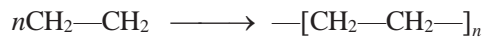


R7.1 Polymerization

10¹¹ lb/yr

Polymers are finding increasing use throughout our society. Well over 100 billion pounds of polymer are produced each year, and it is expected that this figure will double in the coming years as higher-strength plastics and composite materials replace metals in automobiles and other products. Consequently, the field of polymerization reaction engineering will have an even more prominent place in the chemical engineering profession. Because there are entire books on this field (see *Supplementary Reading*), it is the intention here to give only the most rudimentary thumbnail sketch of some of the principles of polymerization.

A polymer is a molecule made up of repeating structural (monomer) units. For example, polyethylene is used for such things as tubing, and repeating units of ethylene are used to make electrical insulation:



where *n* may be 25,000 or higher.

Polymerization is the process in which monomer units are linked by chemical reaction to form long chains. These long chains set polymers apart from other chemical species and give them their unique characteristic properties. The polymer chains can be linear, branched, or cross-linked (Figure R7-1-1).

Everyday Examples

- Polyethylene
 - Softdrink cups
 - Sandwich bags
- Poly (vinyl chloride)
 - Pipes
 - Shower curtains
 - Tygon tubing
- Poly (vinyl acetate)
 - Chewing gum

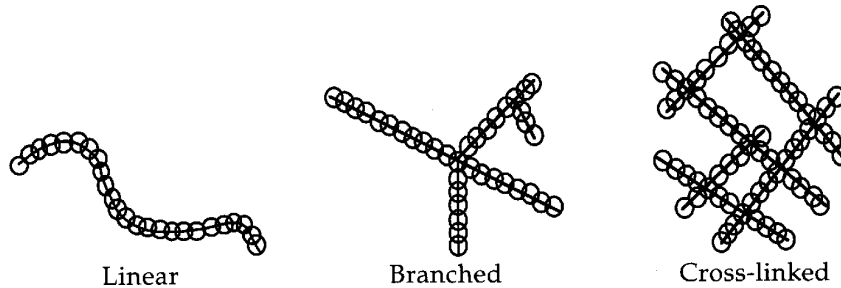
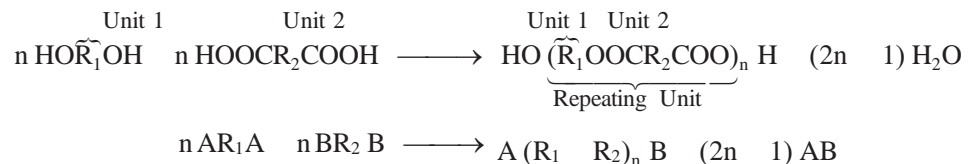


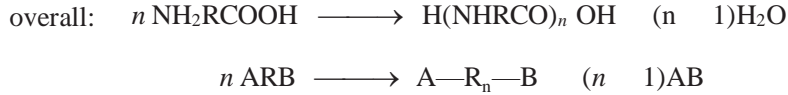
Figure R7-1-1 Types of polymer chains.

Homopolymers are polymers consisting of a single repeating unit, such as [—CH₂—CH₂—]. Homopolymers can also be made from two different monomers whose structural units form the repeating unit such as the formation of a polyamide (e.g., nylon) from a diamine and a diacid.

Polymerization reactions are divided into two groups known as **step reactions** (also called condensation reactions) and **chain reactions** (also known as addition reactions). Step reactions require bifunctional or polyfunctional monomers, while chain reactions require the presence of an initiator.

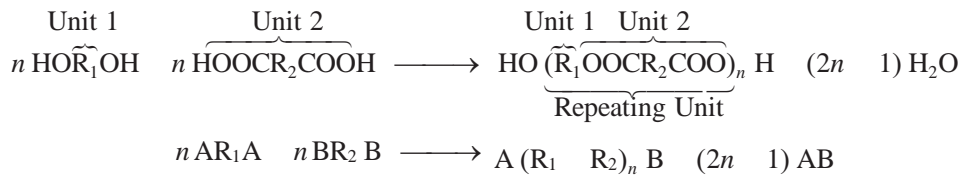


etc.



