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In-plane energy absorption characteristics of a modified re-entrant auxetic structure fabricated via 3D printing

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Abstract

Here, we present the in-plane energy absorption characteristics of modified re-entrant auxetic honeycombs realized via fused filament fabrication in conjunction with parametric analysis and geometry optimization. The influence and interaction effects of the geometrical parameters such as strut-length ratio and joint-angles on the stiffness, strength and energy absorption characteristics of modified re-entrant auxetic honeycombs were evaluated. Subsequently, Finite Element results obtained using ABAQUS/Explicit were corroborated with measured data. Deformation mode, stress-strain response and energy absorption behavior of an optimal re-entrant auxetic honeycomb were studied and compared with conventional re-entrant auxetic structure. Our modified auxetic structure reveals an 36% improvement in the specific energy absorption capacity. Our analysis indicates that due to the introduction of more nodes with low rotational stiffness, the failure strain of the modified re-entrant structure has increased resulting in improved energy absorption capacity.

Keywords: Auxetic re-entrant honeycombs; lightweight cellular structures; energy absorption capacity; fused deposition modeling (FDM); mechanical characteristics

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1. Introduction

Mechanical metamaterials are engineered cellular materials that exhibit unique mechanical properties (such as higher energy absorption, higher indentation resistance, higher fracture toughness, good compressive strength, and lighter weight, etc.) due to their designed nano/micro-architecture [1–5]. Such micro- or nano-architected lattices find applications in a wide range of fields including robotics, medical, soft electronics, sensors, acoustic cloaking, automobile, defense, aerospace and energy harvesting.[6–9]. Metamaterials that exhibit negative Poisson’s ratio (NPR) are known as auxetics. Unlike conventional materials, when auxetic materials are stretched, they expand laterally instead of contracting [10,11]. Recently auxetic structures have attracted tremendous attention due to their unique mechanical properties, which can be tailored by changing the NPR[12,13]. More importantly, 3D printing technologies enable the fabrication of cellular structures with fine geometric features [14–16]. Gibson first introduced 2D re-entrant honeycombs structure[17] and thereafter many re-entrant structures such as star re-entrant [18–20], hierarchical star re-entrant [21], double arrowhead, [22–24] augmented re-entrant honeycomb (ARH) [25–27], graded re-entrant [28,29] and re-entrant chiral auxetic (RCA) [30,31] have been proposed. Numerous studies have attempted to improve the in-plane mechanical response by designing new structures possessing enhanced energy absorption properties. Node connectivity (number of struts connected to a node/point) within the structure plays a key role in determining the deformation behavior; the structures with higher node connectivity are more likely to deform in a stretch-dominated manner and therefore they are stiffer and weight efficient [32]. The energy absorption capacity of a lattice structure can be enhanced by having a combination of bending and stretching modes of deformation with stretching being the dominant deformation mode. To improve the deformation characteristics of a lattice structure there should be a change in its architectural design so that the structure can achieve desired combination of properties.

67

68 Weitao Lv et al.[32] proposed a hierarchical design to enhance the energy absorption ability,
69 where the cell wall of the structure was replaced by a triangular lattice. The deformation
70 mechanism and energy absorption characteristics were experimentally studied and compared
71 with FEM results. It was found that for first-order hierarchical octet-truss structure the lattice
72 stiffness, energy absorption capacity and collapse strength were higher than those of second-
73 order hierarchical octet-truss structure. Similarly, a hybrid structure was developed by Ingrole
74 et al.[33] to enhance the energy absorption and compressive strength of the re-entrant
75 honeycomb structure by combining the re-entrant honeycomb with the conventional
76 honeycomb. In another study, a hybrid design was proposed by combining re-entrant with
77 chiral geometry and demonstrated its high specific energy absorption characteristics compared
78 to original structures [31]. Kumar et. al [34,35] attempted to improve the energy absorption
79 property of re-entrant honeycomb by varying the cell wall thickness in the out-of-plane
80 direction both under quasi-static and low-velocity impact loadings. Realizing architected
81 honeycombs via material jetting additive manufacturing, their study demonstrated that such
82 geometrically tailored designs exhibit energy absorption efficiency as high as 90%. It can be
83 concluded from the above studies that mechanical/energy absorption properties of auxetic
84 honeycombs are primarily governed by their unit-cell architectures [36,37].

85 In this study, modified re-entrant honeycomb structures were designed and realized via fused
86 filament fabrication (FFF) additive manufacturing. The in-plane behavior of these structures
87 was studied through quasi-static compression tests and results are further numerically analyzed
88 and compared. The influence of geometrical parameters such as ‘strut-length ratio’ and ‘joint-
89 angles’ on the mechanical properties of the structure is studied through the response surface
90 methodology (RSM) technique. Numerical models were developed using ABAQUS/Explicit
91 and benchmarked with the experimentally obtained results. Deformation mode, stress-strain

92 curves and energy absorption characteristics of the optimized structure are studied and
93 compared.

94 **2. Materials and methods**

95 **2.1 Auxetic structure design**

96 A new design of the re-entrant auxetic structure is proposed in this study by modifying the
97 regular re-entrant honeycomb geometry without changing the mass of the specimen. In order
98 to enhance the energy absorption capacity through improved bend-dominated deformation, low
99 rotational stiffness nodes are generated in the new design by splitting the inclined struts into
100 two links in such a way that the sum of the link length is equal to the original inclined strut
101 length. Fig. 1 shows the configuration of regular and modified re-entrant honeycomb structures.

102 The architectural parameters of the regular and modified re-entrant honeycomb structures are
103 described as follows. In re-entrant honeycomb structure, **h** represents vertical strut-length of
104 16mm while **l** represents inclined strut-length of 8 mm, θ represents the angle of an inclined
105 strut to horizontal of 30° and **t** (2mm) represents the thickness of all struts. Similarly, in the
106 modified structure, **h** represents vertical strut length, θ_1 indicates the inclination of strut **l₁** to
107 horizontal, θ_2 represents the angle between two inclined struts, **and t** indicates the thickness of
108 all struts. **l₁** **and l₂** represent the lengths of two inclined struts.

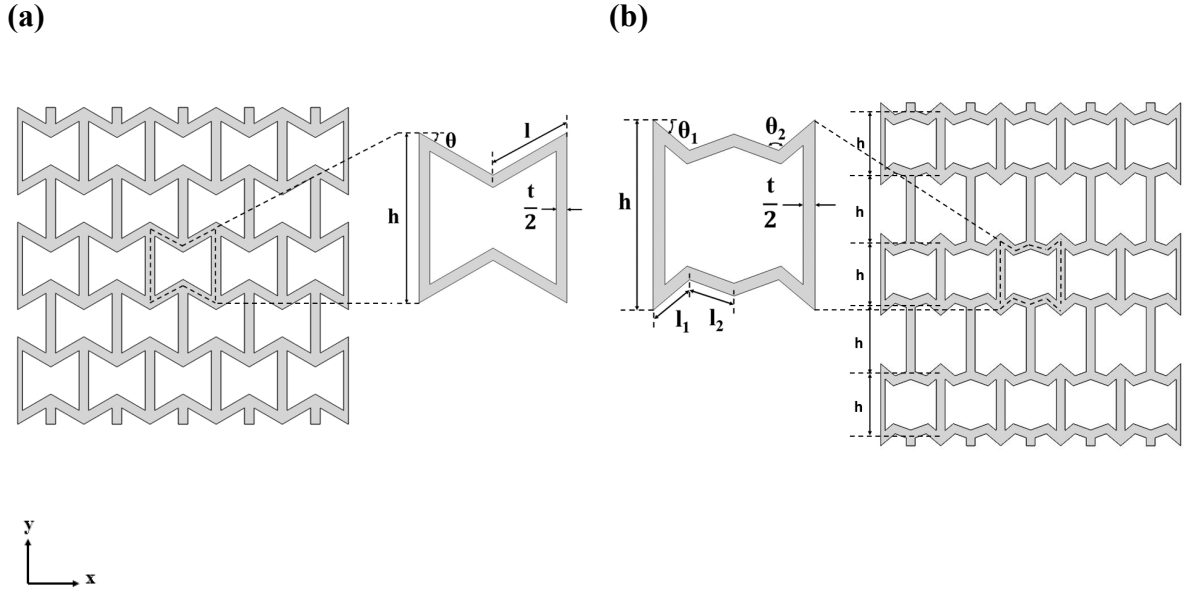
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114 **Fig. 1.** CAD model with a representative unit cell of (a) regular re-entrant honeycomb structure
 115 and (b) modified re-entrant honeycomb structure.

