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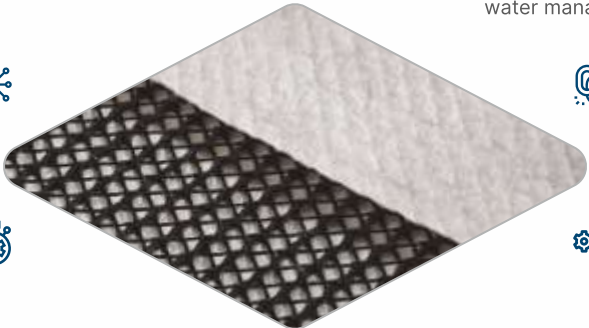
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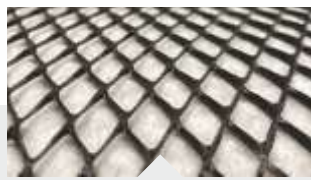
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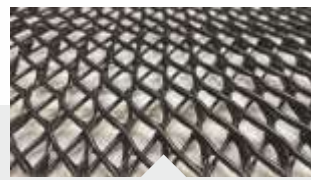
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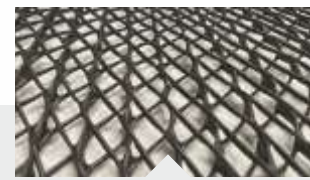
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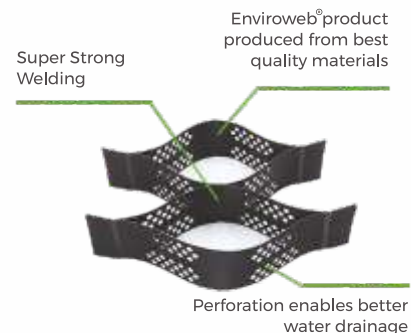
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## EDITOR'S DESK

Dear Readers,

Greetings!!

Research with persistent and focused efforts lead to a positive result. Fostering research and providing a platform to publish quality research papers and related articles has been a continuous effort of BTRA Scan. We are working hard to help the journal in climbing up the ranking ladder. In continuation to this effort, I am delighted to present to our readers the 2<sup>nd</sup> issue of 55<sup>th</sup> Edition of BTRA SCAN.

This issue has 3 papers from the different domains such as Opportunities for AI-assisted Process Control in Textile Wet Processing, Effect of Slit Configuration and Optical Design on XRD Data Quality: A Comparison of FDS and BBHD Systems and Recent Advances in UHMWPE Fiber Technology. Now we are open for authors from outside so researchers can send their original articles, case studies, research reviews or empirical contributions for publication in our journal.

I thank my entire publishing team for all their support. Together we would work towards making the journal a truly influential publication. Comments and suggestions are always welcome.

Our sincere thanks to all the reader and contributors for their support and interest.

**T V Sreekumar**, PhD  
Director, BTRA

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# Opportunities for AI-assisted Process Control in Textile Wet Processing

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## Abstract

*Textile wet processing, i.e., desizing and bleaching, dyeing, printing, and finishing, is one of the most complex and resource-consuming stages in textile production. The processes involve multiple parameters, such as temperature, rate of rise in temperature, pH, chemical concentration, bath liquor ratio, and time, which must be controlled precisely to achieve consistent and desired product quality. Traditional process control relies largely on manual supervision and conventional automation systems, often leading to process variations, increased resource consumption, and inconsistent quality. Artificial Intelligence (AI) offers significant opportunities to enhance process control by enabling predictive modelling, real-time monitoring, and intelligent decision support. This paper examines the potential applications of AI in textile wet processing, with a focus on process optimisation, defect prediction, resource efficiency, and smart manufacturing. The paper highlights the technological framework, implementation opportunities, and challenges associated with integrating AI-assisted systems in textile wet processing industries.*

## Keywords

*Artificial Intelligence, Textile Wet Processing, Process Control, Machine Learning, Intelligent Manufacturing, Industry 4.0*

## Citation

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## 1.0 Introduction:

Textile wet processing consists of a sequence of chemical treatments applied to textile materials to improve appearance, finish, durability, and functionality. These processes include desizing, scouring, bleaching, dyeing, printing, and finishing. To maintain consistent and right first-time product quality in these operations, a strict control of multiple process parameters is required.

As per our experience during various studies at textile process houses' shop floor, the traditional process control systems in textile dyeing and finishing are often based on predefined recipes and operator experience. However, variations in raw materials, machine process conditions, and environmental factors frequently lead to deviations in product quality.

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is a branch of computer science

dedicated to the study of computational activities that require intelligence when performed by humans. "Intelligence" is the computational part of the ability to achieve goals [1]. Recent developments in deep neural networks and distributed IoT architectures [2], a part of Artificial Intelligence (AI), have emerged as a transformative technology capable of enhancing automation and decision-making in industrial processes. AI techniques like machine learning, neural networks, and deep learning can analyse large datasets of the process and identify patterns that enable predictive and adaptive control systems. The integration of AI with IoT sensors, data analytics, and automation systems can significantly improve the efficiency and reliability of textile wet processing operations.

## 2.0 Overview of textile wet processing

Textile wet processing involves chemical and mechanical treatments generally applied in aqueous media. The main processes are shown in the table below:

---

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Process	Purpose
Desizing	Removal of size materials from fabric
Scouring	Removal of natural impurities and oils
Bleaching	Improving whiteness of fabric
Dyeing	Imparting color to textile materials
Printing	Creating patterns/designs on fabric
Finishing	Enhancing/imparting functional properties

These processes require precise control of variables such as:

- Temperature and its rate of rise as per the process requirement
- Time
- pH level
- Chemical dosage
- Bath Liquor ratio
- Mechanical agitation/actions
- Tension on the material during the process

Small variations in these parameters may lead to quality issues or fabric damages, such as uneven dyeing, poor shade reproducibility, strength loss, improper appearance, roughness, extra softness, etc.

### 3.0 Artificial Intelligence in Process Control

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is a branch of computer science dedicated to the study of computational activities that require intelligence when performed by humans. "Intelligence" is the computational part of the ability to achieve goals [1]. Thus, Artificial Intelligence refers to computational techniques that allow machines to perform tasks that typically require human brain smartness. In textile processing, AI techniques include:

- Machine Learning (ML)
- Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)
- Deep Learning
- Reinforcement Learning
- Computer Vision
- Predictive Analytics

AI systems can process large volumes of production data (previous history as well as current lot data) and generate optimized process parameters automatically by utilizing above mentioned aspects of AI.

For example, machine learning models can analyse historical production data to predict the optimal dyeing conditions required to achieve a specific shade with minimal chemicals for the current lot under process..

## 4.0 Opportunities in textile wet processing

As we know, there are several stages and operations in textile wet processing. Among these critical steps, those deciding the product quality shall be considered for the AI integration. To achieve the AI-assisted process outcome, we need to have certain changes or additional features available in the machine under consideration. The features are like the provision of various sensors, flow meters, data processing systems, etc.

Some of the processes where AI can be implemented are given below;

### 4.1 Intelligent Dyeing Process Control

Dyeing is one of the most critical wet processing operations, which is affected by variations in input colour chemicals, fabric or yarn under dyeing, and other process conditions. AI can optimise dyeing process parameters by analysing process data and predicting results. Artificial Intelligence (AI) enables the transformation of conventional dyeing into an intelligent, self-correcting system through real-time monitoring, prediction, and control.

The AI applications in this dyeing process can be used as follows;

- Automated dye recipe optimisation by considering exhaustion curves of individual dyes
- Salt and soda dosing
- Time duration adjustment as per the shade output desired
- Real-time shade prediction
- Dye uptake and buildup monitoring
- Reduction of re-dyeing operations

Machine learning algorithms can modify temperature and its ramping, pH levels, colour concentration and hold time to achieve consistent shade results.

### 4.2 Predictive Quality Control

Predictive Quality Control (PQC) is an advanced approach that uses Artificial Intelligence (AI) and data analytics to predict quality outcomes before defects occur. Predictive Quality Control (PQC) refers to the advance detection and prevention of quality issues before they occurs[5]

Key applications are:

- Prediction of shade variation and patchy dyeing
- Detection of process abnormalities
- Real-time monitoring of dye bath conditions

AI-based inspection systems using computer vision can detect defects such as stains, misprints, and uneven colouration with high accuracy, improving overall product quality. The working principle involves steps like;

Data collection Data processing Model training prediction corrective action during the process itself

An example of predictive quality control for shade matching is explained below.

Suppose AI predicts that the shade deviation  $\Delta E > 1.2$ , then the system takes actions like increasing dye-uptake time and or adjusts temperature curve and or modifies the bath pH. Thus, the final output will be the correct shade and no reprocessing

**4.3 Chemical Consumption Optimisation**

AI algorithms can analyse historical dyeing recipes and process results to determine the most efficient chemical usage.

Benefits include:

- Reduced chemical consumption
- Improved dye fixation
- Lower processing costs

By analysing process data, AI systems can recommend optimal chemical dosage levels for different fabric types.

