Chapter 6. Crystalline State

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Chapter 6. Crystalline State

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6.1. General Consideration

6.1.1. Crystalline state

Most pure substances have a definite melting temperature below which the change from a random liquid structure to a well ordered, periodic crystalline structure can occur

→ this transformation is called *crystallization* (the reverse process : melting)

- Crystallization is also possible <u>from solutions</u> (the reverse process : dissolving)
- Only polymers with regular molecular chains are able to crystallize fast enough from a melt, notwithstanding the high viscosity. (Many polymers \rightarrow glassy solids)
- □ Crystallization from a solution ~ the cooling rate & the rate of change in solubility ~ polymers without side groups → crystallize fast
- The crystalline state : a state that diffracts X-rays and exhibits the 1st order transition T_m.
 - \rightarrow Polymer crystallines are never totally crystalline due to
 - 1 their long chain nature
 - 2 entanglements



6.1.2. Crystallinity

- Since polymers cannot be completely crystalline, the concept "crystallinity" has been introduced. → The meaning is still disputed.
- The original micellar theory of polymer crystallization
 - : randomly distributed small crystallites + linked by intervening amorphous areas

Based on	Definition
specific volume (v)	$x_c = \frac{v_a - v}{v_a - v_c}$
specific heat (c _p)	$x_c = \frac{c_p^a - c_p}{c_p^a - c_p^c}$
specific enthalpy (h)	$x_c = \frac{h_a - h}{h_a - h_c}$
specific enthalpy of fusion (Δh_m)	$x_c = rac{\Delta h_m}{\Delta h_m^c}$
infrared mass extinction coefficient (ε) of characteristic vibrational mode	$x_c = rac{\mathcal{E}_\lambda}{\mathcal{E}_\lambda^{(c)}} = 1 - rac{\mathcal{E}_\lambda}{\mathcal{E}_\lambda^{(a)}}$
X-ray scattering intensity (I=area under selected peak)	$x_c = \frac{I_c}{I_c + I_a} \approx 1 - \frac{I_a}{\left(I_a\right)_{\text{melt}}}$
nuclear magnetic resonance	$\frac{x_c}{1-x_c} = \frac{\text{area of broad component}}{\text{area of narrow component}}$

6.2.1. The Fringed Micelle Model (see Fig.6.9 p.257)



Fig. 6.1 The fringed micelle model. Each chain meanders from crystallite to crystallite, binding the whole mass together.





- In 1928, Hengstenberg and Mark estimated that the crystallites of ramie, a form of native cellulose. (*Z. Kristallogra.*, 69 (1928) 271)
 - \rightarrow Their findings led to the fringed micelle model.
- □ The crystallites are about 100 Å long
 - The disordered regions separating the crystallites are amorphous.
 - The chains wander from the amorphous region through a crystallite, and black out into the amorphous region.
 - The chains are long enough to pass through several crystallites, finding them together.
- This model explains

-

The leathery behavior of ordinary polyethylene plastics.

(The greater σ_t of PE over that of low MW hydrocarbon waves was attributed to amorphous chains wondering from crystallite to crystallite holding them together by primary bonds.)

The flexible nature of fibers was explained similarly

(The exact stiffness of the plastic or fiber was related to the degree of crystallinity, or fraction of the polymer that was crystallized.)



6.2.2. The Folded Chain Model

Discovery of polymer single crystals from dilute solutions

- : In 1957, Keller prepared single crystals of PE by precipitation from extremely dilute solutions of hot xylene
- \rightarrow diamond shaped of the order of 100~200 Å thick
- → electron diffraction showed that the polymer chain axed in the crystal body were essentially perpendicular to toe large, flat faces of the crystal.

Polymer chain contour lengths of PE $\sim 2000 \text{ Å}$ thickness of the single crystals $110 \sim 140 \text{ Å}$

- → Keller concluded that the polymer molecules in the crystals had to be folded upon themselves.
- \rightarrow The folded-chain model



6.2.2. The Folded Chain Model (see Fig.6.10 p.259)



Fig. 6.2 Schematic view of a polyethylene single crystal exhibiting adjacent reentry. The orthorhombic subcell with dimensions a and b, typical of many n-paraffins, is illustrated in right

*** The Switchboard Model**

the chains do not have a reentry into the lamellae by regular folding, but rather reenter more or randomly. \rightarrow Discuss in 6.4.6



6.2.3. The Models of Polymer Crystallization

The five main models of polymer crystallization:

- a. The folded-chain model of a single crystal structure
- b. The spontaneous, *spherulitic*, crystallization of flexible polymeric molecules under quasi-isotropic conditions
- c. The *induced* crystallization of flexible polymeric chains in field of force, mainly by application of stress
- d. The extended chain crystallization of flexible polymer molecules
- e. The extended chain crystallization of semi-rigid polymer molecules





Table 6.2 Morphology of crystallites in polymers

Type of	Conformation	Mode	Basic	Micro-St	tructure	Illustration
Polymer Chain	er in of Substructure n Melt/Solution Cystallization of crystallites		Substructure of crystallites	Conditions of Formation	Туре	of characteristic features
	Random	Free	Lamellae	Very dilute quiescent solution	Single Crystals	
Flexible	Coil	(spontaneous)	Folded Chains	Quiescent Melt	Spherulites	
	Partly	Induced by Pressure, Flow, Stress, etc.	Hybrid structure made up of thin	Stirred very dilute solution	Shish Kebab Fibrils	
	oriented or partly ordered (disentangled)		core of extended chains and matrix of Lamellae	Melt- or solution- spinning and drawing	Row nucleated Crystallites	
	Coils		Microfibrils of extended chains	Gel-spinning followed by ultradrawing	Extended Chain Microfibrils	
Rigid	Liquid Mainly Crystals of spontaneous rigid rods		Microfibrils mad up of rigid rodlets	Solution- spinning with gas gap and drawing	Para- crystalline microfibrils	

6.3.1. Spherulitic Morphology

When polymer sample are crystallized from the bulk, the most obvious of the observed structures are the <u>spherulites</u> (see Fig. 6.13. p.261)

 \rightarrow sphere-shaped crystalline structures that form in the bulk.



