

Polymer Chemistry

Macromolecules

Macromolecules also known as polymers, consist of a large no. of simple monomeric structural unit which repeated over and over again to form a giant like molecule by the covalent linkage b/w the repeating repeating monomers.

for example in the polymer —A-A-A-A-A— and -A-B-A-B-A-B- for instance, the repeat units are A and A-B respectively.

e.g. Polyethylene



Degree of polymerisation

The degree of polymerisation represents the no. of structural or monomeric units contained in a polymer. It's generally represented by K or D.P or

$$K = \frac{M_p}{M_0}$$

M_p = mass of Polymer

M_0 = " " monomer

Extent of polymerisation

It is the fraction of monomer reacted at a given time i.e. it is the ratio of no. of molecules undergoing reacⁿ to the initial no. of molecules. It is denoted by p .

$$\text{so, } p = \frac{N_0 - N}{N_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow p = 1 - \frac{N}{N_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{N_0}{N} = \frac{1}{1-p}$$

N_0 = no. of total monomer / initial no. of molecules

N = no. of monomer at a given time / The no. of molecules which does not undergoing reacⁿ.

Molar masses of Polymers

The molar mass of a polymer increases continuously during the condensation reaction involved depending upon the degree of polymerisation. However, since the polymerisation chains might be broken at different stages, the final ppt generally contains macromolecules of different masses.

It is necessary, therefore to take an avg. molar mass in these substances. To describe the distribution of molar masses, the following avg. are commonly used.

i) Number avg. molar mass (\overline{M}_n)

It is defined as the obtained by carrying out the summation over the fraction of molecules multiplied by their corresponding molar mass, i.e.

$$\overline{M}_n = \sum_i f_i M_i$$

Subscript n stands for no. and f is as

$$f_i = \frac{N_i}{N_{\text{total}}}$$

Where N_i is the no. of molecules each having molar mass M_i and N_{total} is the total no. of molecules given by

$$N_{\text{total}} = \sum_i N_i$$

$$\text{So, } \overline{M}_n = \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i}{\sum_i N_i}$$

; N_i = no. of i type molecule per unit vol.

$$= \frac{N_1 M_1 + N_2 M_2 + N_3 M_3 + \dots}{N_1 + N_2 + N_3 + \dots}$$

; f_i is known as w_i

ii) Mass avg. molar mass (\overline{M}_w)

Obtained by the carrying out summation over the fraction by their corresponding molar mass, i.e.

$$\overline{M}_w = \sum_i w_i M_i ; \text{ it also given by symbol } \overline{M}_w$$

$$\text{Where } w_i = \frac{m_i}{m_{\text{total}}}$$

\overline{M}_w = Weight avg. molar mass

Where m_i is the mass of the polymer molecules, each having molar mass M_i and m_{total} is the total mass of the sample as

$$m_{\text{total}} = \sum_i m_i$$

Thus,

$$\overline{M_m} = \frac{\sum_i m_i \cdot M_i}{\sum m_i}$$

Again $m_i = \frac{N_i}{N_A} \cdot M_i$ [since m_i is the mass per unit mol^m it may be taken as c_i]

$$\text{So, } \overline{M_m} = \frac{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i^2}{\sum N_i \cdot M_i}$$

$$= \frac{N_1 M_1^2 + N_2 M_2^2 + N_3 M_3^2 + \dots}{N_1 M_1 + N_2 M_2 + N_3 M_3 + \dots}$$

We can also write

$$\overline{M_m} = \frac{\sum_i c_i \cdot M_i}{\sum c_i} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \overline{M_m} = \frac{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i}{\sum N_i} = \frac{\sum m_i \cdot N_A}{\sum m_i} \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad = \frac{\sum c_i}{\sum (c_i / m_i)} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\text{and } \overline{M_n} = \frac{\sum_i c_i}{\sum (c_i / m_i)}$$

iii) Z-avg. molar mass (\overline{M}_z)

It is related as third power of avg. molecular weight in a polydisperse polymer

$$\text{i.e. } \overline{M}_z = \frac{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i^3}{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (\sqrt[3]{M} - 1)^3 \text{ mol}$$

