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# Effects of Molecular Weight and Thermal Treatment on Wear Behavior of Polyamide 6

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**A** series of polyamide 6 **(PA** 6) samples varying in their molecular weight (between 10 000 and 50000) were annealed for 6 h in vacuum at various temperature (between 100 and 220°C) in order to create different morphological structures. The samples have been characterized with respect of their density, melting and crystallinity (from **DSC),** thermal expansion coefficient, humidity, predomination  $\alpha$ - or  $\gamma$ -crystalline modification (from IR), shear melt viscosity and their tribological behaviour (the specific wear rate  $W_s$ ). It is found that density increases with increasing annealing temperature  $T_a$  but decrease with the rise of molecular weight (m.w.). The thermal expansion coefficient is more sensitive to *T,* than to m.w. Contrary, shear-viscosity increases from 35 MPa for **PA** 6 with a m.w. of 10 000 to 7 200 MPa for samples with a m.w. of 50 000. Concerning wear behavior it is concluded that the observed tendency for a decrease of  $W_s$  with an increase of  $T_a$ , particularly for samples with low m.w. is attributed to the formation of a more stable physical structure during annealed. This well defined tendency (except samples annealing at highest *T,)* is related to the observed drastic increase of shear melt viscosity with an increase of m.w.

*Keywords:* Polyamide 6; thermal treatment; molecular weight; density; crystallinity; thermal expansion coefficient; morphology; shear viscosity; specific wear rate

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

The demand for polymeric materials with competitive and new properties for various applications is increasing steadily. **A** good wear

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resistance is an important requirement for engineering plastics in many cases. It is well known that the wear phenomenon is rather complex with respect to both, the mechanisms as well as the determining factors [I], *e.g.,* type and course of movement, normal force, sliding velocity, temperature and loading duration. The four basic mechanisms of wear are adhesion, abrasion, surface fatigue and tribochemical reactions [2]. Material characteristics also affect the wear behavior of polymers. In particular, the molecular weight should be of primary importance, since it determines viscous and viscoelastic properties of the materials as well as their crystallizability, that in turn affects the hardness of the surface and the bulk. Polyamide 6 (PA 6), one of the most common engineering plastics, has some pecularities in contrast to other polymers. First of all it absorbs a relative high amount of water (up to 10%); the latter can act as a plasticizer and decrease the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  strongly (down to  $20-25$ °C). Further, fiber grade PA 6 has usually a molecular weight of 20 000 *-25* 000 and a melt viscosity not high enough to be processed *via* injection moulding and extrusion. The proper viscosities for those processing techniques correspond to molecular weights of  $30000 - 40000$  and  $50000 - 70000$ , respectively. It is worth to be mentioned here, that an increase of molecular weight from 20000 or below to around 30000 results in a significant increase of tensile strength [3]. One could expect that such a change in molecular weight would also have a strong effect on the wear behavior of **PA** *6.* This study aims to illustrate the effect of molecular weight of **PA** 6 in a range between 10 000 and 50 000 on its sliding wear characteristics against a steel counterpart.

#### **2. EXPERIMENTAL**

#### **2.1. Materials**

The starting material was a commercial **PA** *6* of type Vidlon (Chemical plant Vidin, Bulgaria). This freshly produced polymer had a molecular weight of 29 000 and was used to obtain samples with higher molecular weights through solid state post condensation [4,5]. In addition, a recycled material with a lower molecular weight of 19 500 was selected for producing samples with lower molecular weights by solid state hydrolysis with formic acid as described in detail in *[S].* The determination of their molecular weights took place by viscosimetric measurements. From the materials differing in their  $\bar{M}_{v}$ , "dog-bone" test samples were produced by injection moulding. In order to have the specimens not only differ in their molecular weights but also in their morphological structure, a subsequent thermal treatment was carried out in vacuum at various temperatures for 6h. Details on all these procedures can be found in *[5].* The molecular weights after the respective treatments together with the corresponding sample designation are given in Table **I.** 

#### **2.2. Morphological Characterization**

Before starting the tribological measurements, the samples (Tab. I) were characterized with respect to their density  $\rho$ , melting temperature  $T_m$ , melting enthalpy  $\Delta H$ , respectively degree of crystallinity  $X_c$ , thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha$ , humidity  $\Delta h$ , amount of  $\alpha$ -or  $\gamma$ -crystalline modification, and shear viscosity *n*.

