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Abstract: Polydimethylsiloxane-alpha, omega-diols were used as matrix for barium titanate particles to obtain electroactive elastomeric composites. Filler particles were previously treated with a surfactant to improve the compatibility with and dispersability in the matrix. The composites, processed as films and crosslinked with methyltriacetoxysilane, were investigated from point of view of the morphology, moisture sorption and thermal properties, as well as mechanical and dielectric behavior. Maximum strain value of 850% at 0.32 MPa and dielectric permittivity of 4.41 at 10 Hz and 20 °C were obtained. Two parameters of interest for potential future application of such materials in electromechanical devices (actuation or harvesting), electromechanical sensitivity and harvesting energy capacity, were estimated and discussed in correlation with the molecular mass of the polymeric matrix and the content of the active filler.

1 **Polydimethylsiloxane-barium titanate composites: preparation and evaluation of the**
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3 **morphology, moisture, thermal, mechanical and dielectric behavior**

4
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16
17 **Abstract**

18
19 Polydimethylsiloxane- α,ω -diols were used as matrix for barium titanate particles to obtain electroactive
20 elastomeric composites. Filler particles were previously treated with a surfactant to improve the
21 compatibility with and dispersability in the matrix. The composites, processed as films and crosslinked
22 with methyltriacetoxysilane, were investigated from point of view of the morphology, moisture sorption
23 and thermal properties, as well as mechanical and dielectric behavior. Maximum strain value of 850% at
24 0.32 MPa and dielectric permittivity of 4.41 at 10 Hz and 20 °C were obtained. Two parameters of
25 interest for potential future application of such materials in electromechanical devices (actuation or
26 harvesting), electromechanical sensitivity and harvesting energy capacity, were estimated and discussed
27 in correlation with the molecular mass of the polymeric matrix and the content of the active filler.

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40 Mechanical testing

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45 **1. Introduction**

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47 Silicone rubber is a well-known dielectric elastomer which is used in electromechanical transducers,
48 devices able to convert electrical energy into mechanical one and vice versa [1]. A promising application
49 of these materials, which is currently being investigated, is the generation of electricity from ocean waves
50 energy [2,3]. For such applications, large displacement with high precision and speed are required,
51 together with durability and reliability. In order to obtain high actuation strain, a material with low
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1 stiffness (low Young's modulus), high breakdown strength, and high permittivity is desired [4]. Silicones
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3 have highly desired elastic behaviour, their representative polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) being known for
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5 its unusual rheological/flow properties [5]. The polarizability of the Si-O bond that constitutes a premise
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7 for a high dielectric constant is higher as compared to organic nonpolar polymers (e.g., polyethylene), but
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9 in reality, this is not so much due to the side methyl groups (in the case of PDMS), which prevent Si-O
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11 dipoles from approaching each other too closely) [6]. In order to increase the dielectric constant, the
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13 polysiloxanes are chemically modified by attaching polar groups, such as N-Allyl-N-methyl-4-
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15 nitroaniline [7], cyanalkyl [8], etc. to the silicon atoms. Fillers are often used to enhance the dielectric as
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17 well as the mechanical properties of the silicones [9]. The use of high permittivity inorganic fillers is a
18
19 well-established technique to improve the dielectric constant of a polymer matrix. Various permittivity
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21 values can be achieved by changing the type and percentage of the filler in the substrate. Based on the
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23 literature data, it can be identified mainly three types of filler used to improve the permittivity of the
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25 dielectric elastomer actuator: ceramic particles with a high dielectric constant, such as titanium dioxide,
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27 barium titanate, magnesium niobate, lead magnesium niobate–lead titanate, and strontium titanate [9-13];
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29 conductive particles, such as carbon nanotube, carbon black, copper–phthalocyanine/polyaniline [14] and
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31 short fibers [11]; highly polarizable conjugated polymer, such as undoped poly(3-hexylthiophene),
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33 polyaniline, polythiophene incorporated by blending or as nanoparticles [9,11]. BaTiO₃, a ferroelectric
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35 crystal which exhibits spontaneous polarization and high electrical breakdown strength is often used in
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37 this aim [15]. Thus, it has been incorporated in different polymeric matrix [12], like epoxides,
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39 polystyrenes [16], polyimides, polyetherimides [17], poly-ethylene-glycol-diacrylate (PEGDA) [18],
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41 polyurethane [19], acrylics [20,21], etc. This was also used as filler for PDMS [22]. The effect of BaTiO₃
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43 nanoparticles on electrical and mechanical properties were extensively studied and found that dielectric
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45 constant of nanocomposites increases significantly with the increase in BaTiO₃ concentration where as
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47 the volume resistivity decreases continuously [22]. Commercially available barium titanate with particles
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49 of different shape and size or prepared by certain procedure to obtain a certain size and shape were used
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51 [23,24]. There are a few commercial dielectric elastomer materials available, these mainly including
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53 acrylic VHB (Very High Bond – a 3M tape) foil, silicones, polyurethanes, and some
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55 polystyrene/polybutadiene copolymers, acrylics and acrylonitrile butadiene rubber [13,25]. In general,
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57 commercially available room temperature vulcanization formulations based on low molecular weight
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1 polydimethylsiloxane were used as matrix in such cases and either addition (hydrosilylation) or
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3 condensation (with tetrafunctional silanes) mechanisms were used to convert the fluid compounds in
4
5 silicone elastomers.

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7 Different from the literature, in this paper, home prepared PDMSs of different molecular masses, higher
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9 as compared with those used in other studies, were used as polymeric matrix in which surface-treated
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11 barium titanate was incorporated in different percents. The composites were processed as films and
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13 crosslinked by condensation at room temperature with a trifunctional silane, methyltriacetoxysilane. The
14
15 morphology, moisture sorption, thermal, mechanical and dielectric properties were investigated.

16 17 18 **2. Experimental**

19 20 21 **2.1. Materials**

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23 The polydimethylsiloxane- α,ω -diols, PDMSs, were synthesized according to the already described
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25 procedure [26]: cationic ring-opening polymerization of octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane in the presence of a
26
27 cation exchanger as catalyst. Molecular masses were estimated on the basis of GPC analysis as being
28
29 those presented in Table 1. Barium titanate (BaTiO_3), CO, with particle size $< 3\mu\text{m}$ according to supplier
30
31 (Fluka AG) was investigated through SEM and TEM to determine the particle size and shape (Figure
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33 1ESI), while BET area ($11.419\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) we estimated on the basis of water vapour sorption isotherms
34
35 registered in dynamic regime (Figure 2ESI) and PLURONIC L-31, HO-poly(ethyleneglycol)-*block*-
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37 poly(propyleneglycol)-*block*-poly(ethyleneglycol)-OH ($M=1100$, $d_{25}^{25}=1.02$, PEG, 10 wt. %) were
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39 purchased Fluka AG. Methyltriacetoxysilane (MTAS) was prepared and purified in house (b.p. =94-95
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41 °C, $d_4^{20}=1.20$).

42 43 44 **2.2. Equipments**

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46 GPC measurements were made in CHCl_3 on a PL-EMD 950 Chromatograph - Evaporative Mass
47
48 Detector. The calibration was performed with polystyrene standards.