The below table illustrates the difference between the conventional and AI-based approaches [6].

Aspect	Conventional Method	AI-Based Optimization
Defect detection speed	Moderate	High
Precision	Medium very high	Very High
Dosing	Fixed recipes	Dynamic dosing
Control	Operator-based	Data-driven
Accuracy	Moderate	High
Waste	High	Low
Scalability	Limited	Easily scalable

The working principle involves steps like Data collection Data processing Model training prediction dosage optimisation and execution of chemical dosing

The possible application areas are listed as

- Dyeing process, i.e. salt and soda dosing
- Improve dye fixation
- Control H2O2 dosage in bleaching to avoid fabric damage and whiteness variation
- In scouring alkali concentration optimisation
- Optimise chemical dosing in ETP so that sludge generation is reduced.

For example, in conventional dyeing as we have observed that we are using 80 gpl salt for dark shades, then in the AI-assisted process, the same shade may be obtained with 60-70 gpl salt concentration. Thus, ultimately, effluent TDS and sludge generation are reduced. .

**4.4. Energy and Water Efficiency**

Textile wet processing is highly resource-intensive, consuming large amounts of water for washing and rinsing activities, and energy is used for heating, drying, and pumping purposes. Now, it is the time demand that we should seek and invest in water and energy efficient circular solutions to increase competitiveness and sustainability [7].

AI-based energy management systems can:

- Monitor energy consumption in real time.
- Predict energy demand for production schedules.
- Optimise steam and water usage, avoiding excessive utility usage.

Such systems can significantly reduce energy consumption and improve sustainability in textile processing.

An AI-based system can optimise water usage through Smart liquor ratio control, optimised rinsing cycles, Water reuse and recycling, and leak detection, etc.

Whereas, AI-based energy optimisation is done through temperature optimisation, steam consumption reduction, machine load optimisation by reducing idle time, and predictive maintenance, which detects inefficiencies in motors and pumps to save further energy.

**4.5 Predictive Maintenance of Processing Machines**

Based on various intractions and studies conducted by BTRA mumbai in textile industry, it was seen that machine downtime due to unexpected breakdowns and hence utilisation loss, shade variation, delivery delays and increased maintenance costs, etc., are major challenges in textile processing plants.

AI-enabled predictive maintenance can:

- Monitor machine parameters
- Predict potential equipment failures.
- Schedule maintenance before breakdowns occur

This improves machine availability and reduces production losses. While implementing an AI system for this, one should consider mechanical components (Valves, Bearings, Pumps, Heat exchangers), electrical components (motors, drives, and control panels ),and process components( temperature controller system, pressure system and flow system)

Mechanical data (vibration signals, noise levels, rotation speed), thermal data (motor and bearing temperatures) , electrical data (current, voltage and power consumption) and process data (flow rate, pressure and temperature stability) are important inputs for machine learning, sensor data analysis and pattern recognition.

The prediction for pump failure, motor health monitoring, heat exchanger efficiency, valve malfunctioning detection, etc., can be done by this AI assisted system.

**4.6 Digital Twin and Smart Process Simulation**

A Digital Twin is a real-time virtual replica of a physical textile process (such as dyeing, bleaching, or finishing). It continuously receives live data from machines through sensors and simulates the exact behaviour of the process using AI and mathematical models[8].

AI can simulate:

- Dyeing/processing cycles
- Chemical reactions modelling
- Fabric behaviour during processing
- Process faults

This allows engineers to optimise processes before an actual production begins.

Practical Example (Soft Flow Dyeing Machine) :-

Digital Twin can:

- Simulate the full dyeing cycle before execution.
- Predict final shade accuracy ( $\Delta E$  value)
- Optimize:
  - ✦ Heating rate
  - ✦ Chemical dosing sequence
- Detect:
  - ✦ Risk of uneven dyeing

**5.0 Framework and requirements for AI-Assisted Wet Processing**

The implementation of AI-assisted process control requires integration of several technologies and tools, which include process knowledge, data infrastructure, machine connectivity, and intelligent algorithms. The objective is to transform conventional wet processing into a data-driven, automated, and self-training optimising system.

The key components required in AI implementation in a textile process house are listed as below;

**A. Sensors and Data Acquisition**

- a. Temperature sensors
- b. pH sensors
- c. flow meters

- d. spectrophotometers
- e. Pressure sensors
- f. Speed sensors
- g. Load cells – fabric weight

**B. Machine signals**

- a. Pump status
- b. Valve positions
- c. Machine speed

**C. Industrial IoT Platform**

- a. Machine connectivity
- b. real-time data collection/acquisition

**D. Data Processing Layer**

- a. machine learning algorithms
- b. recipe database
- c. historical batch data
- d. cloud database
- e. predictive models

**E. Control System Integration**

- a. PLC/SCADA systems
- b. automatic parameter adjustment

**F. AI & Analytics Layer**

- a. machine learning models
- b. Neural network
- c. Predictive analytics
- d. predictive models

**G. User Interface**

- a. dashboards for operators
- b. decision support systems

**6.0 Benefits of AI-assisted wet processing:-**

The AI implantation benefits are tabulated below.

Benefit	Impact
Improved shade reproducibility	Better product quality
Reduced chemical consumption	Lower production cost
Reduced water usage	Environmental sustainability
Energy optimization	Lower operating costs
Predictive maintenance	Reduced machine downtime

Studies have shown that AI-based monitoring and defect detection systems can achieve accuracy levels above 97% and significantly reduce material waste in textile manufacturing [3,4].

### 7.0 Challenges in implementation

Despite the potential benefits, several challenges exist in adopting AI in textile wet processing, which are listed as below.

- a) Lack of structured process data or inconsistent data
- b) High initial investment in sensors and digital infrastructure
- c) Need for skilled personnel/engineers in data analytics.
- d) Integration issues with conventional or old- type machines
- e) Compatibility with control systems
- f) Retrofitting challenges
- g) Data security and system reliability concerns

Addressing these challenges requires coordination between textile process engineers, data scientists, and equipment manufacturers.

### 8.0 Future prospectus .

The future of textile wet processing is in Industry 4.0 and intelligent production systems. AI will play a central role in

transforming conventional textile plants into intelligent production systems or units.

Future developments may include:

- Fully autonomous dyeing plants
- AI-based colour matching systems and fabric handfeel assessment
- Self-learning process optimization models
- AI-integrated sustainability monitoring

With advancements in IoT, cloud computing, and data analytics, it is expected that AI-assisted textile processing will become more accessible to small and medium-sized textile enterprises.

### 9.0 Conclusion

Artificial Intelligence provides large opportunities for improving process control in textile wet processing. By integrating AI with sensors, automation units, and data analytics softwares, textile processors can achieve enhanced process stability and assurance, improved product quality, and decreased operating costs. AI-assisted process control enables predictive decision-taking , real-time monitoring, and optimised resource utilisation. This will make textile processing more efficient and sustainable. As Industry 4.0 technologies continue to evolve, AI will become a key component for intelligent textile production systems.

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# Effect of Slit Configuration and Optical Design on XRD Data Quality: A Comparison of FDS and BBHD Systems

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## Abstract

*Instrumental optics and slit configurations play a major role in defining the quality of powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) data. In this study, the effect of divergence slit and Antiscatter Slit variation on XRD pattern was systematically investigated using a PANalytical Empyrean X-ray diffractometer equipped with Bragg-Brentano HD (BBHD) optics and fixed divergence slit (FDS) optics, using zinc oxide (ZnO) as an experimental sample. Divergence and anti-scatter slits were varied, while all other instrumental parameters, including scan conditions, were kept constant, enabling a controlled and reproducible methodological comparison. The diffraction data were quantitatively analysed in terms of background intensity (IB), highest peak intensity (IP), peak-to-background intensity ratio (IP/IB), and full width at half maximum (FWHM). The results demonstrate that divergence slit selection strongly influences background and peak intensity, while relatively marginally influencing FWHM, revealing a clear trade-off between intensity and resolution. Using optimum slit configuration and BBHD optics we identified the zinc oxide phase from the crystallographic open database (COD) with high degree of accuracy. On the basis of this study, we are providing a practical approach for optimizing instrumental settings for reliable phase identification.*

## Keywords:

*Optics, fixed divergence slit (FDS), Bragg-Brentano HD (BBHD), full width at half maximum (FWHM)*

## Citation

Sandeep Jape, Tejaswini Ghadyale, Poonam Phagare, Chandrakala Madichetty, "Effect of Slit Configuration and Optical Design on XRD Data Quality: A Comparison of FDS and BBHD Systems", *BTRA Scan* - Vol. LV No.2, April, 2026, Page no. 10-14, DOI: 10.70225/504107ocfrdi

## 1. Introduction:

X-ray Diffraction (XRD) serves as the primary analytical tool for evaluating phase purity, calculating lattice parameters, and determining crystallite size.[1] However, the quality of the resulting data is highly influenced by the specific optical configuration of the diffractometer, making the choice between fixed slit and mirror-based systems a critical experimental consideration.[2]

