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1 **Capillary filling dynamics of polymer melts in nanopores: Experiments and**
2 **rheological modelling**

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10 **ABSTRACT:** Understanding capillary filling dynamics in nanoconfined geometries is crucial in the
11 nanotechnology fields, such as nanofluidic devices, lab-on-a-chip, 3D printers, porous nanomaterials.

12 The spontaneous capillarity-driven flow behaviors of polyethylene (PE) melts through anodized
13 aluminum oxide (AAO) nanopores are investigated experimentally by using the nanoporous template
14 wetting technique first in our study. The diameter of the pores is 100 nm and 200 nm. The displacement
15 of the polymer melts is measured by the thickness of the fabricated nanowire array as a function of
16 time. Besides, considering the effect of the shear rate on the polymer viscosity in the capillary nanoflow,
17 a theoretical model, i.e. a modified Lucas-Washburn law that combines the Lucas-Washburn law with
18 the polymer rheological model, is established. Based on the experimental results it is speculated that
19 the rise of the meniscus agrees with the modified Lucas-Washburn law. It also suggests that the
20 zero-shear-rate viscosity of the PE melts decreases in their flows through the nanopores and the
21 induced unconventional rheological behavior may be caused by nanoconfinement of the nanopores.

22

23 **KEYWORDS:** polymer melts, capillary flow, nanoporous template wetting, Lucas-Washburn law,
24 rheological behavior

1 I. INTRODUCTION

2 The capillary flow of liquids through nanochannels plays a decisive role in a broad range of natural and
3 industrial applications, such as nanofluidic devices, lab-on-a-chip systems and porous nanomaterials. In
4 recent years, with the progress in micro/nanofluidics and nanotechnology, nanofluidic devices and
5 nanostructures manufactured based on it have drawn more and more attention. Among them, polymer
6 nanostructures, with several advantages over other materials, such as low cost, simple processing
7 techniques and accurate repeatability in mass-production, have offered potential applications in many
8 areas, such as photonics [1,2], mechatronics [3,4], medicine and fluidic nanodevices [5,6]. For the
9 fabrication of these nanoproducts, a set of processing approaches, such as photolithography, scanning
10 beam lithography [7], moulding [8], embossing [9], printing [10] and electrospinning [11] have been
11 reported. Among these techniques, moulding offers a wide application and has the potential to be the
12 ultimate low-cost method for manufacturing [12]. Besides, the thermal conductivity of the fabricated
13 polymer nanowire arrays were found to be about 2 orders of magnitude higher than their bulk
14 counterparts, and with the morphology of the micro- and nanostructures on the surface
15 superhydrophobicity of polymers has been obtained [13,14]. As to fabricate high-quality polymer
16 nanoproducts by nanomoulding, accurately controlling the flow behaviors of polymer melts through
17 nanochannels is a key point [15].

18 For the capillary flow behaviors of liquids through pores, lots of theoretical, numerical and
19 experimental studies [16-21] have been done in search of a thorough physical understanding of the
20 basic mechanisms involved. Almost a century ago, Lucas and Washburn established the basic
21 capillarity law for Newtonian liquids, i.e. the Lucas-Washburn equation (LWE) [16]

$$H(t) = \left(\frac{\gamma_{LV} R \cos \theta}{2\eta} \right)^{1/2} \sqrt{t}. \quad (1)$$