49
50 For SEM studies, the as obtained thick films (foils) were cryo-fractured and the cross-section surface was
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52 examined with an Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope (ESEM) type Quanta 200, operating at
53
54 30 kV with secondary electrons in low vacuum mode. Dynamic water vapor sorption (DVS) capacity of
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56 the samples was determined in the relative humidity (RH) range 0–90% by using the fully automated
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58 gravimetric analyzer IGAsorp produced by Hiden Analytical, Warrington (UK). Thermogravimetric (TG)

1 measurements were conducted on a STA 449 F1 Jupiter device (Netzsch, Germany) in nitrogen
2 atmosphere, in the temperature range 25 - 700°C at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. DSC measurements
3 were conducted with a DSC 200 F3 Maia (Netzsch, Germany) in nitrogen atmosphere at a heating rate of
4 10 °Cmin⁻¹. Stress–strain measurements were performed on TIRA test 2161 apparatus, Maschinenbau
5 GmbH Ravenstein, Germany on dumbbell-shaped cut samples with dimensions of 50x8.5x4 mm.
6 Measurements were run at an extension rate of 20 mm/min, at room temperature. All samples were
7 measured three times and the averages of the obtained values were taken into consideration. The acquired
8 data were processed with MatLab software. Cyclic tensile stress tests were performed on the similar
9 samples between 2 and 100% strain. The maximum force applied was tensile stress value as determined
10 by previously test. Five stretch–recovery cycles were registered. The stationary time at minimum and
11 maximum applied stress was 5 s. Dielectric spectra were registered on a Novocontrol “Concept 40”
12 broadband dielectric spectrometer (Hundsangen, Germany), at room temperature in the frequency domain
13 1 Hz–1 MHz. Dielectric strength measurements were made at PERCRO Laboratory - TeCIP Institute -
14 Scuola Superiore Sant'Anna, Pisa, Italy, on a home-made installation consisting in an USB-based
15 oscilloscope, a signal generator and a direct current (DC) four-quadrant high-speed HV power amplifier
16 with ±10kV and ±10mA voltage and current ratings. Brass electrodes were used to obtain breakdown
17 voltage. The High-Voltage cylindrical electrode is 25 mm in diameter and 25 mm high. The grounded
18 electrode is 15 cm in width and 75 cm in length. After the samples were placed on the grounded
19 electrode, a polycarbonate frame was attached and clamped to ensure compliant contact between samples
20 and electrodes. The HV electrode was placed in the hole from the polycarbonate frame and the maximum
21 voltage was measured. The tests were made at 60 Hz and a 2000 V/s rate of voltage increase. The
22 experiments were performed at room temperature and the surrounding medium was air. All the tested
23 samples were brought into equilibrium with the atmospheric humidity. The harvesting tests were
24 performed on a home-made set-up (Figure 3ESI) [27]. Electrodes of dimensions 20x20mm made of
25 simple sticlotextolit (glass fibers impregnated with formaldehyde resin) plated with copper were placed
26 on both sides of the sample. The connecting wires were attached to the electrodes by soldering and were
27 connected to the measurement terminals of an oscilloscope Tektronix DPO4032 (350MHz, 2,5GS/s). A
28 steel ball (m = 7.1 g) was left to fall freely from a height of 100 mm in the center of the upper electrode
29 surface. The signal wave form and the voltage levels corresponding for the peaks at the impact of the ball
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1 on contact surface of the sensor were monitored and were acquired (Figure 4ESI). More sets of
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3 measurements there have been done for each sample, finally being considered more representative three
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5 results for each.
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7 **2.3. Procedure**

8
9 Pre-established amounts of barium titanate microparticles were mixed with surfactant PLURONIC L-31
10 then chloroform was added to obtain a less viscous mixture which was transferred over PDMS. Then
11
12 MTAS, as crosslinker (Table 1), was added and stirred thoroughly until the components formed a
13
14 homogenous mixture. The resulted mixture was sonicated for 10 minutes in order to remove all the air
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16 bubbles trapped in the mixture and then was used to obtain thin films (of about 0.5-1 mm thickness) by
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18 pouring in a teflon mold (15x5 cm). The samples were maintained in air at room temperature for 24 h and
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20 subsequently the formed films were easy peeled off from the substrate. The films were then kept in the
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22 laboratory environment about two weeks for aging before characterization by different techniques.
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26 **3. Results and discussions**

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28 PDMSs of different molecular masses were used as a matrix for the incorporation of different amounts of
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30 barium titanate, according to Table 1. Commercial barium titanate (with particles <3 μm in overall
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32 dimensions) was used in this study. The main difficulties concerning to the incorporation of such fillers in
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34 the silicone matrix are due to the known low compatibility of the silicones with almost any organic or
35
36 inorganic partner. The improvement of the fillers compatibility with the polymer matrix can be achieved
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38 by surface functionalization through such methods as oxidation, heat and chemical treatment, vapor
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40 deposition, or coating with a third component such as surfactants, coupling agents, or grafted polymers
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42 [15,28]. In this paper we used a surfactant, Pluronic L-31, and the incorporation of the treated particles
43
44 within polymeric matrix was performed by dispersive (incorporation, wetting and stabilization of the
45
46 filler microparticles against later agglomeration) and extensive (distribution of filler particles within
47
48 matrix) mixing mechanisms [28]. After homogenization, and deaeration, the mixture was poured in film
49
50 on Teflon substrate. Under the atmospheric humidity, the crosslinking occurs, according to Scheme 1,
51
52 with the formation of a dimensional stable film. The homogeneous films obtained were transparent to
53
54 white opaque depending on the filler content (Figure 5ESI).
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57 **Table 1**

1 **Scheme 1**

2
3 **Figure 1**

4
5 By examining SEM images (Figure 1), it can be seen spheres spread within the continuous polymeric
6
7 matrix. These consist in surfactant volume incorporating ceramic particles. While the dimension of used
8
9 barium titanate particles is of few micrometers (Figure 1ESI), the aggregates within composite are
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11 slightly larger than 10 micrometers with high polydispersity (i.e., 3-16 micrometer). Thus, it seems that,
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13 in the chosen working conditions, the effect of the surfactant is not the one expected. Maybe the
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15 ultrasonication of mixture composed of barium titanate, surfactant and chloroform, prior to its
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17 incorporation in the polymeric matrix would have led to a better dispersion of filler. The impact of the
18
19 barium titanate particles on the silicone rubber properties was studied by comparing the results with those
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21 obtained on the similar samples prepared without filler as well as with a commercial acrylic sample,
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23 considered a high performance electromechanically active polymer, taken as reference.

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25
26 To verify the moisture behavior, which can influence the stability of the characteristics of interest for the
27
28 target application, the moisture sorption-desorption isotherms were registered in dynamic regime for the
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30 crosslinked composite films. A slight increase in the moisture sorption capacity occurs by raising the
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32 content of hydrophilic barium titanate (Figure 2). The maximum sorption capacity, registered around 80
33
34 % humidity, increases from 0.22 % in pure crosslinked PDMS to 0.76 % in the composite with 5%
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36 BaTiO₃, but the later value is lower as compared with that registered for commercial VHB sample (1.28
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38 %) taken as reference. This diminished effect could be assigned to the surfactant coating barium titanate
39
40 particles combined with the known tendency of the polysiloxane to migrate at the interface material-air,
41
42 will lead to a surface richer in hydrophobic siloxane component.