The PANalytical Empyrean XRD uses a  $\Theta$ - $2\Theta$  Bragg-Brentano geometry in which the X-ray source is kept fixed, while the sample and detector move. In this geometry, the incident beam makes an angle  $\Theta$  with the sample, while the detector is placed at an angle  $2\Theta$  with respect to the incident beam as shown in Fig:1a. The fixed source and the receiving slit (placed before the detector) lie on a circle (diffractometer circle) of fixed radius, with the sample at the center. A divergent beam falls on the surface of the sample. A focusing circle is formed by the source, sample surface, and

receiving slit, whose radius varies with the incidence angle to ensure that a convergent beam reaches the detector.[3-5]

The standard Fixed Slit System (FDS), based on Bragg-Brentano geometry, uses physical slits to control the X-ray beam. The divergence slit controls how wide the beam spreads in the equatorial direction and how much of the sample is illuminated. Soller slits reduce unwanted beam spreading in axial direction to help maintain proper peak shape. The beam mask controls the height of the beam.[3, 6] This setup provides high intensity, which is suitable for bulk powder samples. The system also uses physical filters, such as a nickel filter, to remove K-beta radiation.[7]

An important improvement in focusing geometry is provided by the Malvern PANalytical Bragg-Brentano High Definition (BBHD) optics. Unlike the FDS system, which controls the beam mainly by blocking it with slits, the BBHD optics uses a high-definition multilayer mirror [8]. This mirror reduces K-beta radiation and background intensity while still keeping a strong, focused beam.[8-10] Comparing BBHD with the FDS system is scientifically meaningful, as

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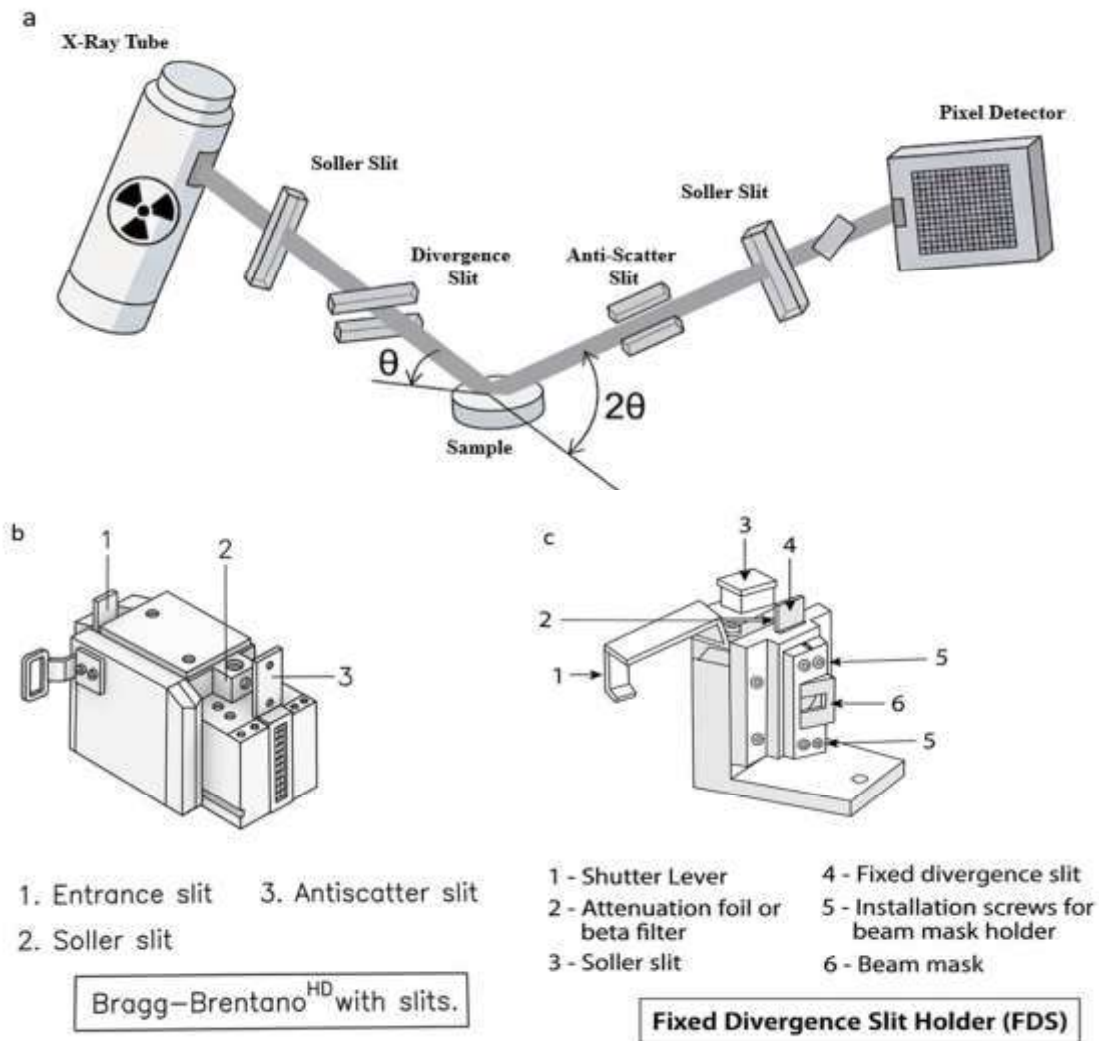


Fig:1 :- a) XRD Instrumental Layout[6], b) Bragg-Brentano HD (BBHD) with slits and c) Fixed Divergence Slit Holder (FDS). Adapted from reference[7].

it helps evaluate how changes in optics influence signal parameters, which can result in more accurate material identification.

Zinc Oxide (ZnO) is a highly versatile inorganic material with widespread applications ranging from industrial rubber vulcanization and UV-protective coatings to sophisticated optoelectronic devices such as varistors and solar cell buffer layers [11]. To study the comparison of BBHD and FDS system, ZnO was used as an experimental sample. By analysing ZnO powders using both FDS and BBHD configurations, this study aims to measure the improvements in peak shape and intensity achieved with high-definition optics. While the earlier studies such as that by Zhang et al[2] focussed on studying the influence slitson the peak background, intensity and resolution using calcium carbonate, the current study seeks to expand the work to find out whether changing from traditional fixed-slit systems to multilayer focusing optics is really needed to achieve reliable quality control and accurate structural analysis in routine work.

Experimental Details:-

To study how instrumental parameters affect peak intensity, resolution, and background intensity in XRD patterns, this experiment was carried out by changing the divergence slit, anti-scatter slit, and optic configuration. The experiment was performed using the EMPYREAN diffractometer with HighScore Plus software and Cu K $\alpha$  radiation. The operating conditions were 40 kV voltages and 30 mA current. The scan range was from 25° to 80° (2 $\theta$ ), with a step size of 0.013° and a scan speed was 0.067(°/s). ZnO was purchased from MERCK. The detailed experimental parameters are listed in the table 1, 2 below.

Beam Mask (mm)	Incident Beam Side		Diffraction Beam Side
	Antiscatter Slit (°)	Divergence Slit (°)	Receiving Slit(mm)
4	0.125	0.03125	7.5
4	0.25	0.0625	7.5
4	0.5	0.125	7.5
4	1	0.25	8

Table-1: Details of Slits and Beam Mask with BBHD Detector:

The slit combinations were chosen to match the incident beam to a standard 16 mm diameter sample holder, following the guidelines provided by Malvern PANalytical.[12]. The beam mask on the incident beam side and the receiving slit on the diffracted beam side were kept constant in most of the measurements except for the 0.25° diversion slit in the BBHD experiments, where the receiving slit on diffraction side was increased to 8mm in order to fit beam within the sample holder. The machine and optics outline are presented in Fig.1 (a, b and c). Soller slits of 0.04 rad were used in both incident and diffracted beam side.

Incident Beam Side			Diffraction Beam Side
Beam Mask (mm)	Antiscatter Slit (°)	Divergence Slit (°)	Receiving Slit (mm)
10	0.0625	0.03125	7.5
10	0.125	0.0625	7.5
10	0.25	0.125	7.5
10	0.5	0.25	7.5

Table-2: Details Of Slits and Mask with FDS Detector

**Results and Discussion: -**

The XRD graphs obtained from BBHD and FDS are in fig. 2 and fig.3. The displayed scan range has been shortened for clarity. ZnO powder showed clear diffraction peaks with the highest peak at around 36.18° corresponding to the (101) plane. [11]. From the scans, the following data were collected, minimum background intensity (IB), maximum peak intensity (IP), the ratio of peak to background (IP/IB) intensity, and the full width at half maximum (FWHM) and the results are presented in fig.4 & 5.

From the BBHD graphs, it can be seen that both the background and the highest intensity of the ZnO peak at 36.18° increase as the divergence slit width (beam size) increases. (Fig.4 a and b). The IP/IB ratio which can be an indication of the quality of the diffractogram. [5] after an initial increase decreases consistently with increasing slit width because the background rises faster than the peak intensity. (Fig.4-c) The most suitable slit width for BBHD, balancing peak intensity without losing low-intensity peaks due to background rise, is 0.0625°, as larger slit widths do not significantly improve the signal.

