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THE CHEMISTRY AND TECHNOLOGY OF WEB FORMATION^{1/}

by

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SUMMARY

PETROCHEMISTRY AND TECHNOLOGY OF WEB FABRICATION

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Webbs consist of papers, felt, and, in some cases, leather. They are built up from fibres and their process of formation provides an opportunity of orientating the fibres thus increasing the strength of the web.

A brief account is given of the art process of the manufacture of woven and non-woven fabrics. The former is dealt with in detail in the latter part of the structure of the book is also described.

The latter part of the book deals with the production of non-woven and paper webs. The polymer and wood pulp webs are described in detail in a separate chapter before a brief treatment of the felt webs. These are described in detail in a separate chapter. It is also described in detail the production of leather webs.

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... as well as a quantity of fiber-saltine fibers can be included when the ...

... the ... of ... in ... of the ... of ... if you ...
... the ... of ... from ... the ... of ... It is believed that ...
... the ... of ... will be ... and ...

The formation of textiles, or 1 vols. of papers, felts, textiles and leather out of fibres is one of the most important technological processes of mankind throughout the history. Fibres have been manufactured 6000 years ago in the form of animal hair, wool, flax, etc. for some of the earliest textiles and certain types of paper. The first paper was made in China in 105 AD. The first synthetic fibres were developed in the late nineteenth century. The development of synthetic fibres has followed a scientific path of increasing complexity. It has been possible to create a wide variety of fibres from a wide range of raw materials, such as wood, which consists of fibres, cellulose, lignin, etc. The fibres are then spun into a continuous network of fine filaments, which are then woven into fabrics.

With the development of the synthetic fibre industry, modern processes of fibre formation have been invented, of which it will be the main task of this paper to describe the possibilities of their application in developing countries.

The main objective of this paper is to describe the industrial development of synthetic fibres. It will be shown that the different kinds of fibres can be produced by different machines, and the following comparison of the different machines and processes of fibre formation in regard to technological requirements will be given.

Petrochemicals are the principal raw materials for synthetic polymers, e.g. the polyolefins, polyethylene derivatives, polypropylene, polyester, polyamides etc. The production of synthetic fibres and films involves a later date. The question, whether or not production of monomers or intermediates would be economically viable, thus can stimulate the whole petrochemical development of a country.

Table I: The improvement of the properties of synthetic fibres by orientation.

Materials	Unoriented fibres		Oriented fibres		Orientation to break %	Modulus g/den.	Orientation to break %	Modulus g/den.
	Modulus g/den.	Tens. Strength g/den.	Modulus g/den.	Tens. Strength g/den.				
Cellulose	20	3,0	100	3,7	35	100	6	
Cellulose-acetate	8	1,3	60	3,2	60	60	6	
Nylon 65	6	3,5	35	9,7	75	35	12	
Polyethylene terephthalate	15	3,6	55	10,1	62	55	10	
Polyvinyl-alcohol	10	2,0	50	5,7	71	50	12	
Polyvinyl-chloride	15	2,6	55	5,7	43	55	11	
Polystyrene	30	2,2	35	3,2	30	35	5	
Polyacrylonitrile	25	3,1	75	5,1	36	75	10	
Polyethylene (low density)	5	2,2	35	12,2	110	35	13	
Polyethylene (high density)	10	2,0	40	15,2	80	40	12	
polypropylene	12	3,1	67	11,2	70	67	7	

The reinforcement of the dry web can be carried out in the dry state by mechanical netting or heat sealing with the aid of binding fibres or in the wet state by mechanical filling and shrinking and by the addition of a binding resin in the form of a suspension or emulsion.

2.3. Textiles

Representative fabrics range in weight between 200 and 800 g/m^2 . According to the recent excellent studies of H. L. Fuchsauer (6) and many of the different mechanical characteristics of the individual fibres - modulus, yield point, tensile strength, elongation to break and binding modulus - are involved in building up the significant mechanical properties of woven and knitted fabrics.

2.4. Leather

Thickness of leather and leatherlike products range between 350 microns for thin glove leather to 6 mm for strong sole leather types, their weight ranges accordingly from about 200 g to about 4000 g/m^2 .

If an attempt is to produce a synthetic sheet which simulates and eventually improves the properties of natural leather it is advantageous to consider the histology of the animal skin, which consists of several layers. The uppermost of them, the "epidermis" is relatively hard and abrasion resistant, the next layer, the "corium" represents the largest part of the skin and is remarkable by its toughness, elasticity and water binding capacity. The lower "stratum" finally is a relatively thin, elastic and adhesive layer which connects the skin with the tissue underneath.

For achieving modern leather substitutes it might be best to build it up from several layers of fibrous elements and to connect them by chemical crosslinking processes.

3. Direct web-spin-process and its principles.

This process starts with an appropriate synthetic polymer in bulk (not in fibre form), as a powder or as granules converts it into filaments and directly without interruption in a twodimensional system. The operation needs no special carrier such as water or an organic liquid. Different readily fusible polymers can be applied alone or together on the same equipment.

Assuming for the purpose of illustration 2000 holes, then 2000 grams of web will be deposited on the screen per minute. If the belt has a width of 2 m and if a 100 g/m^2 web is desired, one linear meter of the web will be 200 g and the belt has to be moved at the speed of 10 m/min. This is small as compared with the web velocities obtained by the "classical" methods and shows, that the new method can only be competitive in productivity if an assembly of 10,000 spinneret holes can be made to deliver filaments for the formation of one web. This leads to a collector speed of 50 m/min. of a web with 100 g/m^2 and 2 m width, which compares favourably with the classical processes.

