

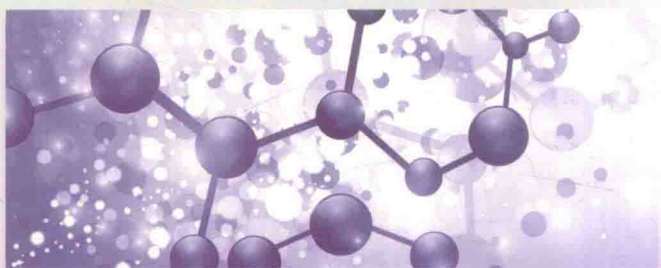


中国轻工业“十三五”规划立项教材
高分子材料与工程专业系列教材

聚合物科学与工程导论 (第二版)

[英汉双语]

INTRODUCTION TO POLYMER
SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING
(SECOND EDITION)



揣成智 主编
万 同 副主编



中国轻工业出版社 | 全国百佳图书出版单位

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前 言

本教材是中国轻工业“十三五”规划立项教材，其前身是《高分子材料工程专业英语》，2010年改名为《聚合物科学与工程导论》，是应中国轻工业出版社委托，及国内二十几所轻工院校高分子材料与工程专业的要求而编写和修订的。自1999年该教材被列为本科生必修专业课程以来，该教材被国内20几所大学列为本科专业必修课程，经过近20年多届学生使用，效果较好。此次修订，除对第一版教材中各章内容，针对近年来的发展变化进行了修改和充实外，还增写了聚合物热分析单元。

本教材分为七个单元共45课，内容涉及聚合物发展史、聚合物科学基本概念、聚合物基础知识、聚合物合成、聚合物性能、聚合物热分析、聚合物材料和聚合物成型加工。

课文正文全部选用英文原版经典教材，使学生真正领会英文原版教材中专业知识的精髓。本教材既可作为高分子材料与工程专业必修的基础课，又可作为该领域专业课的双语教材或专业英语教学用书，也可作为从事高分子材料与工程研究领域的科技人员、教师及研究生提高业务及其专业英语水平的学习参考书。

本教材每课都附有练习题和阅读材料，便于学生对课文内容的理解，其阅读取材丰富，形式灵活，图文并茂、直观生动、深入浅出，简明易懂。每课除正文和阅读材料外，都标出了专业词汇的生词，并注有音标、常用短语和词组，并将课文的难点做了中文注释，可与中文内容对照学习。教材书后列出了总词汇表与术语的中英文对照表，便于查阅。

本教材由天津科技大学的揣成智、万同、褚立强、王彪编写。全书由主编揣成智、副主编万同统稿。

在本教材编写过程中，得到中国轻工业联合会、中国轻工业出版社、天津科技大学及兄弟院校有关领导和同仁的帮助与支持，谨此致谢。

由于水平所限，难免有不足和错漏之处，诚恳希望使用本书的读者批评指正。

编者

2019年3月

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PART 1 INTRODUCTION

Lesson 1 Introduction to History of Polymer Science

Since the Second World War, polymeric materials have been the fastest-growing segments of the world chemical industry. It has been estimated that more than a third of the chemical research money is spent on polymers, with a correspondingly large proportion of technical personnel working in the area.

A modern automobile contains over 150 kg of plastics, and this does not include paints, the rubber in tires, or the fibers in tires and upholstery. New aircraft incorporate increasing amounts of polymers and polymer-based composites. With the need to save fuel and therefore weight, polymers will continue to replace traditional materials in the automotive and aircraft industries. Similarly, the applications of polymers in the building construction industry (piping, resilient flooring, siding, thermal and electrical insulation, paints, decorative laminates) are already impressive, and will become even more so in the future. A trip through a supermarket will quickly convince anyone of the importance of polymers in the packaging industry (bottles, films, trays). Many other examples could be cited, but to make a long story short, the use of polymers now outstrips that of metals on a mass basis.

People have objected to synthetic polymers because they are not “natural.” Well, botulism is natural, but it’s not particularly desirable. Seriously, if all the polyester and nylon fibers in use today were to be replaced by cotton and wool, their closest natural counterparts, calculations show that there wouldn’t be enough arable land left to feed the populace^① and we’d be overrun by sheep. The fact is there simply are no practical natural substitutes for many of the synthetic polymers used in modern society.