For the FDS system, both the background and peak intensity also increase with slit width. (Fig.5 a and b). Compared to BBHD, FDS shows lower peak intensity at small slit widths, it displays higher values for higher slit widths. In addition, FDS displays higher background intensity for comparable slit width as compared to BBHD. The IP/IB ratio for FDS becomes nearly constant beyond 0.0625° slit width. (Fig.5-c). Considering both peak and background intensity, the optimal slit width for FDS is 0.0625°. Overall, BBHD provides a higher IP/IB ratio at comparable slit widths, and its peaks start from a very low background level, making it more suitable for detecting low-intensity peaks. (Fig.2)

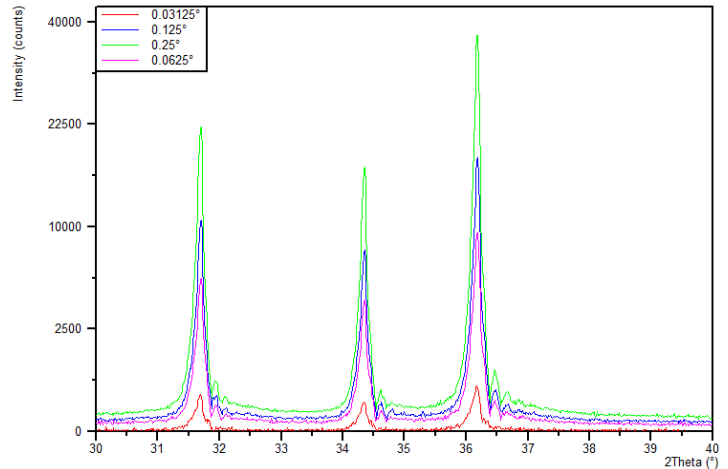


Fig.2: - XRD patterns obtained from BBHD and different divergence slits widths

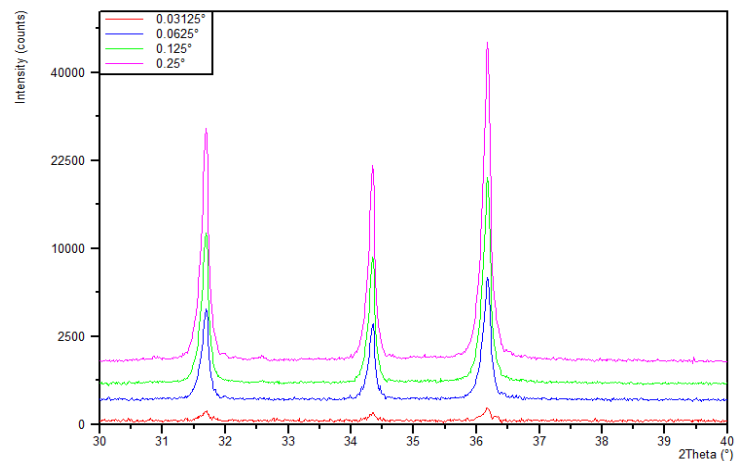


Fig.3: - XRD patterns obtained from FDS and different divergence slits widths

The FWHM and highest peak intensity were taken from 36.18° peak.

From the graphs, it can be seen that the FWHM values tend to level off at higher slit widths in both systems. BBHD generally shows slightly higher FWHM compared to FDS. A smaller FWHM indicates less peak broadening, meaning the peak widths are closer to their true values. Although BBHD exhibits slightly more peak broadening, the difference from FDS is not significant. (Fig.4-d and Fig.5-d).

Using the optimized slit configuration using the BBHD optics we have identified our sample from crystallographic open database (COD) database as Zincite having ref. code no 96-900-4180 which shows the validity of the slit combination. (Fig.6). For the same slit combination, the reference has a score match of 60 as compared to FDs which has a score match of 51 for the same, which would suggest that the selection of the optics led to a higher degrees of accuracy of identification of the material in the BBHD system.

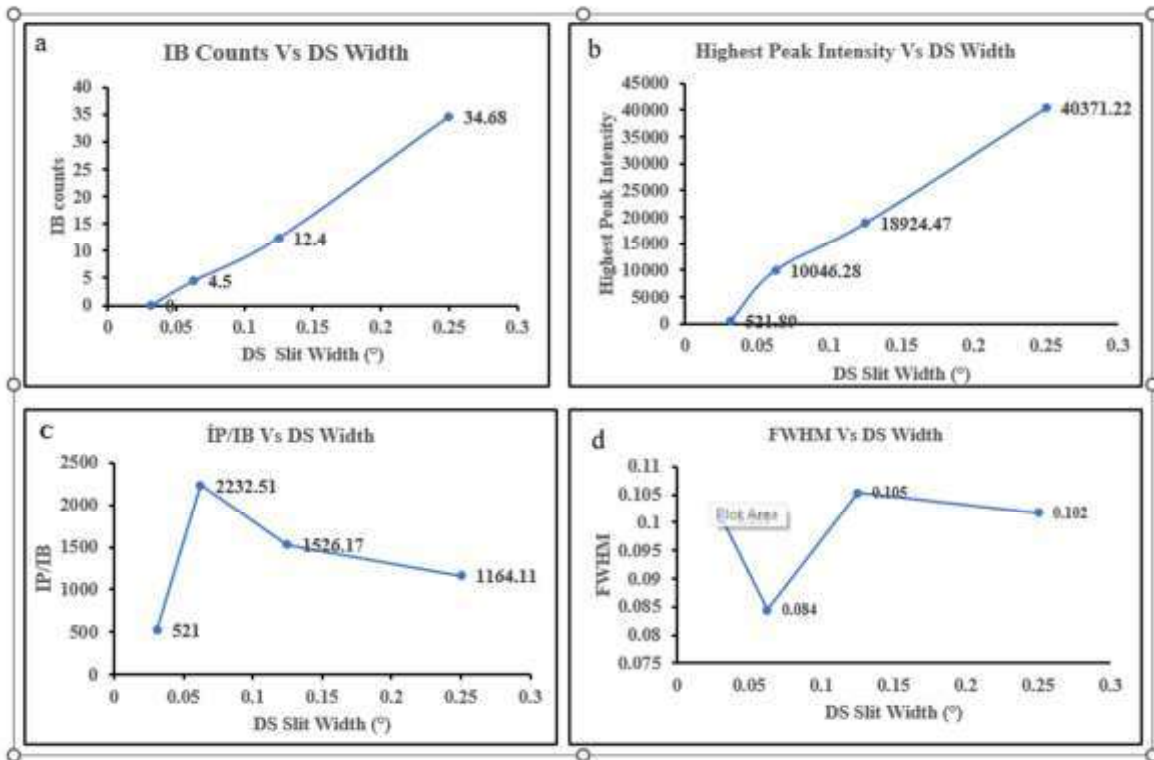


Fig-4:- For the BBHD optics the effect of Divergence Slit width on a) Background intensity b) Highest Peak Intensity c) IP/IB i.e. ratio of Highest peak intensity/Background Intensity and d) FWHM, The FWHM and highest peak intensity were taken from 36.18°peak