1 Here $H(t)$ is the rise of the fluid meniscus, t is the wetting time, γ_{LV} is the surface tension of the liquid,
2 η is the viscosity, R is the pore radius and θ is the contact angle between the meniscus and the wall. The
3 LWE predicts that the capillary rise should be proportional to the square root of time based on the
4 assumption that the Poiseuille region covers practically the whole flow. Joos et al. [17] combined the
5 LWE with an empirical relationship between the dynamic contact angle (DCA) and the capillary
6 number and obtained a modified formula that showed better agreement with the experimental data,
7 especially at short time. For the DCA, another commonly used model is the molecular-kinetic model
8 proposed by Blake and Haynes [18] which gave the relationship between the DCA and the velocity.
9 Recently, Zhmud et al. [19] pointed out some internal inconsistencies of the classical equation
10 including the singularity in the zero-time limit, nonlinear dissipation and flow pattern effects in the
11 front zone of the liquid column and near the capillary entrance. With the corrections that removed the
12 initial infinite acceleration and considered the second-order dissipation effects they obtained a more
13 general equation including higher order terms in the capillary rise. Besides, Levine et al. [20]
14 developed a comprehensive mathematical theory of the hydrodynamics of the fluid motion in the
15 reservoir near the capillary entrance and the departure from Poiseuille flow in the vicinity of the
16 advancing meniscus. In the case of non-Newtonian liquids, Digilov [21] studied the impact of
17 non-Newtonian behavior on the capillary rise dynamics of a power law liquid and got an analytical
18 solution for the time evolution of the meniscus height which was checked against the results of
19 experiments at millimeter scale.

20 Actually whether the Lucas-Washburn equation or the modified formulas are applicable at micro-
21 or nanoscale is still under discussions. Some experiments and numerical simulations have been carried

1 out in recent years. Geromichalos et al. [22] investigated the spontaneous imbibition of water and
2 1-undecanol fronts between two roughened glass plates with the separation between 10 and 50 μm ,
3 while Gruener and Huber [23] studied the capillary filling behavior of water, liquid *n*-tetracosane and
4 liquid crystal octyloxycyanobiphenyl in Vycor. Both of their work confirmed the LWE. Meanwhile,
5 Oh et al. [24] found that the dynamics of the filling of nanochannels using mixtures of ethanol and
6 water followed the $(\text{time})^{1/2}$ dependence but the prefactor of the algebraic relation greatly deviated from
7 the predictions based on the LWE with the bulk properties. The $(\text{time})^{1/2}$ dependence of the filling
8 height but quantitative deviation of the prefactor from the LWE were also reported by Engel and Stuhn
9 [25] in their experimental measurements of the filling process in nanopores of polymer melts which
10 appeared as Newtonian liquids in the shear experiment since their molar masses were well below the
11 critical molecular mass of entanglement.

12 More numerical studies have been done but no consistent description of the filling behavior at
13 nanoscale has been got. Quirke et al. [26,27] found out the penetration length was a linear function of
14 time for short time and tended to a $(\text{time})^{1/2}$ dependence at long time based on their molecular dynamics
15 (MD) simulations of carbon nanotubes imbibing decane. They believed that the linear time dependence
16 at short time was due to the formation of a precursor film which spreaded at a much greater speed in
17 advance of the main wetting line. However, Chibbaro et al. [28] found that the dynamics of the
18 precursor films obeyed a square-root law although with a larger prefactor by both hydrokinetic and MD
19 approaches. Martic et al. [29] demonstrated a reduction in the rate of penetration for a simple
20 Lennard-Jones (LJ) fluid by using MD simulations and believed the reduction was caused by the
21 contact angle that depended on the rate of wetting, especially during the early stages of capillary filling.
22 There were lots of studies [30-36] on the filling of various liquids (e.g. LJ fluid, polymer, liquid

1 propane and water) into nanochannels (e.g. nanopores, patterned channels and carbon nanotubes) by
2 using MD or lattice Boltzmann simulations. They observed the deviation of the kinetics of imbibition
3 from the LWE and demonstrated the neglect of the DCA in the LWE is responsible for the deviation.
4 Besides the DCA correction, some researchers investigated the effects of slip on the capillary dynamics
5 and proposed the modifications to the LWE. Dimitrov et al. [37], using MD simulations, found for both
6 the simple LJ fluid and polymer melts the meniscus rose according to the LWE after a transient period
7 of a few nanoseconds. For the polymer melt, however, a slip length exhibited. Joly [38] even believed
8 the standard description of capillary filling dynamics had to be modified to account for the liquid/solid
9 slip in nanometric pores based on their MD simulations of dynamics of water uptake by carbon
10 nanotubes. Recently, Bakli and Chakraborty [39] derived a universal analytical depiction of capillary
11 imbibition characteristics of water in nanoscale pores through the realization of a molecularly sensitive
12 closure model for dynamic slip length and they believed the DCA did not play any significant role in
13 their work based on the simulation data of the contact angles which relaxed to the static value within a
14 very short time span.

