

Polymer Fundamentals

Overview

Types of Polymers

Polymer Synthesis

Molecular Architecture

Rosen Chapters

II, III, IV, IX, X, XI, XII

1. The first part of the document is a list of names and addresses.

2. The second part of the document is a list of names and addresses.

3. The third part of the document is a list of names and addresses.

Types of Polymers

Greek "polys" → many
 "meros" → parts

Structure. Polyethylene (PE)

Linear



HDPE

Branched



short-chain branching
 (linear Low Density PE)
 LLDPE



Long-chain branched
 (Low density PE)
 LDPE

Homopolymer



Polymer composed of only one repeating unit.



Copolymer

repeating unit from two or more monomers

random AABABBAABBAB (ideal)

Alternating ABABABABAB

block AAAAABBBBB AAAAABBBBB

diblock AAAAAABBBBBBBB

triblock AAAAAABBBBBBCC

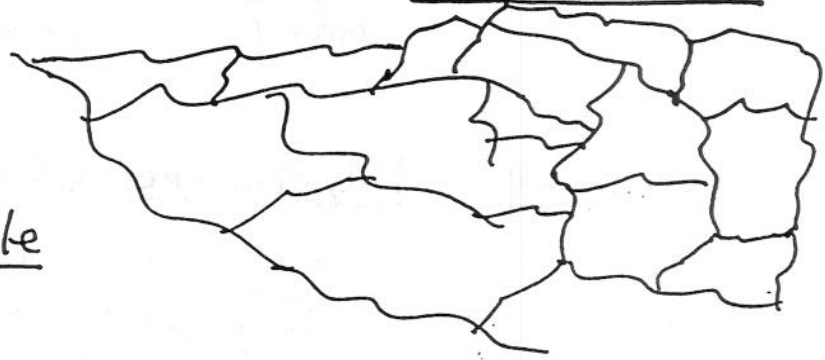
graft AAAAAAAA
 BBBBBB BBBBBB

Polymer Definitions.

Crosslinked (Network)

Covalent Bond.

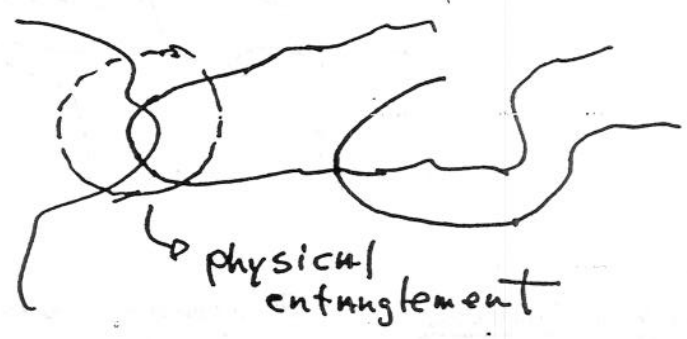
one giant molecule



Example: Rubber (Elastomer)

* entanglement. *

Physical Crosslink.



thermo plastic :

- soften and flow upon heating
- can be re-melted and reformed repeatedly.
- most commercial polymers are thermo plastics (PE, PS, PET, etc.)

thermosets :

- materials which do NOT Flow upon heating
- usually crosslinked materials
- Examples: vulcanized rubber tires rubber bands

Scanned with CamScanner

Polymer Definitions.

Amorphous (glassy) Polymer. [CLEAR]

- non-crystalline polymers or non-crystalline regions in a polymer.



e.g., PS, PVC
 Polycarbonate (PC)
 Polymethylmethacrylate
 PMMA → Plexiglas®

Crystalline Polymer. [translucent]

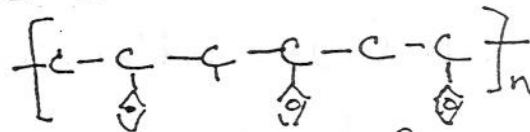
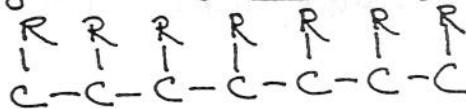
- highly ordered regions in polymer.
- NO polymers are 100% crystalline — there are ALWAYS some amorphous tie regions



* Semi-Crystalline Polymer

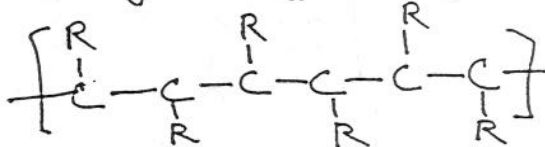
Tacticity ARRANGEMENT OF pendant groups in space.

isotactic

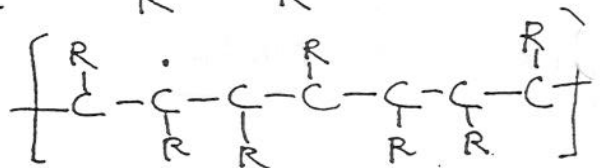


isotactic PS

syndiotactic

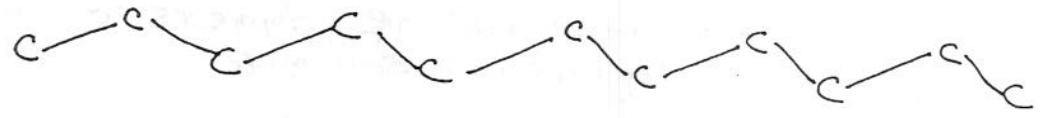


Atactic (RANDOM)



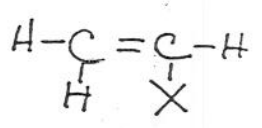
Stereoisomerism

Polyethylene $\left[-\underset{|}{\overset{|}{\text{C}}}-\underset{|}{\overset{|}{\text{C}}} \right]_n$ Symmetrical, tetra.