Since nearly all modern polymers have their origins in petroleum, it has been argued that this increased reliance on polymers constitutes an unnecessary drain on energy resources. However, the raw materials for polymers account for less than two percent of total petroleum and natural gas consumption, so even the total elimination of synthetic polymers would not contribute significantly to the conservation of hydrocarbon resources. Furthermore, when total energy costs (raw materials plus energy to manufacture and ship) are compared, the polymeric item often comes out well ahead of its traditional counterpart, e. g., glass vs. plastic beverage bottles. In addition, the manufacturing processes used to produce polymers often generate considerably less environ-

mental pollution than the processes used to produce the traditional counterparts, e. g., polyethylene film vs. kraft paper for packaging.

Ironically, one of the most valuable properties of polymers, their chemical inertness, causes problems because polymers do not normally degrade in the environment. As a result, they contribute increasingly to litter and the consumption of scarce landfill space^②. Progress is being made toward the solution of these problems. Environmentally degradable polymers are being developed, although this is basically a wasteful approach and we're not yet sure of the impact of the degradation products. Burning polymer waste for its fuel value makes more sense, because the polymers retain essentially the same heating value as the raw hydrocarbons from which they were made. Still, the polymers must be collected and this approach wastes the value added in manufacturing the polymers.

The ultimate solution is recycling. If waste polymers are to be recycled, they must first be collected. Unfortunately, there are literally dozens (maybe hundreds) of different polymers in the waste mix, and mixed polymers have mechanical properties about like cheddar cheese. Thus, for anything but the least-demanding applications (e. g., parking bumpers, flower pots), the waste mix must be separated prior to recycling. To this end, automobile manufacturers are attempting to standardize on a few well-characterized plastics that can be recovered and re-used when the car is scrapped. Many objects made of the large-volume commodity plastics now have molded-in identifying marks, allowing hand sorting of the different materials.

Processes have been developed to separate the mixed plastics in the waste. The simplest of these is a sink-float scheme which takes advantage of density differences among the various plastics. Unfortunately, many plastic items are foamed, plated, or filled (mixed with nonpolymer components), which complicates density-based separations. Other separation processes are based on solubility differences between various polymers. An intermediate approach chemically degrades the waste polymer to the starting materials from which new polymer can be made.

1. New words

paint [peɪnt] *n.* 颜料, 油漆

rubber [ˈrʌbər] *n.* 橡胶

upholstery [ʌpˈhəʊlstəri] *n.* 室内装饰品

aircraft [ˈeɪkrɑːft] *n.* 航空器

siding [ˈsaɪdɪŋ] *n.* 板壁

polyester [ˌpɒliˈestər] *n.* 聚酯

nylon [ˈnaɪlən] *n.* 尼龙

botulism [ˈbɒtjʊlɪzəm] *n.* 肉毒中毒(食物中毒的一种)

counterpart [ˈkaʊntəpɑːt] *n.* 对应物

arable [ˈærəbl] *adj.* 可耕的, 可开垦的

overrun [ˌəʊvəˈrʌn] *n.* 超出限度; *vt. & vi.* 泛滥

petroleum [piˈtrɔːliəm] *n.* 石油

hydrocarbon [ˈhaɪdrəʊˈkɑːbən] *n.* 烃, 碳氢化合物

beverage [ˈbevərɪdʒ] *n.* 饮料

polyethylene [ˌpɒliˈeθiliːn] *n.* 聚乙烯

degrade [di'greɪd] *vt. & vi.* (使)降解,
(使)退化

scarce [skɛəs] *adj.* 缺乏的,不足的

landfill ['lændfɪl] *n.* 垃圾,垃圾掩埋法

bumper ['bʌmpə] *n.* 缓冲器

component [kəm'pəʊnənt] *adj.* 组成的,合成的,成分的,分量的

cheddar ['tʃedə] *n.* 干酪的一种

2. Phrases and expressions

polymer-based composites 聚合物基复合材料

resilient floor 弹性地板

electrical insulation 电绝缘

decorative laminates 装饰层压板

packaging industry 包装工业

energy resource 能源

raw material 原材料

account for 占,说明

kraft paper 牛皮纸

3. Notes to the text

①People have objected to synthetic polymers because they're not "natural." Well, botulism is natural, but it's not particularly desirable. Seriously, if all the polyester and nylon fibers in use today were to be replaced by cotton and wool, their closest natural counterparts, calculations show that there wouldn't be enough arable land left to feed the populace, …… 人们反感合成聚合物是因为合成聚合物不是“天然产物”。然而,食物中毒也是一种自然现象,但它却不是人们所需要的。严格说来,如果现今使用的聚酯和尼龙纤维都由棉花和羊毛这些自然界中最相近的纤维来替代,则有计算表明留给人类可耕种的土地将满足不了人们的粮食需要了。

②As a result, they contribute increasingly to litter and the consumption of scarce landfill space. 结果,垃圾日益增加,垃圾场日渐减少。

4. Exercises

(1) Consider the room you're in.

a. Identify the items in it that are made of polymers.

b. What would you make those items of if there were no polymers?

c. Why do you suppose polymers were chosen over competing materials (if any) for each particular application?