116 The theoretical relative density of an auxetic lattice structure is defined as the ratio of the area
 117 occupied by the cell wall of the unit cell to the area occupied by the unit cell [36,38]. For low
 118 relative densities, the relative density of both structures can be obtained from the geometry of
 119 the unit cell as follows:

120 The relative density of *regular re-entrant honeycomb* structure

$$121 \quad \bar{\rho} = \frac{(2l+h)t}{2l \cos \theta (h-l \sin \theta)} \quad (1)$$

122

123 The relative density of *modified re-entrant honeycomb* structure

$$124 \quad \bar{\rho} = \frac{2(l_1+l_2)+ht}{2[l_1^2 \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_1 + l_2 \cos(\theta_1+\theta_2)\{l_1 \cos \theta_1 (h-2l_1 \sin \theta_1) + l_2 \sin(\theta_1+\theta_2)\}]} \quad (2)$$

125 The relative density of the fabricated cellular structures are obtained using the equation given
 126 by

$$127 \quad \bar{\rho} = \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_s} \right) \quad (3)$$

128 where ρ and ρ_s represent the density of the cellular structure and density of the base material
 129 respectively.

130 2.2 Geometrical tailoring and design of experiments

131 The geometrical tailoring of the modified re-entrant honeycomb structure is achieved by
132 varying three variables namely, inclined strut-length ratio ($l_1:l_2$), θ_1 (deg.) and θ_2 (deg.) while
133 maintaining constancy of mass of the structure. The maximum and minimum limits, as well as
134 center points of these variables (see Table 1), were chosen considering the design feasibility
135 and printing limitations of the FFF 3D printer used in this study.

136 The details of experiments based on the Box–Behnken approach with three inputs and
137 responses are summarized in Table 2. The mechanical responses measured from the analysis
138 are Young’s modulus, compressive strength and energy absorption capacity. The specific
139 energy absorption (SEA), φ [39] and the energy absorption efficiency, η of the structures at
140 the onset densification strain ε_D were calculated by using the equation (4) [40] and equation
141 (5) [41,42] respectively.

$$142 \quad \varphi = \frac{1}{\rho} \int_0^{\varepsilon_D} \sigma(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \quad (4)$$

$$143 \quad \eta = \frac{1}{\sigma_D} \int_0^{\varepsilon_D} \sigma(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \quad (5)$$

144 Where σ represents the axial compressive stress of the structure experienced during quasi-
145 static compression and ε is its work conjugate. ε_D and σ_D represents the densification strain
146 and compressive strength (maximum stress a structure can resist before densification begins)
147 of the structure respectively.

148 The energy absorption efficiency of structures for different tailored designs is summarized in
149 Table 2. Due to changes in geometrical parameters, volume and hence the density of the
150 resulting unit-cell geometry changes, while the mass of the overall lattice structure was kept
151 constant. The relative densities of the modified structures, calculated using the equation (3),
152 were also given in Table 2.

153

Table 1. Design variables with their levels

Variables	-1 (low)	0 (mid)	1 (high)
$l_1:l_2$	1	4	7
θ_1 (deg.)	30	40	50
θ_2 (deg.)	120	150	180

155

156

Table 2. Design matrix with input factors and responses

Factors			Responses					
$l_1:l_2$ ratio (mm)	θ_1 (deg.)	θ_2 (deg.)	Young's modulus (MPa)	Compressive strength (MPa)	Energy absorbed (MJ/m ³)	Energy absorption efficiency (%)	Relative density $\bar{\rho}$	SEA (J/g)
4	30	120	90	1.5	1.768	48.65	0.33	5.33
4	40	150	106.3	3.4	1.968	31.86	0.39	5.02
7	40	120	111.2	2.7	1.271	30.40	0.40	3.16
7	50	150	175.14	3.45	1.137	24.75	0.51	2.2
4	40	150	100.65	3.25	1.810	34.83	0.39	4.61
1	40	120	87.32	3.58	2.986	54.97	0.31	9.58
7	40	180	138.05	4.85	1.992	29.35	0.44	4.5
4	40	150	108.65	3.05	1.756	33.45	0.39	4.48
4	30	180	86.86	3.25	2.351	39.84	0.36	6.5
1	30	150	73.73	2.37	2.526	52.41	0.30	8.38
4	50	120	145.17	4.01	1.972	23.80	0.45	4.36
4	50	180	193.93	3.1	0.983	22.53	0.55	1.78
1	50	150	106.45	3.05	1.773	32.74	0.40	4.41
1	40	180	122.75	3.5	1.524	23.67	0.44	3.45
7	30	150	74.50	2.4	1.678	41.05	0.34	4.91

157

158 2.3 Numerical simulation and validation

159 2.3.1 Finite element modelling

160 Finite element (FE) models were developed using ABAQUS 2017 to simulate the behavior of
 161 samples under quasi-static compression. In order to replicate actual experimental conditions,
 162 the structures were placed in between two rigid surfaces as shown in Fig. S2 (supplementary
 163 information: S2). Acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS) polymer exhibited significantly
 164 different yield behavior in tension and compression (supplementary information: S1 (see Fig.

165 S1)), and hence a pressure-dependent plasticity model was used to model the material behavior.
 166 Isotropic elasticity was considered for modeling the elastic behavior while plastic behavior was
 167 modeled by using Linear Drucker-Prager plasticity model. The ductile damage model was
 168 considered for modeling the material failure. “Explicit dynamic” analysis was performed
 169 considering geometric, material and contact non-linearities. The elastic properties of the ABS
 170 material used in the FE analysis are summarized in Table 3 while the plastic and failure
 171 behavior is provided in the supplementary information: S2.

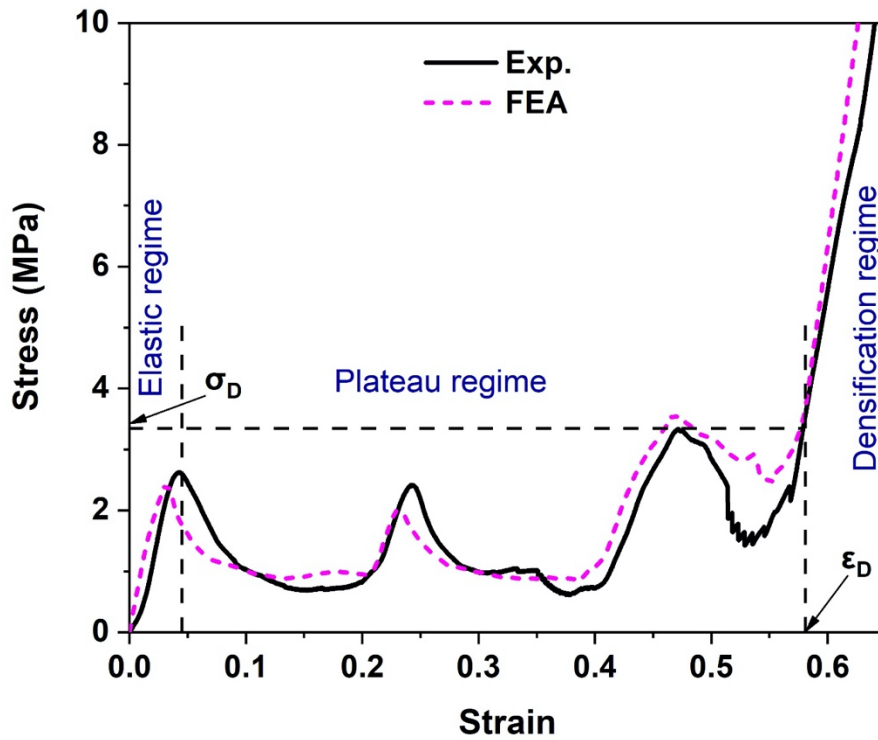
Table 3. Material properties of 3D printed ABS specimen.

Material	Elastic modulus (MPa)	Yield stress (MPa)	Poisson’s ratio	Density (g/cm ³)
ABS	2200	31	0.35	1.05

172
 173 All the calculations were performed in ABAQUS/Explicit with a sufficiently low displacement
 174 rate (500 mm/s) to eliminate inertial effects (see, Supplementary Information: S3) and ensure
 175 quasi-static deformation. Contact between rigid plates and the surfaces of models is defined as
 176 a ‘general contact interaction’ while ‘self contact is considered in between the surfaces of the
 177 structure. Contact with a friction coefficient of 0.3 was set in the tangential direction and hard
 178 contact was considered in the normal direction[43]. An 8-node hexahedral (C3D8R)[44]
 179 element with 0.4 mm mesh size (see the details of mesh sensitivity analysis in Supplementary
 180 Information: S4) was used for meshing the structures and a 4-node linear quadrilateral (R3D4)
 181 element with 2 mm mesh size was used for the top & bottom rigid plates. Boundary conditions
 182 as shown in Fig. S2 (supplementary information: S2) was imposed. The analysis was performed
 183 up to a nominal compressive strain of 70% (as in the experiments), and the obtained force vs
 184 displacement profiles are used to determine the stress vs strain responses as well as the energy
 185 absorption capacities of the structures.