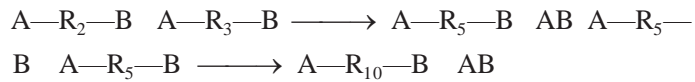
We see that from tetramers on, the *-mer* can be formed by a number of different pathways.

The A and B functional groups can also be on different monomers such as the reaction for the formation of polyester (shirts) from diols and dibasic acids.



By using diols and diacids we can form polymers with two different structural units which together become the repeating unit. An example of an AR₁A plus BR₂B reaction is that used to make Coca-cola bottles (i.e., terephthalic acid plus ethylene glycol to form poly [ethylene glycol terephthalate]).

When discussing the progress of step polymerization, it is not meaningful to use conversion of monomer as a measure because the reaction will still proceed even though all the monomer has been consumed. For example, if the monomer A—R—B has been consumed. The polymerization is still continuing with



because there are both A and B functional groups that can react. Consequently, we measure the progress by the parameter *p*, which is the fraction of functional groups, A, B, that have reacted. We shall only consider reaction with equal molar feed of functional groups. In this case

$p = \frac{M_o - M}{M_o}$ <p style="text-align: center;">fraction of functional groups of either A or B that have reacted</p>

M = concentration of either A or B functional groups (mol/dm³)

As an example of step polymerization, consider the polyester reaction in which sulfuric acid is used as a catalyst in a batch reactor. Assuming the rate of disappearance is first order in A, B, and catalyst concentration (which is constant for an externally added catalyst). The balance on A is

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k[A][B] \tag{R7.1-1}$$

For equal molar feed we have

$$\begin{aligned} [A] &= [B] = M \\ \frac{dM}{dt} &= -kM^2 \\ M &= \frac{M_o}{1 + M_o kt} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{R7.1-2})$$

In terms of the fractional conversion of functional groups, p ,

$$\frac{1-p}{1} = M_o kt \quad (\text{R7.1-3})$$

The number-average degree of polymerization, \bar{X}_n , is the average number of structural units per chain:

Degree
of polymerization

$$\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{1-p} \quad (\text{R7.1-4})$$

The number-average molecular weight, \bar{M}_n , is just the average molecular weight of a structural unit, M_s , times the average number of structural unit per chain, \bar{X}_n , plus the molecular weight of the end groups, M_{eg} :

$$\bar{M}_n = \bar{X}_n \bar{M}_s + M_{eg}$$

Since M_{eg} is usually small (18 for the polyester reaction), it is neglected and

$$\bar{M}_n = \bar{X}_n \bar{M}_s \quad (\text{R7.1-5})$$

In addition to the conversion of the functional groups, the degree of polymerization, and the number average molecular weight we are interested in the distribution of chain lengths, n (i.e. molecular weights M_n).

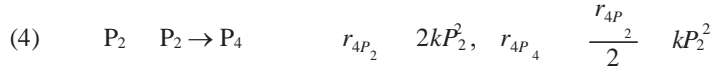
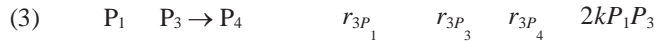
Example R7-1 Determining the Concentrations of Polymers for Step Polymerization

Determine the concentration and mole fraction of polymers of chain length j in terms of initial concentration of ARB, M_o , the concentration of unreacted functional groups M , the propagation constant k and time t .

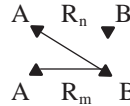
Solution

Letting $P_1 = A-R-B$, $P_2 = A-R_2-B$, ..., $P_j = A-R_j-B$ and omitting the water condensation products AB for each reaction we have

	Reaction	Rate Laws
(1)	$2P_1 \rightarrow P_2$	$r_{1P_1} = 2kP_1^2, \quad r_{1P_2} = \frac{r_{1P_1}}{2} = kP_1^2$
(2)	$P_1 + P_2 \rightarrow P_3$	$r_{2P_1} = r_{2P_2} = r_{2P_3} = 2kP_1P_2$



The factor of 2 in the disappearance term (e.g., r_{3P_3} $2kP_1P_3$) comes about because there are two ways A and B can react.