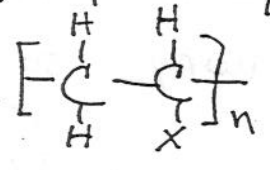


PLANAR "Zig-Zag" conformation

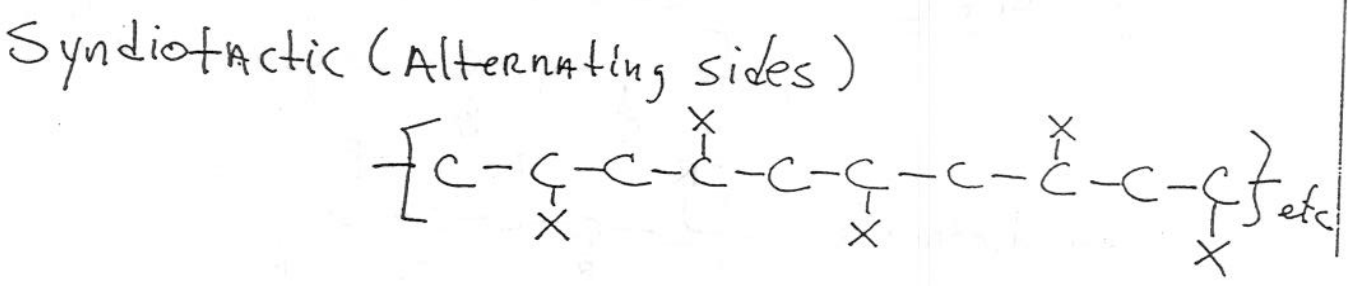
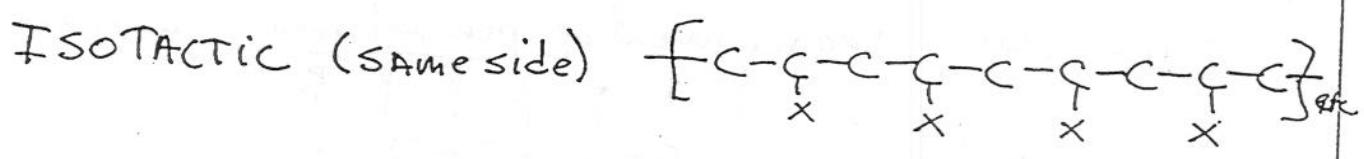
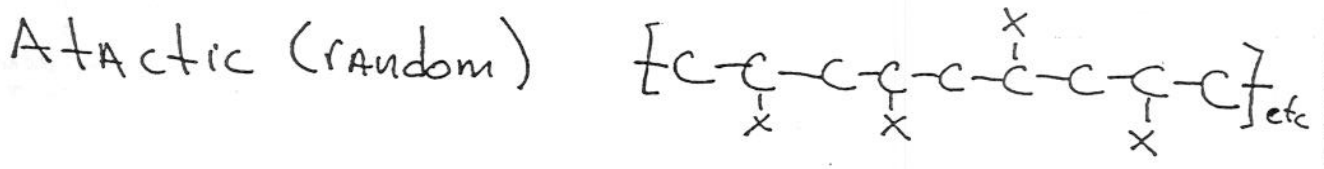
Vinyl Monomers



- polymerize in head-to-tail fashion $\circ\circ$
 X group always on every other C group.



TACTICITY : ARRANGEMENT of pendant groups in space.

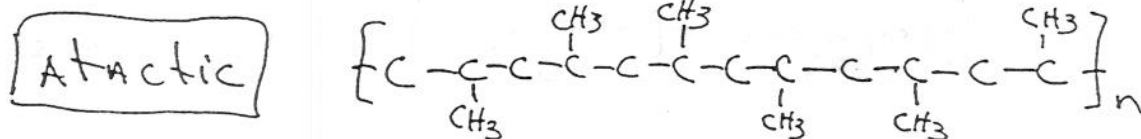


DR. Giulio Natta - 1964 Nobel Prize in Chemistry for work in this AREA.

22-141 50 SHEETS
22-142 100 SHEETS
22-144 200 SHEETS
AMPAD

Stereo regularity (or lack of it) effects Mechanical Properties

Example: Polypropylene (PP) $\left[\text{C}-\underset{\text{CH}_3}{\text{C}} \right]_n$



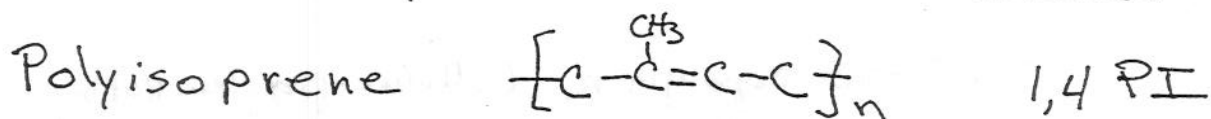
• consistency of chewing gum. (Amorphous)

isotactic or syndiotactic \rightarrow hard, rigid plastics (semi-crystalline)

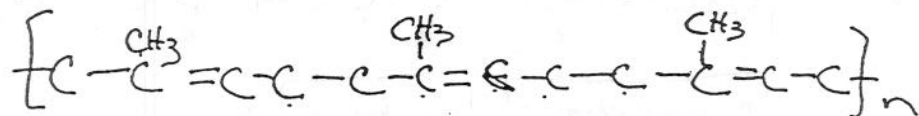
Which forms used for PP bottles?

Stereoisomerism in Diene Polymers

• due to inability to rotate around double bond.

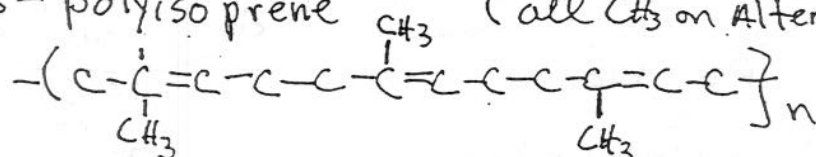


Cis-polyisoprene (all CH₃ groups on same side)



• natural rubber (rubber bands)

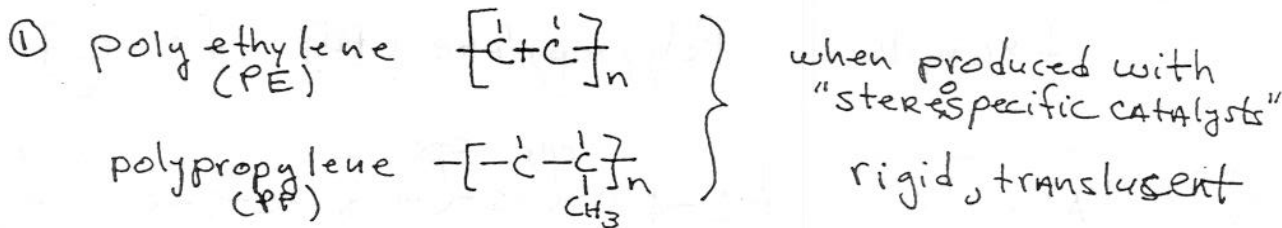
TRANS-polyisoprene (all CH₃ on alternating sides)



• gutta-percha rubber (tough, not elastic) - golf ball covers

Example 5.3 (ROSEN) Effect of Crystallinity on Mechanical Properties and Optical Properties

Facts.