186 **2.3.2. Numerical model validation**

187 The finite element model developed in this work was validated by comparing the FE
188 predictions with the experimentally measured stress-strain response for the optimal structure
189 shown in Fig. 2. More details about the optimal structure are given in section 3.4. It is clear
190 from the figure that the numerical model is capable of predicting both the elastic and plastic
191 behavior (with three distinct stages) as discussed by many researchers [45,46]. In the
192 beginning, a linear elastic response is observed followed by a plateau regime and finally the
193 densification regime. In summary, the FE prediction is in good agreement with experimental
194 results.



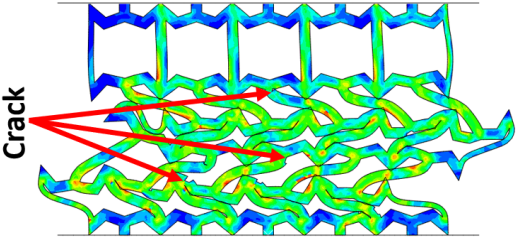
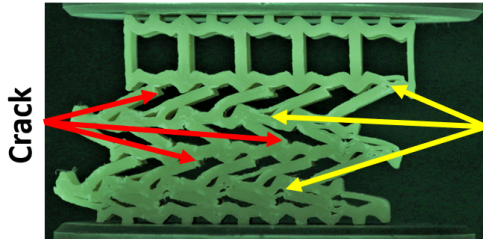
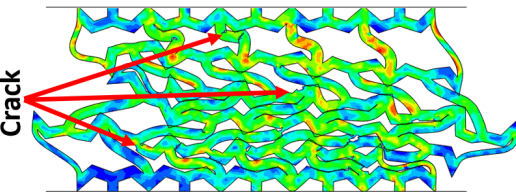
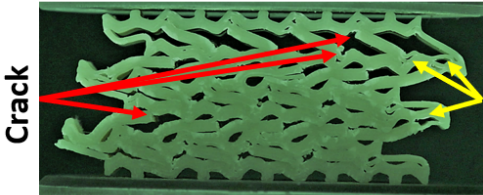
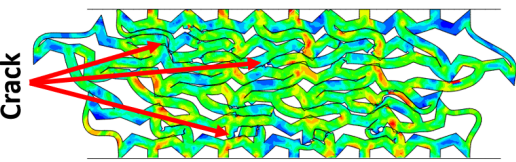
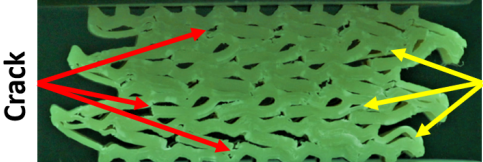
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196 **Fig. 2.** Experiment vs FEA prediction: stress-strain response of the optimal structure under
197 quasi-static compression.

198 Table 4 below shows specimen morphology at different strains during compression. It was
199 observed that cracking and delamination started much before the onset of densification, nearly

200 at a strain of 0.4 (Table 4) and it continued till it reaches the densification strain. At the
 201 densification strain, almost every link had cracked at their joints.

Table 4. Comparative analysis of specimen morphology at different strains.

Strain	Specimen morphology	
	FEA	Experiment
0.4		
0.55		
0.60		

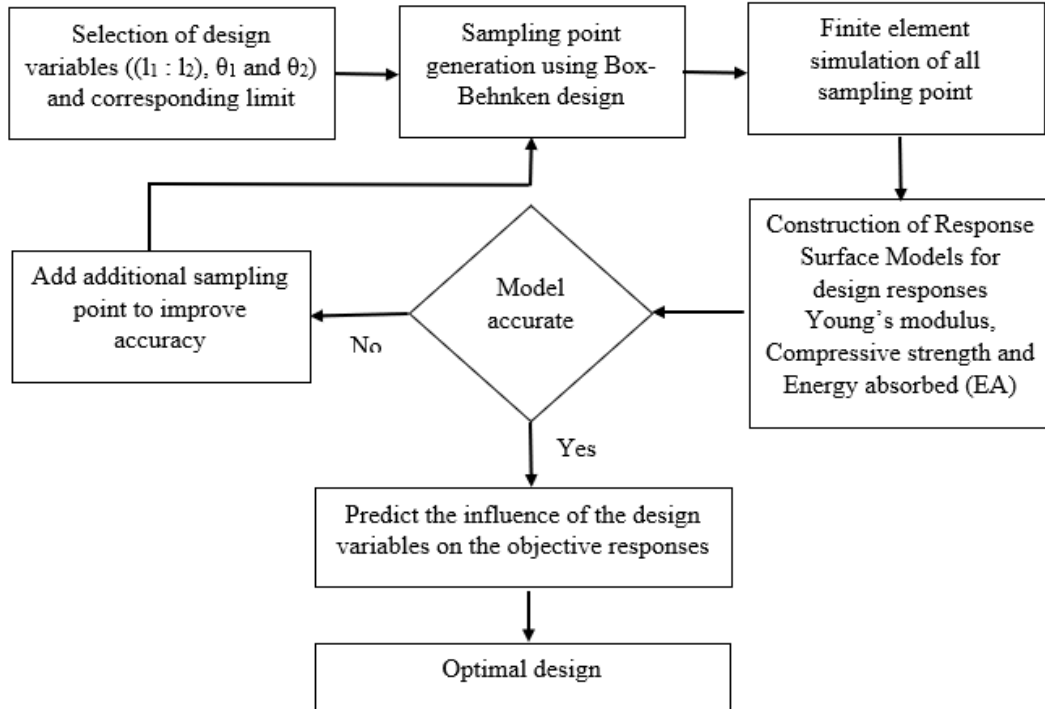
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203 2.4 Modelling and optimization

204 The methodology model development and identification of an optimal design is shown in Fig.
 205 3. The model was developed by using the Box–Behnken RSM technique which requires a
 206 smaller number of runs to generate accurate response surfaces than a normal factorial
 207 technique[47]. In Box–Behnken RSM technique the midpoints of the edges and center of the
 208 cubical were considered as design points and hence twelve middle edge nodes and three center
 209 nodes were required to fit a polynomial.

210 The variables, ‘length ratio ($l_1: l_2$)’, ‘ θ_1 ’ and ‘ θ_2 ’ were chosen as input and three responses i.e.,
 211 ‘Young’s modulus’, ‘compressive strength’ and ‘energy absorption capacity’ were selected as
 212 output functions. Simulation data were fitted to generate mathematical models and then the

213 models were used to study the influence of design variables on mechanical responses of the
 214 structure.



215

216 **Fig. 3.** Flow chart of the design optimization process.

217 The best-fit indicators characterizing the accuracy of the models revealed that the energy
 218 absorbed (EA) by the structure can be characterized using quadratic models while Young's
 219 modulus (E), and compressive strength can be characterized through reduced quadratic models
 220 (backward) as listed in Eqs. 6, 7 and 8 respectively.