43
44 **Figure 2**

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46 Overall the isotherms correspond to a type III – specific for nonporous hydrophobic materials with weak
47
48 interactions between sorbed and sorbing materials and show a small hysteresis loop. The slower water
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50 desorption rate as compared with sorption one, as the kinetic curves (not shown) revealed, is the
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52 explanation for this.

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55 DSC experiments (Figure 6ESI) highlight the transitions occurring in the sample by temperature
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57 modification and associated heat capacity change (ΔC_p). It can be seen that all samples show glass
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59 transition around -120 - (-123) °C regardless of the molecular weight of PDMS and the filler content. The
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1 samples based on polymers ABI and ABII exhibit nearly identical DSC traces, suggesting that BaTiO₃
2 particles have negligible influence on the thermal behavior of the samples. Thus, they show a
3 reproducible exothermic peak at about -40 °C on the first and second heating curves assigned to melting,
4 while on the cooling curve, an endothermic peak assigned to cold crystallization at about -70 °C develops.
5 Instead, the sample based on higher molecular weight PDMS, ABIV, a heating crystallization process is
6 visible around -92 °C, while the melting and cold crystallization occur at temperatures lower (-60 and -
7 100 °C, respectively) as compared with samples based on polymers ABI and ABII. The high length of the
8 polymer chain (Mn=142 000) and, as a result, the higher distance between crosslinks, permits occurrence
9 of this process.

10
11 The thermogravimetric data (Figure 7ESI, Table 2) reveal the onset of degradation at higher temperatures
12 for silicone samples (degradation onset at 397 °C), in comparison with reference acrylic polymer sample
13 (220 °C). The thermal decomposition mainly occurs in a single step.

24 **Table 2**

25
26 The addition of barium titanate microparticles has a positive effect on the thermal resistance of the
27 materials, as the onset temperature increases, although not very much, up to 437 °C for sample with 5%
28 BaTiO₃ (AB II MB5). The low value for the residue of degradation in inert atmosphere is due to breaking
29 of the siloxane bond at high temperature and the formation of siloxane oligomers with low vaporization
30 temperature and such chemical species are outgasing from the samples in the test crucibles.

31
32 The stress-strain tests (Figure 3, Table 3) reveal that the samples possess good flexibility and this property
33 improves with the increase in the molecular mass of the siloxane used. The reinforcing effect of barium
34 titanate particles is visible since samples with the highest content of filler (5%), ABII MB 5 and ABIV
35 MB 5, have the largest value for stress for each siloxane polymer. However the increase in the molecular
36 mass of the siloxane leads concurrently to a larger value of strain for sample ABIV MB 5, and this is due
37 to longer free fragments of siloxane chains being capable of sliding past one another when stretched. In
38 direct correlation, the Young's modulus values (Figure 8ESI) decrease with increasing flexibility, as
39 siloxane films are known for low values of Young modulus [29]. Since for each sample the subsequent
40 standard deviations were less than 2% of the average value, the graphs present only the average value for
41 each type of film.

58 **Figure 3**

1 **Table 3**

2
3 The cyclic stress-strain curves registered up to 100 % of initial length strains, the samples were clearly
4 different (Figure 4). The samples based on siloxane presented an elastic behaviour, with a clearly visible
5 hysteresis loop only at the first strain-release cycle, probably due to the Mullins effect (the temporary
6 phenomenon which disappears after a few cycles of sollicitation when the elastomer response becomes
7 completely stabilized and reproducible as long as the maximum stretching level is not exceeded) [30,31]
8 and in the later strain cycles the siloxane chains are rearranged in the film and the difference between
9 strain and release was smaller than 1% of the stress value at each point. The sample based on acrylic
10 polymer presented a viscoelastic behaviour (Figure 9ESI) with nonlinear behaviour for cycles with strains
11 above 50%; therefore the cycles were made with only 50% strain and a clear loss of strain energy by
12 viscous component is visible in the curves.
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23 **Figure 4**

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25 Materials such as barium titanate and lead titanate have gained considerable interest both from scientific
26 and application point of view. Such ceramics with the perovskite crystal structure possess excellent
27 dielectric properties but also display poor mechanical performances. Polymers such as siloxanes possess
28 very good flexibility but low dielectric permittivity. Therefore it is of interest to study the combination of
29 ferroelectric fillers and siloxanes to obtain new materials with better properties. Since the materials were
30 tested for the purpose of using in energy transducers, Figure 5 shows the graphs for the variation with
31 frequency of the value of dielectric constant and dielectric loss at 20 °C.
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40 **Figure 5**

41 It is known that the dielectric responses of ceramic-polymer systems can be described by the logarithmic
42 mixing rule and Maxwell–Garnett approximation [32-34]. There exists a distinct, although small,
43 enhancement in dielectric constant with increasing filler content. However the increase of the ϵ' value is
44 not as large as expected due to interactions between the layer of surfactant and the particles. The ϵ' values
45 of the films decrease with increasing frequency. A significant drop in ϵ' occurs when the frequency
46 reaches 10^3 Hz. In this case, the dipole relaxation in the composite films lags behind the change of
47 applied fields. The characteristic relaxation peaks of the siloxane matrix in ϵ'' curves (ABII MB0 and
48 ABIV MB0) disappear with the introduction of barium titanate particles (Figure 5b,c) as this leads to the
49 decrease of free volume in the polymer matrix and an increase of density of polar groups. A higher degree
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1 of siloxane crosslinking would lead to increased values for permittivity since the free volume fraction
2 would decrease but this would negatively affect the capability of the films to stretch with high
3 percentages. However, the data presented in Figure 5 and Table 3 does not permit us to draw a clear
4 conclusion about the influence of the molecular mass of the polymer on the dielectric constant of the
5 crosslinked films.
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11 The results of the breakdown field measurements show in general a decrease of dielectric strength when
12 the barium titanate is incorporated and as its content embedded in silicone matrix increases (Table 3). For
13 reference samples, these values are higher as compared with those reported in literature for room
14 temperature vulcanization silicones [35,36]. Most of the values for our composites are comparable with
15 those reported for polydimethylsiloxanes filled with encapsulated conductive polyaniline particles [7] or
16 with commercial silicone Elastosil grafted with polar group but lower as compared with those obtained
17 for Sylgard grafted with the same polar groups [37].
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25 Based on the mechanical and dielectric characteristics, it can be estimated a parameter of interest for
26 potential future application of such materials in electromechanical devices (actuation or harvesting).
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29 Thus, the electromechanical sensitivity, β , was calculated as the ratio between the dielectric permittivity
30 (ϵ) at 5 kHz and the Young's modulus (Y) at 10% strain [13]. The dielectric permittivity values at this
31 frequency being close enough (between 3.05 - 3.69), the electromechanical sensitivity is mainly
32 influenced by the Young modulus value, which have a wider variation range (0.01 – 0.25 MPa) in the
33 series of the prepared and analysed samples. It can be seen (Table 3) that in general the value of this
34 parameter increases by incorporation of the filler and as the content of this rises but also at higher
35 molecular mass of the polymeric matrix, the highest value being obtained for the sample ABIV MB5
36 (461.33 as compared with 0.04 MPa⁻¹ determined for the commercial reference sample).
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46 The maximal that can be harvested by a unit volume of material is proportional to the τ , defined by using
47 formula (1) which can be considered as a merit parameter for the electrical properties of the material [31].
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50 The obtained values are presented in Table 3. Unexpectedly, almost in all cases, this parameter decreases
51 as the content of the ceramic filler rises. This is due the fact that the decrease in dielectric strength is more
52 pronounced as compared with the increase in dielectric permittivity. The accentuated decrease in
53 dielectric strength may be due, between others, to the imperfections within the material.
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1 $\tau = \epsilon \cdot E_{BS}^2$ (1)
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4 For the sample ABIV MB0 with dielectric strength 102.2 kV/mm, this parameter related to the ability of
5 harvesting energy, τ , has the largest value, i.e., 33110 kV²/mm².
6

