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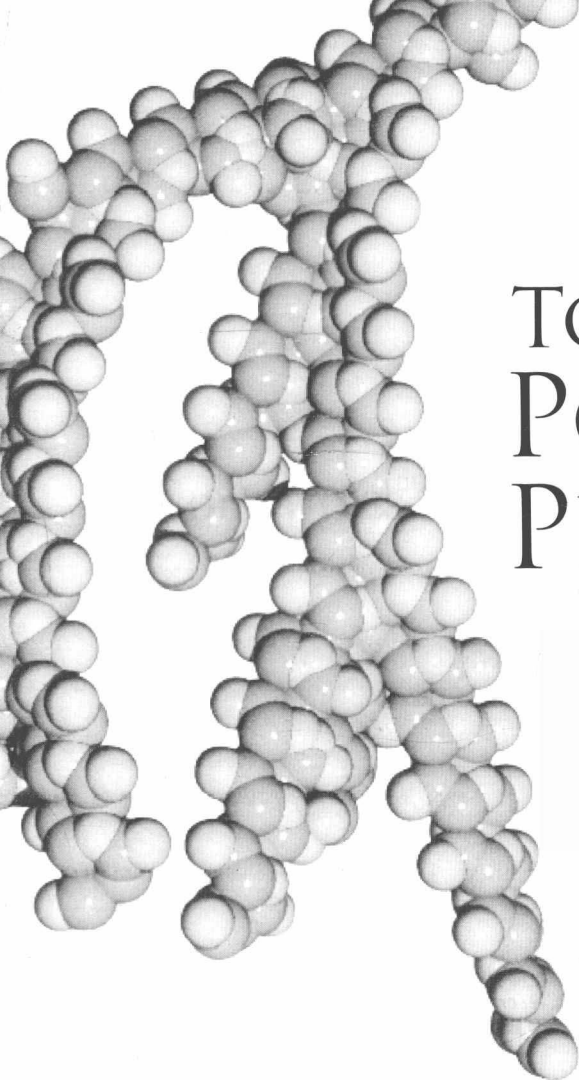# POLYMER
# PHYSICS

## RICHARD S STEIN
## JOSEPH POWERS

# TOPICS IN POLYMER PHYSICS

## RICHARD S STEIN
Goessmann Professor of Chemistry, Emeritus
University of Massachusetts, Amherst

## JOSEPH POWERS
United Technologies Corporation, retired

Imperial College Press

**TOPICS IN POLYMER PHYSICS**

# TOPICS IN
# POLYMER
# PHYSICS

**TO OUR WIVES**

**JUDY BALISE STEIN**

**MARY GRIFFIN POWERS**

# Preface

This book can serve as an introduction to students interested in learning the techniques used in developing mathematical models of physical phenomenon; or it can furnish the background information to the experienced professional desiring to broaden his/her knowledge of polymers.

The senior author presented material in this book to students interested in learning the fundamental mathematics underlying many areas of polymer physics and in lectures to audiences with varying backgrounds in polymer physics.

The material in this book should prove helpful to readers who have knowledge of introductory mathematics, chemistry and physics.

The text emphasizes the derivation of many equations used in Polymer Physics. The assumptions used in modeling, and in making the mathematical apparatus solvable in closed form, are presented in detail. Too many times, the basic equations are presented in final form in journal articles and books from either lack of space or the assumption that the derivation is widely disseminated and does not require repetition.

The fundamentals of any discipline have to be constantly tested against new findings. This book presents the assumptions and simplifications of the fundamentals of many areas of Polymer Physics so that the testing process can be expedited.

The authors have discussed this material with many colleagues and in return received many pertinent suggestions for improvement. These include Philip Wilson, Mohan Srinivasaro, Hiromichi Kawai, Shigeharu Onogi, Garth Wilkes, Takeji Hashimoto and Marion Rhodes, James J. Burke and many others who attended courses or collaborated with Professor Stein in research projects.

The improvements belong to our colleagues. The residual factual errors, typos and other problems belong to the authors.