221 Energy absorbed (EA) = $- 0.376457 - 1.08269 l_1:l_2 + 0.2721 \theta_1 - 0.003458 \theta_2 + 0.002083 l_1: l_2$
 222 $\theta_1 + 0.005497 l_1: l_2 \theta_2 - 0.001078 \theta_1 \theta_2 + 0.003627(l_1: l_2)^2 - 0.001435 \theta_1^2 + 0.000089 \theta_2^2$ (6)

223 Young's modulus (E) = $757.66246 - 18.12379 l_1: l_2 - 12.01085 \theta_1 - 6.61854 \theta_2 + 0.566050 l_1:$
 224 $l_2 \theta_1 + 0.04325 \theta_1 \theta_2 + 0.086926 \theta_1^2 + 0.017796 \theta_2^2$ (7)

225 Compressive strength = $-9.47763 - 1.36794 l_1: l_2 + 0.889121 \theta_1 - 0.054632 \theta_2 + 0.007917 l_1:$
 226 $l_2 \theta_2 - 0.002213 \theta_1 \theta_2 + 0.024023(l_1: l_2)^2 - 0.006325 \theta_1^2 + 0.000403 \theta_2^2$ (8)

227

228 As shown in Table 5, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to evaluate the accuracy of the
 229 model: probability (p-value), coefficient of determination R^2 , Adjusted R^2 , Predicted R^2 , and
 230 adequate precision. All model terms show high R^2 (>0.75) value with excellent agreement

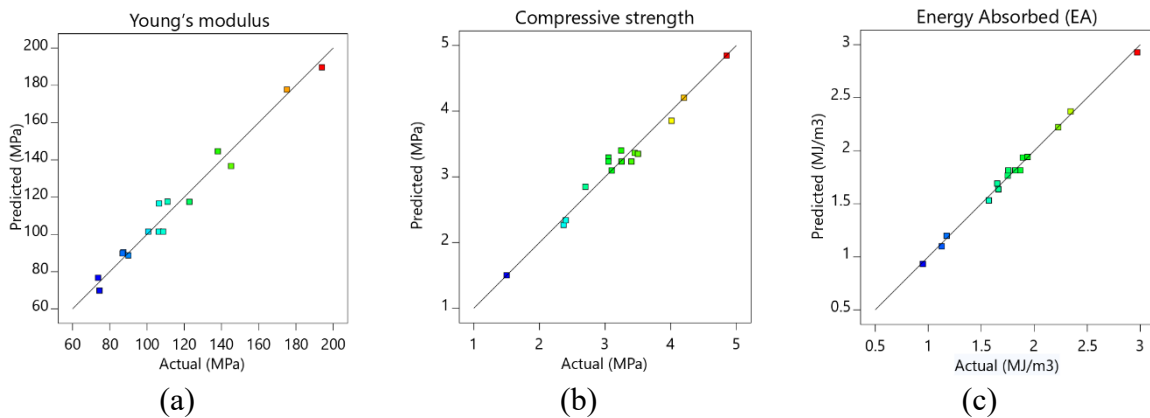
231 between the predicted and adjusted R^2 , indicating the trustworthiness of the model. It is evident
 232 from ANOVA analysis that all the models are significant and can be used to make valid
 233 predictions within the range listed in Table 1.

Table 5. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the developed models

Model	F-value	P-value	Statistical measurements			
			R^2	Adj- R^2	Pre- R^2	Adeq-precision
Energy absorbed (EA)	117.8	<0.0001	0.9837	0.9763	0.9427	41.6573
Young's modulus (E)	38.36	<0.0001	0.9746	0.9492	0.8224	20.7162
Compressive strength	28.27	<0.0003	0.9742	0.9397	0.7852	21.8009

234
 235 Fig. 4. shows comparative analysis between model prediction and finite element results,
 236 suggesting that the developed model (Eqs. (6)–(8)) can adequately capture the non-linear
 237 relationship between the input and output variables of the structure.

238



239 **Fig. 4.** Comparison of model predictions and finite element results for (a) Young's modulus,
 240 (b) compressive strength and (c) energy absorption of the structure.

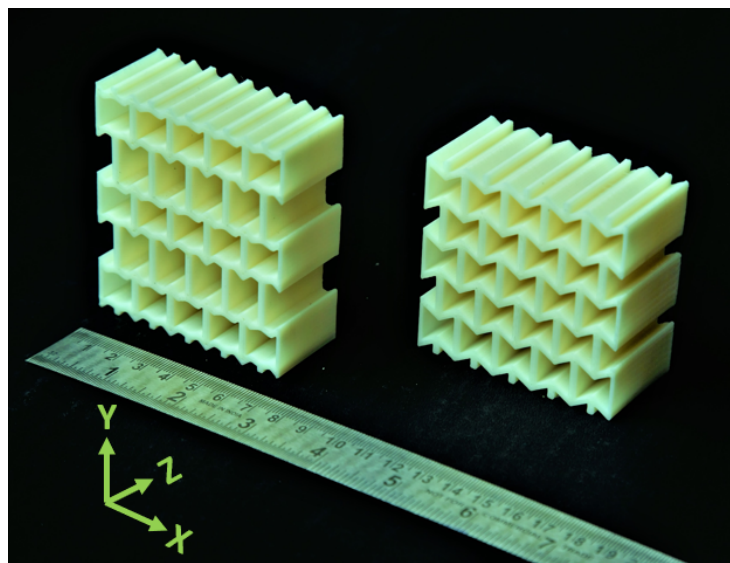
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242 2.5 3D printing and experimental testing

243 2.5.1 3D printing

244 Fused filament fabrication 3D printer from Divide by Zero, India [48] was used to fabricate
 245 all the structures for experimental analysis. A KISSlicer PRO v 1.5 was used to digitally slice
 246 stereolithography (STL) file of the structures and generate the tool path for 3D printing.
 247 Commercially available acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS) polymer filament was used to

248 fabricate the structures. “Z” building direction is selected for printing the structures with a 0.2
249 mm layer thickness so that the printing can be completed without any support material. The
250 extruder and bed temperatures were set at 245°C and 90°C respectively and 100% infill is
251 selected. Mechanical anisotropy of the 3D printed part was minimized by adopting $\pm 45^\circ$ raster
252 angle for deposition of filament[49]. All printing parameters were kept the same for all the
253 samples to avoid any variation of material properties among the samples. The 3D printed
254 regular re-entrant honeycomb and modified re-entrant honeycombs are shown in Fig. 5.



255

256 **Fig. 5.** FDM 3D printed optimal structure (left) and re-entrant honeycomb structure (right).

257

258 **2.5.2 Experimental testing procedure**

259 In order to evaluate the mechanical response, quasi-static compression tests were performed at
260 room temperature on the 3D-printed auxetic structures. The testing was carried out using 250
261 kN UTM (MEDIAN 250) at the crosshead speed of 2 mm/min (strain rate = 0.00133/s) [33,49].
262 The 250 kN load cell has an accuracy of $\leq \pm 1\%$ of its output reading. The samples were loaded
263 in Y-direction and the deformation maps were recorded using a high-definition digital camera.
264 Crushing forces were recorded via a sensor, attached to the loading plate. Load-displacement

265 data, generated during the compression test were recorded and used for further analysis. Three
266 samples for each model were tested to get reliable and repeatable results.

267 **3. Result and Discussion**

268

269 **3.1. Influence of design variables on energy absorption characteristics**

270

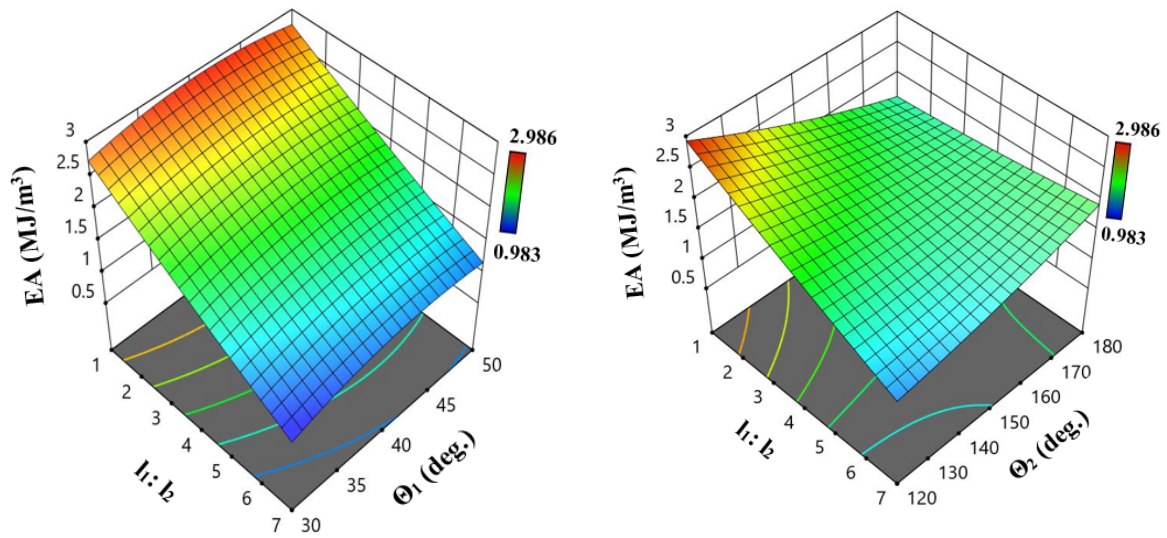
271 Fig. 6a, b and c show the effect of design variables on the energy absorption behavior of the
272 structure. At a low value of θ_2 (120°), the $l_1:l_2$ ratio has a higher influence on EA and the effect
273 weakens as θ_2 increases from 120° to 180° (fig. 6a and b). It can be seen from fig. 6a that as the
274 $l_1:l_2$ ratio increases from 1 to 7, EA ability of structure decreases significantly irrespective of
275 θ_1 value. The RSM model predicted the highest (2.986 MJ/m^3) and lowest (0.983 MJ/m^3) EA
276 value of the structure for $l_1:l_2$ ratio = 1 and 7 respectively. In order to support these
277 observations, deformation maps are presented in fig. 7. The collapse mechanism of structure at
278 a constant value of θ_2 (120°) with a higher $l_1:l_2$ ratio and θ_1 (40°) was found to be primarily due
279 to bending with lower percolation of crush bands (fig. 7 (a)). But as the $l_1:l_2$ ratio decreases
280 even with an increase of θ_1 (50°) the structure deformation pattern changes; the structure first
281 globally buckles from the center and then progressively deformed (fig. 7 (b)). Similar behavior
282 was observed at θ_1 equals 30° (fig. 7 (c)). Structure with the least value of $l_1:l_2$ ratio (1) and
283 θ_1 (30°) showed higher global buckling with the highest percolation of crush bands (fig. 7 (d)).
284 The perfolation of crush bands during compression affects the densification strain and hence
285 the energy absorption of the structure. The percolation of crush bands depends on the rotational
286 stiffness of the joints which is explained in section 3.4.