15 No reports on non-Newtonian liquids in nanoscale pores can be found in literature, especially
16 experimental work, although it is a significant topic. There exists no description of the capillary flow
17 behaviors of non-Newtonian liquids like polymer melts through nanopores that is experimentally and
18 theoretically consistent. In our previous paper [40], the preliminary study showed that the capillary
19 filling of PE melts into nanopores followed the LW model, in which we did not take into account the
20 non-Newtonian characteristics of PE melts. Here we get more fruitful experimental data, and the aim of
21 the present paper is to further clarify the problem of capillary filling of polymer melts in nanopores.
22 We investigate the flow behaviors of the PE melt in AAO nanoporous templates experimentally, and

1 develop a modified LW model of the capillary flow of polymer melts through nanopores based on the
2 experimental results considering the non-Newtonian characteristics. Here, our experiments are on much
3 longer time scale compared with the existing MD studies, which is more instructive to practical
4 applications.

6 **II. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS**

7 Here we use the nanoporous template wetting technique to investigate the capillary flows of PE melts
8 through nanopores. The AAO nanoporous templates used here are purchased from Whatman, Inc.. The
9 templates are freestanding disks with a diameter of 13 mm. Their pores are all through-holes with a
10 length of 60 μm and two batches of diameters of 200 nm and 100 nm. The top view and cross-section
11 images, characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-5500), of the AAO
12 nanoporous template with the pore diameters of 200 nm are given in Fig. 1(a) and 1(b), respectively.
13 The PE films with thickness of about 300 μm , density of 0.945 g/cm^3 are obtained from Qilu Petroleum
14 and Chemical Co. of China.

15 In the experiments, a PE film is placed on the top of the template with a good contact and then put
16 into a chamber in vacuum with the temperature of 130 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ at which the PE film will melt and infiltrate
17 into the nanopores of the template. After a period of time the PE nanowire array with certain thickness
18 can be produced. Choosing different wetting time we get the nanowire arrays with different thicknesses,
19 i.e. the different wetting displacements of the PE melt. Then, the sample is taken out of the chamber
20 and cooled down to ambient temperature. After that, the PE nanowire array is released by removing the
21 template in NaOH aqueous solution and being rinsed with deionized water and ethanol in sequence. At
22 last, the sample is dried at 30 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in vacuum. Here, the thicknesses of the nanowire arrays are surely

1 reflect the nanoflow velocity of the PE melt.

2 The top view and cross-section SEM images of the as-fabricated PE nanowire array generated
3 within the AAO nanoporous template with a pore diameter of 200 nm after being heated at the wetting
4 temperature of 130 °C for 30 min are shown in Fig. 1(c) and 1(d), respectively. By measuring the
5 cross-section SEM image, we can get the thickness of the nanowire array. As to ensure the accuracy of
6 our results, three repeatability experiments for each wetting time are carried out and the final data are
7 obtained by averaging over the three samples as well as more than five positions on each sample. Using
8 this method, we also get the thicknesses of the nanowire arrays generated at other different wetting
9 time.