Generally $\overline{M}_z > \overline{M}_m > \overline{M}_n$

iv) Viscosity avg. molar mass (\overline{M}_v)

The viscosity avg. molar mass is defined as

$$\overline{M}_v = \left(\frac{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i^{(a+1)}}{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i} \right)^{1/a}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\overline{M}_v)^a = \frac{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i^{(a+1)}}{\sum_i N_i \cdot M_i} = \frac{\sum_i c_i \cdot M_i^a}{\sum c_i}$$

Where a is characterised by the system under investigation and generally lies in the range $0.5 < a \leq 1.0$

Note, $\overline{M}_v = \overline{M}_m$ for $a=1$.

Q. Show that $\overline{M_m} > \overline{M_n}$

Ans $\overline{M_m} = \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^2}{\sum_i N_i M_i}$ and $\overline{M_n} = \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i}{\sum_i N_i}$

$$\text{Now, } \overline{M_m} - \overline{M_n} = \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^2}{\sum_i N_i M_i} - \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i}{\sum_i N_i}$$

$$= \frac{\left\{ \sum_i N_i \cdot \sum_i N_i M_i^2 - (\sum_i N_i M_i)^2 \right\} \times \frac{1}{\sum_i N_i^2}}{\left\{ \sum_i N_i \cdot \sum_i N_i M_i \right\} \cdot \frac{1}{\sum_i N_i^2}}$$
$$= \frac{\frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^2}{\sum_i N_i} - \left(\frac{\sum_i N_i M_i}{\sum_i N_i} \right)^2}{\frac{\sum_i N_i M_i}{\sum_i N_i}}$$
$$= \frac{\overline{M_m^2} - \overline{M_n}^2}{\overline{M_n}}$$

$$\text{Now, } (M_i - \overline{M_n})^2 \geq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M_i^2} - 2M_i \overline{M_n} + \overline{M_n}^2 \geq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M_m^2} - 2\overline{M_n}^2 + \overline{M_n}^2 \geq 0 \quad [\text{for } i \text{ becoming } n^{\text{th}} \text{ constituent}]$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M_m^2} - \overline{M_n}^2 \geq 0$$

$$\text{So, } \frac{\overline{M_m^2} - \overline{M_n}^2}{\overline{M_n}} \geq 0$$

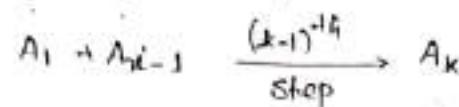
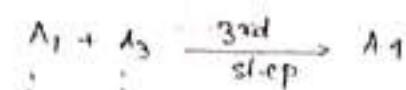
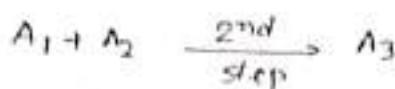
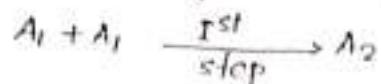
$$\Rightarrow \overline{M_m} - \overline{M_n} \geq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M_m} \geq \overline{M_n}$$

Prepared by

Distribution of molecular sizes

Let us take a generalize polymerisation as



Probability of finding a polymer with size 'k', is equal to the probability of having $(k-1)$ elementary step in polymerisation process. i.e. in a k-mer, there are $(k-1)$ no. of group A reacted.

Now probability of each step is equal because

- i) The reactⁿ does not depend on the chain length and.
- ii) Conc. of monomer is very big, large.

Thus Probability of k-mer is given by

$$\pi_k \propto p^{(k-1)} ; p = \text{extent of polymerisation}$$

$$\Rightarrow \pi_k = c p^{(k-1)} ; c = \text{Proportionality const.}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k = c \sum_i p^{(k-1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = c [1 + p^2 + p^3 + \dots]$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = c (1-p)^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow c = (1-p)$$

$$\text{so, } \pi_k = (1-p) p^{(k-1)}$$

Since series $(1-p^2 + p^3 - \dots)$ gives $(1-p)^{-1}$

Let us calculate \overline{M}_n and \overline{M}_m in terms of P

$$\overline{M}_n = \sum_i \left(\frac{N_i}{N} \right) M_i = \sum_i \pi_i \cdot M_i$$