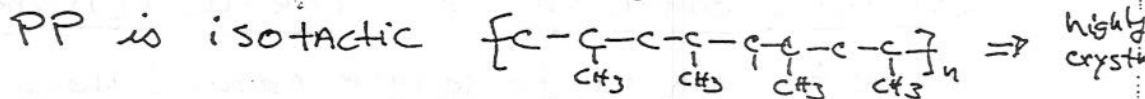


• 65-35 copolymer of PE/PP is a soft, translucent rubber

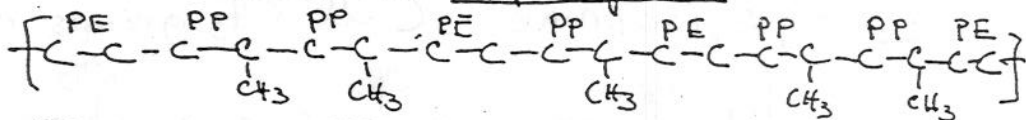
② A plastic which is rigid and translucent (similar to PE or PP) is composed of 65% E and 35% P units.

Question: How can this be true?

① PE is linear \Rightarrow highly crystalline

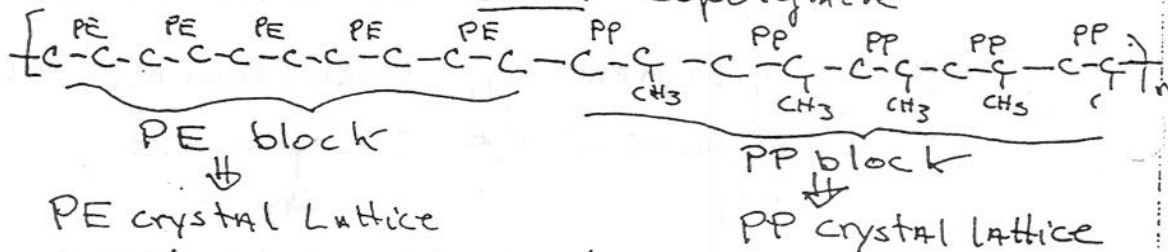


• 65-35 copolymer (ethylene-propylene rubber EPR) is a Random Copolymer.



Amorphous, rubbery material

② 65-35 EPR \Rightarrow Block copolymer:



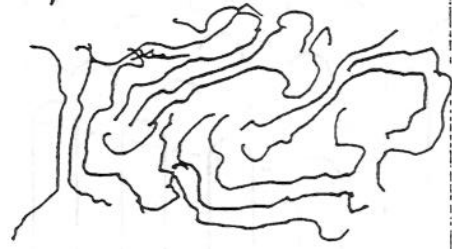
• rigid, translucent

Polymer Morphology (Rosen, ch. V)

Amorphous vs Crystalline (semi-)

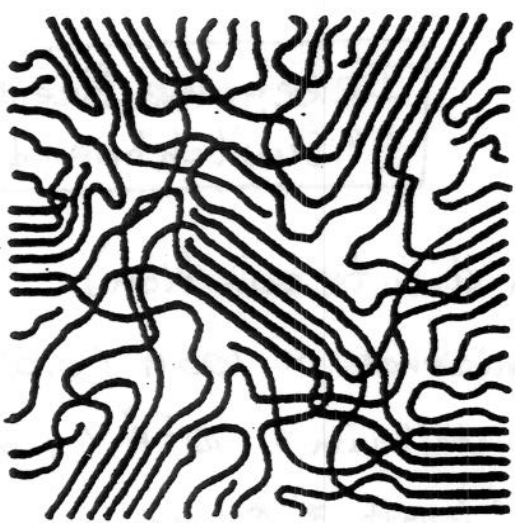


entangled, random coil

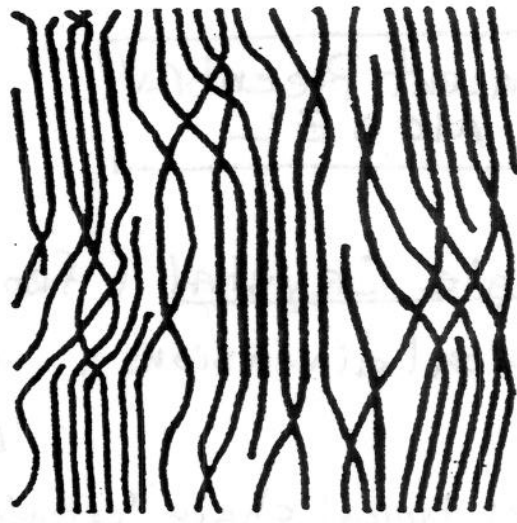


entangled, Aligned regions

Fringed Micelle Model.



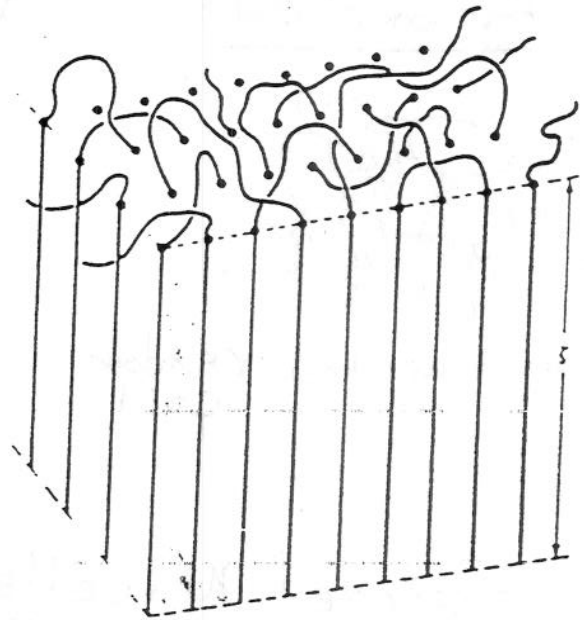
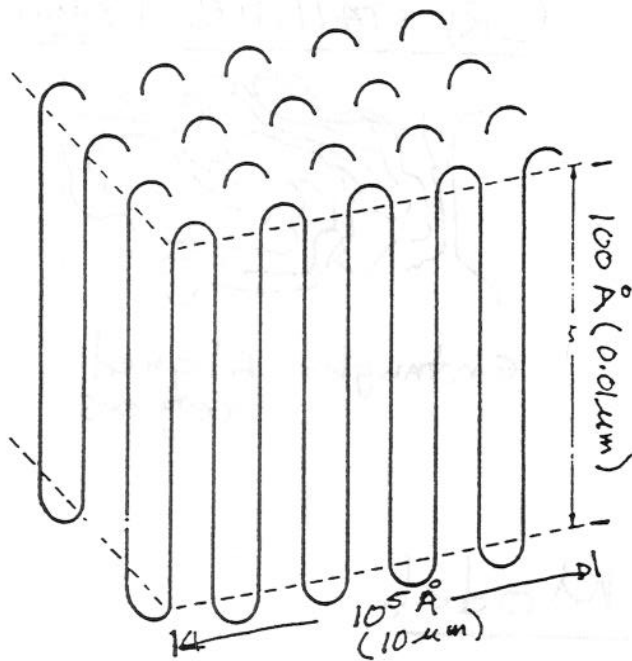
UNORIENTED