7 In another approach, the energy output can be estimated on the basis of both mechanical (uniaxial
8 deformation) and electrical properties of tested samples [38] (see Supporting Information). The energy
9 gained, E, from a cycle of operation (stretching and relaxing the variable generator) depends on the
10 difference between the total capacitance in stretch state and relaxed state (Table 3). Although the values
11 obtained by the two methods differ due to the different calculation bases, it seems that in both cases, the
12 highest values were obtained when the matrix polymer had the greatest molecular weight and contained
13 highest amounts of active filler. This is a very general trend; the exceptions to this could be assigned,
14 between others, to the imperfections within the material.
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23 The experimental values of the harvested energy, determined by using a home-made set-up (Figure 3ESI),
24 expressed as peak-to-peak voltage (Figure 4ESI) are provided in Table 3. It can be seen that the obtained
25 values range between 1.7 and 12 V and, as in the case of estimated ones, these are in general greater (2.3;
26 6.8; 8.5; 12; V) in the case of samples based on the polymer matrix with highest molecular mass (142 000
27 g/mol), than those collected (1.7; 3.2; 2.5; 7.6 V) in the case of the samples based on polymer with lower
28 molecular mass (84 000 g/mol). Unfortunately, it cannot establish a correlation with the composition of
29 the samples since these differ as thick (0.18-0.36 mm) and, as a result, the resistivity varies. What we can
30 say on the basis of the above, is that the materials are suitable for converting mechanical energy in
31 electric one.
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43 **4. Conclusion**

44 Siloxane composites based on polydimethylsiloxane- α,ω -diols with different chain lengths as matrices
45 and barium titanate powder as filler added in different percents (1, 2, and 5 wt%) were prepared and
46 crosslinked in film forms. Samples without filler were prepared for comparison in similar conditions.
47
48 DSC study reveals that the presence and amount of the filler do not affect the thermal transition of the
49 crosslinked structures, these being influenced mainly by the polymer chain length. A slight increase in the
50 thermostability of the samples due to the filler effect was emphasized by thermogravimetical analysis.
51
52 The presence of the barium titanate leads to increasing in moisture sorption in material. Considering the
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1 intended use for energy conversion, the key parameters such as the ultimate strain, the elastic behaviour
2 and the relaxation at repeated strain cycles were measured. In general, slight increases are registered both
3 in mechanical parameters (Young modulus, tensile strength and elongation), although not regulate
4 enough, and dielectric permittivity values by the incorporation of barium titanate as compared with
5 samples without filler. The highest value for Young modulus was registered for the sample ABII MB5
6 based on the polymer with shortest chain and as a result the highest crosslinking density. Sample ABIV
7 MB5 based on the longest chain and highest filler content showed the highest elongation value. The
8 dielectric permittivity value increases from 3.20, 3.06, and 3.17 to 4.17, 3.85, and 3.98 respectively, by
9 variation of the filler content from 0 to 5 wt%, differences being of 0.97, 0.79 and 0.81 in series ABI,
10 ABII, and ABIV, respectively. The siloxane-based films show superior performance in elastic behaviour
11 (in testing cycles) as compared with an acrylic commercial sample. Large variation in the
12 electromechanical sensitivity ($14.32 - 461.33 \text{ MPa}^{-1}$) and energy harvesting capacity (0.01-22.56 J)
13 values estimated on the basis of the dielectric and mechanical characteristics were obtained, these
14 depending mainly on the composition and structure of the composites as well as on film quality. The
15 experimental peak-to-peak voltage values developed within composite film under a well-defined
16 mechanical impact, measured for the two of the samples series, range between 1.7 and 12 V, these being
17 more visible influenced by the molecular mass of the polymeric matrix. The complete characterization
18 with emphasis on electro-mechanical behaviour of thus obtained cross-linked materials will be discussed
19 in a forthcoming publication.

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15 **Figure Captions**

16 **Scheme 1.** Crosslinking of polydimethylsiloxane- α,ω -diols

17 **Figure 1.** SEM images in cryo-fractured section: a) barium titanate microparticles; b) ABI MB5; c) ABII
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19 MB5; d) ABIV MB5

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21 **Figure 2.** Sorption/desorption isotherms for the prepared samples as compared with a reference sample

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23 **Figure 3.** Stress-strain behaviour of the composite films

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25 **Figure 4.** Cyclic stress-strain tests on the crosslinked composite films

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28 **Figure 5.** Dielectric spectroscopy results for the tested samples with dielectric constant and dielectric loss
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30 values at: (a) AB I at T= 20 °C; (b) AB II at T= 20 °C; (c) AB IV at T = 20 °C
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Table 1. Feed compositions in pph used for the preparation of the dielectric elastomers (100 pph PDMS, 8 pph crosslinker, MTAS)

Sample	PDMS/100 pph			BaTiO ₃ , pph	Surfactant, pph
	Polymer code	M _n	I=M _w /M _n		
ABI MB0	ABI	84000	1.4	0	0
ABI MB1	ABI			1	1
ABI MB2	ABI			2	2
ABI MB5	ABI			5	5
ABII MB0	ABII	55000	1.4	0	0
ABII MB1	ABII			1	1
ABII MB2	ABII			2	2
ABII MB5	ABII			5	5
ABIV MB0	ABIV	142000	1.7	0	0
ABIV MB1	ABIV			1	1
ABIV MB2	ABIV			2	2
ABIV MB5	ABIV			5	5

Table 2. Thermogravimetical data for the samples tested

Sample	T_{onset}	T_{end}	Peak (°C)	Residual mass (%)
AB II MB 0	397	549	491	7.0
AB II MB 1	419	614	499	13.8
AB II MB 2	430	609	546	9.4
AB II MB 5	436	630	582	8.4
Reference sample	220	540	380	3.0