The density  $\rho$  has been determined by picnometric measurements at 20°C using deionized water:

$$
\rho = \frac{F_a}{F_a - F_l} \cdot \rho_l \tag{1}
$$





where  $F_a$  and  $F_l$  represent the weight of the sample in air and in liquid (deionized water with the density  $\rho_l$ ).

The results of some selected samples with steadily increasing  $\bar{M}_{\nu}$ are summarized in Table 11. Thermal characteristics, such as melting temperature  $T_m$ , heat of fusion  $\Delta H$ , thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha$ , could be determined by the use of Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) both of the system TA 4000 of Mettler and a Thermal Mechanical Analysis (TMA) facility. The scanning rate for DSC measurements was  $10$  K/min, the range was  $30-300^{\circ}$ C, sample weight amounted between  $6 - 7$  mg, and measurements were carried out in air. Temperature callibration was performed by means of indium, lead and zinc.

The degree of the crystallinity  $X_c$  was calculated from the DSC plots using the common equation:

$$
X_c = \frac{\Delta H}{\Delta H^0} \cdot 100\%
$$
 (2)

where  $\Delta H$  is the measured heat of fusion, and  $\Delta H^0 = 240 \text{ J/g}$  is the heat of fusion of the fully crystalline PA 6 [6].

TMA measurements were performed on selected samples to demonstrate the effect of molecular weight and annealing temperature  $T_a$  on the thermal expansion coefficient; for these experiments a heating rate of 2 K/min, a sample thickness of 3.5 -4.5 mm and a load of *0.05* N was applied. The DSC and TMA results are presented in Table 11.

The humidity in PA 6 was determined according to the German Standard DIN 53495 requirements. The samples have been dried for 24 h at 80°C. It is known that this kind of treatment does not completely remove the absorbed water (mostly because of hydrogen bonding). But in the present case the purpose of these measurements was to compare the amount of water removed during this standard method of drying, for samples differing in their molecular weight and thermal pretreatment. The results are summarized in Table **11.** 

Similar to all other polyamides, PA 6 exhibits a polymorphism. The basic crystalline modifications are the monocline  $\alpha$ -structure, stable at higher temperatures, and the monocline  $\gamma$ -structure, which is present only at lower temperatures (up to 150°C). **As** the two modifications differ in their crystalline density, it was of interest to known which on existed in the various samples after thermal treatment. For this reason



IR-measurements (with an IR-microscope Nic Plan of Nicolet) were carried out using three samples of two different groups that strongly differed in their thermal treatment. To achieve a high transmission rate, thin slides were prepared and placed on KBr-plates. All measurements were carried out in a wave number range between 4000 and  $400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The different absorption bonds of  $\alpha$ - and  $\gamma$ -modification as a result of transmission measurements allow to distinguish between the two. The presence of either  $\alpha$ - or  $\gamma$ -modification can just be proved by analysing the IR-spectrum. Assignment of the IR-bands to the respective  $\alpha$ - or  $\gamma$ -modification was made according to the results of Illers and Haberkorn [7].

Table **I1** presents the predominating modifications observed in the samples selected.

The most characteristic feature to describe the differences between the samples is the melt viscosity  $\eta$ . The determination of  $\eta$  was carried out in a Mettler-Suck rotation rheometer of type V10, a plate-platerheometer of Couette-type. During measurement a shear rate  $\dot{\gamma}$  is set and the resulting shear stress  $\tau$  is measured. The corresponding shear viscosity  $\eta(\gamma)$  is calculated according to:

$$
\eta = \frac{\tau}{\dot{\gamma}}\tag{3}
$$

The measurements were performed in air under the following conditions: diameter of the plate 20 mm, distance between the plates about 4 mm, maximum shear rate of  $0.1 s^{-1}$ , measuring time of 1 min, holding time of 0.1 min, and measuring temperature of 250°C. The results are listed in Table **I1** as well.