ORIENTED
(stress field)

- "ORDERED DOMAINS" connected by "Amorphous" regions
- origin of the SEMI-CRYSTALLINE nature
- typical (high) crystallinity $\approx 85\%$
- effect of crystallinity on MECHANICAL Properties similar to cross-linking (but can be melted)

Lamellar Crystals (Chain Folded Model)



Adjacent Reentry
MODEL

Irregular Reentry
("Switchboard")

Single Crystal (from dilute solution)

- typical dimensions: thickness $\approx 100 \text{ \AA}$ ($0.01 \mu\text{m}$)
Length/Width $\approx 10^5 \text{ \AA}$ ($10 \mu\text{m}$)

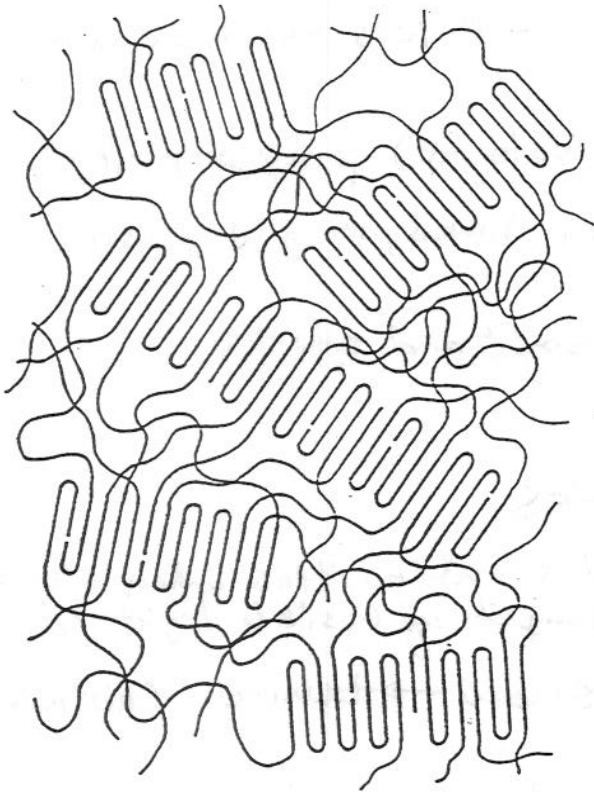
* Note: typical chain "extended" length $\approx 0.1 \mu\text{m}$.

Bulk (Melt) Crystallized.

- typical dimension: up to $1 \mu\text{m}$ (10^4 \AA) thick.
- MOST often "switch board" Reentry

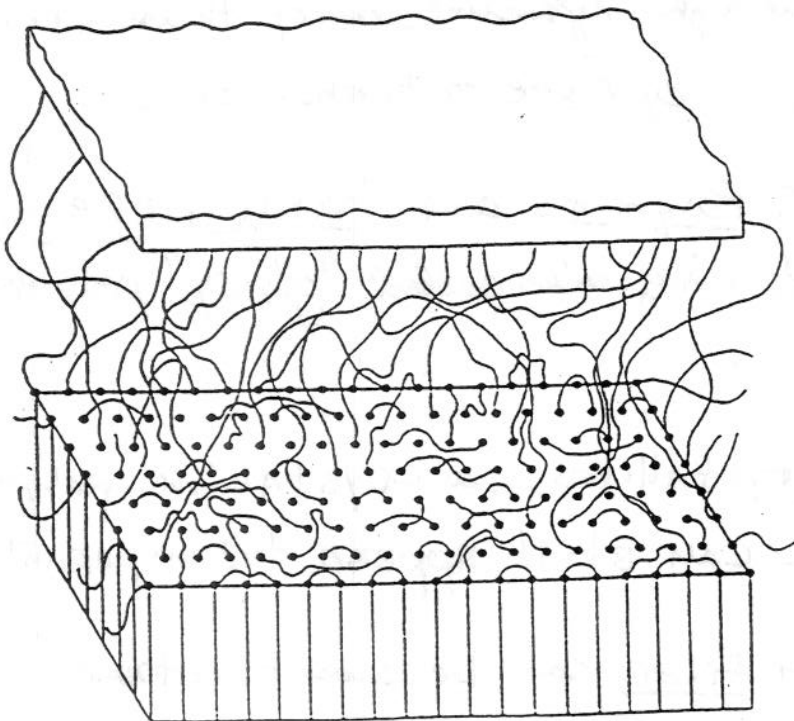
Chain-folded Lamella with Amorphous Tie
Molecules

Model for Melt Crystallized Polymers



2-D Perspective.

- chain-folded (aligned) regions
- amorphous interlamellar Region
- very little adjacent reentry



3-D Perspective
(side view)

- "Switchboard"
REENTRY

Crystallinity Effects.

(morph 6)

① Mechanical Properties (Refer to Table 5.1)

- increased strength and rigidity.
- greater ratio crystalline / Amorphous
 - stronger
 - more rigid
 - harder
 - less easily deformed.

E.g. Stereoregular (isotactic) polypropylene.

- crystallizable: hard, rigid plastic

Atactic PP

- Amorphous, soft and sticky.

② Optical Properties.

- light scattering at discontinuities when the size similar to wavelength of visible light (0.4-0.7 μm ...).
- ice → clear snow → white (air/crystallites)

- semi-crystalline polymer → dense crystalline regions have higher refractive index than amorphous regions ∴ opaque or translucent

- AMORPHOUS POLYMERS are TRANSPARENT.

↳ that's why also called "glassy" polymers

Exceptions.

- very small crystallites in a crystalline polymer → the polymer can still appear transparent.
- copolymer or filler can be cause for translucent

Effect of Crystallinity on Mechanical Properties.