10 Besides, the dependence of the viscosity of the PE sample used in our experiment on the shear rate
11 at 130 °C is measured by a standard rotor rheometer (Physica MCR300) and the detailed results can be
12 found in Ref [40]. The range of the stress strain rate that the rotor rheometer applies on the sample is
13 consistent with that exists in the nanoflow in our experiment. A comparison is made between the
14 measured values and the Carreau model (CM) [41,42],

$$\eta(\dot{\gamma}) = \frac{\eta_0}{[1 + (\lambda\dot{\gamma})^2]^q}, \quad (2)$$

15 which was developed empirically from the behaviors of complex fluids. In Eq. (2), η_0 is the
16 zero-shear-rate viscosity and the parameter λ is a characteristic time constant, approximately equal to
17 the inverse of the strain rate when shear thinning behavior begins. The fitting parameters are estimated
18 to be $\eta_0=2.95 \times 10^5$ Pa·s, $\lambda=63$ s and $q=0.26$, consistent with the reference [43].

19

20 III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

21 In order to discuss the experimental data of the displacements of the PE melt, we develop a theoretical

1 model first since the classical LWE is applicable only for Newtonian fluids. As shown in Fig. 2, the
 2 effect of the shear rate on the viscosity should be considered for the PE sample which exhibits shear
 3 thinning behavior. Thus, the LWE that is a Newton dynamics equation [19] is not applicable here and
 4 we should derive the dynamics equation for Carreau fluids. Based on the assumption of a quasi-steady
 5 process and unidirectional flow, the equation of motion [44] reads

$$-\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r \tau_{rz}) = 0, \quad (3)$$

6 where z is the axial position, r is the radial position, $\partial p/\partial z$ is the pressure gradient along the cylinder
 7 and τ_{rz} is the shear stress. For Carreau fluids, the shear stress can be described as

$$\tau_{rz} = \eta(\dot{\gamma}) \dot{\gamma} = \frac{\eta_0}{\left[1 + \left(\lambda \frac{\partial v}{\partial r}\right)^2\right]^q} \frac{\partial v}{\partial r}, \quad (4)$$

8 where $\dot{\gamma}$ is the shear rate, v is the velocity in the axial direction. By substituting Eq. (4) into Eq. (3), the
 9 equation of motion can be rewritten as

$$-\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\eta_0}{\left[1 + \left(\lambda \frac{\partial v}{\partial r}\right)^2\right]^q} \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \right) = 0. \quad (5)$$

10 In capillary, the pressure gradient is obtained by taking into account that $p|_{z=0} = 0$ and
 11 $p|_{z=H(t)} = 2\gamma_{LV} \cos \theta / R$:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = \frac{2\gamma_{LV} \cos \theta}{RH(t)}. \quad (6)$$

12 In a quasi-steady process, at certain time t the meniscus height $H(t)$ is a given value. Therefore the
 13 pressure gradient will be a constant. Then, by integrating Eq. (5), we get

$$\eta_0 \frac{dv}{dr} = \frac{\gamma_{LV} r \cos \theta}{RH(t)} \left[1 + \left(\lambda \frac{dv}{dr} \right)^2 \right]^q, \quad (7)$$

1 where $H(t) = v_m t = \frac{2t}{R^2} \int_0^R vr dr$ with the mean velocity v_m . The solution of Eq. (7) can be carried out
 2 numerically through finite differences. Comparing the above derivation with that of the LWE, it can be
 3 seen that if the effect of the shear rate is neglected the solution of Eq. (7) will reduce to the LWE. The
 4 solution is a modified LWE (MLWE) combining the LWE with the rheological model.

5 To obtain the theoretical results, it is crucial to determine the parameters firstly. Here, R is the
 6 pore radius (100 nm or 50 nm). The surface tension of polymer melts can be measured by the pendant
 7 drop method which was firstly reported by Wu [45]. He measured the surface tensions of polymer
 8 melts in the temperature range of 100 °C to 200 °C and the results could be expressed as a function of
 9 temperature. For PE, the function is

$$\gamma_{LV} = 35.562 - 0.057(T - 20), \quad (8)$$

10 where the surface tension value γ_{LV} is in dyn/cm and the temperature T is in °C. Thus, we can get the
 11 surface tension of the PE melt at 130 °C is 29.3 dyn/cm (0.0293 N·m⁻¹). In our study, the capillary
 12 refers to the nanopore of the AAO templates with a high-energy surface, and the polymer melts with
 13 low surface energy can completely wet it. According to the Young's law [46] which can be expressed
 14 as

