stribeck -type' transition. However it must be noted the magnitude of friction was much lower (μ

381 > 0.1) when compared to conventional 'boundary' lubricated engineering contacts ($\mu > 0.1$). This
382 variation may arise from the difference in conformity of the grafted brush layers (i.e. brush or
383 mushroom), owing to the variable layer thickness and molecular weight of the polymers after UV
384 exposure. The origins of friction in such systems has been hypothesised to arise from absorption-
385 repulsion of polymer chains with the counter-surface and conventional soft elasto-hydrodynamic
386 lubrication (sEHL) [32]. The former mechanism relies on absorption or repulsion of the polymer chains
387 with respect to the counter-body; the magnitude of which is related to the kinetics of chain absorption
388 – desorption. Although a speed dependent transition in the coefficient of friction was observed, this
389 does not follow the 'absorption-repulsion' trends outlined by Kurokawa et al [32]. 20 wt% SPMK
390 grafted surface demonstrated different friction-speed characteristics; the coefficient of friction was
391 seen to remain constant up to ~ 1 mm/sec, with an increase being observed with increasing sliding
392 speed (> 1 mm/sec). This was characterised by a rate change of coefficient of friction to the power of
393 0.5 with respect to sliding speed. Such a rate increase in friction can be predicted through soft elasto-
394 hydrodynamic lubrication (sEHL) analysis. However care must be taken to appreciate the assumptions
395 underpinning this model; prediction assumes linear elastic, iso-viscous, non-permeable surfaces with
396 no lubricant-layer interactions. Pitenis et al [33] further hypothesised that such a rate increase in the
397 coefficient of friction may arise from a 'relaxation lubrication' mechanism, whereby the resultant
398 coefficient of friction is governed by the competing rates of polymer relaxation and sliding velocity. It
399 must be noted that the hypotheses presented by these authors has been developed for covalently
400 cross-linked hydrogel systems. Another difference relates to the substrate effects, contributing to
401 overall contact modulus and depth dependant stiffness, which wouldn't be present in bulk gel
402 systems.

403 Despite the recent work and seminal research by the aforementioned researchers, one aspect that is
404 often neglected is the role of charge and the lubricant interactions at and within the interface. This
405 consideration is of particular importance given the abundance of charged species *in-vivo* as well as the
406 ability to produce and tailor net charged surfaces which are attractive from an anti-fouling point of
407 view. Klein's [29] recently proposed hydration mechanism theory introduces these effects and their
408 roles on hydrating and maintaining hydration at the interface. Klein's theory may explain these trends
409 along with the velocity independent and dependant friction response observed in Figure 9. The
410 decrease in layer thickness due to varying monomer content will not only affect the time dependant
411 interfacial properties; the charge density and osmotic pressures at and within the interface will also
412 vary. This will have an influence on the level of hydration at the interface and the ability of a surface
413 to support a thin solvent layer at the interface facilitating low coefficient of friction at low sliding
414 speeds and the transition into hydrodynamic lubrication regime. If a sEHL type mechanism exists at

415 the interface, it is conceivable that net fluid pressurisation required to separate the surfaces will vary
416 depending upon the nature of grafted layer and chemistry of the lubricant (assuming a Newtonian
417 lubricant). This would have the potential to promote or inhibit the transition to a hydrodynamic
418 regime as seen in Figure 9. It also demonstrates further the short comings of this approach and
419 application of this type of analysis to macromolecule mediated lubricated contacts. The presence of
420 charge within the lubricant was also seen to influence friction. An increase in friction was observed
421 when PBS was used when compared to de-ionised water. SPMK brush layers have been shown to be
422 sensitive to the presence of cations and anions in solution, with the increasing salt concentrations
423 affecting the brush conformation (i.e. collapsed) and an increase in coefficient of friction [34, 35]. An
424 increase in salt concentration would lead to the reduction of the electrostatic repulsive interaction
425 among the brushes resulting in a higher coefficient of efficient. The lubricant – brush interaction also
426 influences the speed-dependant transition of the coefficient of friction. Considering the negligible
427 differences in lubricant viscosity, the role of charge will likely influence their load bearing capacity by
428 changing the brush conformation and as a result influencing the interfacial viscosity and contact
429 mechanics. The use of PBS in these experiments represents a more complicated, but more realistic,
430 situation in which cations and anions will be present at the interface further influencing osmotic
431 processes at the interfaces. One aspect of further consideration will be the interactions with organic
432 matter, such as proteins.

473 The results presented in this study demonstrate the ability to modify the surface of silicone elastomers
474 through a simple three step method. There are a number of limiting factors that need to be
475 considered. Whilst the lubricating ability of these films has been demonstrated, the contact pressures
476 and contact areas in which they are subject to are unknown. Due to the thin film nature of these
477 interfaces, the pressures within the films and substrate are difficult to predict using convention
478 contact mechanics. Further work to understand the mechanics of soft thin film macroscopic contacts
479 will be subject to further study. Whilst a gross-slip steady-state slip regime has been observed in Figure
480 6b, estimations of the contact area are difficult to make. Based on the range of mechanical values
481 stated in literature, it is estimated that at least 90% of the contact emerges from original contact area
482 during sliding. Evidence of a stick-slip transition was also observable. Further work to investigate the
483 rehydration / dwell time at the contact, the fouling of these films, the influence of co-ion solutions on
484 brush lubrication mechanisms, the durability of these layers and the effects of contact configuration
485 including the frictional mechanisms against soft tissues.

486 **5. Conclusions**

487 This study has demonstrated an easy and effective method for grafting anionic polymer brushes to
488 silicone surfaces. The influence of grafting variables has also been investigated, demonstrating clear
489 links between monomer content and resultant frictional properties. The grafted surfaces prepared in
490 this study are intended, but not limited to, for catheterisation devices where anti-fouling, anti-
491 microbial and low friction are key. The load bearing capabilities of the layers have been demonstrated
492 and testing under a wide range of loads. When slid against a glass probe, all PDMS-g-SPMK surfaces
493 generated a coefficient of friction less than $\mu < 0.1$. At the highest initial monomer content $\mu < 0.01$
494 was achieved.

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