Table 5.1 The Influence of Crystallinity on Some of the Properties of Polyethylene*

Physical product	Low density	Medium density	High density
Density range, g/cm ³	0.910–0.925	0.926–0.940	0.941–0.965
Approximate % crystallinity	42–53	54–63	64–80
Branching, equivalent CH ₃ groups/1000 carbon atoms	15–30	5–15	1–5
Crystalline melting point, °C	110–120	120–130	130–136
Hardness, Shore D	41–46	50–60	60–70
Tensile modulus, psi (N/m ²)	0.14–0.38 × 10 ⁵ (0.97–2.6 × 10 ⁸)	0.25–0.55 × 10 ⁵ (1.7–3.8 × 10 ⁸)	0.6–1.8 × 10 ⁵ (4.1–12.4 × 10 ⁸)
Tensile strength, psi (N/m ²)	600–2300 (0.41–1.6 × 10 ⁷)	1200–3500 (0.83–2.4 × 10 ⁷)	3100–5500 (2.1–3.8 × 10 ⁷)
Flexural modulus, psi (N/m ²)	0.08–0.6 × 10 ⁵ (0.34–4.1 × 10 ⁸)	0.6–1.15 × 10 ⁵ (4.1–7.9 × 10 ⁸)	1.0–2.6 × 10 ⁵ (6.9–18 × 10 ⁸)

It must be kept in mind that mechanical properties are influenced by factors other than the degree of crystallinity (molecular weight, particular).

Density : crystalline regions more DENSE than Amorphous

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{w_c}{\rho_c} + \frac{w_a}{\rho_a} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} c = \text{crystalline} \\ a = \text{amorphous} \end{array} \right)$$

- density is a quick relative measure of crystallinity.

Polyethylene.

→ Low Density Polyethylene (LDPE)

- Long-chain branching



→ Linear Low Density PE (LLDPE): metamer

- short chain branching
- Medium density
- copolymer (vinyl monomers)



→ High Density PE (HDPE)

- linear



Examples

① Polystyrene (Atactic) → transparent
• random phenyl group
ARRANGEMENT

② Polystyrene (isotactic) → white
crystallizes

③ High Impact PS (dispersion of ~~the~~ polybutadiene → white
rubber particles)

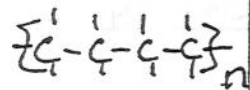
Problem.

→ PE and PP produced by stereospecific catalysts
• fairly rigid, translucent plastics.

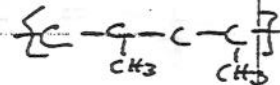
→ 65/35 copolymer blend → soft, transparent rubber.

Why?

• PE linear → highly crystalline

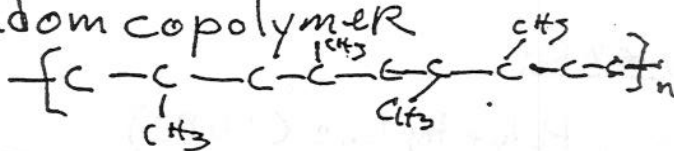


• PP isotactic → highly crystalline



• 65/35 copolymer: Ethylene-Propylene Rubber (EPR)

→ Random copolymer



• Amorphous, rubbery polymer.

ELASTOMERIC POLYPROPYLENE

Oscillating catalyst controls microstructure

Unprecedented control over the microstructure of polypropylene has been achieved by Stanford University chemists through use of an oscillating catalyst that, depending on its conformation, promotes two different types of propylene polymerization. The catalyst produces polypropylene with a wide range of elastic properties, according to the polymerization conditions.

The catalyst is the first example of a new, inexpensive approach to producing block copolymers, says associate professor of chemistry Robert M. Waymouth, who carried out the research with graduate student Geoffrey W. Coates. Unlike traditional routes to block copolymers—where a catalyst polymerizes different monomers sequentially—the new catalyst polymerizes a single monomer in a controlled way [Science, 267, 222-225].

Moreover, the product—elastomeric polypropylene—has real commercial potential, Waymouth notes. "Because elastomeric polypropylene is a thermoplastic, it is recyclable," he explains. "It is an elastomer only until it melts at a temperature higher than its use temperature."

By contrast, conventional thermoset rubbers, whether natural or synthetic, derive their elasticity from covalent cross-linking of polymer chains. Because these covalent bonds, rubbers cannot be recycled by melt processing. Kenneth B. Wagener, a chemistry professor at the University of Florida, Gainesville, points out in a commentary in the same issue of Science (page 191) that polypropylene is the product of choice in the 1950s by Karl Ziegler and Giulio Natta, who discovered a method for producing stereoregular polypropylene using a chiral catalyst. Ziegler and Natta shared the 1963 Nobel Prize in Chemistry for their work on polymers. Today, polypropylene is one of the world's largest volume plastics in use. Nevertheless, Wagener observes, the

work by Waymouth and Coates demonstrates that "even such a mature material as polypropylene can be the subject of dramatic advances in polymer chemistry."

Waymouth and Coates note that the stereochemistry of polyolefins, which can be described in terms of their "tacticity," strongly influences their properties. Isotactic polypropylene, in which all of the stereocenters of the polymer are the same, is a crystalline thermoplastic. By contrast, atactic polypropylene, in which the stereocenters are arranged randomly, is an amorphous gum elastomer.

Polypropylene consisting of blocks of atactic and isotactic stereosequences is rubbery. Although previous researchers have discovered catalysts that produce elastomeric polypropylene, "it has so far proven difficult to control the polymer structure and properties through a rational modification of the catalysts or reaction conditions," Waymouth says.

Waymouth and Coates built on the work of other researchers who showed that rigid, chiral metallocene catalysts produce isotactic polyolefins, whereas achiral forms of the catalysts produce atactic polyolefins. Their research was

supported by Amoco and the National Science Foundation.

The Stanford chemists prepared an unbridged metallocene catalyst with indenyl ligands that rotate about the metal-ligand bond axis. The rotation causes the catalyst to isomerize between chiral-like and achiral-like geometries.

When the catalyst is in the chiral-like geometry, it synthesizes a block of isotactic polypropylene; when it is in the achiral-like geometry, it generates a block of atactic propylene. As the ligands rotate, the catalyst produces alternating blocks of isotactic and atactic polymer, much like a miniature sewing machine switched back and forth between two different kinds of stitches.