Table 3. The main parameters of the mechanical and dielectric tests

Sample	Y^a ,	σ^b ,	$\hat{\alpha}^c$,	$\hat{\alpha}^d$	$\hat{\alpha}^{e\prime}$	E_{BS}^e ,	$\hat{\alpha}^d$,	$\hat{\alpha}^f$	E^g ,	Film thick., mm	U_{pp}^h V
	MPa	MPa	%	10 Hz, 20 °C			MPa ⁻¹	$\times 10^3$ kV ² /mm ²	J		
ABI MB0	0.18	0.25	480	3.20	0.04	n.d. ⁱ	-	-	-	0.34	2.5
ABI MB1	0.15	0.33	621	3.26	0.48	55.55	21.47	10.060	9.49	0.22	3.2
ABI MB2	0.23	0.50	795	4.00	1.14	44.76	16.04	8.014	17.54	0.28	1.7
ABI MB5	0.27	0.32	516	4.17	0.44	13.12	14.32	0.718	0.43	0.31	7.6
ABII MB0	0.05	0.35	452	3.06	0.01	n.d. ⁱ	-	-	-	-	-
ABII MB1	0.02	0.29	330	3.26	0.05	n.d. ⁱ	-	-	-	-	-
ABII MB2	0.01	0.30	585	3.55	0.01	n.d. ⁱ	-	-	-	-	-
ABII MB5	0.18	0.40	249	3.85	0.01	8.84	19.72	0.301	0.01	-	-
ABIV MB0	0.25	0.18	543	3.17	0.15	102.20	12.68	33.110	6.24	0.34	8.5
ABIV MB1	0.07	0.20	780	3.57	0.51	52.64	50.90	9.892	18.37	0.36	12.0
ABIV MB2	0.06	0.23	641	3.73	0.68	23.31	58.39	2.027	2.37	0.18	6.8
ABIV MB5	0.01	0.32	850	3.98	0.52	39.25	461.33	6.131	22.56	0.31	3.3
Reference	0.06	0.58	950	2.89	3.30	48.17	0.04	-	-	-	-

a – Young's modulus at 10% strain; b – Stress at break; c – elongation at break; d – electromechanical sensitivity [13]; e – dielectric strength; f – estimated energy harvested [31]; g - energy gained estimated according to ref. [38]; h - peak to peak measured voltage (Figure 5ESI); i - no determined because tie films were thick and the breakdown field was not achieved up to 10 kV, maximum voltage of our source.