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\gamma_{SV} - \gamma_{SL}}{\gamma_{LV}}, \quad (9)$$

15 where γ_{SV} , γ_{SL} and γ_{LV} represent the solid-vapor, solid-liquid and liquid-vapor interfacial tensions,
 16 respectively, θ will be a very small value for the complete wetting. Here, we take $\theta=10^\circ$ based on the
 17 property of aluminum oxide. Besides, in order to compare the theoretical results with the experimental
 18 data conveniently, we set the initial condition of the finite-difference procedure same as the
 19 experiments. The theoretical solutions and our experimental data of the displacements of the PE melt
 20 $H(t)$ at different wetting time are shown in Fig. 2. The experimental data in Fig. 2 have been modified

1 to ascertain the starting time is from $t=0$ by both CFD simulations and theoretical analyses of the
2 thermal inertia of the sample.

3 As can be seen in figure 2, the $H(t) - t^{0.5}$ dependence is not linear for both our experimental data
4 and the theoretical solutions of the MLWE. For the LWE, the viscous drag is a linear function of
5 velocity, which results in a linear relationship between $H(t)$ and $t^{0.5}$ [19], while for Carreau fluids the
6 viscous drag is a nonlinear function of velocity, and the dependence of $H(t)$ on $t^{0.5}$ will be nonlinear.
7 Thus, our MLWE instead of the LWE can model the capillary filling dynamics of polymer melts in
8 nanopores. However, it also can be seen in figure 2 that the nanoflow velocity of polymer melts
9 measured in our experiments is much larger than that predicted by the MLWE using the measured
10 parameters. As mentioned before, some corrections, such as the slip [37-39] and DCA [29,30,33], have
11 already been proposed and we will analyze their effects on the nanoflows of polymer melts here.

12 Assuming the wall slip l_s exists in the flow, the velocity at the position apart l_s from the capillary
13 wall equals zero. It is believed that the slip length vanishes for a completely wetting surface, but
14 increases with the contact angle. When the contact angle goes to 180° , the slip length diverges as
15 [47,48]

$$l_s/\sigma \sim 1/(\pi - \theta)^4, \quad (10)$$

16 where l_s is the slip length and σ is the molecular diameter. In our case, the contact angle θ is about 10° .
17 The molecular diameter is taken as the radius of rotation of the polymer chain and for the PE the value
18 is about 5.62 nm [49]. Then, the slip length can be estimated to be about 0.0725 nm. The theoretical
19 solutions considering the effect of the certain wall slip are presented in Fig. 3. It can be seen that the
20 theoretical solutions still deviate far from the experimental data and the wall slip correction of the
21 MLWE is very small, specifically less than 0.5%. Thus, we believe the wall slip cannot explain our

1 experimental results.

2 To discuss the effect of the DCA, two commonly used models (i.e. hydrodynamic and
3 molecular-kinetic models) are employed to calculate the DCA. In the context of the hydrodynamic
4 model, the most complete analysis is the Cox equation [50] as follows:

$$\theta_d = \left(\theta_e^3 + 9A \frac{\eta}{\gamma_{LV}} \frac{dH}{dt} \right)^{1/3} \quad (11)$$

5 and $A = \ln(R/\delta)$, where δ is the slip length of the meniscus, θ_d and θ_e denote the DCA and equilibrium
6 contact angle (ECA), respectively. In our calculations, θ_d and θ_e are often expressed in radian, R and
7 δ are in nm, γ_{LV} is in dyn/cm, η is in mPa·s and dH/dt is in m/s. The contact angle θ mentioned
8 before denotes the ECA. According to the molecular-kinetic (MK) model [18], which excludes the
9 viscous dissipation and takes the solid surface characteristics into account so that the energy dissipation
10 occurs only at the moving contact line, the relationship between θ_d and the velocity of the wetting line
11 dH/dt reads

$$\cos \theta_d = \cos \theta_e - \zeta \frac{\eta}{\gamma_{LV}} \frac{dH}{dt} \quad (12)$$