The net rate of reaction of P_1, P_2 and P_3 for reactions (1) through (4) are

$$r_1 = r_{P_1} = 2kP_1^2 + 2kP_1P_2 + 2kP_1P_3 \tag{RE7.1-1}$$

$$r_2 = r_{P_2} = kP_1^2 + 2kP_1P_2 + 2kP_2^2 \tag{RE7.1-2}$$

$$r_3 = r_{P_3} = 2kP_1P_2 + 2kP_1P_3 + 2kP_2P_3 \tag{RE7.1-3}$$

If we continue in this way, we would find that the net rate of formation of the P_1 is

$$r_{P_1} = 2kP_1 \sum_{j=1}^n P_j \tag{RE7.1-4}$$

However, we note that $\sum_{j=1}^n P_j$ is just the total concentration of functional groups of

either A or B, which is $M \left(\sum_{j=1}^n P_j \right)$.

$$r_{P_1} = 2kP_1M \tag{RE7.1-5}$$

Similarly we can generalize reactions (1) through (4) to obtain the net rate of formation of the j -mer, for $j \geq 2$.

$$r_j = k \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} P_i P_{j-i} + 2kP_jM \tag{RE7.1-6}$$

For a batch reactor the mole balance on P_1 and using Equation (RE7.1-2) to eliminate M gives

$$\frac{dP_1}{dt} = 2kP_1M = 2kP_1 \frac{M_o}{1 - M_o kt} \tag{RE7.1-7}$$

which solves to

$$P_1 = M_o \left(\frac{1}{1 - M_o kt} \right)^2 \tag{RE7.1-8}$$

Having solved for P_1 we can now use r_j to solve successively for P_j

$$\frac{dP_2}{dt} = r_2 - kP_1^2 - 2kP_2M \quad (\text{RE7-1.9})$$

$$kM^2 \left[\frac{1}{1 - M_0kt} \right]^4 = 2Mk \left[\frac{1}{1 - M_0kt} \right] \quad (\text{RE7.10})$$

with $P_2 = 0$ at $t = 0$

$$P_2 = M_0 \left[\frac{1}{1 - M_0kt} \right]^2 \left[\frac{M_0kt}{1 - M_0kt} \right] \quad (\text{RE7.1-11})$$

Continuing we find that, in general²

$$P_j = M_0 \left[\frac{1}{1 - M_0kt} \right]^2 \left[\frac{M_0kt}{1 - M_0kt} \right]^{j-1} \quad (\text{RE7.1-12})$$

Recalling $p = \frac{M_0}{M}$

$$P_j = M_0 (1 - p)^2 p^{j-1} \quad (\text{RE7.1-13})$$

The mole fraction of polymer with a chain length j is just

$$y_j = \frac{P_j}{M}$$

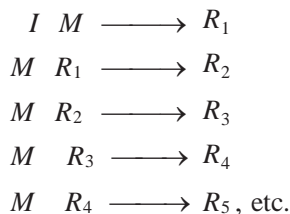
Recalling $M = M_0(1 - p)$, we obtain

$$y_j = (1 - p) p^{j-1} \quad (\text{R.1-6})$$

This is the Flory–Schulz distribution. We discuss this distribution further after we discuss chain reactions.

7.1.2 Chain Polymerizations Reactions

Chains (i.e., addition) polymerization requires an initiator (I) and proceeds by adding one repeating unit at a time.



² N. A. Dotson, R. Galván, R. L. Lawrence, and M. Tirrell, *Polymerization Process Modeling*, New York: VCH Publishers (1996).

以上内容仅为本文档的试下载部分，为可阅读页数的一半内容。如要下载或阅读全文，请访问：<https://d.book118.com/157120152116006053>