One further trick is required to make the machine work. Indenyl ligands rotate so much faster than the polymerization reaction that stereoregular polymer blocks don't form. To overcome this, Waymouth and Coates add a phenyl substituent to the ligand to slow down the rate of rotation—so that it is slower than that of monomer insertion yet faster than the time required to construct a complete polymer chain. Thus, several monomers are incorporated into the growing polymer chain before the

switch is thrown to produce the alternate block type.

The specific compound Waymouth and Coates synthesize is bis(2-phenylindenyl) zirconium—which is abbreviated as (2-PhInd)₂ZrCl₂. They derive their catalyst from (2-PhInd)₂ZrCl₂ and methylaluminoxane.

"One of the most remarkable and powerful attributes of this catalyst system is the sensitivity of the polymer microstructure to the reaction conditions Waymouth stresses. As monomer pressure is increased, the isotacticity of the polypropylene also increases—behavior that is consistent with the polymerization mechanism the catalyst was designed to follow.

The microstructure of polypropylene is commonly described in terms of its "isotactic pentad content," which is the fraction of stereosequences containing five adjacent isotactic stereocenters. Under varying reaction conditions, Waymouth says, the new catalyst produces polypropylenes with isotactic pentads ranging from 6.3 to 28.1%.

"Other researchers have made rubbery polypropylene," he adds. "But because we are beginning to understand how our catalyst works, we can control the properties of the polypropylene over a huge range. We can produce material that can be stretched to eight times its length and snaps back, or we can make material that is very stiff and hard."

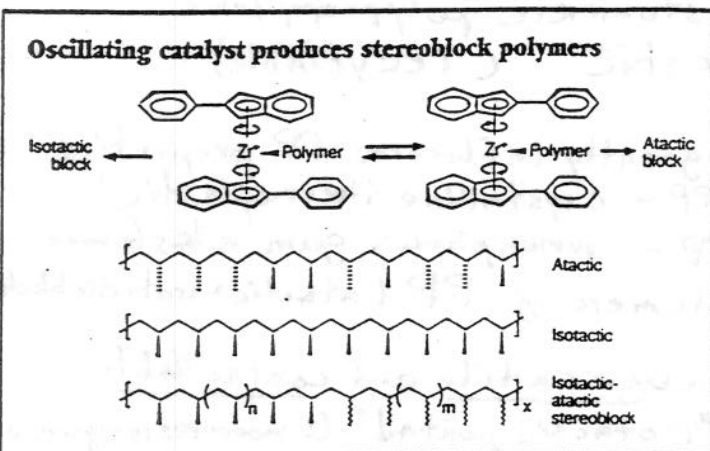
Rudiy Batai

Altered bacteria make ethanol from xylose

Researchers have achieved a key step in efforts to develop genetically engineered bacteria that can produce ethanol efficiently from plant biomass for use as an alternative transportation fuel.

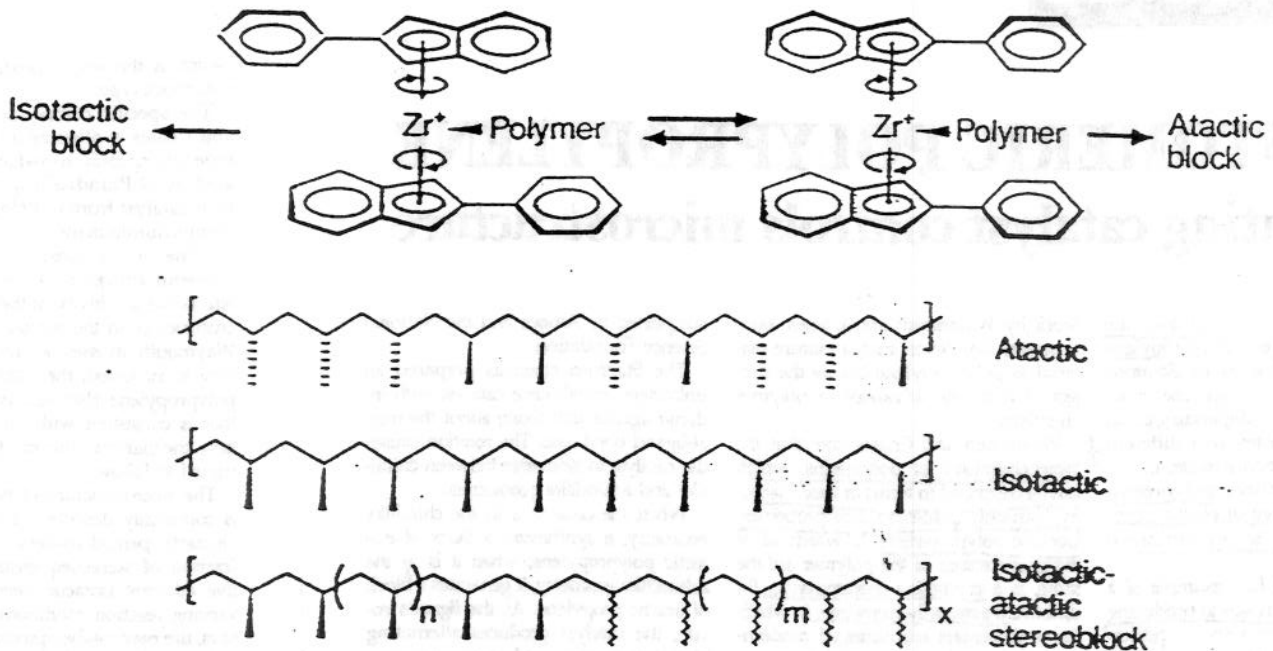
Scientists at the Department of Energy's National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) in Golden, Colo., have genetically modified the bacterium *Z. mobilis*—whose natural food source produces ethanol from the six-carbon (hexose) sugars glucose and fructose—and the disaccharide sucrose—so that it also makes ethanol from the five-carbon (pentose) sugar xylose.

Glucose and xylose are major breakdown products of the cellulose and hemicellulose that make up two-thirds to three-fourths of plant biomass.



ELASTOMERIC POLYPROPYLENE

Oscillating catalyst produces stereoblock polymers



C:ENEWS, Jan. 16, 1995

1) Uniqueness of system:

- block copolymers (Atactic and isotactic stereoblocks) achieved not by changing monomer, but by polymerizing the same monomer in a different way.

a) Product: Elastomeric polypropylene

- thermoplastic (recyclable)

3) Stereochemistry greatly influences PP properties

- isotactic PP - crystalline thermoplastic
- Atactic PP - amorphous gum elastomer
- block copolymer of PP (atactic + isotactic blocks) - rubbery

4) Catalyst system versatile and controllable.