12 and $\zeta = \frac{nk_B T \Omega_L}{h \kappa_S^0 \lambda}$ is a coefficient of friction per length of the contact line depending on both fluid
13 viscosity and liquid solid interaction, where n is the number of adsorption sites per unit area, k_B is the
14 Boltzmann constant, T is the absolute temperature, Ω_L is the volume of the ‘unit of flow’, h is Planck’s
15 constant, λ is the length of the individual molecular displacements near the contact line, κ_S is the
16 frequency of the individual molecular displacements that occur along its length. Then, by replacing θ in
17 Eq. (7) with θ_d obtained in Eq. (11) or (12), we can obtain the theoretical solution of the MLWE
18 considering the DCA. The slip length of the meniscus δ in the Cox equation and dimensionless
19 parameter ζ in the MK model are the adjustable parameters. Here, we just present one case for each
20 DCA model, which is δ of $d/4$ and ζ of 10. The results are presented in Fig. 3. As shown in figure 3, the

1 theoretical solutions for the two DCA models both deviate far from the experimental data. In our
2 calculations, we also obtain the solutions with the parameters δ and ζ taking other values. The extreme
3 cases are that $\delta=d/2$ and $\zeta=0$ where the DCA is reduced to the ECA. The solutions show that $H(t)$ rises
4 slower in all other cases than in those extreme cases, which is consistent with the reports [29,30,33]
5 and reasonable since the DCA is larger than the ECA. However, even the rise obtained in those
6 extreme cases is found to be much slower than that observed in our experiments. Thus, it is believed
7 the rise predicted by the theoretical solutions considering the DCA cannot be consistent with our
8 experiment results no matter what the values of the parameters δ and ζ take.

9 It is reported that the nanoflow that is constrained by the nanoconfinement of the pore will
10 strongly influence transport coefficients. Cao et al. [13] presented that the thermal conductivities of the
11 PE nanowire arrays prepared in the same way were about 2 orders of magnitude higher than their bulk
12 counterparts. Considering the relevance of the thermal conductivity and viscosity, we believe the
13 zero-shear-rate viscosity of the PE melt will decrease in nanoflows. By fitting the MLWE with the
14 experimental data, we get the zero-shear-rate viscosity η_0 are about 6.35×10^4 Pa·s and 5.25×10^4 Pa·s
15 for the pores with diameters of 200 nm and 100 nm, respectively, which are both smaller than that of
16 the bulk sample measured by rotor rheometer. As can be seen in figure 2, good agreement is observed
17 between the fitted MLWE and the experimental data and the zero-shear-rate viscosity for the pore with
18 a diameter of 100 nm is smaller than that for the 200 nm pore. We believe that the unconventional
19 rheological behavior is induced by the nanoconfinement, i.e. the interaction between polymer chains
20 and the alumina pore's wall with high surface energy, and the confinement is stronger for smaller pores.
21 Based on the investigation of the morphologies of polymers in nanotubes and nanorods, the effect of
22 the spatial confinement on the orientation of the polymer crystals has been reported. It was found that

1 the PE crystals developed in the AAO nanoporous template grew along the long axis of cylindrical
2 nanopores restricted [51]. In addition, it was observed that the crystallites of poly(vinylidene difluoride)
3 (PVDF) grew preferentially in the tube direction when the nanotubes were prepared by wetting the
4 template with PVDF melts and the orientation of the PVDF chains prior to crystallization was
5 speculated to be responsible for the difference in the crystallinity observed [52]. It has also been
6 reported that the PVDF crystallized in the nanotrenches orients with the chain axis parallel to the walls
7 [53]. Besides, the molecular simulations of polymer crystallization confined in rigid nanotubes also
8 showed that the crystal orientation was uniform and parallel to the tube axis [54]. Given the anisotropic
9 structure of polymer crystals described above, the orientation contributed to the nanoconfinement will
10 decrease the viscosity, just like shear thinning.