#### **2.3. Tribological Measurements**

Sliding wear experiments were performed with a "block-on-ring'' test configuration close to ASTM *G* 77. The specimens had dimensions of  $4 \times 4 \times 6$  mm<sup>3</sup> and were machined out of the center part of the "dogbone" samples. Tests were carried out under the following conditions: room temperature environment, as counterpart a rotating ball bearing cylinder, 60 mm in outer diameter, made of German Standard 100Cr6 steel, surface roughness of  $0.1 - 0.2 \,\mu m$ , apparent contact surface area of 16mm2, normal force of 16N, apparent contact surface pressure of 1 N/mm2, rotation velocity of **1** m/s, run-in time of 15 h, and a subsequent test duration of *6* h. Prior to testing, the steel rings were cleaned in acetone. **A** fresh surface was used for each test. Four specimens from the same sample were tested simultaneously. The weight of each specimen was checked 24 h after completing the wear experiment. Because the experiments were not carried out in a special chamber under  $N<sub>2</sub>$ , the effect of humidity absorption during testing was calculated by weighing a reference sample not subjected to wear testing.

The worn volume  $\Delta V$  is frequently referred to the sliding distance  $L$ and the apparent contact surface  $A_0$  as follows:

$$
\dot{W} = \frac{\Delta V}{L \cdot A_0} \tag{4}
$$

If the dimensionless wear rate *W* is divided by the apparent contact pressure  $p$ , it transfers into the specific wear rate  $\dot{W}_s$ . The latter can also be expressed through the weight loss  $\Delta m$ , which is related to the sliding distance, the material's density  $\rho$  and the applied normal force  $F_N$ , according to:

$$
\dot{W}_s = \frac{\Delta m}{L \cdot \rho \cdot F_N} \tag{5}
$$

where  $p = F_N/A_0$  and  $\Delta V = \Delta m/\rho$ .

The specific wear rate  $W_s$  (Eq. (5)) has the dimension of volume/ energy and describes how much energy is needed to remove a certain volume of material. Therefore  $\dot{W}_s$  is probably the most proper characteristic for considerations on the influence of material properties on its wear behaviour. However, one should not forget, that wear is not really a material property, but a property of the system in which two materials have to function in relative contact motion to each other **IS].** 

#### **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **3.1. Morphological Characterization After Various Treatments**

Because the wear behaviour of polymeric materials strongly depends on their chemical composition and their morphological structure, it is

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important to have as much information as possible *e.g.,* about their degree of crystallinity, their crystal perfection, melting temperature, glass transition temperature, *etc.,* before wear tests are carried out. The most common way to determine the degree of crystallinity  $X_c$  is by density measurements, for which however knowledge about the density of the completely crystalline polymer is necessary. In the present case the density technique didn't seem to be the most proper way, because the presence of polymorphic modifications in polyamides requires further information about the amount of each modifications in a given sample. For this reason the heat of fusion  $\Delta H$ , determined by DSC, was used for evaluation of the degree of crystallinity. The results are given in Table 11. Surprisingly, the expected differences in *X,* values for samples differing in molecular weight and thermal treatment could not be observed. The variations obtained were within the standard deviation interval. A possible reason for the almost equal degree of crystallinity is the well known recrystallization phenomenon. It has been demonstrated **[3],** that polyamides that are thermally treated at low temperatures, undergo a recrystallization during scanning in the calorimeter. The registered melting enthalpy  $\Delta H$  and the melting temperature result from crystals, that appear during scanning, but not from crystals, created during the original thermal treatment **[9].** This assumption is confirmed here by the values of  $T_m$ , which are almost the same for all samples. Additional support for this statement can be found in the shape of the thermograms; samples annealed at low temperatures showed a double peak in some cases, which is related to recrystallization during measurement, as demonstrated by Illers *et al.*  [lo]. The melting peaks show a different pecularity, related to their shape. Although the areas of the peaks are almost the same; they differ substantially with respect to their form. Samples annealed at higher temperatures ( $220^{\circ}$ C) show extremely sharp and up to two or three times sharper melting peaks in comparison to samples which were annealed at lower temperatures. To conclude this point, it can be stated, that the DSC technique did not provide good information about the crystallinity of the samples differing in their molecular weight and thermal treatment conditions. For this reason it was decided to use the density data, for demonstrating the effects of thermal treatment, but not as characteristic values for the evaluation of crystallinity. In Figure 1 the effect of the annealing temperature  $T_a$  on the density is plotted for samples with



FIGURE 1 Effect of annealing temperature on density **of** various types of PA 6 samples (for samples designation see Tab. I).

various molecular weights. One can see that the density increases with the rise of  $T_a$ . In addition, as one can expect, that samples with the lowest molecular weight have the highest density, whereas those with higher molecular weights show the lowest density values.