For supplementary material, corrections and communications with us, please visit http://web.mac.com/rsstein1/iWeb

# Contents

Chapter 1

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Background

The concept of long chain molecules in which the atoms forming the backbone are bonded by strong primary valence forces, usually covalent in nature, is the foundation of polymer science. Until relatively recently, chemistry, which is the study of molecules in all their ramifications, emphasized the study of small molecules. These could be readily purified to yield materials with constant composition and well characterized properties. Naturally occurring polymers, such as natural rubber or cellulose, did not fit into this framework of small well-characterized molecules [1]. Many investigators considered that the naturally occurring polymers constituted a fourth state of matter, essentially colloidal in nature, because these materials did not seem to obey the laws derived for gases, liquids, or solids as these laws were then understood. The assertion that, since rubber and cellulose were the products of living organisms, a vital principle, not amenable to physico-chemical laws, was involved reinforced this viewpoint.

Based on chemical evidence, Staudinger [2], in the early 1920s, was the first investigator to strongly advocate long, linear chain structures for polystyrene, polyoxymethylene, and natural rubber. During this time span, x-ray diffraction developed as a tool for determining the structure of molecules. The diffraction photographs of natural rubber and cellulose taken by Meyer and Mark were interpreted as showing that these polymers did have long chain structures [3]. Carothers furnished a key argument, based on purely chemical reasoning, in favor of the view that polymers, in the main, were composed of long linear chains. By the late

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1920s, organic chemists had accumulated a large store of knowledge on the reaction conditions, products, yields and structures of many small monomeric molecules involved in organic chemical reactions. For example, the reaction between an amine and an organic acid was known to produce an amide with the elimination of a molecule of water:

$$R_1NH_2 + HOOCR_2 \rightarrow R_1NHCOR_2 + H_2O$$
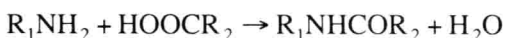
($R_1$, $R_2$ being typically methyl, ethyl or other aliphatic radicals). Carothers reasoned that, if both molecules were difunctional (i.e., two amine groups on $R_1$ and two organic acid groups on $R_2$), sites would be available for further reactions:

$$H_2NR_1NH_2 + HOOCR_2COOH \rightarrow H_2NR_1NHCOR_2COOH + H_2O$$

The reaction would continue until the starting materials (difunctional amines and organic acids) were exhausted. Thus, a long chain polymer structure could be synthesized using a well known and well understood organic chemical reaction. In a classic series of investigations [4], Carothers and a small group of co-workers were able to demonstrate that this and similar chemical reactions produced long linear chain molecules. As a point of interest, Carothers produced nylon 66 by using $C_6H_{12}$ (hexamethylene) for $R_1$ and $C_4H_8$ for $R_2$. Carothers [4] coined the term condensation polymers for the long chain molecules produced by these reactions because the elimination of small molecules such as water condensed the length of the polymer repeat unit compared to that of the starting molecules. Conversely, Carothers called polymers such as polystyrene and polyoxymethylene addition polymers because the monomer units add through the opening of double bonds. Thus, these latter polymers added monomers during formation with no elimination of small molecules.

Many of these linear chain polymers have the advantage for characterization that they are soluble in organic solvents. This has aided greatly, as will be shown later, in the analysis of chain structures and reaction mechanisms and the determination of molecular weight. Most linear polymers, both condensation and addition, also reversibly soften and flow on heating and conversely harden and become rigid on cooling. These materials are sometimes called thermoplastics because they flow

at sufficiently high temperatures. This thermal characteristic is used to advantage in reprocessing these polymers. The thermoplastics did not become commercially available, with a few exceptions such as cellulose acetate, polystyrene, poly(methyl methacrylate), until after World War II. A second class of polymeric materials (thermosets) had been introduced earlier (ca. 1910) starting with the phenol-formaldehyde polymers developed by Leo Baekeland [5]. Thermosets are composed of non-linear polymer chains (based on a functionality of 3 or more) that combine chemically to form three dimensional network polymers. They are soluble and fusible only up through the intermediate stages of polymerization. Once polymerization is complete, the thermosets form hard infusible insoluble structures that soften on heating over a temperature range. The average temperature for the range is called the glass temperature. On heating to higher temperatures, thermosets decompose because of their network structure. The lack of solubility and general intractability rendered thermosets difficult to study from a fundamental standpoint.