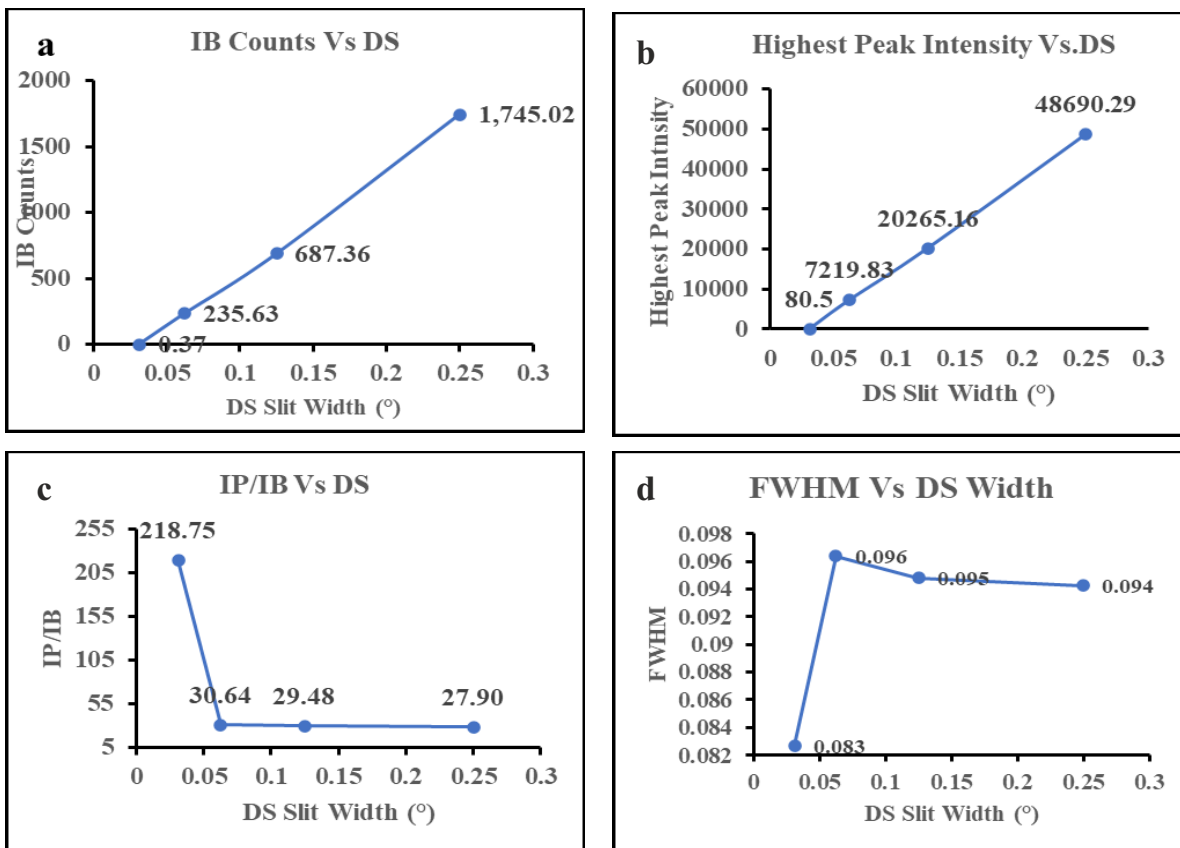
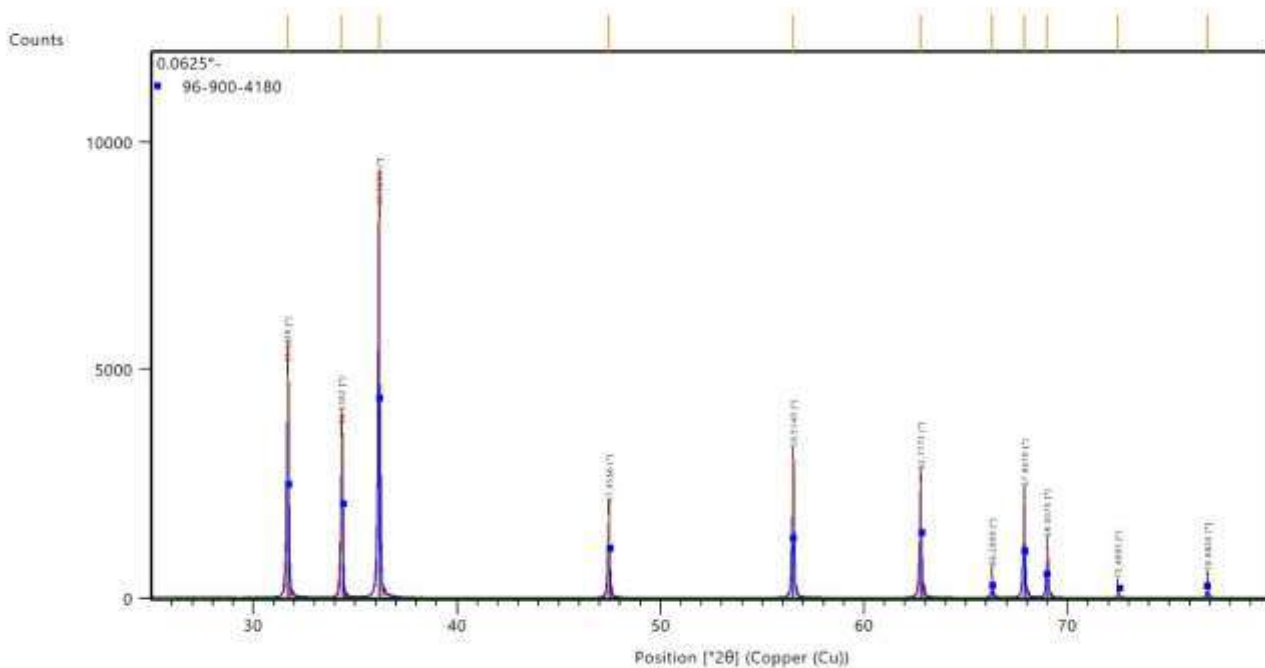


Fig-5:- For the FDS optics the effect of Divergence Slit width on a) Background intensity b) Highest Peak Intensity c) IP/IB i.e. ratio of Highest peak intensity/Background Intensity and d) FWHM,



*Fig-6. Phase match ZnO sample with Zincite having ref. code no 96-900-4180 in COD data base.*

### Conclusion:

In this study systematically evaluated the influence of divergence and anti-scatter slits in both Bragg–Brentano HD (BBHD) and Fixed Divergence Slit (FDS) optics, using ZnO as a sample, clear trends were observed in the obtained XRD diffractograms. The use of BBHD optics, combined with appropriate slit selection, enhances data quality by improving peak to background intensity ratio. For BBHD, a

divergence slit of  $0.0625^\circ$  offered the best balance between intensity and background and for FDS, a divergence slit of  $0.0625^\circ$  was also most suitable, yielding reliable peak intensity without excessive noise. Although BBHD showed slightly higher FWHM values (indicating minor peak broadening), the difference from FDS was not significant and did not compromise structural analysis.

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# Recent Advances in UHMWPE Fiber Technology

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## Abstract

*Ultra-high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE) remains a flagship material among high-performance polyolefins, yet its future is increasingly governed by the competing demands of large-scale manufacturability and environmental responsibility. This review surveys recent advances in UHMWPE fiber processing with an emphasis on the transition from conventional batch dissolution to continuous, high-throughput twin-screw extrusion (TSE) routes for gel-spinning dopes. Particular attention is given to the impact of ultra-long screw length-to-diameter (L/D) configurations (up to 136), which markedly promote chain disentanglement and have been shown to deliver gains in tensile strength approaching 150% and increases in gel crystallinity of roughly 50% relative to standard industrial L/D  $\approx$  36 designs. In parallel, we critically assess emerging “green” processing strategies, including the adoption of bio-derived terpene solvents and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (scCO<sub>2</sub>)-based extraction and washing schemes. Reported scCO<sub>2</sub> washing protocols reduce global warming potential by a factor of about 2.4 and cut overall carbon footprint by more than half compared with conventional n-hexane extraction. By integrating insights from polymer physics with process engineering and life-cycle considerations, this review benchmarks these developments against incumbent commercial UHMWPE fibers such as Dyneema® and Spectra®, and outlines prospective directions for next-generation high-tenacity fibers in marine, defense, and biomedical applications.*

## Key words:

*Ultra-high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE); Gel spinning; Twin-screw extrusion; L/D ratio; Sustainable solvents; Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>.*

## Citation

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## 1.0 Introduction

Ultra-high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE) is a high-performance polyolefin distinguished by extremely long chains, with weight-average molecular masses commonly above  $3\text{--}5 \times 10^6 \text{ g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$  [1, 2]. Such high molecular weight generates a dense entanglement network that imparts outstanding toughness, impact resistance, wear resistance, and chemical stability, but simultaneously leads to extreme melt viscosity and long relaxation times that hinder conventional melt processing [1,3,4,2]. In oriented fiber form, UHMWPE combines very high specific strength and stiffness with a low density of  $\sim 0.97 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ , giving one of the highest strength-to-weight ratios among structural polymers and making it highly attractive for lightweight reinforcement [5,6,3,4].

UHMWPE fibers are now widely deployed in marine and offshore ropes, mooring lines, cables, fishing gear, geotextiles, civil and structural reinforcement, and high-performance ballistic systems, where their high energy absorption and durability are critical [5,7,6,8,9]. In parallel, medical-grade UHMWPE has become a reference material

for load-bearing biomedical components, including joint arthroplasty bearings and high-strength sutures, owing to its biocompatibility and superior tribological behavior [4,10]. Commercial gel-spun products such as Dyneema® and Spectra® typically reach tensile strengths of several gigapascals and high moduli at low density, setting practical benchmarks for process-oriented innovations in this field [5,7,6,3].

Because of the extremely low melt flow and limited drawability imposed by dense entanglements, melt spinning of UHMWPE generally yields modest orientation and inferior mechanical performance compared with solution-based routes [1,2,3]. Industrial production of high-modulus fibers is therefore dominated by gel spinning, in which UHMWPE is dissolved in high-boiling solvents such as decalin or paraffin oil, converted into a thermo-reversible gel, and subsequently drawn to very high ratios to form highly oriented crystalline microstructures [2,3].

This review concentrates on recent processing-driven advances in UHMWPE fiber technology. The discussion emphasizes: (i) the evolution from batch dissolution to continuous direct-feed gel-spinning, including twin-screw

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and ultra-large L/D extrusion strategies for producing homogeneous dopes at industrial scale[6,3]; (ii) multistage drawing schemes and thermal protocols that translate nascent gels into ultra-oriented fibers[3,11]; (iii) developments in solvent and extraction systems, including more sustainable approaches aimed at reducing volatile organic compound emissions and energy demand[4,6]; and (iv) challenges of scale-up, process consistency, and solvent recovery in modern manufacturing[1,6,12]. Throughout, laboratory-scale outcomes are compared with typical commercial UHMWPE fiber performance to position recent processing innovations within the current application landscape[5,6,7,9].