This last dependency is expressed in Figure 2, in which the density of samples treated at different annealing temperatures are plotted as a function of their molecular weight. Density decreases with rising molecular weight, not depending on the thermal pretreatment.

An attempt was made to evaluate the dominating crystalline modification after thermal treatment with IR-microscopy. The measurements carried out with unannealed (B1 and D1) and at 200°C or 220°C annealed samples **(B5** and B6; D5 and D6, Tab. I) show that the last two types of samples contain only  $\alpha$ -modification, whereas in the first one both,  $\gamma$ - and  $\alpha$ -modification are present (Tab. II). The results described were derived from measurements performed on two sample groups (B and D) with molecular weights of about 20 000 and 40 000 respectively, but they should also be valid for samples with other molecular weights.

Of particular importance for the wear experiments is also the thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha$ , because it may increase during wear



FIGURE 2 Effect of molecular weight on density for **PA** *6* samples, annealed at various temperatures.

testing as a result of an increase in specimen temperature; this may lead to an enhancement in the material's wear rate. Therefore the thermal expansion coefficients of samples with very strongly varying pretreatment conditions were also determined (Tab. **11).** A plot of these values *vs.* the molecular weight of the samples (Fig. 3) illustrates, that two values for  $\alpha$  were obtained, one characteristic for the temperature range below the glass transition temperature  $T_g$  of the various materials, and the other for temperatures above it. The most striking observation was, that the thermal expansion coefficients for temperatures below and above  $T_g$  did hot significantly depend on the molecular weight in case of samples that were annealed at higher temperature (220°C) (samples of series **6,** Tab. I). This means, that such a treatment results in a rather stable morphological structure which should not remarkably change, if a wear test is applied. This was not the case for samples without annealing (samples of series 1, Tab. **I).**  One can also see from Figure 3, that  $\alpha$  changes in an irregular way with an increase in molecular weight or annealing temperature. Samples with an unstable structure like this can more easily undergo a recrystallization process during wear, that may affect their wear characteristics more drastically.



FIGURE 3 Thermal expansion coefficient in function of molecular weight of various PA 6 samples (for samples designation see Tab. I).

The last characterisation measurements were related to the humidity situation of samples differing in their molecular weight and thermal treatment. The drying was performed in a way typical for commercial conditions. The purpose of this measurement was not to obtain completely dried material, as mentioned above, but to evaluate the amount of water removed after treatment. The results (Tab. **11)** show, that all the samples under investigation lose the same amount of water after drying for 24 h. The scatter between them was only about 1%. It must be considered, however, that after the drying procedure still a relatively large amount of water remained in the samples. This water acts for polyamides as a good plasticizer which strongly decreases the glass transition temperature, and thus should also affect the wear behaviour.

#### **3.2. Wear Behavior**

Figure 4 illustrates the dependence of the specific wear rate  $\dot{W}_s$  on the annealing temperature  $T_a$  for samples differing in their molecular weight. In general it can be stated, that  $\dot{W}_s$  is only slightly influenced by the annealing temperature, particularly for samples with the highest



FIGURE **4** Specific wear rate in function of annealing temperature for **PA** 6 samples with various molecular weight (for samples designation see Tab. I).

molecular weight. The latter exhibited, in addition, lower wear rates than those with the lowest molecular weight. However, annealing of the samples with lower molecular weights at a sufficiently high temperature (220°C) dropped also their wear rates down to the lower level, as measured for the samples with higher molecular weights. The reason for this relatively strong change in the specific wear rate is related to the most stable physical structure which is obtained after annealing at this temperature. This statement is supported by density measurements (Tab. **11,** Fig. 1) from which one can conclude that just the two samples with the lowest molecular weight after annealing at 220°C show the highest density.