(2) Repeat Problem 1 for your automobile. Don't forget to look under the hood.

(3) You wish to develop a polymer to replace glass in window glazing. What properties must a polymer have for that application?

Reading Material

History of Macromolecular Science

Natural polymers have been utilized throughout the ages. Since his beginning man

has been dependent upon animal and vegetable matter for sustenance, shelter, warmth, and other requirements and desires. Natural resins and gums have been used for thousands of years. Asphalt was utilized in pre-Biblical times; amber was known to the ancient Greeks; and gum mastic was used by the Romans.

In the search by the early organic chemists for pure compounds in high yields, many polymeric substances were discovered and as quickly discarded as oils, tars, or undistillable residues. A few of these materials, however, attracted interest. Poly(ethylene glycol) was prepared about 1860; the individual polymers with degree of polymerization up to 6 were isolated and their structures correctly assigned. The concept of extending the structure to very high molecular weights by continued condensation was understood.

Other condensation polymers were prepared in succeeding decades. As the molecular aggregation theories gained in popularity, structures involving small rings held together by secondary bond forces were often assigned to these products^①.

Some vinyl polymers were also discovered. Styrene was polymerized as early as 1839, isoprene in 1879, and methacrylic acid in 1880. Again cyclic structures held together by "partial valences" were assigned.

Acceptance of the macromolecular hypothesis came about in the 1920's, largely because of the efforts of Staudinger, who received the Nobel Prize in 1953 for his championship of this viewpoint^②. In 1920 he proposed long-chain formulas for polystyrene, rubber, and polyoxymethylene. His extensive investigations of the latter polymers left no doubt as to their long-chain nature. More careful molecular weight measurements substantiated Staudinger's conclusions, as did x-ray studies showing structures for cellulose and other polymers which were compatible with chain formulas. The outstanding series of investigations by Carothers beginning in 1929 supplied quantitative evidence substantiating the macromolecular viewpoint.

One deterrent to the acceptance of the macromolecular theory was the problem of the ends of the long-chain molecules. Since the degree of polymerization of a typical polymer is several hundred, chemical methods for detecting end groups were at first not successful. Staudinger suggested that no end groups were needed to saturate terminal valences of the long chains; they were considered to be unreactive because of the size of the molecules. Large ring structures were also hypothesized; and this concept was popular for many years. Not until Flory elucidated the mechanism for chain-reaction polymerization did it become clear that the ends of long-chain molecules consist of normal, satisfied valence structures^③. The presence and nature of end groups have since been investigated in detail by chemical methods.

Staudinger was among the first to recognize the large size of polymer molecules, and to utilize the dependence on molecular weight of a physical property, such as dilute

solution viscosity, for determining polymer molecular weights. He also understood clearly that synthetic polymers are polydisperse. A few years later, Lansing and Kraemer distinguished unmistakably among the various average molecular weights obtainable experimentally.

Staudinger's name is also associated with the first studies of the configuration of polymer chain atoms. He showed that the phenyl groups in polystyrene are attached to alternate chain carbon atoms. This regular head-to-tail configuration has since been established for most vinyl polymers. The mechanism for producing branches in normally linear vinyl polymers was introduced by Flory but such branches were not adequately identified and characterized for another decade. Natta first recognized the presence of stereospecific regularity in vinyl polymers.