Fig. 6.4 Spherulites of low-density polyethylene, observed through crossed polarizers. Note characteristic Maltese cross pattern.

□ How the lamellae are formed within the spherulite?
 →each spherulite exhibits an <u>extinction cross</u>.

=a Maltese cross



Fig. 6.5 Model of spherulitic structure. Note growth directions and lamellar branch points. to fill space uniformly with crystalline material. After J. D. Hoffman et al.

Tie molecules → intercrystalline link → effect on toughness

- This extinction is centered at the origin of the spherulite, and the arms of the cross are oriented parallel to the vibration directions of the microscope polarizer and analyzer.
- Usually the spherulites are really shperical in shape only during the initial stages of crystallization. During the latter stages of crystallization, the spherulites impinge on their neighbors.
 - \rightarrow nucleation Γ simultaneous : the boundaries between them are straight
 - L at different times : the boundaries form hyperbolas.
 - \rightarrow X-ray & e⁻ diffraction indicates that the c axis of the crystals is
 - Γ normal to the radial direction of the spherulites.
 - L perpendicular to the lamellae flat surfaces



SALS (small angle light scattering)



Fig.6.6 Different types of light-scattering patterns ar e obtained from spherulitic polyethylene using (a) V $_{u}$ and (b) H_u polarization (arise from the spherulitic structure of the polymer, which is optical anisotropic with the radial and tangential refractive indices being different)



□ The scattering pattern can be used to calculate the size of the spherulites. i.e.

$$U_{\rm max} = \left(\frac{4\pi R}{\lambda}\right) \sin \frac{\theta_{\rm max}}{2} = 4.1$$

where U_{max} : the intensity maximum occuring in the radial direction

R : the radius of the spherulite

 θ_{max} : the angle at which the intensity maximum occurs

 $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$: the wavelength

- \Rightarrow As the spherulites get larger, the maximum in intensity occurs at smaller angles.
- Stein points out that in very rapidly crystallized polymers spherulites are often not observed.
- Mandelkern showed that the molecular structures become less ordered as the molecular weight is increased or the temperature of crystallization is decreased.



□ In between the lamellar structures lies amorphous material.

The individual lamellae in the spherulites are bonded together by tie molecules, which lie partly in one crystallite and partly in another.

tie molecules :

- sometimes in the form of intercrystalline links, which are long, threadlike crystalline structures with the c axis along their long dimension.
- 2 important in the development of the great toughness characteristic of semicrystalline polymers.



6.3.2. Mechanism of Spherulite Formation (see Fig 6.19, p.266)



Fig. 6.7 Schematic development of a spherulite from a chain-folded precursor crystal Rows (a) and (b) represent, respectively, edge-on views of the evolution of the spherulite.

 On cooling from the melt single crystal → sheaflike structure → spherulites (=axialite or hedrite)



6.3.3. Spherulites in Polymer Blends and Block Copolymers

Miscible blend in one phase :

if T_g of noncrystallizing polymercomponent < T_g of the crystallizing component, the spherulites will actually grow faster.

- Immiscible blend in two phases : On spherulite formation, the droplets, which are noncrystallizing, become ordered within the growing arms of the crystalling component.
- Block copolymers form spherulites on a finer scale.



6.3.4. Percent Crystallinity in Polymers

- The reason why polymers fail to attain 100% crystallinity is <u>kinetic</u>, resulting from the inability of the polymer chains to completely disentangle and line up properly in a finite period of cooling or annealing.
- Experimental Methods to determine percent crystallinity.
 - 1 DSC : The heat of fusion per mole of crystalline material can be estimated independently by T_m depression.
 - ② Density determination : (see Fig.6.8)

% crystallinity =
$$\left[\frac{D_{\exp\theta} - D_{amorp.}}{D_{100\% \ cryst.} - D_{amorp.}}\right] \times 100$$

- (3) X-ray intensity \propto the No. of e-s involved and is thus proportional to the density
 - amorphous halo : broader due to the molecular disorder



Fig. 6.8 The experimental determination of the extent of polymer crystallinity using the density method.

6.4.1. Experimental Observations of Crystallization Kinetics

① volume change on melting - dilatometry (Fig.6.25 p.272)



Fig. 6.9 Dilatometric crystallization isotherms for poly(ethylene oxide), M=20,000g/mol. The Avrami exponent n falls from 4.0 to 2.0 as crystallization proceeds.



② microscopy - by measuring the growth of the spherulites as a function of time. (Fig.6.26 p.272)

impurity concentration $\uparrow~$ the growth rate $\downarrow~$



Fig. 6.10 Spherulite radius as a function of time, grown isothermally (at 125 C) in a blend of 20% isotactic and 80% atactic (M=2600) polypropylene. Note the linear behavior.