11

12 **IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS**

13 In this paper, we have studied the flow behaviors of PE melts through nanopores experimentally by
14 using the nanoporous template wetting technique. Based on the experimental results we find the
15 displacement of polymer melts changes nonlinearly with $(\text{time})^{1/2}$, indicating the breakdown of the
16 LWE that predict a linear relationship between the displacement and $(\text{time})^{1/2}$. A modified LWE is
17 proposed by combining the rheological model of shear rate dependent viscosity. Comparing the
18 experimental results and the theoretical solution of the MLWE quantitatively, we observe the decrease
19 of the zero-shear-rate viscosity of polymer melts during their flows through nanopores, which means
20 the polymer melts exhibit unconventional rheological behavior except the shear thinning in the
21 nano-wetting process. As for the underlying mechanism of the unconventional rheological behavior we
22 believe the intrinsic confinement of nanopores plays a dominant role.

1

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1 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

2 FIG. 1 SEM images of the AAO nanoporous template with the pore diameter of 200 nm and the PE
3 nanowire array generated after being heated at 130 °C for 30 min: (a) top view and (b)
4 cross-section of the template; (c) top view and (d) cross-section of the array.

5 FIG. 2 Dependence of displacements of the PE melt on the square root of the wetting time obtained in
6 our experiments and predicted by the MLWE.

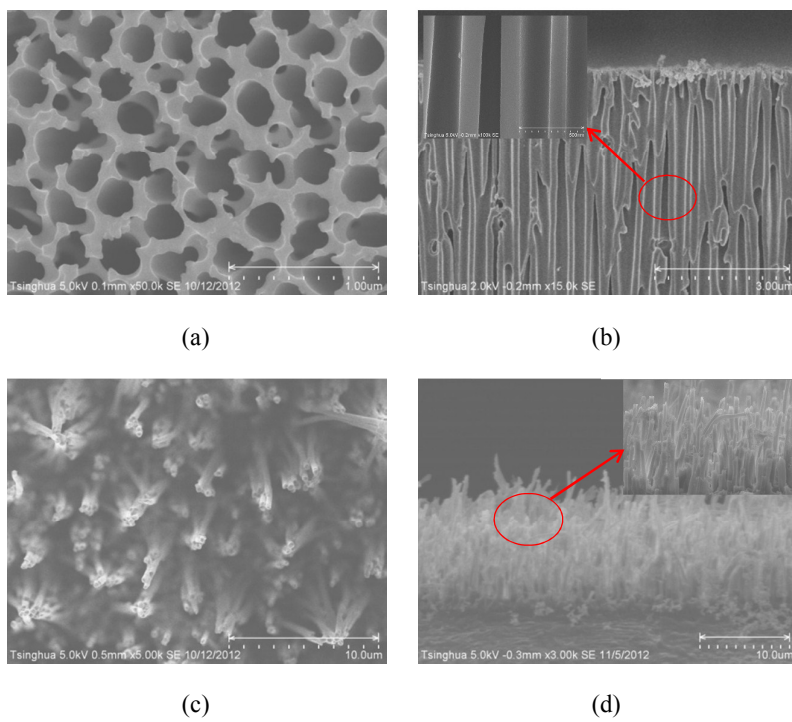
7 FIG. 3 Dependence of displacements of the PE melt on the square root of the wetting time predicted by
8 the MLWE considering the effect of the wall slip or DCA and our experiment data.