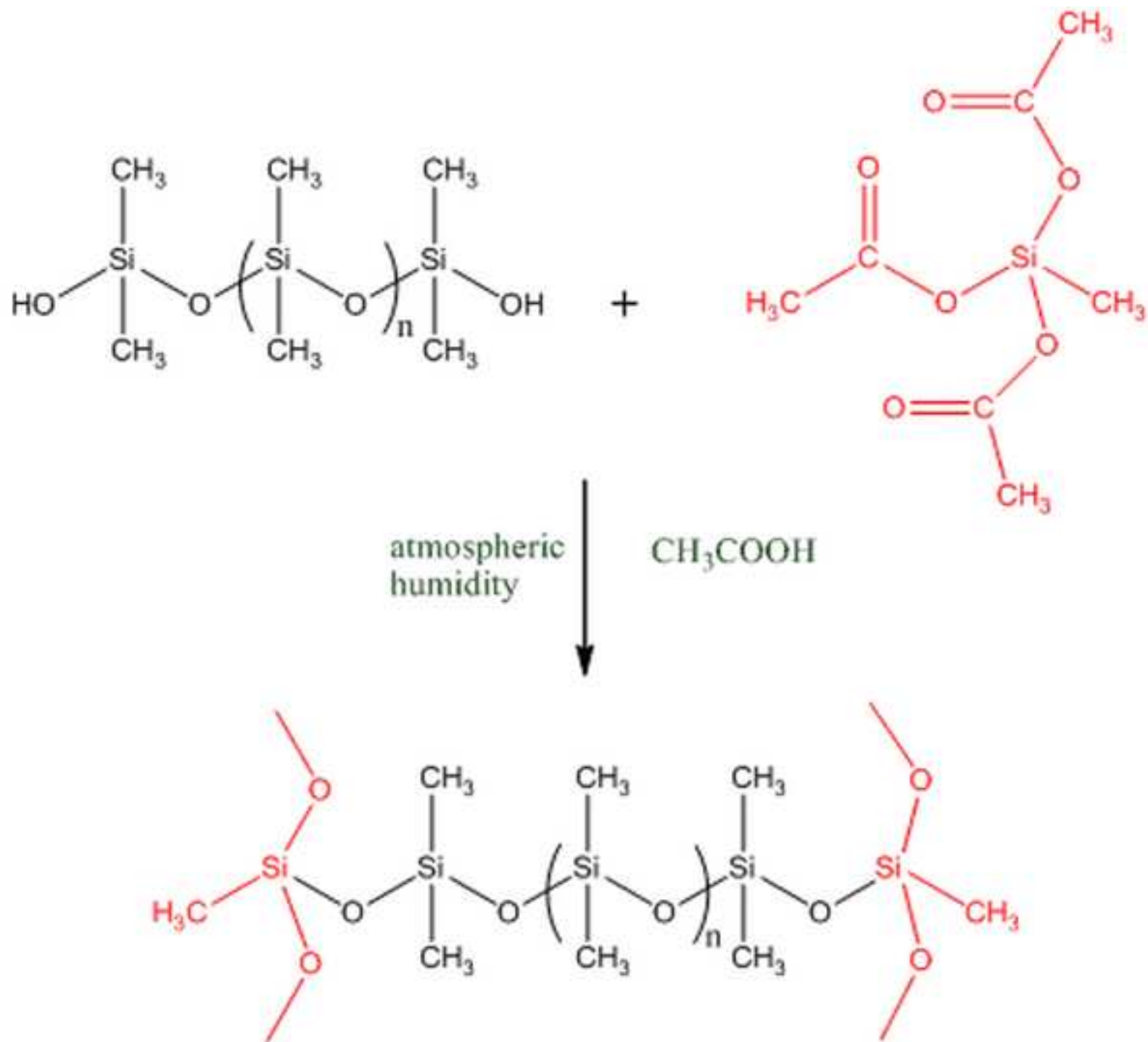


Figure 1
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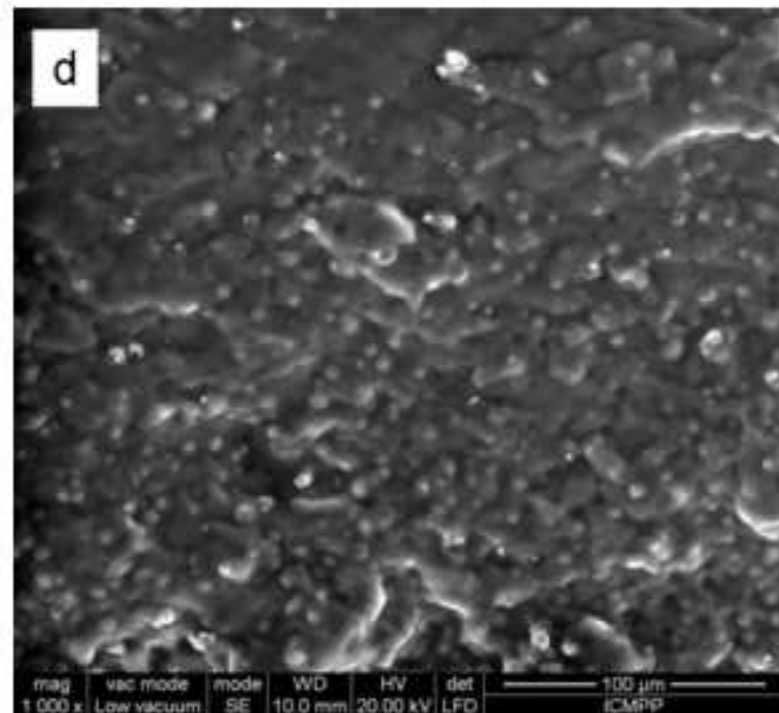
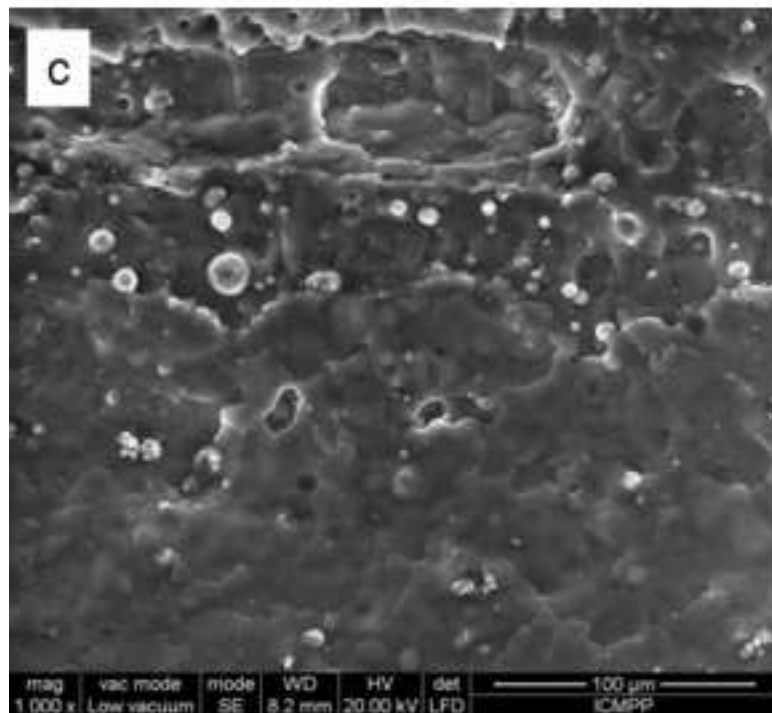
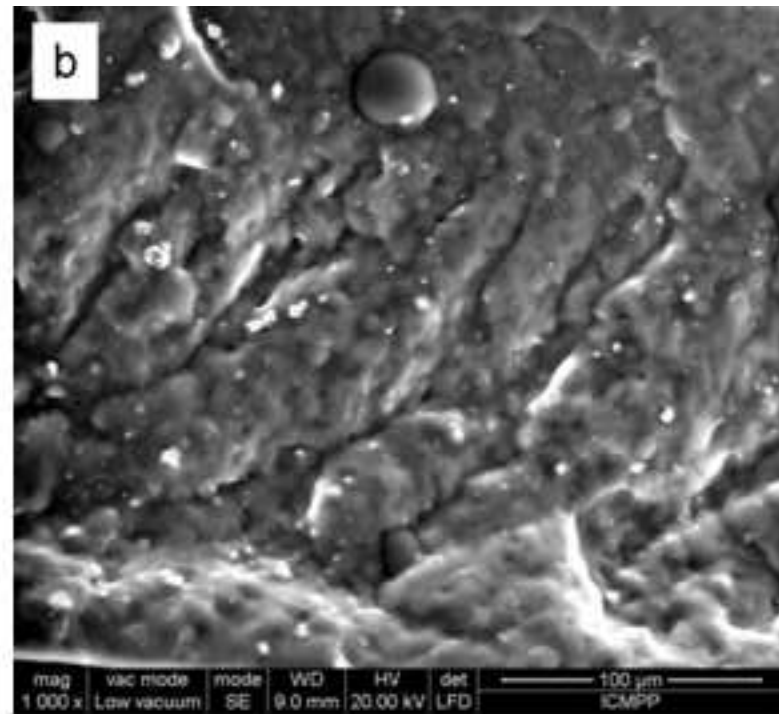
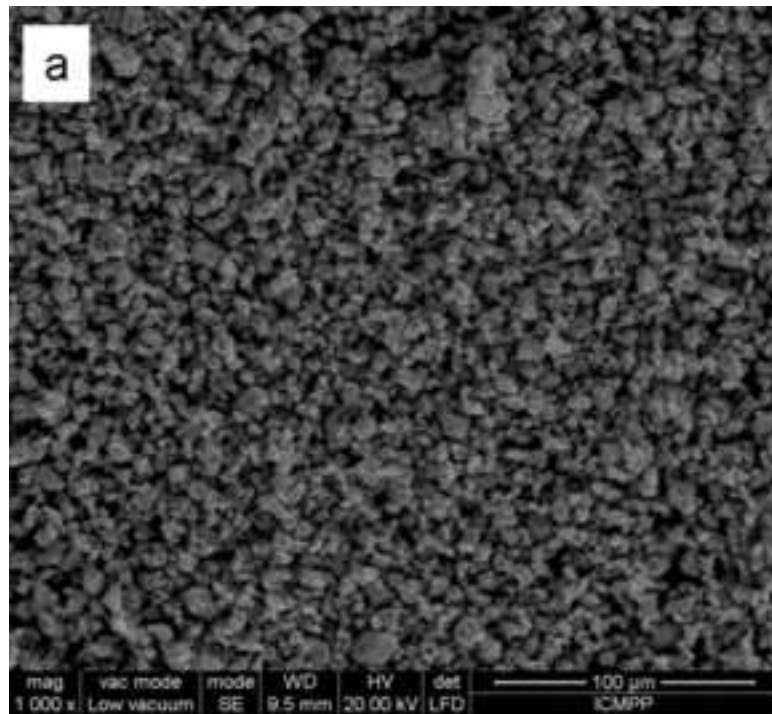