6.4.2. The Overall Rate of Crystallization

- : determined by two factors the formation rate of nuclei (above the critical size) the growth rate of nuclei to final crystalline aggregate
- When a polymer cools down form the molten state, crystallization is very slow at first (*induction* period)
 - \rightarrow After an induction period, the process speeds up to a maximum rate
 - \rightarrow Slows down again as it approaches the final equilibrium state
- ♦ The usual procedure in studying the rate of polymerization
 : cooling the polymer quickly from the molten state → measure the development of crystallinity at constant temperature (isothermal crystallization)
- ♦ Well-defined spherulites visible under a microscope
 → the rate of nuclei formation and growth into spherulites (in µm per min)



6.4.3. Nucleation and Growth

The rate of crystallization (C) = Nucleability (N) • Transportability (T)

"nucleation factor" "transport factor"

 \rightarrow valid as well for the primary nucleation in melt or solution, as for the growth of the crystallites

- The assumption of the general theory of phase transition by crystallization
 - In supercooled melts, fluctuations \rightarrow leading to the formation of a new phase
 - Very small particles of the new phase → phase transformation (*nucleation*)
 → The decrease in free energy » the increase in interfacial energy
 → So, the possible growth of new particles ~ the ratio of surface area to volume.
 - Critical size : separating particles T whose free energy of formation increase
 whose free energy of formation decrease
 - \rightarrow So, the small particles : redissolve and the larger ones : grow
 - \rightarrow A particle which has just the critical size acts as a *nucleus for growth*



6.4.4. Theories of Crystallization Kinetics

- Avrami : formulations for metallurgy were adapted to polymer science.
- Keith and Padden : provides a qualitative understanding of the rates of spherulitic growth.
- Hoffman : developed the kinetic nucleation theory of chain folding.

6.4.4.1. The Avrami Equation

- Imagine raindrops falling in a puddle
 - raindrops strike the puddle surface at random points.
 - expanding circles of waves are the growth fronts of the spherulites.
 - the points of impact are the crystallite nuclei.



6.4.4.1. The Avrami Equation

The probability P_x that a point P is crossed by x fronts of growing spherulites is given by an equation originally derived by Posson.

$$P_x = \frac{e^{-E}E^x}{x!} \rightarrow \text{Appendix 6.1}$$

where E represents the average number of fronts of all such points in the system.

The probability that P will not have been crossed by any of the fronts, and is still amorphous

$$P_0 = e^{-E} (E \text{ and } 0! \text{ are both unity})$$

 $= 1 - X_{t}$

X_t : is the volume fraction of crystalline material i.e. the degree of crystallinity

Q For low degrees of crystallinty $X_t \cong E$ (by approximation)



□ For the bulk crystallization of polymers X_t (in the exponent) $\simeq V_t$ where V_t is the volume of crystallization material

 $1 - X_t = e^{-V_t}$

- The problem now resides on the evaluation of V_t. There are two cases to be considered:
 - (a) the nuclei are predetermined the nuclei all develop at once on cooling the polymer to the temperature of crystallization
 - (b) sporadic nucleation of the spheres.

For case (a),

 \rightarrow L spherical nuclei, randomly placed, are considered to be growing at a constant rate, g.

The volume increase in crystallinity in the time period t to t+dt is

 $dV_t = 4\pi r^2 L dr$ r: radius of the spheres at time t (i.e. r = g t)

$$\therefore V_t = \int_0^1 4\pi g^2 t^2 Lg dt = \frac{4}{3}\pi g^3 L t^3$$



For case (b),

- \rightarrow The No. of spherical nuclei is allowed to increase linearly with time at a rate I.
- \rightarrow Then spheres nucleated at time t_i will produce a volume increase of

$$dV_t = 4\pi g^2 (t - t_i)^2 ltgd$$
$$V_t = \frac{2}{3}\pi g^3 l\pi t^4$$

To produce the familiar form of the Avrami equation:

- $1 X_t = e^{-zt^n}$ \Rightarrow Appendix 6.2 $\ln(1 - X_t) = -Zt^n$
- where X_t : the fraction of material transform (into the spherulitic state) at time t n : constant (an integer value depend on the mechanism of nucleation and on the form of crystal growth)

Z and n are diagnostic of the crystallization mechanism. (ref. to Table 6.3)



Table 6.3 Constants n and Z of Avrami equation (Theoretical value)

	Type of nucleation								
Form of growth	Predeterm number of	nined (constant nuclei per cm ³)	Spontaneous (sporadi (constant nucleation ra						
	n	Z	n	Z					
Spherulitic (spheres)	3	$\frac{4}{3}\pi g^{3}L$	4	$\frac{2}{3}\pi g^{3}l$					
Discoid (Platelets) ^a	2	$\pi g^{3}Ld$	3	$\frac{\pi}{3}g^2ld$					
Fibrillar (rodlets) ^b	1	$\frac{1}{2}\pi gLd^2$	2	$\frac{1}{4}\pi gld^2$					

^a Constant thickness= d

^b Constant radius= d



6.4.4.2. Keith-Padden Kinetics of Spherulitic Crystallization

As the spherulites grow, the individual lamellae branch.

Impurities, atactic components, become trapped in the interlamellar regions.

$$\delta = \frac{D}{G}$$

D : the diffusion coefficient for impurity in the melt

G : the radial growth rate of a spherulite.

 $\boldsymbol{\delta}$: the lateral dimensions of the lamellae : dimension is that of length.

= a measure of the internal structure of the spherulite, or its coarseness.

By logarithmic differentiation of above eqn.

$$\frac{1}{\delta} \left(\frac{d\delta}{dT} \right) = \frac{1}{D} \left(\frac{dD}{dT} \right) - \frac{1}{G} \left(\frac{dG}{dT} \right)$$

always (+) (+) or (-)

: (+) means increase in coarseness the temperature is increase (A) CND

$$G = G_0 \exp\left(\frac{\Delta E}{RT}\right) \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta F^*}{RT}\right)$$

where △F*: the free ε of formation of a surface nucleus of critical size
△E: the free ε of activation for a chain crossing the barrier to the crystal.
i.e. Two competing processes
① the rate of molecular transport in the melt↑ as T↑
② the rate of nucleation ↓ as T↑

- According to Keith and Padden
 - diffusion is the controlling factor at low T
 - the rate of nucleation dominates at higher T
 - in between the growth rate passes through a maximum.