1. New words

gum [gʌm] *n.* 胶
 asphalt [ˈæsfælt] *n.* 沥青, 柏油
 amber [ˈæmbə] *n.* 琥珀
 tar [tɑː] *n.* 焦油
 vinyl [ˈvaɪnɪl] *n.* 乙烯基
 styrene [ˈstaiəriːn] *n.* 苯乙烯
 glycol [ˈglaiːkəl] *n.* 乙二醇
 isoprene [aɪˈsəʊpriː] *n.* 异戊二烯
 methacrylic [meˈθækriːlɪk] *adj.* 甲基丙烯类的
 polystyrene [ˌpɒliˈstaiəriːn] *n.* 聚苯乙烯
 polyoxymethylene [ˌpɒli,ɒksiˈmeθiliːn] *n.* 聚甲醛

cellulose [ˈseljʊləʊs] *n.* 纤维素
 deterrent [diˈterənt] *n.* 阻碍物
 viscosity [vɪsˈkɒsɪti] *n.* 黏度
 distillable [dɪsˈtɪləbl] *adj.* 可由蒸馏而得的
 residuum [rɪˈzɪdjuəm] *n.* 剩余, 残滓
 polydisperse [ˌpɒlɪdɪsˈpɜːs] *adj.* 多分散性的
 phenyl [ˈfenɪl] *n.* 苯基
 configuration [kənˌfɪɡjʊˈreɪʃən] *n.* 构型
 stereospecific [ˌstiəriəʊspəˈsɪfɪk] *adj.* 有立体构定向的
 elucidate [ɪˈljʊːseɪt] *vt.* 阐明

2. Phrases and expressions

ethylene glycol 乙二醇
 degree of polymerization 聚合度
 molecular weight 分子量
 secondary bond 次合键, 次价力键
 methacrylic acid 甲基丙烯酸, 丙烯酸

long-chain 长链
 end group 端基
 chain-reaction 链式反应
 dilute solution viscosity 稀溶液黏度
 head-to-tail configuration 头尾构型

3. Notes to the text

① As the molecular aggregation theories gained in popularity, structures involving small rings held together by secondary bond forces were often assigned to these products. 由于分子缔合理论当时很盛行, 人们经常把这些产品的结构看成是由次合键力结合起来的小环。

②Acceptance of the macromolecular hypothesis came about in the 1920's, largely because of the efforts of Staudinger, who received the Nobel Prize in 1953 for his championship of this viewpoint. 主要由于 Staudinger 的努力,20 世纪 20 年代高分子假说才被人们接受。由于他对这个观点的大力支持和提倡,1953 年他被授予诺贝尔奖。

③Not until Flory elucidated the mechanism for chain-reaction polymerization did it become clear that the ends of long-chain molecules consist of normal, satisfied valence structures. 直到 Flory 澄清链式反应聚合机理以后,人们才弄清楚长链分子反应末端是正常的价键结构。

Lesson 2 Basic Concepts of Polymer Science

Almost half a century ago, Wolfgang Ostwald coined the phrase “the land of neglected dimensions” to describe the range of sizes between molecular and macroscopic within which occur most colloidal particles. The term “neglected dimensions” might have been applied equally well to the world of polymer molecules, the high-molecular-weight compounds so important to man and his modern technology. It was not until the third decade of this century that the science of high polymers began to emerge, and the major growth of the technology of these materials came even later. Yet today polymer dimensions are neglected no more, for industries associated with polymeric materials employ more than a third of all American chemists and chemical engineers.

The science of macromolecules is divided between biological and nonbiological materials. Each is of great importance. Biological polymers form the very foundation of life and intelligence, and provide much of the food on which man exists. This book, however, is concerned with the chemistry, physics, and technology of nonbiological polymers. These are primarily the synthetic materials used for plastics, fibers, and elastomers, but a few naturally occurring polymers, such as rubber, wool, and cellulose, are included. Today, these substances are truly indispensable to mankind, being essential to his clothing, shelter, transportation, and communication, as well as to the conveniences of modern living.

A polymer is a large molecule built up by the repetition of small, simple chemical units. In some cases the repetition is linear, much as a chain is built up from its links. In other cases the chains are branched or interconnected to form three-dimensional networks^①. The repeat unit of the polymer is usually equivalent or nearly equivalent to the monomer, or starting material from which the polymer is formed. Thus the repeat unit of poly(vinyl chloride) is $-\text{CH}_2\text{CHCl}-$; its monomer is vinyl chloride, $\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCl}$.

The length of the polymer chain is specified by the number of repeat units in the chain. This is called the degree of polymerization. The molecular weight of the polymer is the product of the molecular weight of the repeat unit and the degree of polymerization^②. Using poly(vinyl chloride) as an example, a polymer of degree of polymerization 1,000 has a molecular weight of $63 \times 1,000 = 63,000$. Most high polymers useful for plastics, rubbers, or fibers have molecular weights between 10,000 and 1,000,000.

Unlike many products whose structure and reactions were well known before their industrial application, some polymers were produced on an industrial scale long before their chemistry or physics was studied. Empiricism in recipes, processes, and control