287

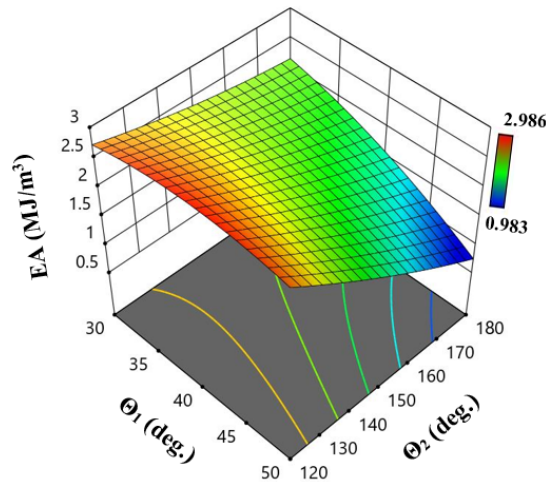
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(a)

(b)



(c)



289 **Fig. 6.** Influence of geometrical parameters on energy absorption capacity (a) effect of $l_1:l_2$ and
 290 θ_1 when $\theta_2 = 120^\circ$, (b) effect of $l_1:l_2$ and θ_2 when $\theta_1 = 40^\circ$ and (c) effect of θ_1 and θ_2 when $l_1:l_2$
 291 = 1

292

293 Fig. 6c shows that θ_1 has less effect on the EA property of the structure at the lower value of
 294 θ_2 and it becomes more significant with an increase in θ_2 . At the highest value of θ_2 (i.e. 180°)

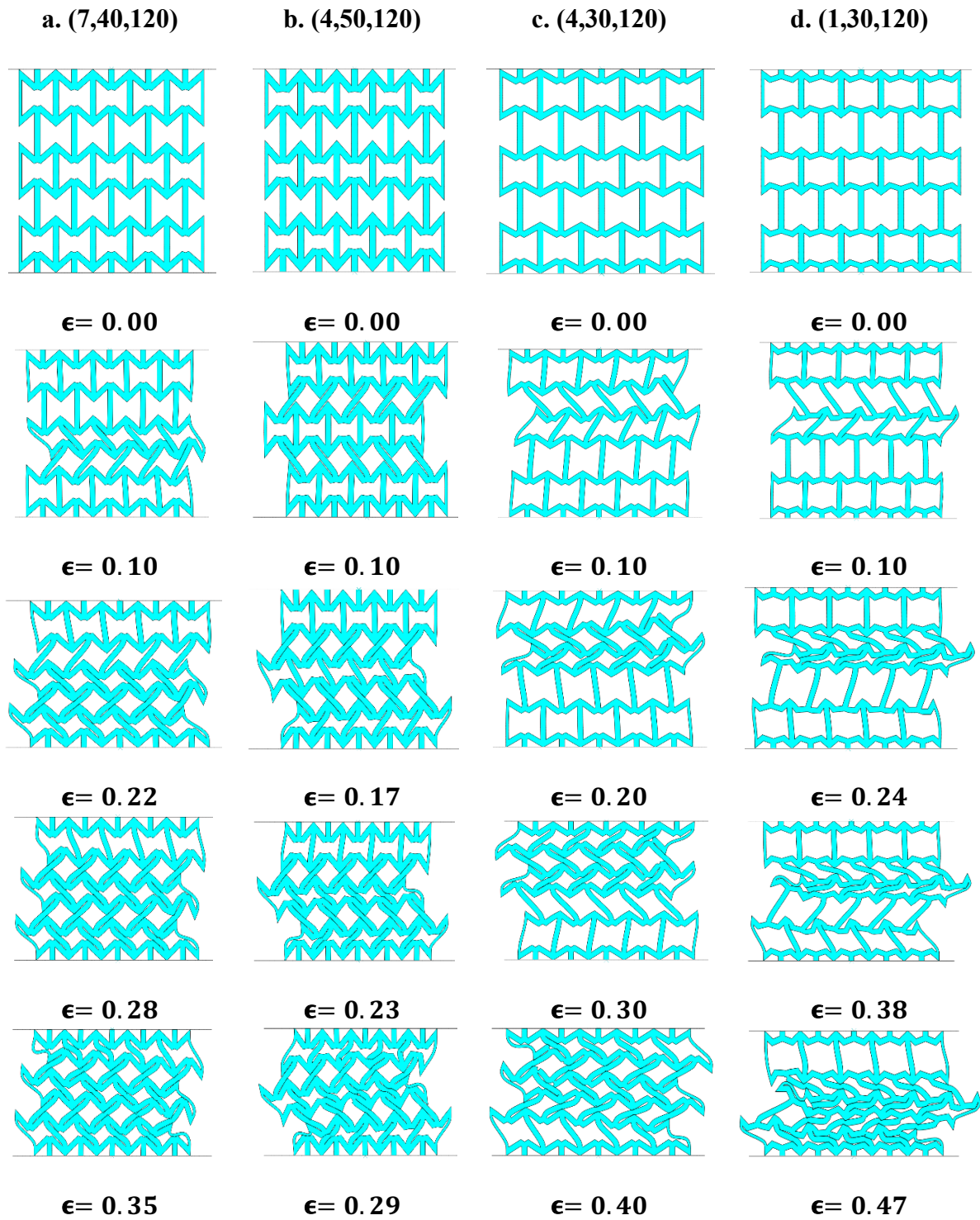
295 the structure response is analogous to that of the traditional regular re-entrant model and hence

296 it is no more affected by the $l_1:l_2$ ratio. The lowest EA (0.983 MJ/m^3) value of the structure

297 was found for θ_1 and θ_2 values at their highest levels (50° , 180° respectively) as the deformation

298 in such condition was not primarily due to bending, but it was due to stretching of inclined

299 struts.



300

301 **Fig. 7.** Deformation sequences of different structures represented in terms of $(l_1:l_2, \theta_1, \theta_2)$ (a)
 302 $(7,40,120)$, (b) $(4,50,120)$, (c) $(4,30,120)$ and (d) $(1,30,120)$

303

304 It can be concluded that the three design variables, $l_1:l_2$ ratio, θ_1 and θ_2 significantly influence

305

EA behavior of the structure and the dependency of EA on the $l_1:l_2$ ratio was found to be linear

306

while for θ_1 & θ_2 , the relationship was quadratic. Accordingly, for improving the EA of the