6.4.4.3. Hoffman's Nucleation Theory

- The number of nuclei N (=L at Avrami eqn.)
 - : low growth rate of isotactic polystyrene \rightarrow the crystallization can be studied in



the whole region from T_g to T_m

- : Boon (1968) determined the number of nuclei in the two extreme case
- a. starting from a superheated melt and quenching to the crystallization temp.
- b. starting from the solid state and heating to the crystallization temp.

Fig 6.11 Boon's data as a function of the dimensionless parameter v [= $(T_m-T_x)/(T_m-T_g)$], the *relative undercooling*. In this master-form the graph also fits with the data of *Von Flakai* (1960) for isotactic polypropene and with those of *Van Antwerpen* (1972) on PETP.

T_x : crystalline temperture



- For all crystallizing polymers, the number of nuclei will be following order of magnitude
 - starting from the melt and quenched to T_x: ~3 x 10⁶ cm⁻³
 - starting from the quenched solid state $(T < T_q)$ and heated to T_x : 3 x 10¹¹ cm⁻³
 - N will determine the maximum size of the spherulites after conversion of the whole melt into crystalline materials.

$$\frac{4}{3}\pi \overline{R}_{\max}^{3} \cdot N = x_{c}$$

so that, if $x_{c} \approx 1$ $\overline{R}_{\max} \cdot N^{1/3} \approx 0.62$

Theoretical expression for the rate of nucleation



where N' : rate of nucleation

- N_0' : is a constant for the zero-condition (E and $\Delta G^*=0$)
- E : activation energy of transport (self-diffusion)
- ΔG_n^* : Gibbs free energy of formation of a nucleus of critical size



$$\Delta G_n^* / kT = \frac{32NA \cdot \gamma_{\parallel}^2 \cdot \gamma_{\perp} \cdot T_m^4}{RT (\Delta H_m)^2 T^2 (\Delta T)^2} \approx \frac{32NA \cdot \gamma_{\parallel}^2 \cdot \gamma_{\perp} \cdot T_m^2}{RT (\Delta H_m)^2 (\Delta T)^2}$$

For large undercooling
 $E / RT = C_1 / R \left(C_2 + T - T_g \right)$

where γ_{II} : free interfacial energy parallel to chain direction γ_{\perp} : free interfacial energy perpendicular to chain direction ΔH_m : Heat of melting (fusion) $\Delta T=T_m-T_x$: =undercooling, T_x : crystalline temperture C_1 : constant = 17.2 kJ/mol, C_2 : constant = 51.6 K





- The rate of growth is very much dependent on the temperature of crystallization
 - At T_m and T_g, its value is nearly zero
 In the intermediate region, a maximum (v_{max}) is observed at a temperature T_k

$$\Theta = \frac{T - T_{\infty}}{T_m - T_{\infty}} \quad \text{where } \mathsf{T}_{\infty} \approx \mathsf{T}_{\mathsf{g}}\text{-}\mathsf{50}$$

$$T_k \approx 0.5 \left(T_m + T_g \right)$$

 Theoretical expression for the rate of nucleation



Fig 6.12 Dimensionless master curve of the rate of growth, suggested by Gandica and Magill. (1972). $\Theta \approx 0.635$



- E_D : the activation energy for the diffusive transport process at the interface
- W* : the free energy of formation of a surface nucleus of critical size
- k : the Boltzmann cnstant (= R/N_A)

✤ Hoffman equation

$$\frac{E_D}{RT} = \frac{C_1'}{C_2 + \left(T - T_g\right)}$$

WLF formulation — Appendix 6.3

$$\frac{\Delta W^*}{kT} = \frac{4b_0 \gamma_{\parallel} \gamma_{\perp} T_m}{k\Delta h_m T \Delta T} = \frac{C_3 T_m}{T(T_m - T)}$$

b_o: thickness of the chain molecules γ_{II} : free interfacial energy parallel to chain γ_⊥ : free interfacial energy perpendicular to chain Δh_m : heat of melting per unit volume C₁' ≈ 2060 K, C₂ ≈ 51.6 K, C₃ ≈ 265 K

 Hoffman supposed that E_D was not a constant, but that the diffusive transport in a melt could be described by a WLF function.

$$\frac{E_D}{RT} \approx \frac{C_1}{R(C_2 + T - T_g)}$$

• The final expression for the growth rate becomes $v \approx 10^7 \cdot \exp\left[-\frac{C_1 / R}{C_2 + (T - T_g)}\right] \exp\left[\frac{C_3 T_m}{T(T_m - T)}\right] \text{nm/s}$



Mandelkern equation

: The WLF formulation (success in explaining the segmental mobility and flow properties of completely amorphous polymers) is not applicable to the transport process involved in the growth of spherulites in melts of semicrystalline polymers.

$$\frac{v}{v_0} = \exp\left[-\frac{E_D}{RT}\right] \exp\left[-\frac{C_3 T_m^0}{T\left(T_m^0 - T\right)}\right]$$

v_o: universal constant for semicrystalline polymer ≈10¹² nm/s

T_m⁰ : effective melting point

 E_D : constant in the undercooled melt

 Mandelkern determined activation energies for a series of polymers and found that E_D for different polymers increases monotonically with T_q.

$$\frac{E_D}{R} \approx 5.3 \times \frac{T_m^2}{T_m - T_g} \longrightarrow \text{See Table 6.4 and Fig 6.13}$$