$$= \sum_i (1-p) p^{(i-1)} \cdot M_i = \sum_i (1-p) \cdot p^{(i-1)} \cdot i M_0$$

$$= (1-p) M_0 \sum_i i p^{(i-1)}$$

$$= (1-p) M_0 [1 + 2p + 3p^2 + \dots]$$

$$= (1-p) M_0 \cdot \frac{1}{(1-p)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M}_n = \frac{M_0}{(1-p)} \Rightarrow \frac{\overline{M}_n}{M_0} = \frac{1}{(1-p)}$$

$$\begin{cases} i = \frac{M_i}{M_0} ; M_0 = \text{mass of monomer} \\ (1+2p+3p^2+\dots) = (1-p)^{-2} \end{cases}$$

So, no. avg. extent of Polymerisation (\bar{X}_n) is given as

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \bar{X}_n = \frac{\bar{M}_n}{M_0} = \frac{1}{(1-p)} \\ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p^k = 1 + p + p^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-p} \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k p^{k-1} = - \frac{1}{(1-p)^2} \cdot (-1) = \frac{1}{(1-p)^2} \end{array} \right.$$

Now, we have

$$\bar{M}_n = \sum_i w_i M_i \longrightarrow (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also, } \bar{M}_n &= \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^2}{\sum_i N_i M_i} = \frac{\sum_i \left(\frac{N_i}{N_0}\right) M_i^2}{\sum_i \left(\frac{N_i}{N_0}\right) M_i} \\ &= \frac{\sum_i \pi_i M_i^2}{\sum_i \pi_i M_i} = \frac{\sum_i \pi_i \cdot i M_0 \cdot M_i}{\sum_i \pi_i \cdot i M_0} \\ &= \frac{\sum_i i \pi_i M_i}{\sum_i i \pi_i} \longrightarrow (2) \end{aligned}$$

Comparing eqn (1) and (2) we get

$$\begin{aligned} w_i &= \frac{i \pi_i}{\sum_i i \pi_i} \\ &= \frac{i (1-p) \cdot p^{i-1}}{\sum_i i (1-p) p^{i-1}} = \frac{i p^{i-1}}{\sum_i i p^{i-1}} \\ \Rightarrow w_i &= i p^{i-1} \cdot (1-p)^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } \bar{M}_n &= \sum_i w_i M_i = \sum_i i (1-p)^2 p^{i-1} M_i \\ &= (1-p)^2 \sum_i i \cdot p^{i-1} \cdot i M_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$= (1-p)^2 M_0 \sum_i i^2 p^{i-1} \longrightarrow (3)$$

Let evaluate $\sum_i i^2 p^{i-1}$

we have already

$$\sum_i i^2 p^{i-1} = \frac{1}{(1-p)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_i i p^i = \frac{p}{(1-p)^2} \quad [\text{Multiplying both sides by } p]$$

Now differentiating both sides we have

$$\sum_i i^2 p^{i-1} = \frac{1}{(1-p)^2} + \frac{-p}{(1-p)^3} \times (-1)$$

$$= \frac{1-p+2p}{(1-p)^3} = \frac{1+p}{(1-p)^3}$$

Therefore eqn (3) becomes

$$\overline{M_m} = (1-p)^2 \cdot M_0 \cdot \frac{1+p}{(1-p)^3}$$

$$= \frac{1+p}{1-p} M_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\overline{M_m}}{M_0} = \frac{1+p}{1-p}$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M_m} = (1+p) \overline{M_n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\overline{M_m}}{\overline{M_n}} = (1+p)$$

$$\overline{M_m} = \frac{M_0}{(1-p)}$$

$\frac{\overline{M_m}}{\overline{M_n}}$ = Polydispersity index

We have mass fraction or weight fraction of polymer (w_i) as

$$w_i = i (1-p)^2 p^{(i-1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln w_i = \ln i + 2 \ln (1-p) + (i-1) \ln p$$