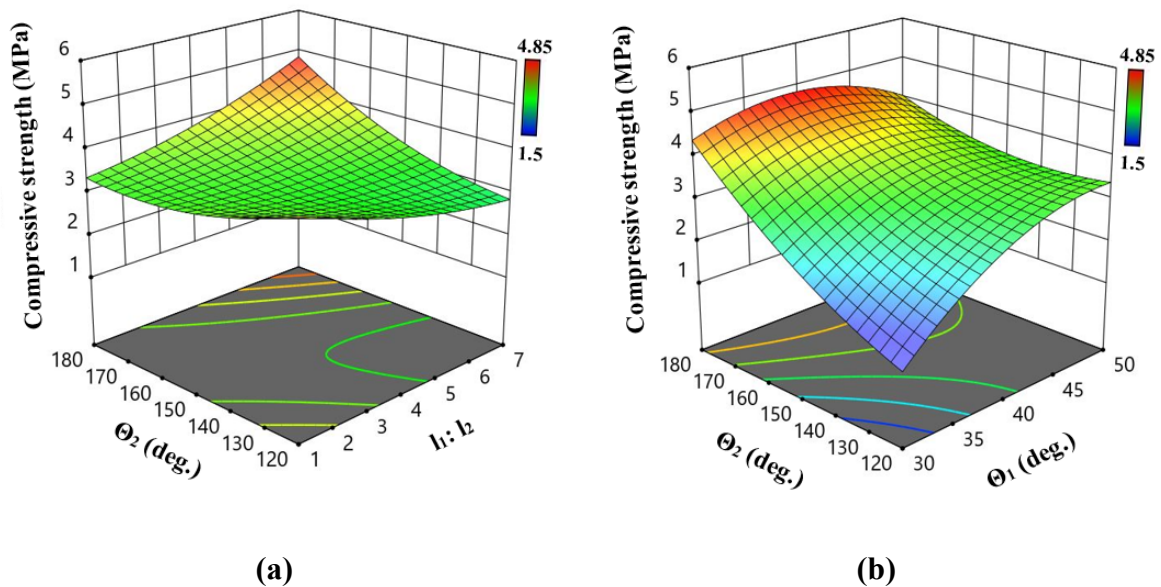
307 proposed structure, the most significant terms are in order of $l_1:l_2$ ratio followed by the joint
308 angles (θ_2, θ_1).

309 3.2. Influence of design variables on compressive strength

310

311 Compressive strength determines the load-bearing capacity of a structure. The influence of
312 design variables on the compressive strength of the proposed structure is shown in fig. 8 (a)
313 and (b). It can be seen that the structure exhibits the highest compressive strength at a higher
314 value of θ_1 and θ_2 ($50^\circ, 180^\circ$ respectively) and it continuously decreases with a decrease in joint
315 angles while resulting in minimum strength at the lower value of $\theta_1=30^\circ$ and $\theta_2=120^\circ$,
316 respectively.

317 The model shows that θ_1 has the highest influence on compressive strength. The compressive
318 strength increases quadratically with an increase in θ_1 from 30° to 50° . θ_2 is the second most
319 influential parameter with a linear relationship with compressive strength, while the $l_1:l_2$ ratio
320 has the least effect on the strength.



321 **Fig. 8.** Impact of geometrical variables on compressive strength (a) the effect of $l_1:l_2$ ratio and
322 θ_2 when θ_1 is 40° and (b) the effect of θ_1 and θ_2 when $l_1:l_2$ ratio is 1.

323

324

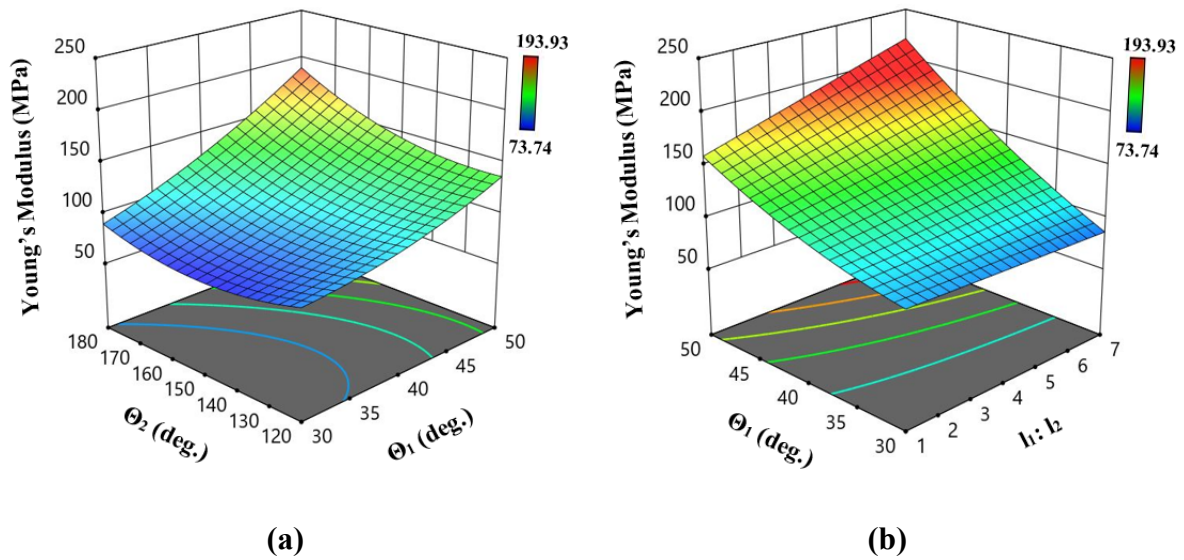
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326

327 **3.3. Influence of design variables on Young's modulus of the structure**

328

329 Fig. 9 (a) and (b) show the effect of design variables on Young's modulus of the structure. It
 330 is evident from fig. 9 (a) that the modulus is varying linearly with θ_1 and it has the highest
 331 influence on the response while θ_2 has the least contribution. The effect of the $l_1:l_2$ ratio is
 332 significant only at a higher value of θ_1 and it reduces with a decrease in the θ_1 value (see fig. 9
 333 (b)).



334 **Fig. 9.** Influence of geometrical variables on Young's modulus of the modified auxetic
 335 structure (a) the effect of θ_1 and θ_2 when $l_1:l_2$ ratio is 1 and (b). the effect of $l_1:l_2$ ratio and θ_1
 336 when θ_2 is 120° .

337

338

339 At higher values of $l_1:l_2$ ratio and θ_1 , the model suggests a higher Young's modulus which is
 340 logical. This can be explained by analyzing the elastic collapse of the structure. Fig. 10
 341 represents the Elastic collapse of the structure at the highest value of θ_2 (180°). Due to quasi-
 342 static compression along the y-direction, the structure experiences a macroscopic compressive
 343 stress σ along the y-direction (fig. 10 (a)). Due to compressive load inclined walls bend. The
 344 free body diagram of one inclined walls is shown in fig. 10 (b). For equilibrium in inclined
 345 wall AB, the force component along the y-direction is zero. The moment acting on the wall AB
 346 can be expressed as

347
$$M = \frac{Pl \cos \theta_1}{2} \quad (9)$$

348 where P is the force acting on the wall AB in y-direction due to compressive stress (σ).

349
$$P = \sigma bl \cos \theta_1 \quad (10)$$

350 where b is the width of the unit cell along the z-direction. The deflection (δ) of wall AB can be
351 expressed as

352
$$\delta = \frac{Ml^2}{6E_s I} \quad (11)$$

353 where E_s is Young's modulus of basis material (ABS polymer) and I is the second moment of
354 inertia ($\frac{bt^3}{12}$) of the inclined wall. Hence, strain along y-direction can be written as

355
$$\epsilon = \frac{2\delta \cos \theta_1}{2(h-l \sin \theta_1)} \quad (12)$$

356 Young's modulus E of structure along y-direction can be expressed as

357
$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \quad (13)$$

358 By plugging all equations (equations-(9-12)) in Young's modulus equation (equation-(13)) and
359 rearranging, Young's modulus can be expressed as

360
$$E = \frac{E_s t^3 (h-l \sin \theta_1)}{l^4 \cos^3 \theta_1} \quad (14)$$

361 From Young's modulus expression, it is clear that E varies as θ_1 changes (for all structures, all
362 other parameters are constant when θ_2 is 180°), and as θ_1 increases Young's modulus E also
363 increases.