A semi-empirical expression for the growth rate

$$\log \frac{v}{v_0} \approx -\frac{1}{2.3} \frac{T_m}{T} \left\{ \frac{5.3T_m}{T_m - T_g} + \frac{265}{T_m - T} \right\}$$

or

$$\log \frac{v}{v_0} \approx -2.3 \frac{T_m}{T} \left\{ \frac{T_m}{T_m - T_g} + \frac{50}{T_m - T_g} \right\}$$

where $v_0 \approx 10^{12}$ nm/s



Table 6.4 Survey of Mandelkern's data on crystallization

Polymer	T⁰ _m (K)	T _m (K)	E _D (10 ³ J/mol)	T _g (K)
polyethylene	419	414	29.3	195
polypropylene	438	456	50.2	264
polybutene (isot.)	407	415	44.4	249
polystyrene (isot.)	527	513	84.6	373
poly(chlorotrifluoroethylene)	499	491	59.4	325
polyoxymethylene	456	456	41.0	191
poly(ethylene oxide)	347	339	23.0	206
poly(tetramethylene oxide)	462	453	56.1	193
poly(propylene oxide)	354	348	40.6	201
poly(decamethylene sebacate)	356	358	12.6	-
poly(decamethylene terephthalate)	418	411	46.5	268
nylon 6	505	502	56.5	330
nylon 5,6	541	531	61.1	318
nylon 6,6	553	540	64.5	330
nylon 9,6	529	515	56.9	-
nylon 6,10	516	499	53.6	323



Fig 6.13 Correlation for the activation energy for transport.



- Steiner, Magill, van Antwerpen and van Krevelen
 - : at low to moderate molecular weights, v₀ is dependent on the molecular weight

 $v_0 = a + b / M_n$

: To obtain a universal correlation for the linear growth rate in the full temperature region between T_a and $T_m \rightarrow$ introduce the variables

 $\xi = T_m / T_x$ and $\delta = T_g / T_m \longrightarrow$ Hoffman eqn. and Mandelkern eqn.

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{for } T_x \geq T_k \\ \log v = \log v_0 - 2.3 \frac{\xi}{1-\delta} - \frac{115}{T_m} \frac{\xi^2}{\xi-1} \end{array} & \text{For the higher temp. region} \\ \text{for } T_x \ll T_k \\ \log v = \log v_0 - \frac{895\xi}{51.6\xi + T_m \left(1-\delta\xi\right)} - \frac{115}{T_m} \frac{\xi^2}{\xi-1} \end{array} & \text{For the lower temp. region} \\ \text{: Hoffman-type equation} \end{aligned}$$





A : The maximum rate of spherulite growth is a function of the ratio T_g/T_m . B : The temperature of maximum crystalline rate is also determined by T_g/T_m . C : The attained degree of crystallization ~ the maximum rate of crystallization ~ T_g/T_m

Table 6.5 Comparison of experimental and estimated (predicted) data in polymer crystallization

Polymer	T _m (K)	T _g /T _m	T _{x,max} /T _m	T _{x,max}	_κ (= Τ _κ) K)	log (nm	V _{max} IS ⁻¹)	X _{c,}	max
	Exp.	Exp.	Pred.	Exp.	Pred.	Exp.	Pred.	Exp.	Pred.
p-ethylene (linear)	414	0.475	0.77	-	319	4.92	5.1	0.80	0.80
p-(propene) (isot.)	445	0.575	0.805	-	350	2.5	3.6	0.63	0.66
p-(1-butene) (isot.)	380	0.63	0.825	-	318	2.2	2.9	0.50	0.55
p-(styrene) (isot.)	513	0.725	0.86	449	442	0.6	0.8	0.34	0.32
p-(chlorotrifluoro-ethylene)	500	0.62	0.834	-	418	2.65	2.9	0.70	0.57
p(isoprene)	300	0.67	0.84	248	254	-	1.9	0.45	0.47
p(methylene oxide)	400	0.54	0.79	-	318	3.5	4.2	-	0.72
p(ethylene oxide)	340	0.665	0.84	-	286	-	2.1	-	0.47
p(propylene oxide)	340	0.62	0.83	290	282	2.9	2.9	-	0.53
polycarbonate	545	0.745	0.87	-	482	-0.8	-0.7	0.25	0.21
p-(ethyleneterephthalate)	548	0.63	0.835	459	466	2.1	2.8	0.5	0.54
nylon 66	545	0.59	0.81	420	440	4.3	3.5	0.70	0.63
nylon 6	496	0.675	0.84	413	418	3.5	1.9	0.5	0.45

6.4.5. Practical Considerations

a. Influencing the spherulitic crystallization

It is customary to define the overall rate of crystallization as the inverse of the time needed to attain one-half of the final crystallinity $\rightarrow t_{1/2}^{-1}$

$$\ln(1 - X_t) = -Zt^n$$

$$\downarrow X_t = 1/2$$

$$t_{1/2}^{-1} = 1.8 \cdot L^{1/3} \cdot g \qquad \longleftarrow \qquad Z = \left(t_{1/2}^{-1}\right)^n \cdot \ln 2 \quad + \text{ Table 6.3} \quad Z = \frac{4}{3}\pi g^3 L$$

- : The number of nuclei L is determined by the thermal program $(3x10^{6-11} \text{ cm}^{-3})$
- : The rate of growth g depends on (1) The ratio T/T_m (= 1/ ξ)

 - 2 The ratio $T_g/T_m (= \delta)$ 3 The absolute value of T_m 4 The absolute value of v_0
- : A maximum growth rate at $T_k \approx 0.825 T_m \rightarrow \text{optimum temperature}$
- T_q/T_m and T_m are determined by the constitution of the polymer and cannot be influenced by process parameters

- The practical way to influence the free crystallization of polymers
 - ① The right temp. program for an optimal nucleation
 - 2 The optimum crystallization temp. for a rapid growth rate
 - ③ An optimal nucleation agent in order to increase the temperatureindependent factor
- b. Properties of semicrystalline spherulitic polymers
 - Plastic materials are brittle when they consist of large spherulites (Table 6.6)
 → The spherulities had better be as small as possible
 → N must be large and undercooling by quenching must be deep and fast
 - The optimum conditions : quenching is followed by reheating to T_k, with thorough crystallization → vacuum-forming like processes