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Figure 1

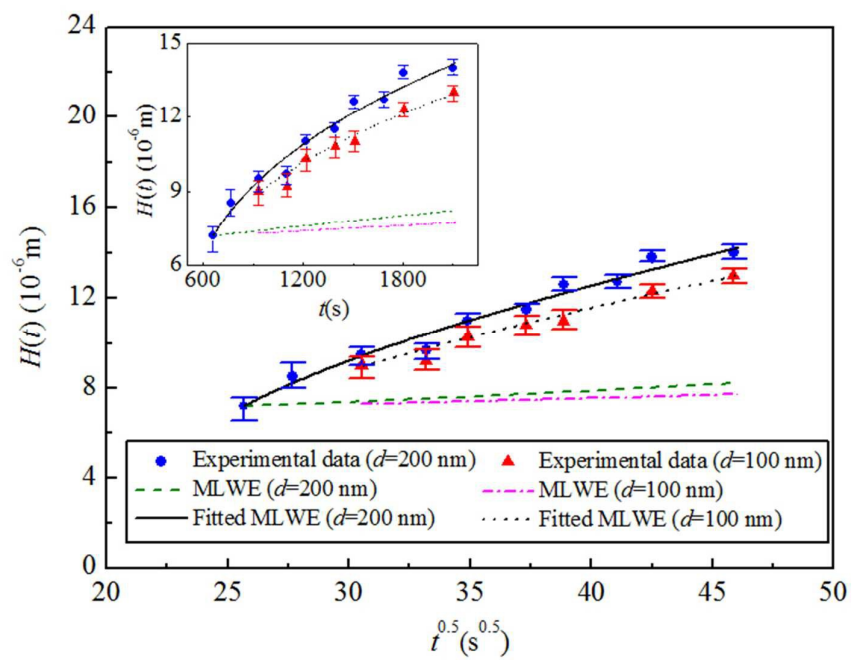
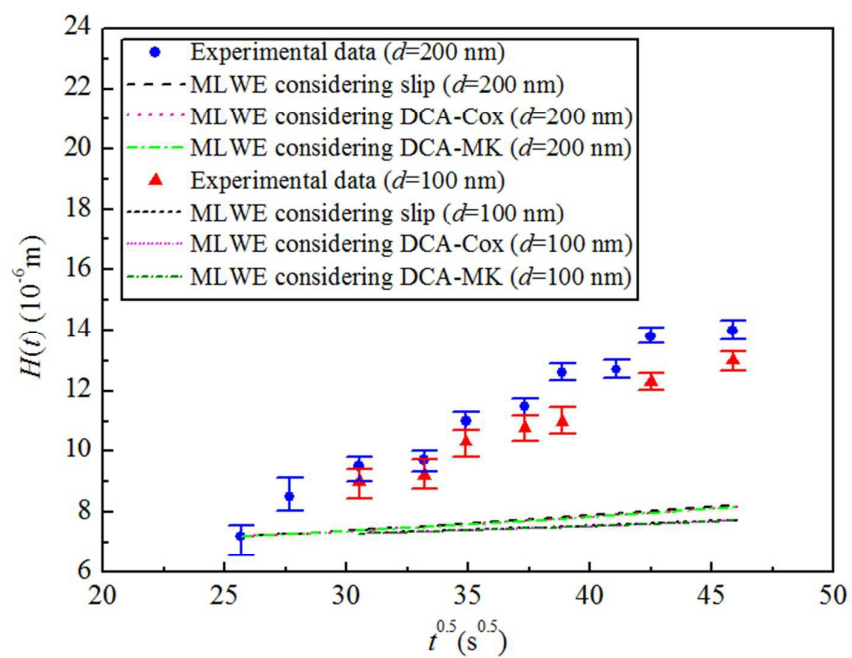
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Figure 2

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Figure 3

The spontaneous capillarity-driven flow behaviors of polyethylene (PE) melts through anodized aluminum oxide (AAO) nanopores suggest that the zero-shear-rate viscosity of the PE melts decreases in their flows, which can be predicted by a modified Lucas-Washburn law that combines the Lucas-Washburn law with the polymer rheological model.