- can control "isotactic pentad" (5 monomers in sequence) from 6.3% - 28.1%.

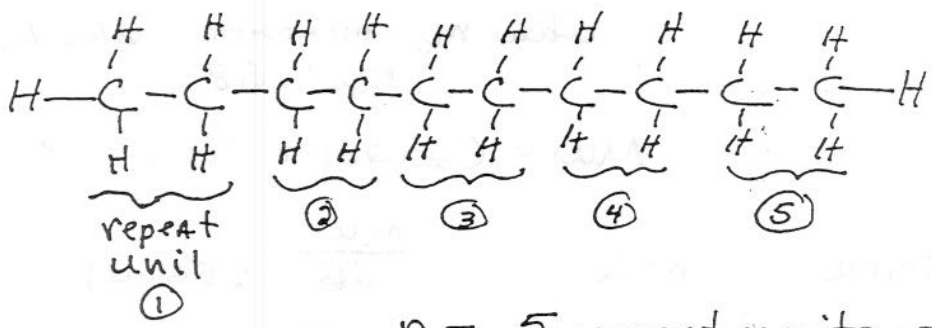
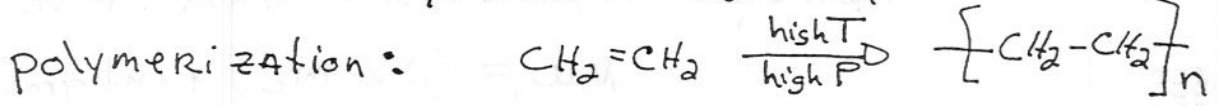
(5) Interesting and varied PP properties obtainable

- very elastic material - stretch 8 times L_0 and snap back
- crystalline material - stiff and hard.

How does one make a polymer?

Example: Polyethylene (PE)

monomer: ethylene $CH_2=CH_2$



$n = 5$ repeat units = pentamer

$n = 2$ repeat units = dimer

$n = 3$ repeat units = trimer
 |
 etc.

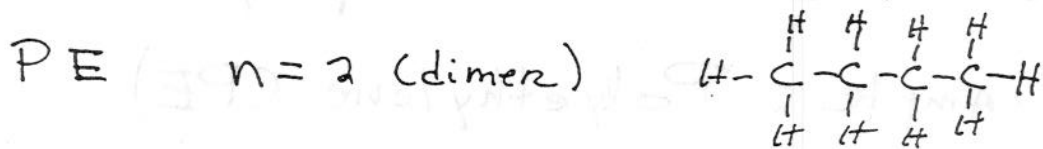
• $n = 3 - 50$ repeat units = oligomer (pre-polymer)

• $n \geq 100$ repeat units = polymer.

shorthand notation $[CH_2-CH_2]_n$

where $n = \#$ repeat units

Molecular Weight Concept.



Molecular weight (MW) = $(4 \times 12) + 10(1) = 58$

$MW = (2 \times m_0) + \text{end groups}$

where $m_0 = \text{monomer molecular weight}$
 $m_0 = 28$

$MW = (2 \times 28) + 2(1) = 58$

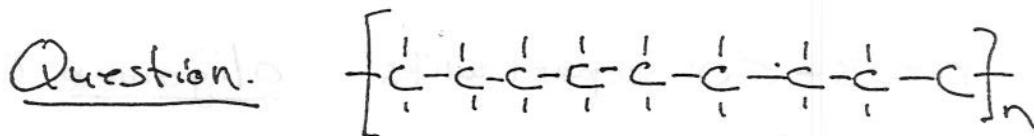
dimer $n = 2$ $\frac{MW}{58}$ (56 + 2)

pentamer $n = 5$ 140 (140 + 2)

polymer $n \geq 100$ 28,000

typical commercial polymer $n > 1000$ * 280,000

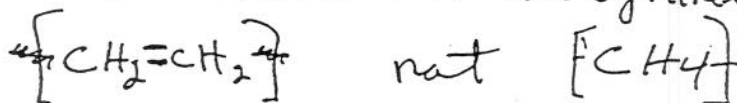
* About minimum value for commercial product.



Why is this polyethylene and not polymethylene?

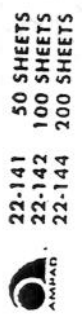
Why is $n = 5$ pentamer and not $n = 10$?

Because basic unit for synthesis of PE is



\therefore ethylene

methane.