Spherulite size (d)	Yield s	tress P _Y	$P_{y} = 1.0101 (\mu)$
[µ]	p.s.i.	10 ⁶ [N/m ²]	$\overline{P_{y,max}} = 1 - 0.18 \log \frac{1}{0.35}$
50	10,250	72	
10	11,800	83	
5	12,700	89	
3	14,700	98	

Table 6.6 Yields points of nylon 66

6.4.6. The reentry problem in lamellae

- The lamellae were assumed to be formed through regular adjacent reentry, although it was recognized that this was an oversimplification.
- The question of the molecular organization within polymer single crystals as well as the bulk state: Switchboard model or folded-chain model?
- Since the chain length far exceeds the thickness of the crystal, the chains must either reenter the crystal or go elsewhere.
- However, the relative merits of the switchboard model versus folded-chain model remained substantially unresolved for several years for lack of appropriate instrumentation.

6.4.6.1. Infrared Spectroscopy

- Beginning in1968, Tasumi and Krimm undertook a series of experiments using a mixed crystal infrared spectroscopy technique.
- Solution grown PE crystals : chain folding takes place with adjacent reentry along (110) planes. High probability for a molecule to fold back along itself on the next adjacent (110) plane.
- Melt crystallized PE : a much lower extent of adjacent reentry.

6.4.6.2. Carbon-13 NMR

- Favors a tight adjacent reentry fold model for single crystals.
- Three major regions
 - 1) the crystalline region
 - 2) interfacial region : reduces the requirements for chain folding.
 - 3) amorphous region

6.4.6.1. Small-Angle Neutron Scattering

- Single-Crystal Studies
 - : adjacent reentry does not correlates with experiment
 - \rightarrow alternative model by Yoon and Flory (a)

Fig. 6.16 Models of stem reentry for chain sequences in a lamellar-shaped crystal. (a) Regular reentry with superfolding; (b) partial nonadjacency (stem dilution) as required by closer matching of the experimental data in accord with Yoon and Flory; (c) adjacent stem positions without superfolding; (d) the switchboard model. All reentry is along the (110) plane; superfolding is along adjacent (110) planes. View is from the (001) plane, indicated by dots.

6.4.6.1. Small-Angle Neutron Scattering

- Melt crystallized polymers
 - : switchboard model is more appropriate than nearby reentry.
 - i.e. adjacent reentry occurs much less than in solution crystallized polymers.
 - : Frank's Eqn. which describes the minimum conditions to prevent an anomalous density in the amorphous region.

$$\left(1 - P - \frac{2l}{L}\right)\cos\theta \le \frac{3}{10}$$

where P: the probability of back folding
θ: the oblique angle
l: the crystalline stem length
L: the contour length of the chain

Fig. 6.17 Alternative resolutions of the density paradox $(1-p-2I/L)\cos\theta < 3/10$:

(a) increased chain folding beyond critical value(b) oblique angle crystalline stems to reduce amorphous chain density at interface.

- The above findings led to two different models. i.e.
- Solidification model: Dettenmaier et al.
 - : Crystallization occurred by a straightening out of short coil sequences without a long-range diffusion process.
 - \Rightarrow showed how R_q values could remain virtually unchanged during crystallization.
- Variable cluster model : Hoffman
 - : has at least about 2/3 adjacent reentries.
 - ⇒ The fringed micelle model fails, because it predicts that the density of the amorphous polymer at both ends of the crystal will be higher than that of the crystal itself.
 - ⇒ In conclusion, For dilute solution grown crystals a modified regular reentry model fits best, with the same molecule forming a new stem either after immediate reentry or after skipping over one or two nearest-neighbor sites. For melt-formed crystals, the concept of folded chains is considerably modified.

Fig. 6.18. The variable cluster model, showing how a chain can crystallize from the melt with some folding und some amorphous portions, und retain, substantially, its original dimensions and its radius of gyration.

6.5.1. Pressure-induced Crystallization

nterrelateo

- The effect of high pressure on the crystallization process
 - ① Enhancement of the formation of crystal modification with a dense packing
 : favorable for chain extension (Since extended chains have a denser packing that folded chains)
- Fig 6.19 2 Rise of the melting temperature Melting 240 empe-: the change of melting temperature; 220 $P - P^{\circ} = a \left| \left(\frac{T_m}{T_m^{\circ}} \right)^c - 1 \right|$: Simon equation 200 100°C 180 where °: the standard condition 160 (atmosphere pressure) ③ The melting temp.↑ 140 T_m⁰=136 ℃ ⇒ the fold length in crystal lamellae↑ 120a≈ 3kbar, c≈ 4.5 Pressure crystallization is a rather slow process 100 : annealing times ~ several hours or even days 0 Formation mechanism direct from the melt Fig 6.19 Melting temperature of : unfolding and lamella thickening at low temp. for polyethylene as a function of long annealing times. pressure (Osugi and Hara).

- Structure and high-pressure crystallization
 - A relation between the tendency toward extended chain crystallization and the melting point dependence on pressure

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}T_m}{\mathrm{d}P} = T_m^\circ \frac{\Delta V_m}{\Delta H_m} = \kappa$$

$$P^{\mathrm{min}} = \kappa \Gamma_m^{\mathrm{min}} = \kappa$$

A T 7

 $P_{(>100nm)}^{\text{mm}} \approx 60\kappa^{-1}$

JT

: The minimum pressure required to form extended chains > 10⁻⁷m in the crystal

Table 6.7 Correlation between κ and $P^{min}_{(>100nm)}$

polymer	к [K/kbar]	P ^{min} (>100nm) [kbar]
PE	25	~3
Nylon	15-40	~2 (?)
PCTFE	65	~1
PTFE	140	~0.3

The disadvantage of pressure crystallization

: a quasi-isotropic brittle product (\therefore randomly oriented crystallites without much interconnection)

 \rightarrow very poor mechanical properties!