Figure 2
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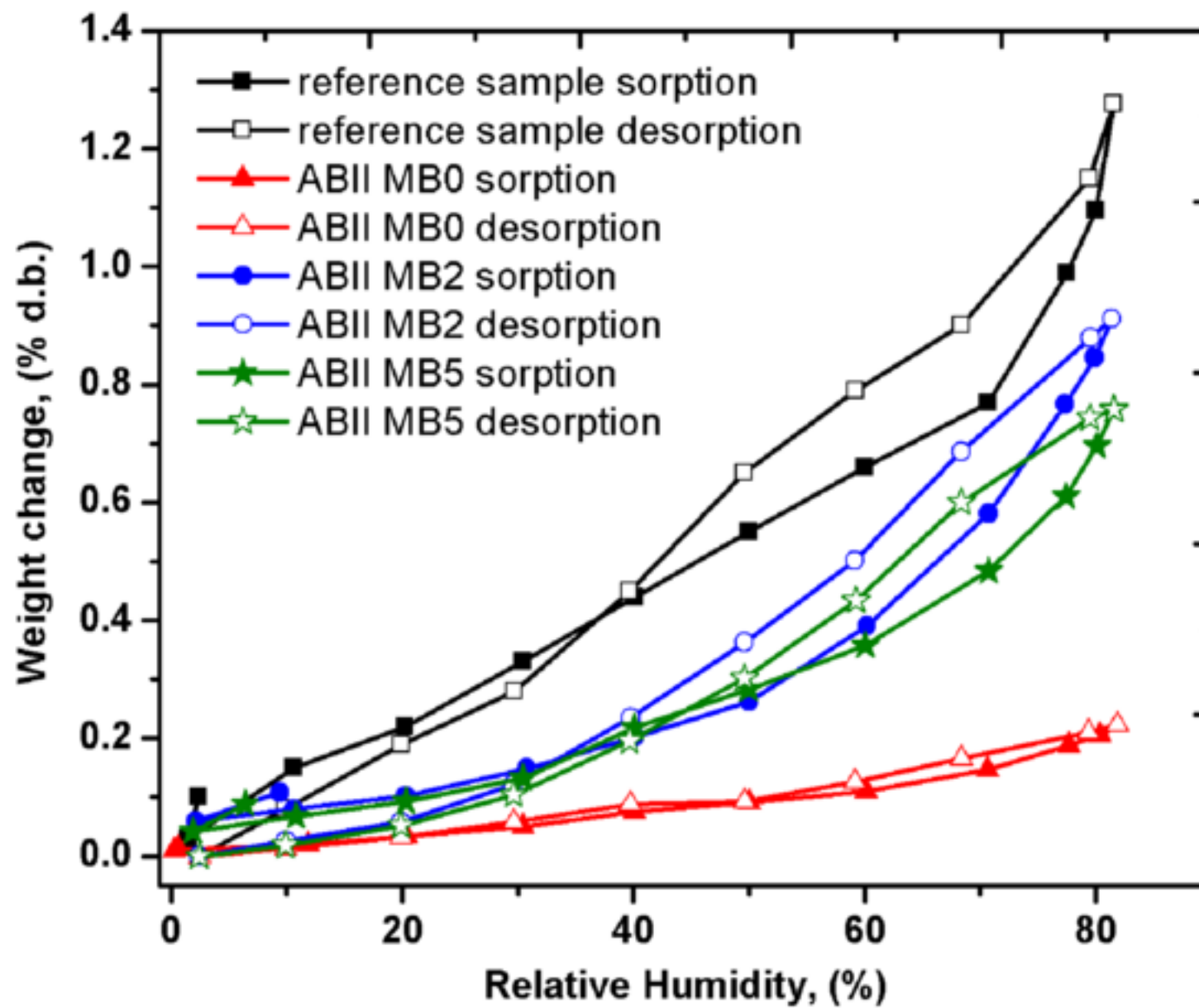


Figure 3
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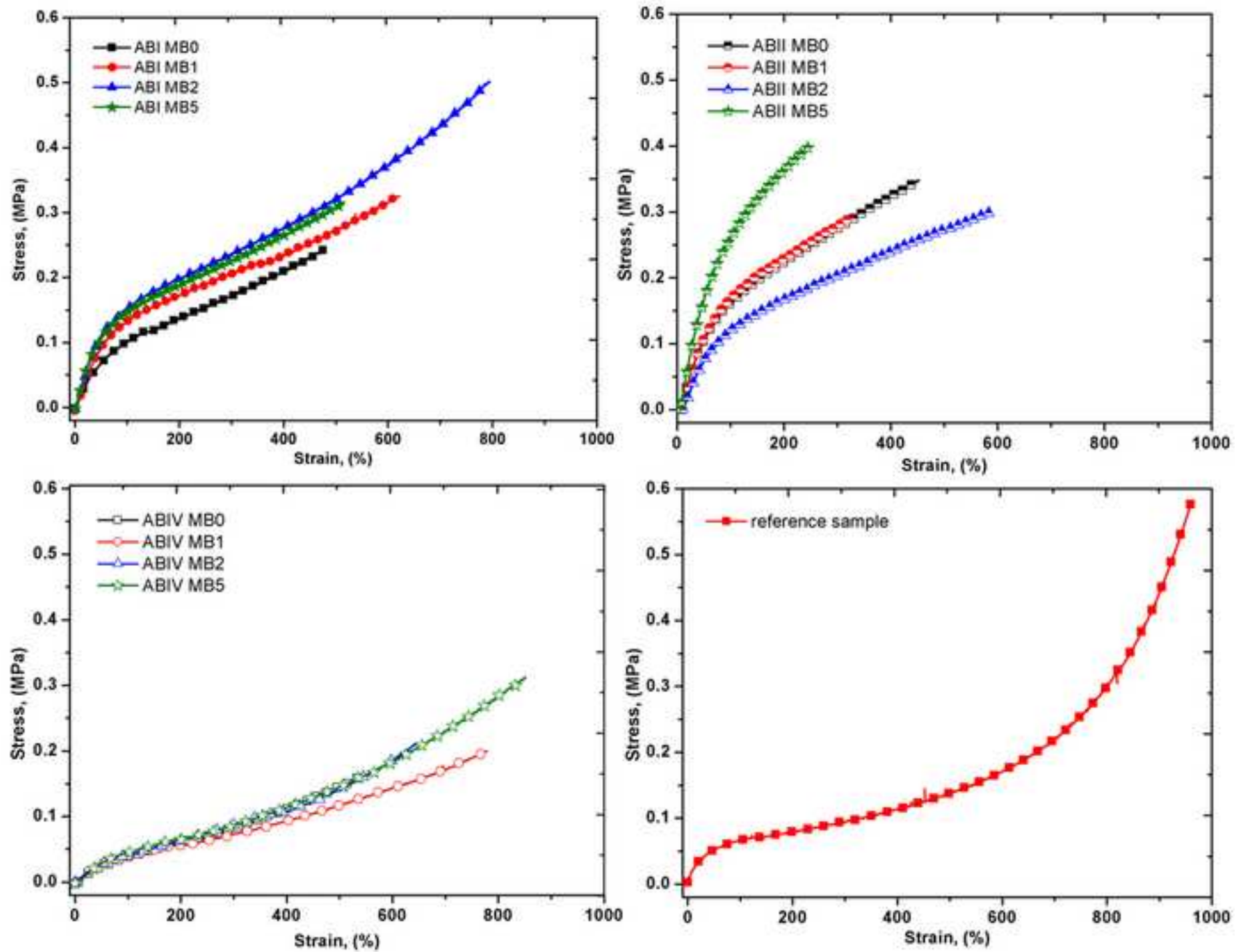