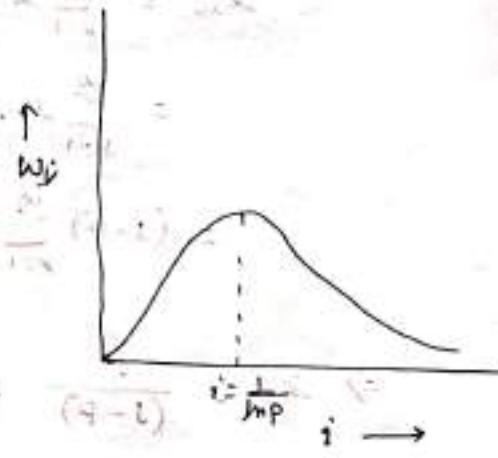
$$\Rightarrow \frac{d \ln w_i}{di} = \frac{1}{i} + \ln p$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{w_i} \frac{dw_i}{di} = \frac{1}{i} + \ln p$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2 \ln w_i}{di^2} = -\frac{1}{i^2} < 0 \quad \text{i.e. maxima}$$

Setting $\frac{dw_i}{di}$ as zero we get

$$i_{\max} = \frac{1}{\ln p}$$



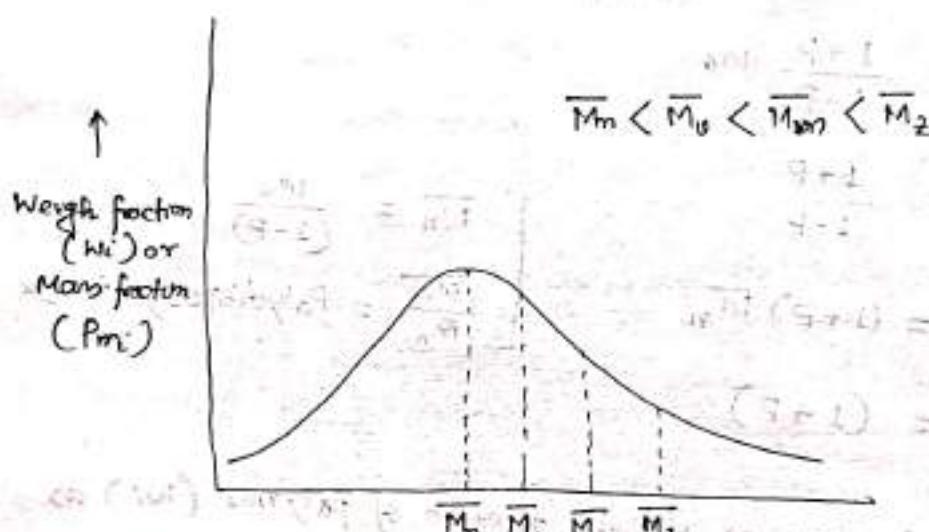
$$\text{Now } w_i = i (1-p)^2 i p^{(i-1)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_{m_i} &= M_0 w_i = M_0 (1-p)^2 i p^{(i-1)} \\ &= (1-p)^2 M_i \cdot p^{i-1} \\ &= (1-p)^2 M_i \cdot p^{\left(\frac{M_i}{M_0} - 1\right)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln P_{m_i} = 2 \ln (1-p) + \ln M_i + \left(\frac{M_i}{M_0} - 1\right) \ln p$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d \ln P_{m_i}}{d M_i} = \frac{1}{M_i} + \frac{1}{M_0} \ln p$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2 \ln P_{m_i}}{d M_i^2} = -\frac{1}{M_i^2} < 0$$



Molecular weight (M_i) \rightarrow

Avg. degree of polymerization (K_{av})

Avg. value of k is defined as

$$K_{av} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \pi_k$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot (1-p) p^{(k-1)}$$

$$= (1-p) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot p^{(k-1)} = \frac{1-p}{(1-p)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow K_{av} = \frac{1}{(1-p)} = \frac{M_p}{M_0}$$

Q Define Polydispersity index and hence show that $\overline{M_m} > \overline{M_n}$

Ans The ratio $\frac{\overline{M_m}}{\overline{M_n}}$ is a measure of the polydispersity of a sample of a polymer, i.e.