## 2. Gel Spinning Fundamentals and Processing Evolution

### 2.1 Process overview:

The gel-spinning process for UHMWPE fibres begins by dissolving the ultra-high-molecular-weight polymer in a suitable high-boiling solvent to form a homogeneous solution [13,14]. Nocita et al. mentioned that gel spinning typically involves dissolving UHMWPE in decalin or paraffin to form a dilute solution that is then extruded through a spinneret [13]. These conditions produce a dilute, viscous solution in which polymer chains experience reduced intermolecular constraints, resulting in lower effective entanglement density and greater segmental mobility [3].

When the hot polymer solution is extruded, the emerging filament cools and undergoes gelation. In gel spinning, the term “gel” refers to a semi-crystalline, entangled polymer network that still contains a large fraction of solvent. As the extruded fiber enters an air gap or quench bath, phase separation occurs: polymer crystallites form while solvent remains trapped in the interlamellar regions[15]. This solvent-swollen network, effectively a soft, porous preform retains enough physical integrity to be handled and drawn. Notably, Zhang et al. found that fibres spun under milder conditions (lower draft and cooler quench) form gels with superior after-drawability and mechanical performance [16]. In decalin, some solvent tends to exude (syneresis) upon gelation, whereas in paraffin oil, the solvent stays dispersed in fine domains[15]. In either case, the as-spun gel fiber is rich in solvent but exhibits a nascent lamellar structure and entangled amorphous regions.

Importantly, the gel is not a fully solid fiber at this stage but a semi-solid network of crystals and chains. It is often described as a “thermo-reversible gel” or a “thixotropic fluid-solid network”[13]. This gel fiber can then be drawn in one or more stages (typically at elevated temperature) to align the polymer chains. The solvent is gradually removed during extraction or evaporation, leaving behind an ultrahigh-strength fiber with extremely high modulus and tensile strength.

### 2.2 Solution Preparation: Batch Dissolution vs Direct Feeding:

**Batch Dissolution (Traditional Method):** Historically, UHMWPE was dissolved in batch reactors or heated tanks. The polymer powder is slowly added to hot solvent under stirring and heated to its dissolution temperature. Ivan'kova et al. describe dissolving UHMWPE in decalin or paraffin by heating and stirring until a clear, viscous solution forms [14]. This batch method requires long heating times, precise temperature control (often with reflux), and large energy input. It also limits throughput and homogeneity, since the entire batch must be reheated for each run.

**Direct Feeding / Twin-Screw Extrusion (Continuous Method):** More recent advancements use twin-screw extruders to continuously mix and dissolve polymer and solvent. In this approach, UHMWPE powder (and any additives) is fed directly into a heated, counter-rotating twin-screw extruder along with solvent. The screws provide high shear and mixing, allowing rapid dissolution and highly uniform polymer-solvent mixing. Nocita et al. demonstrated that UHMWPE/paraffin mixtures can be processed in a twin-screw extruder to form stable, thermo-reversible sols[13]. They report that even at elevated polymer concentrations, the twin-screw method maintained a proper gel-structure (no phase separation) [13]. Compared to batch heating, direct feeding greatly reduces process steps and improves scalability and quality control. It permits precise control of residence time, temperature, and shear, making continuous gel-spinning feasible for industrial production.

Modern gel-spinning plants often adopt this continuous, direct-dissolution strategy. It avoids the need for large hot tanks and reduces energy usage. The transition from batch to direct feeding represents a major trend toward higher productivity and consistent fiber quality [13].

### 2.3 Role of Concentration and key Processing Parameters:

**Polymer Concentration:** The UHMWPE concentration in the spinning solution is a primary factor controlling gel strength and spinnability. Lower concentrations (e.g. <5 wt%) yield very weak gels that may lack integrity during spinning, whereas higher concentrations produce stronger gels but at the cost of dramatically increased viscosity. In practice, solutions in the range of ~5–10 wt% are most common[14]. Ivan'kova et al. note that using concentrations above ~10% becomes impractical: the viscosity becomes too high to pump through real spinnerets[14]. Thus, manufacturers typically limit UHMWPE concentrations to the 5–10% range and use exceptionally high molecular weights (on the order of  $2-3 \times 10^6$  g/mol) to achieve sufficient entanglement [14].

**Temperature:** Dissolution temperature and spin-line temperatures critically influence flow behaviour. Higher solution temperature lowers viscosity exponentially, facilitating flow through the extruder and spinneret. For example, UHMWPE in decalin typically requires ~120 °C to

dissolve, whereas paraffin oil may require ~140 °C [14]. During spinning, the spinneret or air-gap temperature must be managed to control the onset of gelation. If it's too cold, the solution will solidify prematurely, and if it's too hot, the polymer may degrade or over-relax before drawing. Precise thermal control ensures a stable gel filament; Sun et al. showed that even small changes in spin-quench temperature can affect the amorphous-to-crystalline balance in the as-spun gel [18].

**Extrusion Shear and Flow:** The shear history in the extruder and spinneret also affects gel morphology. Moderate shear can help disentangle chains and produce a more uniform sol, whereas excessive shear can induce flow instabilities or local heating. Yan et al. (2025) reported that twin-screw shearing at optimised conditions creates a “moderately entangled” polymer sol ready for drawing [17]. Conversely, too high shear or shear at very high Mw can leave unrecoverable defects. Therefore, screws and pumping systems are carefully designed to impart sufficient mixing without damaging the polymer chains.

**Processing Window:** The combination of concentration, temperature, and shear defines the narrow processing window of gel spinning. On one hand, a higher entanglement density (via higher concentration or Mw) tends to increase final fiber strength, but it also raises viscosity and reduces drawability. On the other hand, conditions that facilitate drawing (lower concentration, higher temperature) can weaken the gel network. Zhang et al. found that lower spin draft and reduced quench temperatures promote the formation of gels with improved drawability [19]. In practice, gel spinning is optimized to produce a gel filament that can withstand initial drawing stages while allowing extension of chains into highly oriented structures. Balancing these factors—drawability vs. mechanical integrity—is central to achieving the ultrahigh strength UHMWPE fibers that gel-spinning can deliver[3, 14].

**3. Drawing & Process Optimisation:**

The transition from a gel-state precursor to a high-performance fiber represents the most critical phase in the production of ultra-high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE). While the gel-spinning process establishes a low-entanglement network, it is the subsequent drawing process that converts this isotropic or semi-crystalline

morphology into a highly oriented, supra-molecular architecture capable of approaching the theoretical limits of polyethylene's mechanical properties[23]. This stage is not merely a physical elongation but a complex thermo-mechanical transformation that governs the final density of extended-chain crystals, the orientation factor of the amorphous regions, and the overall structural integrity of the filament [23].

**3.1 Role of drawing in performance development:**

As-spun or slightly drawn UHMWPE gel fibers show low tensile strength and modulus, even though some initial crystallinity and chain orientation are already present [20]. During drawing, the molecular chains are stretched along the fiber axis and folded crystals are progressively converted into more extended, highly oriented arrangements, which leads to large increases in strength and stiffness [20,21].

At intermediate draw ratios, both orientation and crystallinity rise quickly and this is reflected in a sharp improvement in modulus and tensile strength. When the draw ratio becomes very high, orientation approaches a limiting value, and further property gains are mainly associated with adjustments in crystal morphology rather than simple additional alignment [21]. Development of shish-kebab and fibrillar crystals, shortening and better alignment of shish structures, and denser lamellar networks are all correlated with superior mechanical performance[20,22].

Overall, drawing changes a relatively disordered, weak gel fiber into a microfibrillar, highly oriented UHMWPE fiber capable of ultra-high tenacity and modulus, with the draw path (cold versus hot, single-step versus multi-step) determining the final balance of strength, stiffness, and porosity[20,21,22].

**3.2 Multi-stage Drawing and Thermal Strategies:**

Multi-stage drawing combines cold, warm/hot, and sometimes relaxation or heat-treatment steps to achieve large total deformation while controlling damage and microstructure. The core idea is to sequence strain and temperature so that strength, ductility, and dimensional accuracy are optimized without triggering fracture or excessive softening.

Sr. No.	Drawing stage	Temperature (°C)	Rate (mm/min)	Max draw ratio ( $\lambda$ )	Dominant structural change
1	First stage	~95	~20	~20	Lamellar orientation, initial fibrillation
2	Second stage	115–130	~30	~150	Lamellae → extended-chain networks, higher orientation
3	Third stage	140–150	10–20	>200	Crystalline refinement, defect reduction, higher crystallinity

*Table 1 Typical UHMWPE multi-stage drawing temperatures and structures*

### Functional Roles of Sequential Stages:

Low-temperature (first) stage: Moderate drawing at temperatures just above the onset of mobility or necking orients lamellae and creates an initial fibrillar framework but is limited by stress concentration and microfibril fracture at too high  $\lambda$  [24, 25].