Figure 4-r
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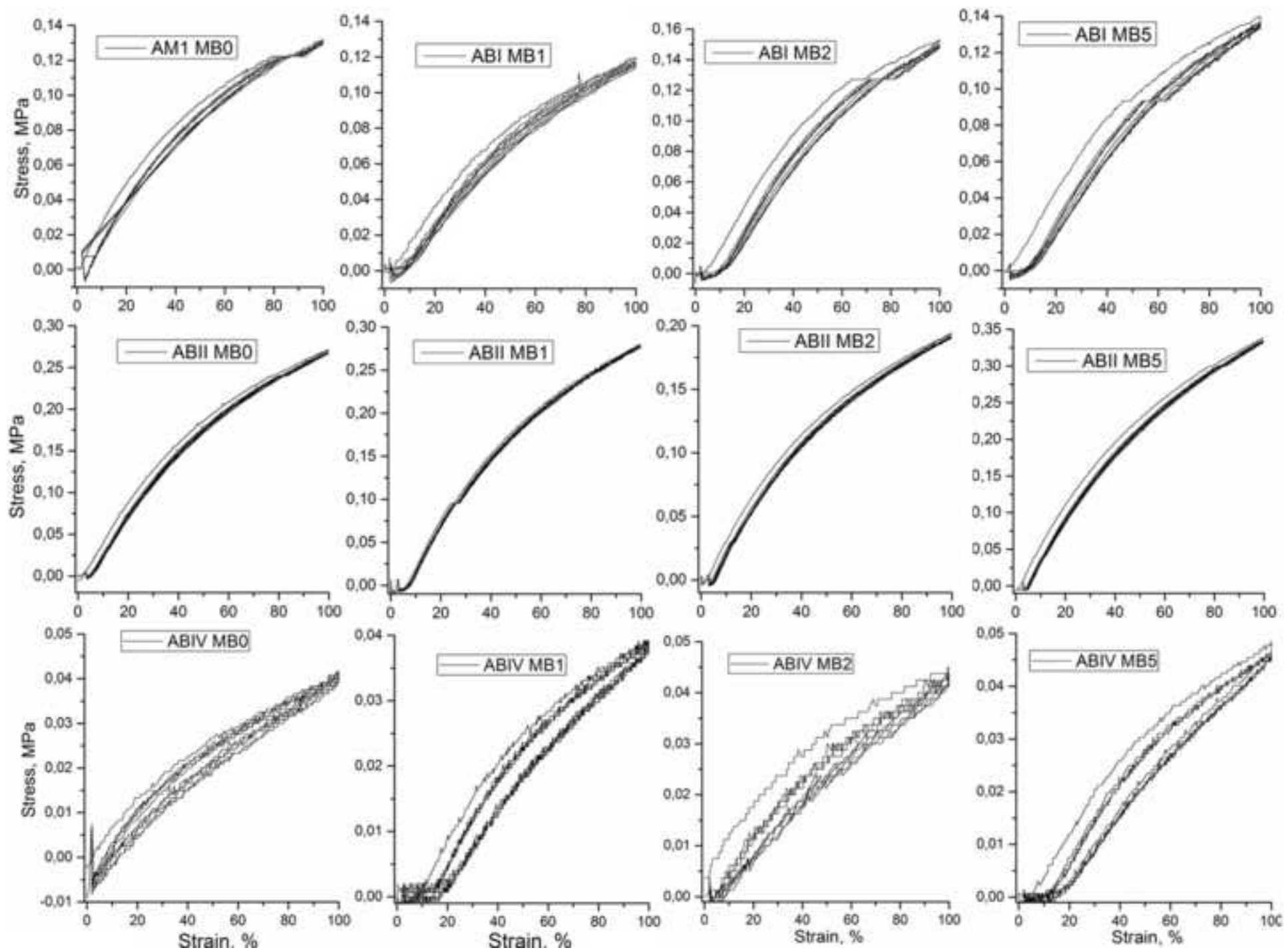
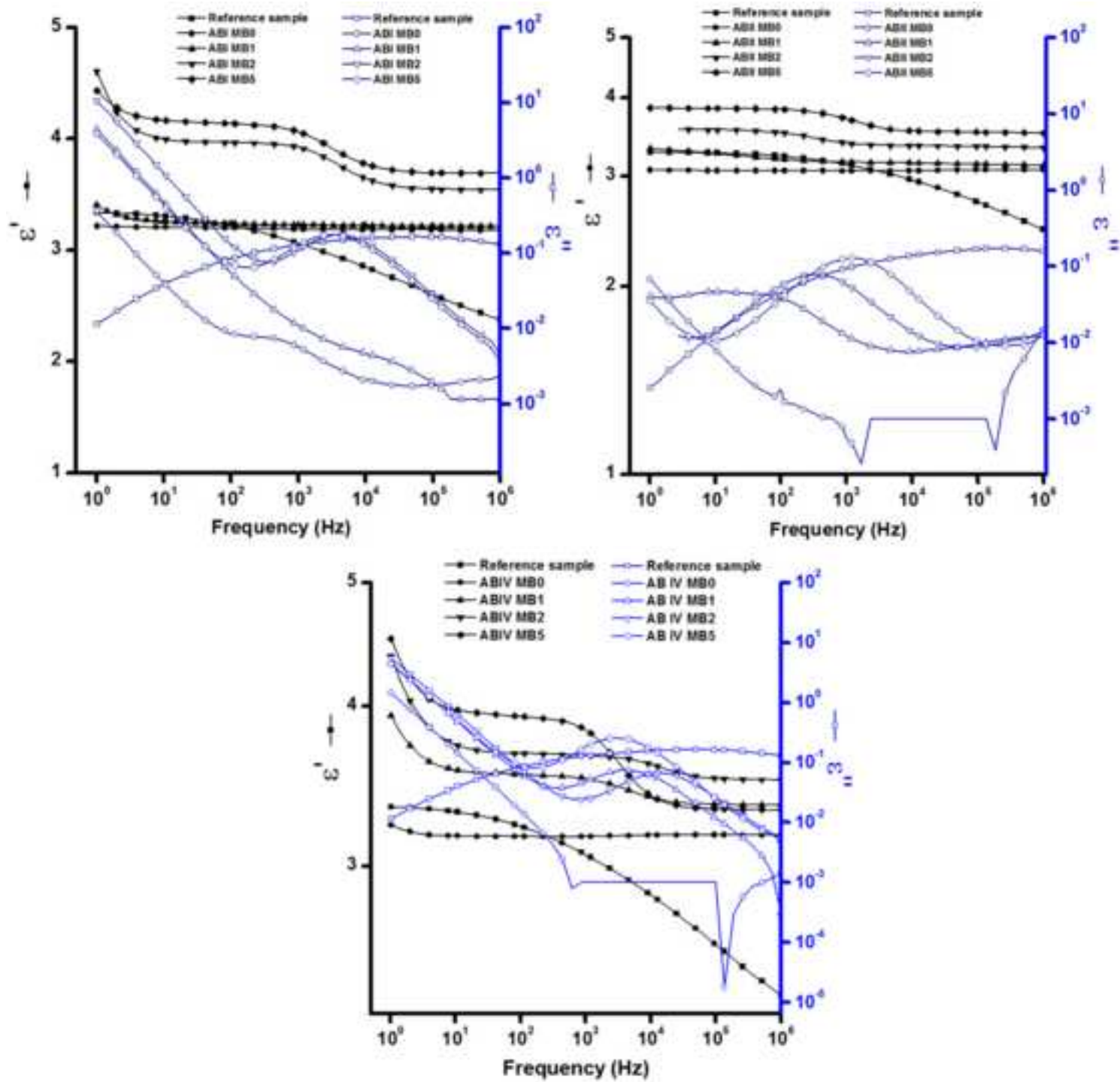


Figure 5-r

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