The effect of the molecular weight on the specific wear rate  $\dot{W}_s$  is displayed more clearly in Figure 5. First of all one can see, that the specific wear rate does not depend on the molecular weight, if the samples have been annealed at the highest temperature (lower bound of the scatter range). For the rest of the samples one can see a well expressed tendency for a decrease of the  $\dot{W}_s$  values with a rise of molecular weight (upper bound of the scatter range). While the effect of the annealing temperature on the specific wear rate (Fig. 4) is mostly related to changes in the crystalline morphology of the samples (making



FIGURE 5 Specific wear rate for PA *6* samples annealed at various temperatures in function of molecular weight.

their surfaces harder with an increase in  $X_c$ ), the effect of the higher molecular weight (Fig. 5) should be primary connected to the stronger entanglement of the polymer molecules. The latter leads to a higher toughness of the bulk, and it should also be expressed in a higher shear viscosity of the surface. For this reason measurements of the shear viscosity of samples differing in their molecular weight were carried out. The results, summarized in Table **I1** and plotted in Figure 6 *(7* as a function of the molecular weight), illustrate that the viscosity strongly depends on molecular weight. While samples with the lowest molecular weight (around 10 000) have  $\eta$  values of only 35 Pas, those with a molecular weight of about 50 000 have a shear viscosity of up to 7 200 Pas. Only by such a drastic change in the melt viscosity (Fig. **6)**  one can explain the strong drop  $(2-4 \text{ times})$  of the specific wear rate with a rise of molecular weight (Fig. 5). The strong effect of the shear viscosity of the samples on the specific wear rate can be seen in Figure 7.

Three characteristic zones of the specific wear rate  $W_s$  can be distinguished. The first one is characterized by the highest value of  $W_s$ , corresponding to the sample with the lowest viscosity  $\eta$  of 35 Pas, which is typical for PA 6 with a molecular weight around 10000. The second zone is the medium one with respect of the values of the  $\dot{W}_s$  and



FIGURE *6* Effect of molecular weight on shear viscosity for **PA** *6* samples



FIGURE 7 samples. Relationship between specific wear rate and shear melt viscosity **of PA** *6* 

corresponds to the samples with a viscosity between 300 and 3 000 Pas (molecular weights between 20 000 and 30 000). The third zone covers the samples with the lowest specific wear rate. These samples have the highest viscosities  $(3000 - 7000 \text{ Pas})$  which are characterized also

by the highest molecular weights  $(30000 - 50000)$ . Actually the curve shown in Figure *7* demonstrates in the best way the dominating role of the polymer viscosity on its wear behavior.

#### **4. CONCLUSIONS**

To determine the wear behavior of PA **6** samples, varying in their molecular weight and thermal treatment, not only tribological measurements were carried out since it is important to have an idea about the physical structure of the material. The density increases with increasing annealing temperature but it decreases with the rise of molecular weight. The thermal expansion coefficient was measured as a function of molecular weight of unannealed samples and samples annealed at 220°C. For both cases below and above  $T<sub>g</sub>$  the thermal expansion coefficient does not depend on the molecular weight when the samples are annealed at the highest temperature  $(220^{\circ}C)$ . This proves that annealing at high temperatures results in a rather stable physical structures. In contrast, not annealed samples do not show a linear relationship between the thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha$  and molecular weight. These results are important for the wear behavior of the material. Obviously, a stable physical structure will not change during the wearing process whereas samples with an unstable structure (unannealed samples) can recrystallize during wearing. The shear viscosity can range from 35 Pas to 7200 Pas when the molecular weight ranges from 10000 to 50000.

The wear behavior of the samples with the lowest molecular weight is very sensitive to the annealing temperature; after annealing at high temperatures they reach a  $\dot{W}_s$  value which is typical for samples with high molecular weight. For intensively annealed samples the specific wear rate does not depend on the molecular weight. For the rest of the samples there is a clear tendency for a decrease of  $W_s$  values with a rise of molecular weight.

**So** the wear behavior of this materials is influenced by two different factors. On the one hand, there is a tendency for a decrease of  $\dot{W}_s$ values with increasing annealing temperatures, especially for samples with low molecular weights because of the formation of a more stable physical structure. On the other hand, there is a well defined tendency for a decrease of  $\dot{W}_s$  values with a rise of molecular weight, except for the intensively annealed samples which do not show any dependence from molecular weight. This strong effect of molecular weight is related to the observed drastic increase of viscosity with an increase of molecular weight.

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