6.5.2. Stress-induced Crystallization

A. Axially oriented crystallization by drawing of spun filaments

- If an isotropic polymer is subjected to an imposed external stress at a suitable temperature (usually above T_g) → a structural rearrangement : orientation
- Semi-crystalline polymers → drastic rearrangement : stress-induced crystallization
- By a drawing machine consists of two sets of rolls → the filament becomes thinner abruptly over a short distance : neck → almost completely reorganized
- Rapid cooling-down (under stress) → the orientation is frozen in, combined with a very fast fibrillar crystallization
- Properties

Fig 6.20 Stress-strain diagram

	Draw ratio (Λ)									
	1 2.8 3.1 3.6									
density (ρ) (20 °C) (g/cm ³)	1.338	1.369	1.378	1.380	1.381					
crystallinity (x _c) (%)	3	22	37	40	41					
tensile strength (σ _{max}) (cN/tex)	11.8	23.5	32.1	43.0	51.6					
elongation at break (%)	-	55	39	27	11.5					
Young's modulus (10 ⁹ N/m ²)	2.6	7.8	11.5	14.9	18.0					

Table 6.8 Stratch series of PET varns

B. Spinning with high-speed winding

- Physical structure of polymers dependent on the rate of extension during spinning (on the winding speed)
- Example of PET
 - : at low winding speed <35 m/s \rightarrow amorphous
 - : at high speed >100 m/s → well-developed crystallites of closely packed molecules
 → Fig 6.22
- The molar mass, the molar mass distribution, the temperature, pre-heating time of melt, the 10^oN/m^{21.0}
 shape of the spinneret and the way of cooling
 → also influence the crystalline structure

6.6.1. Gel-spinning

• Until 1970's, the theoretical modulus of polymer chains and the practical value \rightarrow a substantial gap \rightarrow bridged by the fibers made by extended chain crystallization

shish kebab structure

: Cooling the dilute solution of PE under continuous stirring \rightarrow very fine fibers \rightarrow a fine central core of extended CH₂ chains, with an outer sheath of folded chain .

Fig 6.23 Electron micrograph of polyethylene "shish kebabs" (Pennings et al., 1970).

- Gel-spinning
- produced by spinning a dilute solution of very high MW PE into cold water→ drying → drawing in a hot oven at about 120 °C
- Requirements for successful gel-spinning/ultra-drawing
 - a) very high MW ($M_w > 10^6$)
 - b) disentangled individual molecular coils (can easily be unfolded on drawing)

Fig 6.24 Experimental set-up for the continuous production of PE fibers.

- Some basic considerations
- For chain extension → a considerable stretching force to balance the entropic retracting force of the chains
- The extension time of the same order as the relaxation time of the chains (10⁻³ s)
 - $\dot{\epsilon} \cdot \Theta \approx 1$ for tensile stretch $(\dot{\epsilon})$
 - $\dot{\mathbf{r}}$ Θ ≈ 1 for shear stretch

* The relaxation time (*Bueche*)

 $\Theta_0 = \frac{6}{n^2} \cdot \frac{\eta_0 M}{\rho RT} \quad \Rightarrow \text{ chain extension is a function of molecular weight}$

Fig 6.25 Percentage extension by different deformations (for various molecular masses) (a) a function of the stretch rate (b) a function of the shear rate

Properties of gel-spun yarns
 Fig 6.26 (a) melt-crvs
 The difference in drawing behavior between conventional melt-extruded polymers and ultra-drawable gel-spun polymers
 Correlation between the initial concentration of the polymer in its solvent and the attainable draw ratio
 A_{max} = CØ^{-1/2}
 C = constant Ø = polymer vol. fractoin

100

80

60

40

20

 Relationship between draw ratio, modulus and strength

: Young's modulus \rightarrow linear function of draw ratio

 $E(\text{GPa}) = 2.85\Lambda_{\text{max}}$

: Strength vs. modulus (well-known form)

 $\hat{\sigma} = 0.1 E^{3/4}$

Fig 6.26 Nominal stress σ vs. draw ratio (a) melt-crystallized; (b) solution-spun/extracted

 $\hat{\sigma} = 0.1 E^{3/4}$

Fig 6.27 Tensile strength vs. Young's modulus for high MW PE ($M_n=200 \times 10^3$, $M_w=1.5 \times 10^6$): (\bigcirc) surface grown (\bigcirc) solution spun-drawn wet; (\bigcirc) solution spun/drawn dried

- Restrictions
- Heating above T_m for a short time (~1 min) → ultra-drawability of gel-spun polymers destroys → retract to folded chains
 → use temperature is about 40 °C below T_m
- For ultra-drawing, polymer should have smooth chains without large side groups or H-bonded groups and with as few entanglement as possible
- For limited number of polymers, ultra-drawing has proved possible and successful : linear PE, PP, poly(oxymethylene), PVA and PAN

Table 6.9 Physical properties of para-crystalline fibers in comparison with other reinforcing materials