364

365

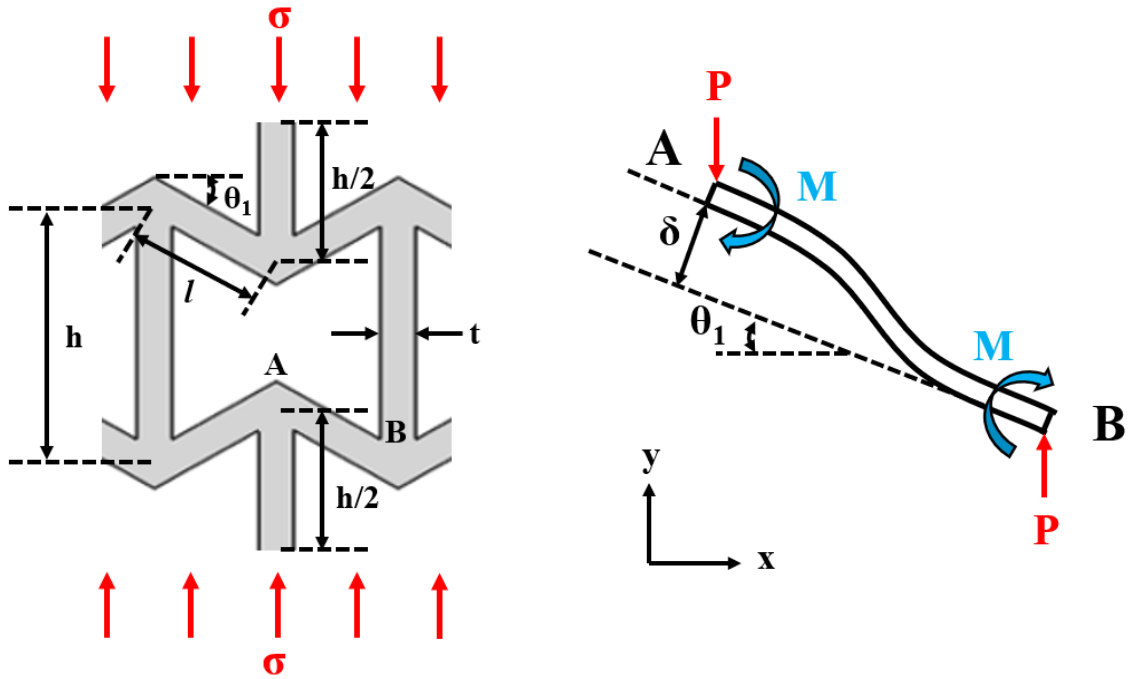
366

367

368

(a)

(b)



369 **Fig. 10.** Elastic collapse of structure at the highest value of θ_2 (180°): (a) Unit cell with loading
 370 condition and (b) bending of the inclined link due to loading.

371
 372

373 Overall, it is clear from the above discussion that the relationship between the three variables
 374 (length ratio ($l_1:l_2$), θ_1 and θ_2) affects the mechanical and energy absorption properties of the
 375 proposed structure. In some cases, during the analysis, individual parameters effect was found
 376 to be dominating over their combined effect and vice-versa. It was observed that at higher
 377 levels of $l_1:l_2$ ratio, θ_1 and θ_2 (i.e. 7, 50° , 180° respectively) the structure exhibits higher
 378 compressive strength and modulus but EA ability was low (as low plateau area due to lower
 379 failure strain). On the other hand, at the lower level of $l_1:l_2$ ratio, θ_1 and θ_2 (i.e.1, 30° , 120°
 380 respectively) the structure shows a high value of EA (higher failure strain) with lower
 381 compressive strength and modulus respectively.

382
 383
 384
 385

386 **3.4. Optimal design parameters for higher energy absorption of the structure**

387

388 After realizing the tunable mechanical properties of modified structure, an optimal combination

389 of design parameters for achieving the highest energy absorption is investigated in this section.

390 Therefore, single-objective optimization approach is used and the resulting optimization

391 problem can be formulated as:

392 Maximize energy absorption (EA) = $f(l.r., \theta_1, \theta_2)$ (15)

393 s.t. $1 \leq l.r. \leq 7$

394 s.t. $30^\circ \leq \theta_1 \leq 50^\circ$

395 s.t. $120^\circ \leq \theta_2 \leq 180^\circ$

396 For optimization, each response must have a low and high value as represented by Eq. (15) and

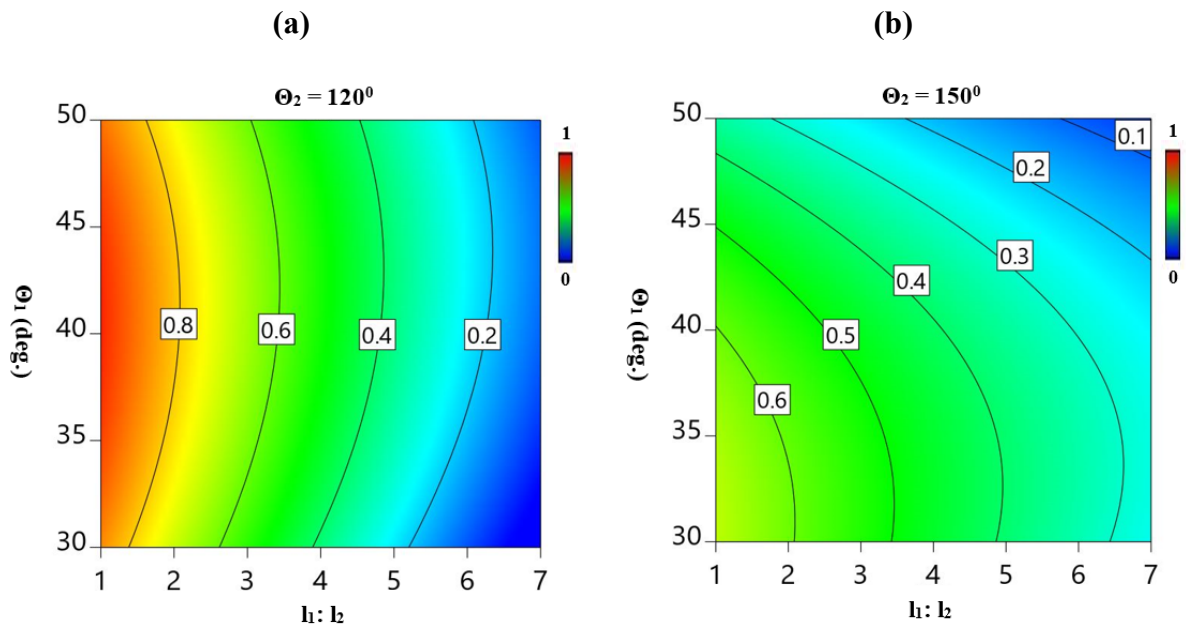
397 is solved using the desirability approach. Fig. 11 (a-c) shows the desirability plot of the

398 optimum solution considering the three design variables as parameters. It appears that the

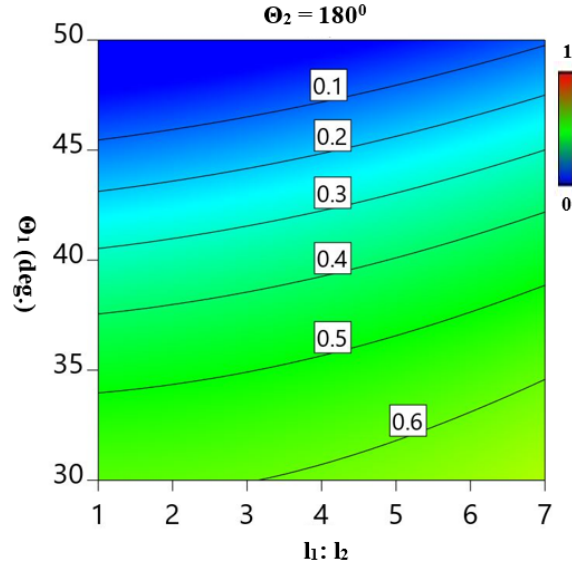
399 optimal solution lies close to the lowest value of the $l_1:l_2$ ratio and θ_2 and at a middle value of

400 θ_1 . Table 6 summarizes the optimal solution predicted by the model with the highest desirability

401 (0.956).



(c)



402 **Fig. 11.** Desirability plot of the optimum solution (a) effect of $l_1:l_2$ and θ_1 at $\theta_2 = 120^\circ$, (b) effect
 403 of $l_1:l_2$ and θ_1 at $\theta_2 = 150^\circ$ and (c) effect of $l_1:l_2$ and θ_1 at $\theta_2 = 180^\circ$.
 404

405 **Table 6.** Optimal solution predicted by the model

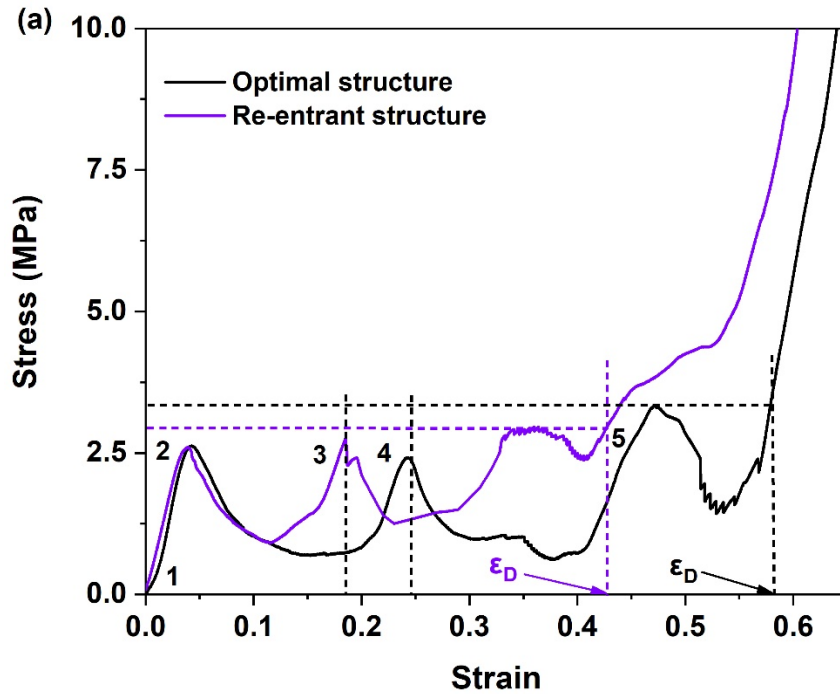
$l_1:l_2$	θ_1	θ_2	Energy absorption
1	40°	120°	2.986 (MJ/m ³)

406
 407

408 In order to compare the performance of the optimal modified structure, the final design is 3D
 409 printed and tested as described in Section 2.5.1. A regular re-entrant honeycomb with the same
 410 mass is considered for benchmarking.