Elastomers or rubbers represent an intermediate stage in terms of functionality between thermoplastics and thermosets. Elastomeric behavior in polymers originates from a special type of chain structure. This point is discussed more fully in Chapter 7. Elastomers to be useful articles of commerce require a controlled number of crosslinks (chemical bonds between neighboring chains). Natural rubber (and its progeny, the synthetic rubbers, spawned during and after World War II) elongates readily to several times its original length on the application of a small force and readily retracts with release of the applied force. But, unless it is crosslinked, rubber will tend to flow on being held at high elongations and gradually lose its ability to retract. Goodyear [6] found in the 1830s that, upon adding sulfur to natural rubber latex and heating, the coagulated latex changed from a flowable gum to a retractive elastic material. He also observed that the hardness of natural rubber ranged from a soft crepe rubber (essentially thermoplastic) on small sulfur additions to hard infusible rubber (or thermoset) with large sulfur additions.
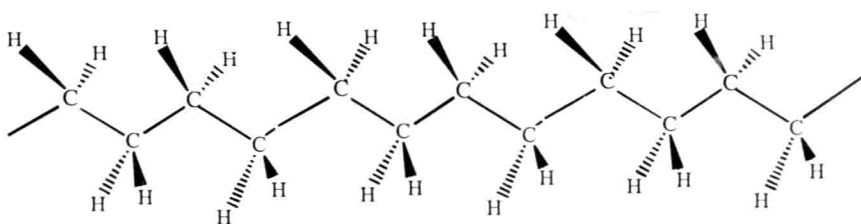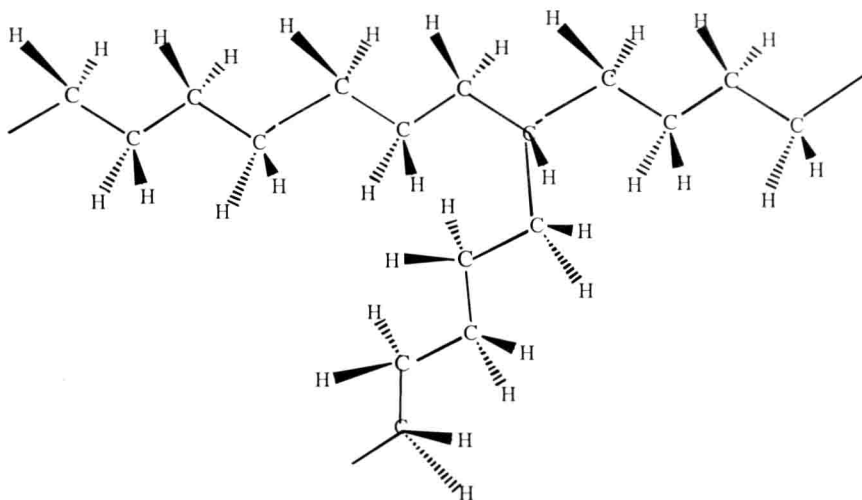
Figure 1.1a. Linear Polyethylene.



Figure 1.1b. Branched Polyethylene.

## 1.2. Linear Chain Molecules

### 1.2.1. Structure

Polyethylene, the prototype or model chain for linear addition polymers, is composed of ethylene monomer units linked by covalent bonds to form long chains (Figure 1.1a.) But, this linear chain was only produced in the mid 50's by the Ziegler–Natta catalysts. Before this, the Fawcett process that required high pressure and temperature produced a polyethylene chain that contained many small side chains or branches attached by covalent bonds to the main chain (Figure 1.1b). Nuclear

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