Duonoution	Paracrystalline fibers						Conventional spun/drawn fibers		Inorganic filaments		
Properties		Aramid		Carbon		Arom.	Gel-				
		НМ	HS	НМ	HS	polyes ter	spun PE	PA-6	PETP	E-glass	Steel
Modulus E	Tensile (GPa)	130	65	400	230	75	150- 220	5-15	10-20	75	200
and E/p	Do, theor.* (GPa)	240	240	960	960	(250)	250	170	137	69-138	208
(specif.)	Tensile (specific) (N/tex)	90	45	300	150	35	200	7	10	20	26
Strength	Tensile (GPa)	3.0	4	2.3	3.1	2.9	3.5	0.8	1	2.1	2.8
σ and	Do., theor.* (GPa)	21	21	4	5.7	-	25	28	17	11	11
1.	Tenacity (N/tex)	2.1	2-3	1.2	2-3	2.1	3.5	0.8	0.75	0.8	0.35
σ/ρ (specif.)	Compression (GPa)	0.25	0.3	1.5	2.5	-	-	0.7	0.1	0.5	2.4
	Do. (specific) (N/tex)	0.17	0.2	0.86	1.3	-	-	0.07	0.07	0.19	0.31
other	Density (g/cm ³)	1.44	1.44	1.90	1.74	1.40	1.0	1.1	1.38	2.6	7.8
Physical Properties	Max. working temp. ($^{\circ}$ C)	200	250	600	500	150	60	120	120	350	300
	T _m (℃)	480	480	3600	3600	305	135	220	260	700	1400
	T _d (℃)	480	480	3600	3600	400	390	350	380	-	-
	brittleness (test result)	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	+

6.7. Extended Chain Crystallization of Rigid Macromolecules

- the para-para type aromatic polymers (ex. Aramid)
 - : theoretically high orientation in fiber form
 - : difficulty in melting and dissolution
 - \rightarrow Fortunately exhibit the unusual property to be able to form liquid crystalline under certain condition)
 - \rightarrow Details in next chapter (chapter 7)
- Properties

: theoretical expression for the modulus and the elastic stress-strain relation for aramid fibers

$$\frac{1}{E} = \frac{1}{e_c} + \frac{\left\langle \sin^2 \Phi_0 \right\rangle}{2g} \qquad \varepsilon = \frac{\sigma}{e_c} + \frac{\left\langle \sin^2 \Phi_0 \right\rangle}{2} \left[1 - \exp\left(1 - \frac{\sigma}{g}\right) \right]$$

 e_c = the chain modulus g = the modulus for shear between chains $<\sin^2\Phi_0>$ = initial orientation distribution parameter

6.8.1. A Review of Crystal Structure

- The science of geometric crystallography
 - : being concerned with the outward spatial arrangement of crystal planes and the geometric shape of crystals.
 - → Three fundamental laws
- Three fundamental laws

(a) the law of constancy of interfacial angle

- For a given substance corresponding faces or planes that form the external surface of a crystal always intersect at a definite angle. This angle remains constant independent of the sizes of the individual faces.

(b) the law of rationality of indices

- For any crystal a set of three coordinate axes can be chosen such that all the faces of the crystal will either intercept these axes at definite distances from the origin or be parallel to some of the axes.
- Weiss indices = 1/ Miller indices

$$(ma:nb:pc) = \left(\frac{1}{m}a:\frac{1}{n}b:\frac{1}{p}c\right)$$

Three fundamental laws

(c) the law of symmetry

- All crystals of the same compound possess the same elements of symmetry.
- Three Types of Symmetry
 - 1) a plane of symmetry : passes through the center of the crystal and divides it into two equal portions, each of which is the mirror image of the other.
 - ② a line of symmetry : an imaginary line through the center of the crystal to appear unchanged two, three, four, or six times in 360° of revolution.
 - ③ a center of symmetry : If every face has an identical atom at an equal distance on the opposite side of this center.

6.8.2. X-ray Methods

- Bragg's Law $2d \cdot \sin \theta = n\lambda$
 - : the intensity of the diffraction spot or line depends on
 - 1) the scattering power of the individual atoms, which in turn depends on the number of electrons in the atom.
 - (2) the arrangement of the atoms with regard to the crystal planes
 - ③ the angle of reflection
 - ④ the No. of crystallographically equivalent sets of planes contributing
 - (5) the amplitude of the thermal vibrations of the atoms.
 - : Intensity & the positions are required to calculate the crystal lattice.

6.8.3. Electron Diffraction of Single Crystals

: provides a wealth of information about the very small, including a view of the act ual crystal size and shape.

6.8.4. IR Absorption

- IR Spectra of semicrystalline polymer include "crystallization-sensitive lands." intensities of these lands vary with the degree of crystallinity.
- ② By measuring the polarized infrared spectra of oriented semicrystalline polymers, information about both the molecular and crystal structure can be obtained. Both uniaxially and biaxially oriented samples can be studied.
- ③ The regular arrangement of polymer molecules in a crystalline region can be treated theoretically, utilizing the symmetry properties of the chain or crystal. With the advent of modern computers, the normal modes of vibrations of crystalline polymers may be calculated and compared with experiment.
- ④ Deuteration of specific group yields information about the extent of the contribution of a given group to specific spectral lands. This aids in the assignment of the lands as well as the identification of lands owing to the crystalline and amorphous regions.

6.8.5. Raman Spectra

 Since the selection rules for Raman and IR spectra are different, Raman spectra yield information complementary to the IR spectra.

- For example, the S-S linkages in vulcanized rubber and the C=C bonds yield strong Raman spectra but are very weak or unobservable in IR spectra.

- ② Since the Raman spectrum is a scattering phenomenon, whereas the IR methods depends on transmission, small bulk, powdered, or turbid sample can be employed.
- ③ On analysis, the Raman spectra provide information equivalent to very lowfrequency measurements, even lower than 10cm-1. Such low-frequency studies provide information on lattice vibrations.

④ Polarization measurements can be made on oriented samples.

Keywords in Chapter 7

- Nematic, Smectic, Cholesteric, Discotic

- First-order transitions in LC

- Lyotropic, Thermotropic, Mesogenic

 $-\chi_1$ for LC