411 Fig. 12 (a) shows a stress-strain curve of the optimal structure. It is marked with numbers to
 412 signify its deformation behavior at different stages during compression. Fig. 12 (b) represents
 413 the sequential deformation maps during quasi-static compression at the corresponding points
 414 shown in the stress-strain curve. The optimal structure also shows three distinct stages as
 415 reported by several studies[33,50]. In the beginning, a small region known as the elastic regime
 416 was found where structure showed its linear elastic behavior and after an initial peak, a large
 417 plateau was observed (plateau regime) while densification regime starts when cell walls begins
 418 to come in contact with each other.

419 Results generated from the quasi-static compression test were used to calculate energy
 420 absorption characteristics of the structures (equation- 4) and it is found that the modified
 421 optimized structure outperforms regular re-entrant honeycomb (+36.42%).



(b)

Strain	(1) $\epsilon = 0.00$	(2) $\epsilon = 0.04$	(3) $\epsilon = 0.18$	(4) $\epsilon = 0.25$	(5) $\epsilon = 0.435$	
Re-entrant honeycomb structure						Experimental
Optimal structure						Experimental

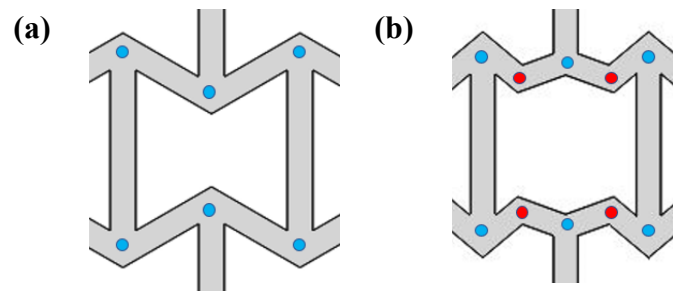
422
 423 **Fig. 12.** Regular re-entrant honeycomb vs optimal structure: (a) stress-strain curve and (b)
 424 sequential deformation maps at different stages during quasi-static compression (see the
 425 corresponding points shown in the stress-strain curve).

426

427 To further understand the energy absorption ability of modified optimal structure, sequences
428 of deformed configurations (from optical images captured experimentally) at different strains
429 are analyzed (Fig. 12b). From the experimental evidence (Fig. 12b), we observed that at the
430 start of compression (elastic-regime) both structures show linear elastic behavior up to the yield
431 point. There was a linear increase in stress, as the cells of the structures deform uniformly and
432 reach a maximum value (Fig. 12(a)). As compression continues, further deformation behavior
433 of the structure is influenced by the rotational stiffness of the nodes (joints). Rotational stiffness
434 of the node (joint) is defined as the torque required per degree to rotate about the joints. The
435 node with high rotational stiffness offers more resistance to rotation. The rotational stiffness of
436 nodes is highly influenced by the number of inclined struts as they determine the degree of
437 constraint to rotation[50].

438 In the case of regular re-entrant honeycomb, it can be seen from fig. 13(a) that all the nodes
439 (marked in blue) connected with 3 inclined links offer high resistance to rotation and hence
440 during loading the cells collapsed due to buckling and bending. Such deformation propagates
441 from one layer to other layers causing a progressive collapse of the structure. Cell collapse
442 started from the bottom end and propagated towards the top of the structure (Fig. 12 (b)). On
443 the other hand, there are some nodes in the modified optimized structure, connected with only
444 two inclined links (marked in Red) (fig. 13 (b)), and they offer less rotational stiffness. Further,
445 due to the low rotational stiffness offered by these nodes, the deformation was not able to
446 propagate to the next layer until the complete layer is collapsed, and therefore the low-stress
447 plateau area increases which can be seen from the density of collapsed layer (higher in optimal
448 structure as compared to regular re-entrant) (fig. 12 (b)). The stress values decrease as the first
449 layer of the structure collapsed and then it again started to increase due to the densification of

450 the collapsed cells. This behavior continues until all the rows are collapsed. Finally,
451 densification starts at the point when all the rows of the structures are collapsed (fig.12 (a)).



452

453 **Fig. 13.** Different types of node (joint) and their distribution in the unit cell of (a) regular re-
454 entrant honeycomb (b) modified optimal structure

455

456 Our analysis indicates that due to the introduction of more nodes with low rotational stiffness,
457 the failure strain of structure increases, resulting in improved EA of the optimal structure. After
458 densification, compaction of layers due to compression loading continues and hence the load
459 value increases rapidly. It may be noted that within the compaction phase the performance is
460 determined by the base material and not by the structure[45] and the stiffness of the basic
461 material is higher than the structure.

462 Table 7 shows the comparison of properties obtained experimentally for regular re-entrant
463 honeycomb and our modified optimal structure. It is clear that the modified optimal structure
464 outperforms regular re-entrant honeycomb (+36.42%) without much change in other
465 properties.

466

467

468

Table 7. Performance of auxetic structures obtained experimentally

Properties	Re-entrant honeycomb structure	Optimal structure	Improve (%)
Young's modulus (MPa)	86.86	87.32	00.53
Compressive strength (MPa)	2.95	3.31	12.2
Energy absorbed (MJ/m ³)	2.161	2.948	36.42
SEA (J/Kg)	2064.56	2816.47	36.42

469

470

471 4. Conclusions

472 In this study, energy absorption characteristics of a modified re-entrant auxetic structure

473 processed via fused filament fabrication technique were evaluated both experimentally and

474 numerically and its performance was compared with a conventional re-entrant auxetic structure

475 of the same mass. Many topology-tailored designs were investigated using the Design of

476 Experiment (DOE). The statistical models (derived by response surface methodology) were

477 used to estimate their mechanical properties. It is clear from the results of the parametric study

478 that the performance of the proposed auxetic structure is dependent on the strut-length ratio

479 and joint angles. Having captured these relationships, optimization of geometrical parameters

480 for the highest energy absorption was carried out for the proposed auxetic structure. The

481 following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

482 • The compression response of auxetic structure predicted using the finite element

483 method shows that the link length ratio has the highest influence on the energy

484 absorption properties followed by joint angle interaction effects.

485 • The analysis shows that for the highest joint angles, the proposed structure evinces the

486 lowest energy absorption capacity. However, it is interesting to note that the joint angles

487 significantly affect the compressive strength but the strength is least affected by the link

488 length ratio.

- 489
- It is also clear from the parametric analysis that the structure exhibits the highest
490 Young's modulus at higher values of θ_1 with the highest value of θ_2 (i.e. 180°), as at the
491 highest value of θ_2 (i.e. 180°) the structure response is analogous to that of the
492 traditional regular re-entrant model and hence it is no more affected by the $l_1:l_2$ ratio.
 - The most desirable solution with the highest energy absorption was found to be at $l_1:l_2$
493 ratio, θ_1 and θ_2 of $1, 40^\circ$, and 120° respectively. The crushing analysis indicates that the
494 optimized structure outperforms (+36%) regular re-entrant honeycomb and the
495 improvement can be attributed to the introduction of more nodes with low rotational
496 stiffness. This results in increased compliance of structure and thus the energy
497 absorption capacity.
498

499 While energy absorption of the proposed structure is increased, Young's modulus has
500 slightly decreased and compressive strength has slightly increased. In this regard, spatially
501 material-tailored designs [37,51] of the structure can be explored in the future [52–54] to
502 simultaneously improve all the mechanical properties which are often mutually exclusive.

503

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