Intermediate hot stages (second stage window): Raising temperature (e.g., 115–130 °C) promotes chain disentanglement and lamella-to-extended-chain transformation, enabling much higher draw ratios and rapid increases in crystallinity and orientation [24,23,25, 26].

High-temperature refinement (third stage): Further drawing near or above the main melting endotherm sharpens orientation, refines crystalline domains, and increases the fraction of extended-chain crystals, producing ultra-high strength fibers [23,25,26].

### 3.3 Processing variables and optimization:

During gel-spinning and drawing of UHMWPE, shrinkage and drawing conditions strongly control fiber strength. Restricting axial shrinkage during extraction, drying, and early drawing promotes chain orientation and raises tensile strength [27]. Multi-stage hot drawing shows that higher total draw ratios and suitable temperatures transform folded crystals into more extended structures, steadily improving strength and modulus until an optimum is reached; too high temperatures or draw ratios can damage the structure and reduce properties [23,20,24]. Statistical analyses and industrial line studies also identify draw-down and post-spinning draw ratios as key parameters governing final mechanical performance[28].

Process optimization is multi-factorial. Work using methods like the Taguchi approach in UHMWPE composites and related systems shows that temperature, stress/draw ratio, and additive content are often the most significant factors for mechanical properties [29,30]. For gel-spun UHMWPE, greener solvents such as orange terpenes can produce micro-ribbon fibers with promising tenacity and modulus, but their properties still lag behind decalin-based systems and need further optimization of drawing temperature and ratio [31]. Large-scale studies of UHMWPE fibers across many processing conditions confirm that carefully balancing drawing temperature, draw ratio, and pre- vs post-spinning stretching is essential to achieve both high strength and stable, industrially viable production[23,24].

## 4. Solvent Systems and Extraction Strategies:

### 4.1 Conventional solvent systems:

The primary spinning solvent in UHMWPE gel-spinning controls dissolution temperature, dope rheology, disentanglement, and how difficult and energy-intensive solvent removal will be. Industrial practice is dominated by high-boiling mineral/paraffin oils and volatile hydrocarbons such as decalin, with broadly comparable ultimate fiber properties but very different processing and safety profiles [3,14].

### Paraffin / Mineral Oil Systems

Paraffin or mineral (vaseline) oils are non-volatile, non-polar, high-boiling hydrocarbons widely used as “wet-extraction” solvents in commercial gel-spinning [3,14]. Dilute UHMWPE solutions (typically  $\approx 1$ –10 wt%) reduce entanglement density and enable very high draw ratios and tensile properties [3,32]. Rheology work shows that increasing UHMWPE content strongly raises zero-shear viscosity, constraining practical concentrations and processing windows [13,33].

Paraffin oils effectively disentangle chains while acting as lubricants in the gel, promoting chain mobility and crystal development during quenching and drawing [14,13]. However, their low volatility means as-spun gels can contain  $\approx 90$ –95% oil, requiring subsequent wet extraction in organic solvents (e.g., n-hexane, xylene mixtures, dichloromethane) and vacuum drying, with significant solvent use and environmental burden [34,35]. Residual oil and degradation products in the solvent loop also demand purification for reuse [32,36].

### Decalin and Other Volatile Hydrocarbons

Decalin is a “dry-extraction” solvent with a substantially lower boiling point and faster dissolution than paraffin, allowing processing at reduced temperature and simultaneous evaporation during post-drawing, enabling continuous fiber production and avoiding large-volume extraction baths[3,37]. Similar ultimate strengths and moduli can be achieved from decalin and paraffin systems when draw conditions are optimized [14].

Decalin-based gels, however, exhibit pronounced syneresis and strong phase separation upon cooling, which complicates control of gelation, porosity, and cross-section uniformity [34,3]. Decalin is flammable and can form

Aspect	Paraffin / Mineral Oil	Decalin (Decahydronaphthalene)
Volatility/removal route	Non-volatile; solvent washing + drying	Volatile: evaporation during drawing
Typical UHMWPE concentration	$\sim 1$ –10 wt%	similarly dilute
Chain disentanglement & draw	Strong disentanglement; high draw ratios	Strong disentanglement; high draw ratios
Environmental & safety profile	Large extractant use; low flammability	Lower extractant use; flammable, peroxides

Table 2 Industrial paraffin and decalin solvent trade-offs in UHMWPE gel-spinning.

explosive hydroperoxides in oxygen-containing environments, necessitating inert atmospheres and careful safety management [14,37].

#### 4.2 Emerging and modified solvent approaches:

Recent work on “green” processing has focused on replacing traditional mineral oils and aromatics with bio-derived solvents and advanced CO<sub>2</sub>-based systems to cut emissions while maintaining high fiber performance.

##### Bio-Derived and Vegetable-Oil-Type Solvent Systems

Orange terpene mixtures rich in d-limonene, obtained from citrus-waste streams, have been demonstrated as effective spin solvents for UHMWPE. Gel-spun fibers drawn at modest draw ratios can reach tenacities of about 8.6 cN/dtex and modulus near 229 cN/dtex, showing that bio-based terpenes can rival paraffin-type oils while enabling distinctive micro-ribbon morphologies desirable for composites [31]. Earlier work on “al dente” gel spinning showed that relatively poor solvents, including fatty acids and natural vegetable oils, allow higher polymer concentrations and easier solvent recovery, improving sustainability and potentially raising throughput compared with classical decalin/mineral-oil systems [38]. Broader green-chemistry studies also highlight vegetable oils and essential-oil-derived solvents as low-volatility, renewable media that can reduce energy use by simplifying solvent recovery steps [25].

##### Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>-Assisted Approaches

Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> (scCO<sub>2</sub>) is increasingly explored as a processing aid and extraction medium in UHMWPE systems. Treating UHMWPE suspensions or gels with scCO<sub>2</sub> before or during gel spinning promotes disentanglement, preserves higher molecular weight, and enables higher draw ratios, leading to fibers with tensile strengths above 30 cN/dtex—around 10% higher than comparable conventional routes [40,41]. More generally, scCO<sub>2</sub> offers gas-like diffusivity with liquid-like density, allowing efficient removal of embedded oils or impurities from polymers while avoiding organic washing solvents [42,43,44]. Life-cycle and process analyses in related extraction applications show that, when CO<sub>2</sub> and co-solvents are effectively recycled, scCO<sub>2</sub> systems can significantly lower global warming potential and solvent emissions compared with hexane- or alcohol-based washing [42,45].

Overall, bio-derived terpenes, vegetable-oil-type solvents, and scCO<sub>2</sub>-assisted processes present promising routes to combine high UHMWPE fiber performance with reduced environmental and solvent-handling burdens.

#### 4.3 Solvent extraction and removal mechanisms:

Solvent extraction is a crucial bridge between gel spinning and high-ratio drawing, because as-spun UHMWPE gels can contain 80–95% solvent that must be removed without damaging the oriented network. In mineral- or paraffin-oil

systems, this is usually done by wet extraction with low-boiling organics such as hexane, heptane, gasoline or similar agents, followed by drying [54,14,47]. The extraction liquid penetrates the gel, both displacing the heavy oil and mixing with it, which lowers the oil viscosity and lets it diffuse out more easily; this “replacement–dilution” behaviour has been confirmed by low-field NMR studies using different extractants [48]. Efficient extraction is important because residual high-boiling oil acts as a plasticizer, alters crystallization, and can promote pore formation during subsequent drawing, which reduces packing density and mechanical performance [49,14,50]. The way solvent is removed also controls shrinkage and porosity: rapid evaporation or high-tension drying can generate strong capillary forces, leading to longitudinal voids that act as crack initiators, whereas multi-stage solvent exchange with progressively lower surface tension liquids can greatly reduce collapse and preserve a porous but mechanically robust structure [51].

At industrial scale, solvent removal is tightly coupled to energy use and environmental management. Large volumes of extraction solvent are circulated in continuous, often counter-current, washing systems so that the cleanest solvent contacts the cleanest fiber, improving driving forces for mass transfer while limiting solvent consumption [38,46,47]. The spent solvent–oil mixture is then regenerated in recovery units (e.g., thin-film evaporation or vacuum distillation) so that both the spinning solvent and the extractant can be reused, and so that oxidative degradation products of oils are removed before recycling [52,34]. New mechanical strategies such as twisting gel fibers or films can remove 70–90% of solvent in a single step and make the remaining extraction much faster, cutting both emissions and residence time [53,54]. Process studies also show that higher polymer concentrations, which are attractive for throughput, slow extraction and demand higher bath ratios or added energy inputs such as ultrasound to keep residual solvent below the low levels needed for stable ultra-drawing [55,46,48]. Overall, modern solvent-removal schemes combine controlled mass transfer, closed-loop recovery and, increasingly, mechanical or supercritical-fluid assistance to balance fiber quality with safety and environmental compliance.