Polymer Molecular Weight

$$\bar{D}_n = \frac{\sum n_i D_i}{\sum n_i}$$

$$\bar{D}_w = \frac{\sum w_i D_i}{\sum w_i}$$

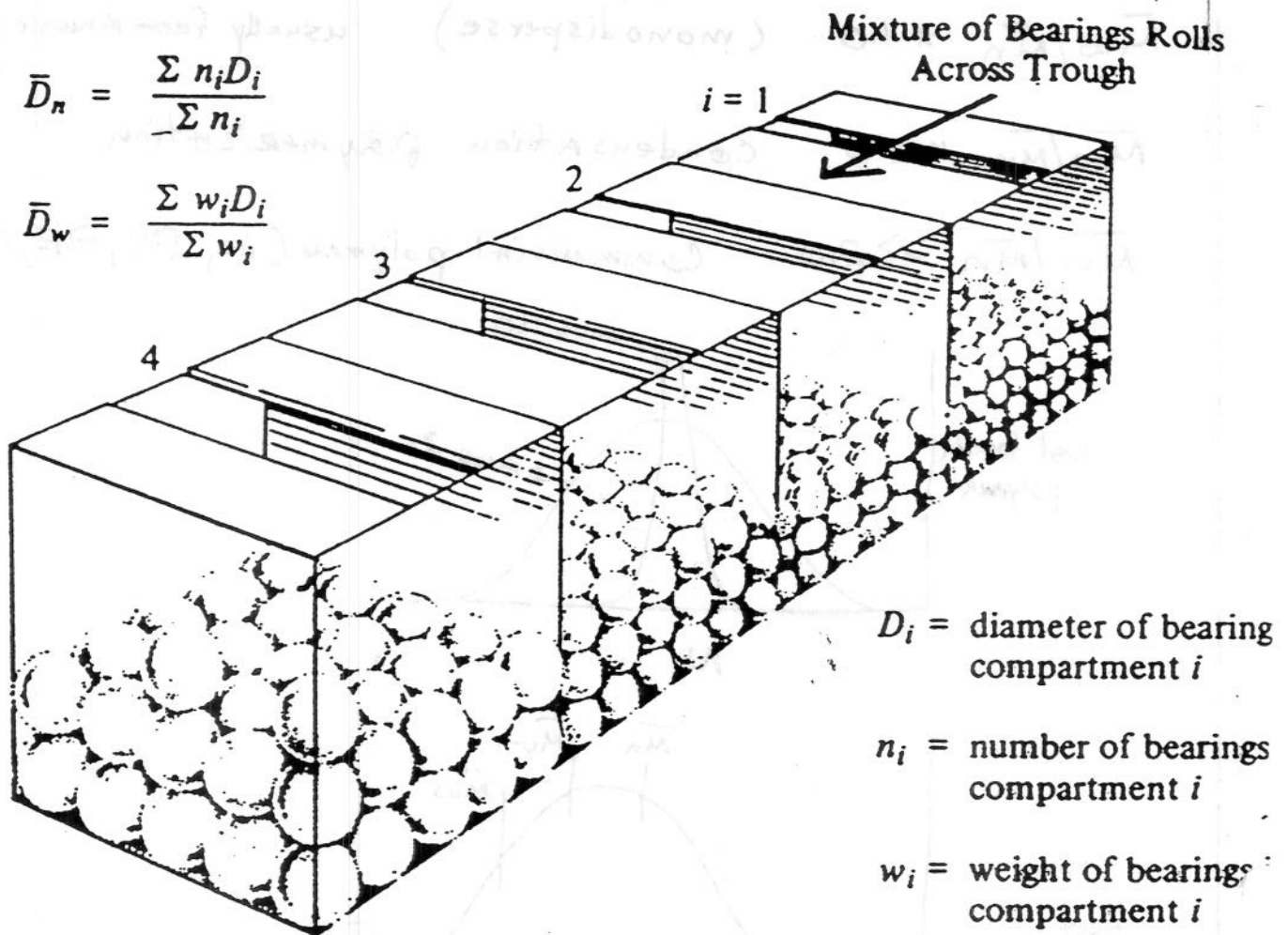


Figure 6.1 Ball bearing analogy for average molecular weights

$$M = w/n = \frac{\text{total sample weight.}}{\# \text{ moles in sample}} \quad [\Rightarrow] \quad \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{mole}} = \text{Daltons}$$

Number Average Molecular Weight (\bar{M}_n):

$$\bar{M}_n = \frac{w}{n} = \frac{\sum_i n_i M_i}{\sum_i n_i}$$

n_i = # moles of i -mers
 M_i = Molecular weight of i -mer

Weight Average Molecular Weight (\bar{M}_w):

$$\bar{M}_w = \frac{\sum_i w_i M_i}{\sum_i w_i} = \frac{\sum_i n_i M_i^2}{\sum_i n_i M_i} \quad (w_i = n_i M_i = \text{wgt of } i\text{-mer})$$

Z-Average Molecular Weight (\bar{M}_z):

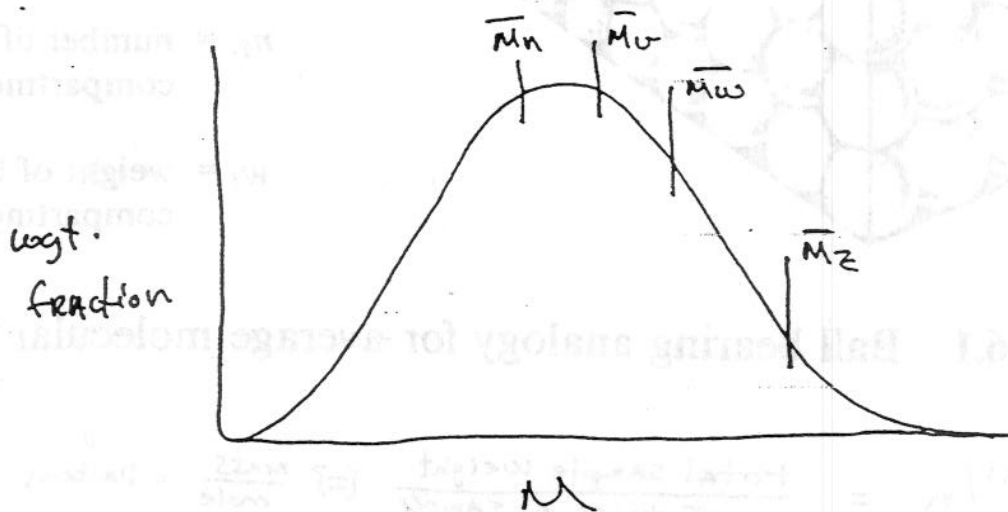
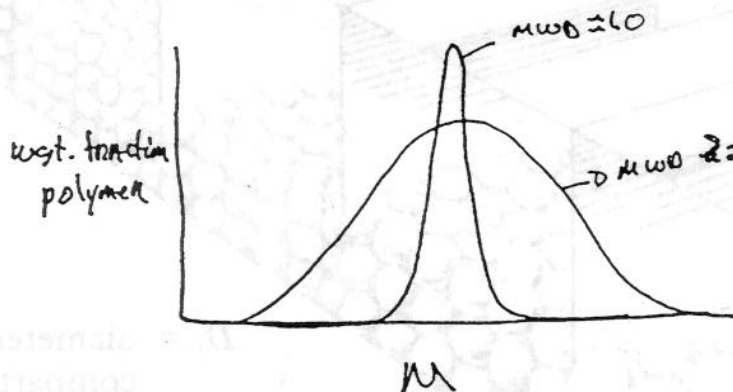
$$\bar{M}_z = \frac{\sum_i n_i M_i^3}{\sum_i n_i M_i^2} \quad (\text{third moment})$$

Molecular Weight Distribution (MWD)

$\bar{M}_w / \bar{M}_n \approx 1.0$ (monodisperse) usually from anionic polymer

$\bar{M}_w / \bar{M}_n \approx 2.0$ condensation polymerization.

$\bar{M}_w / \bar{M}_n \gg 2.0$ Commercial polymers (i.e., PS, PE, PP)



Typical Values of Mol Wgt. and MWD

	\bar{M}_n	\bar{M}_w	\bar{M}_v	\bar{M}_w / \bar{M}_n
Poly styrene	$\approx 1.0 \times 10^5$	2×10^5	1.75×10^5	2.0
HDPE	1.75×10^4	3.0×10^5	2.9×10^5	17.5
Linear LDPE	2×10^4	1.45×10^5	7.8×10^4	7.25