3.3. Reinforcements.

In contrast to these processes the filaments of the present web are endless and need much less reinforcement than the relatively short fibres of the classical sheets. Heat sealing or pressure or elevated temperature already leads to remarkable mechanical properties in the case of polyethylene and polypropylene sheets and webs. If higher melting polyamides or polyesters are used the addition of a small percentage of a lower melting fibre filament provides for the necessary heat sealing and leads to superior mechanical properties. Table 2 presents data on the mechanical and thermal properties of several webs, as papers, textiles and nonwoven sheets produced by direct web spin process; Table 2 shows that the new materials are very clearly superior in quality to paper, are on the same level with textiles and leather and, they probably, have a substantial economic advantage over the products of these two industries.

3.4. Finishing.

All kind of finishing operations are possible on random webs. Special procedures exist for printing for using it as wallpaper.

Table 10

1. Low impact mechanical properties of polymeric and composite products, selected fabrics and some printed webs:

Material	W	A	T	IP
2) Papers:				
Tissue paper	0.4 - 0.6	-	0.01 - 0.02	-
Free print	3 - 4	-	0.03 - 0.06	-
Wrapping paper	8 - 10	-	0.5 - 0.4	-
Heavy duty bag paper	10 - 15	-	0.5 - 0.6	-
3) Selected fabrics:				
Cotton	13	20	3.0	-
Wool	8	23	2.4	-
Nylon	26	38	4.5	-
Polyester	25	36	4.2	-
Acrylics	17	28	3.6	-
4) Tendon webs:				
Polyethylene	56	60	-	132
Polypropylene	67	64	-	175
Polyester	22	15	2.3	260
Nylon 6	19	20	2.2	225
Nylon 66	24	24	2.4	260

50 - Strip tensile in lbs per linear inch
 W - Elongation in %
 IP - Tullen burst in psi
 T₁₀ - Tongue tear in lbs
 A - Abrasion resistance in cycles of the CSIA machine
 IP - Melting point.

Table 3:

Direct web - spin process

Raw material

Fusible synthetic polymers
in bulk

Fibre formation

Extrusion of the melt and spinline drawing
by a spinner. Spinner on
Substantial molecular orientation and
crystallization
Reduction of fibre size by a factor of
10 - 20
Spinning of the original crystal
filaments up to 1000 g/min

Randomization

through mechanical stretching or
electrostatic action

Reinforcement

directly through drawing and heat
by heat setting

Further optional treatment

Printing, coating, calendaring,
calendering

4. Applications in developing countries and future outlook.

The chances for the future applications of the web-spin process in developing countries depend on economic advantages compared to the classical methods of web formation. For this some cost evaluations will be given.

To give an idea of the cost of producing an air dry sheet of paper (5-7% moisture) from the fibre suspension (between 0.2 and 0.5% solid content) the machine drawing cost for a bond paper (bleached Kraft or Sulphite), which yields 70 g/m² amount to about 0.7 - 1.2 cts/m². This figure depends on many factors, such as make and condition of the machine, cost of steam, energy and manual labour but should give the correct order of magnitude. It indicates that the cost increment from one lb. of cellulose fibre suspended in water to the same quantity of the same fibre in the form of a paper is between 7.2 and 9.6 cts in the case of a bond paper sheet. This figure has to be checked if a much thinner (tissue) or a much thicker (heavy duty log) sheet is considered.

Concluding: the cost of the conversion of a given tridimensional material into a two dimensional web, it is difficult to present any meaningful average. It can be estimated, that the drawing costs" of a yard of a cotton fabric weighing 100 amount to about 10-15 cts depending on the design of the weave and of such other factors as origin and weathering of the fibres, labour, steam and power.

There exist neither very reliable and realistic cost estimates for the conversion of 1 lb. of polymer into a staple fibre by the process of melt spinning and cold drawing. If the melting point of the polymer is within the range between 130 and 270 °C, if the drawing takes place between room temperature and 250 °C and if a heavy denier staple tow with filaments between 1000 and 2000 is produced, a cost of about 25 cts/lb are to be added to the cost of the original polymer. It seems that this figure can be reduced to 20 and even 20 cts/lb if very large units are operated and if the process is under excellent control, works at high speed, produces few threadbreaks and a high percentage of first quality product.

Thus e.g. an approximate estimate of the cost of a specific nylon fabric can be made up as follows:

Cost of polymer in the form of granules	35 cts/lb
Production of a staple fiber from this polymer	25 cts/lb
Spinning and weaving of these fibers into a fabric weighing 70 g/m ²	25 cts/lb
Total	85 cts/lb
This amount is about 1/3 of 1/4	

Similarly the cost of a corresponding cotton fabric could be estimated as:

Cost of the staple fibers of cotton	25 cts/lb
Spinning and weaving of these fibers into a fabric weighing 70 g/m ²	25 cts/lb
Total	51 cts/lb
or about 1/3 of 1/4	

The economic efficiency of the direct synthesis process are indicated by the above picture considering the actual market situation of the classical processes for fiber production.

The applications of products made out of synthetic polymers depend on the input material and the manipulation of the process-variables during production. The products are versatile and could include practically all kinds of materials as can be seen in their applications for man-made papers and also leather. Actual applications are for wallpaper, clothing and different technical equipment for industry. Special applications will be developed and established for the future.





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