### 5. Industrial Scaling and Process Evolution:

Scaling UHMWPE gel-spinning from lab to high-volume production requires tight control of solvent loops, extrusion, and drawing to keep cost, energy use, and product variability within acceptable limits. Recent advances focus on higher solid contents, better mixing, and longer extruders to stabilize the dope and improve fiber properties at industrial throughputs.

#### 5.1 Scale-up Challenges:

Industrial gel-spinning still relies on very dilute solutions, so large solvent volumes must be heated, pumped, extracted,

and recovered, driving capital and energy demand[3,46,55]. Work on higher solution concentrations (8–24 wt%) shows that production efficiency and abrasion resistance can be improved, but too high concentration degrades tensile strength and orientation, highlighting a throughput vs. drawability trade-off[46,55,56].

Maintaining denier uniformity across many filaments is another key issue. Industrial studies show that small fluctuations in resin characteristics, concentration, or temperature propagate into variability in linear density and tensile properties, whereas narrowing resin molecular weight and particle size distributions significantly improves linear density consistency and mechanical performance [17]. Large-scale lines combine multi-stage drawing and controlled cooling to reach total draw ratios >600 while reducing filament diameter to ~5–6  $\mu\text{m}$  and achieving strengths up to ~48 cN/dtex, but this demands precise control of all stages to avoid breaks and defects [23,14]. Environmental and safety constraints additionally require closed solvent and VOC management, pushing industry toward more efficient recovery loops and greener solvents [3,46,31].

### 5.2 Evolution of Extrusion Technologies:

Early gel-spinning used batch swelling and relatively simple extruders; modern plants employ twin-screw extrusion (TSE) and novel elongational-flow devices to continuously produce well-dispersed sols[3,13,57]. TSE offers strong distributive/dispersive mixing, stable feeding, and accurate temperature control, enabling homogeneous UHMWPE/paraffin-oil sols at higher concentrations without severe phase separation or degradation[3,13]. Rheological work confirms that suitable screw design and inert atmospheres can push UHMWPE contents up to ~9 wt% while limiting oxidative chain scission [13].

A key recent breakthrough is the use of ultra-large L/D twin-screw extruders. An extruder with L/D = 136 produced UHMWPE gel fibers (6–18 wt%) with greatly increased residence time and shear, allowing lower barrel temperatures and screw speeds while still achieving extensive disentanglement 58. Compared with an L/D = 36 extruder, tensile strength, modulus, and elongation of gel fibers increased by ~149%, 118%, and 54%, respectively, and crystallinity rose by ~51%; SEM showed dense, smooth surfaces with well-oriented fibrils, indicating more complete chain disentanglement[58]. These data directly link extended residence time and controlled shear to improved dope quality and fiber properties at industrially relevant throughputs.

Beyond conventional screws, eccentric-rotor extruders that impose strong elongational flow can process UHMWPE with little or no solvent at lower temperatures, by tuning residence time to enhance chain mobility and welding without excessive degradation [59,57]. Such technologies, together with high-L/D TSE and high-concentration

spinning, represent the core of the current process evolution toward more efficient, scalable UHMWPE fiber manufacturing.

### Key Features of Conventional vs. Ultra-Large L/D Extruders

Feature	Conventional (L/D ~30–60)	Ultra-Large L/D (~136)
Residence time	Moderate	Long, tunable
Mixing / disentanglement	Limited; risk of undissolved particles	Strong shear; effective disentanglement
Operating temperature	Higher to ensure dissolution	Lower possible at same dissolution level
Fiber tensile properties	Baseline high-tenacity	Strength and modulus up to ~1.5–2 $\times$ higher

Table 3 Impact of ultra-large L/D extrusion on UHMWPE gel-fiber quality.

## 6. Applications of Advanced UHMWPE Fibres

Ultra-high molecular weight polyethylene (UHMWPE) fibers are used where high strength, very low density (~0.97 g/cm<sup>3</sup>), and durability are essential [6,3,60].

For marine ropes and cables, UHMWPE provides high tensile strength at low weight, near-neutral buoyancy, and good resistance to creep and fatigue in wet, corrosive environments [3,60]. Commercial gel-spun fibers such as Dyneema® and Spectra® typically reach tenacities of about 2.5–4.0 N/tex with moduli around 80–150 GPa, making them well suited for offshore and mooring lines [5,6,60]. Improved draw ratios and optimized decalin/paraffin dissolving systems reduce defects, increase chain orientation, and extend service life under cyclic loading [61,3].

In geotechnical engineering, UHMWPE fibers and textiles are used in geogrids and composites for pavements, embankments, and concrete repair, taking advantage of their high stiffness, low density, and long-term creep resistance relative to conventional polymers [6,60,8]. Uniform, high draw ratios are important to maintain stiffness and minimize deformation under sustained earth or structural loads [62].

In ballistic and personal protection, UHMWPE textiles and unidirectional laminates provide very high specific strength and impact energy absorption at low areal density, and can outperform aramid-based armor at equal weight [5,63,7]. Performance depends on fiber strength and modulus, matrix stiffness, fiber–matrix interface, and fabric architecture [5,63,7,64].

In biomedical applications, UHMWPE is widely used in joint bearings (e.g., acetabular cups, tibial inserts) and in high-strength sutures and medical textiles because of its

excellent wear resistance, toughness, and biocompatibility [4,14,63]. Surface modification and crosslinking help improve tissue integration, sterilization stability, and tribological performance in vivo [4,64,14].

Beyond these main areas, UHMWPE fibers are also explored in road-safety devices, MEMS, and other protective or structural systems, where low friction, high impact resistance, and chemical stability are beneficial [6,17].

### 6.1 Benchmarking Advanced Fibres Against Commercial Products

Commercial gel-spun UHMWPE fibers such as Dyneema® and Spectra® typically show tenacities of about 2.5–4.0 N/tex and tensile moduli around 80–150 GPa, and are widely used in ropes and ballistic systems [5,65,6].

Recent research fibers are reaching or surpassing this range. Optimized dissolving systems (e.g., decalin–paraffin or paraffin with supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> assistance) improve molecular-weight retention and disentanglement, giving higher strength while also helping solvent recovery and safety [3,38]. Preswelling in decalin followed by gel-spinning has produced fibers with strength above 30 cN/dtex and modulus above 1400 cN/dtex [66,40]. Low-entanglement UHMWPE and improved gel-spinning/drawing can yield ultrafine fibers with strengths around 4–6 GPa and moduli up to 160–200 GPa in the lab [67,36,68].

For long-term loaded structures, new “fish-skeleton” molecular designs and other online modifications

significantly improve creep resistance, targeting ocean mooring and marine cables[28,61].

However, moving from lab to industry is still difficult. Major barriers include scale-up of complex multi-stage drawing, control of orientation and microstructure at high speeds, solvent and energy management, and safety and regulatory constraints [20,40,6]. These challenges, and ongoing needs for better creep resistance, long-term stiffness, impact performance, and durability, continue to drive work on more efficient and sustainable UHMWPE fiber processes [5,60].

### 7. Conclusion

The recent advancements in UHMWPE technology represent a major technical transition from traditional batch-oriented processing to high-efficiency continuous twin-screw extrusion, a shift that is fundamentally supported by the implementation of ultra-large L/D extruders which have demonstrated the ability to improve fiber tensile properties by over 140% through enhanced molecular disentanglement. This engineering evolution is matched by a critical move toward sustainable manufacturing, evidenced by the development of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> washing systems that reduce global warming potential by 2.4 times compared to hexane-based methods and the successful integration of bio-derived solvents such as vegetable oils and cineole. As these processing and environmental innovations mature, the application spectrum of UHMWPE continues to broaden, reinforcing its status as a foundational material for high-tenacity marine ropes, ballistic defense systems, and highly durable biomedical implants.

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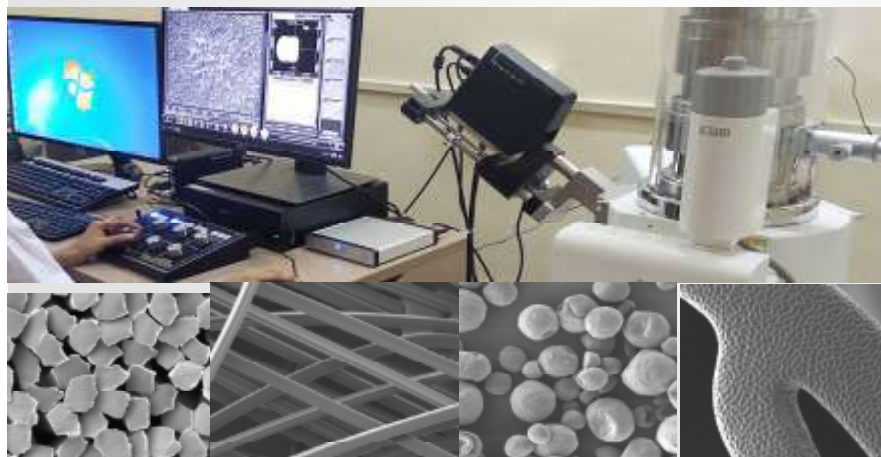
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