$$\text{Polydispersity} = \frac{\overline{M_m}}{\overline{M_n}} = (1 + P)$$

where P = extent of polymerisation

$$\overline{M_m} = \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^2}{\sum_i N_i M_i} \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{M_n} = \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i}{\sum_i N_i}$$

For monodisperse sample, $P = 0$

$$\text{then } \frac{\overline{M_m}}{\overline{M_n}} = 1 \Rightarrow \overline{M_m} = \overline{M_n}$$

For polydisperse sample: $P > 0$, then

$$\frac{\overline{M_m}}{\overline{M_n}} > 1 \Rightarrow \overline{M_m} > \overline{M_n}$$

Combining we get $\overline{M_m} > \overline{M_n}$

Proved.

Q A hydroxyacid $\text{HO}-\text{CH}_2-\text{COOH}$ is polymerised and is found that the PDI has a no. avg. molar mass 20000 g/mol.

i) What is extent of reaction ii) What is the degree of polymerization

iii) Find the mass avg. molar mass?

Ans

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i)} \quad \text{We have } \overline{M_n} &= \frac{M_0}{1-P} = \frac{132}{1-P} \\ \Rightarrow P &= 1 - \frac{M_0}{\overline{M_n}} = 1 - \frac{132}{20000} \\ &= 1 - 0.0066 = 0.9934 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{ii)} \quad k_{av} = \frac{1}{(1-P)} = \frac{1}{1-0.9934} = 151.5$$

$$k_{av} = \frac{\overline{M_n}}{M_0} = \frac{20000}{132} = 151.5$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{iii)} \quad \overline{M_m} &= \overline{M_n} (1+P) \\ &= 20000 (1+0.9934) \text{ g/mol} \\ &\approx 39868 \text{ g/mol} \end{aligned}$$

Q1 A solution contains equal no of particles with molar masses 10000 g/mol and 20000 g/mol respectively. Calculate \overline{M}_n and \overline{M}_m .

Ans

$$\overline{M}_n = \frac{N_1 M_1 + N_2 M_2}{N_1 + N_2}$$

Since $N_1 = N_2$, we get

$$\overline{M}_n = \frac{M_1 + M_2}{2} = \frac{10000 + 20000}{2} \text{ g/mol} = 15000 \text{ g/mol}$$

$$\text{Again } \overline{M}_m = \frac{N_1 M_1^2 + N_2 M_2^2}{N_1 M_1 + N_2 M_2}$$

$$= \frac{M_1^2 + M_2^2}{M_1 + M_2} \quad [\because N_1 = N_2]$$

$$= \frac{(10000)^2 + (20000)^2}{10000 + 20000} \text{ g/mol} = 16666.6 \text{ g/mol}$$

Q2 A suspension contains equal masses of particles with molar masses 10000 g/mol and 20000 g/mol respectively. Calculate \overline{M}_n and \overline{M}_m .

Ans

$$\text{Since, } m = \frac{N}{N_A} \cdot M \text{, so, } N = \left(\frac{m}{M} \right) N_A$$

$$\overline{M}_n = \frac{N_1 M_1 + N_2 M_2}{N_1 + N_2} = \frac{\frac{m_1}{M_1} N_A M_1 + \frac{m_2}{M_2} N_A M_2}{\left(\frac{m_1}{M_1} \right) N_A + \left(\frac{m_2}{M_2} \right) N_A}$$

$$= \frac{m_1 + m_2}{\frac{m_1}{M_1} + \frac{m_2}{M_2}} = \frac{2m_1}{m_1 \left(\frac{1}{M_1} + \frac{1}{M_2} \right)} \quad [\because m_1 = m_2]$$

$$= \frac{2M_1 M_2}{M_1 + M_2} = \frac{2 \times 10000 \times 20000}{20000 + 10000} \text{ g/mol} = 13333.3 \text{ g/mol}$$

$$\text{Again, } \overline{M}_m = \frac{N_1 M_1^2 + N_2 M_2^2}{N_1 M_1 + N_2 M_2} = \frac{N_A m_1 M_1 + N_A m_2 M_2}{N_A m_1 + N_A m_2}$$

$$= \frac{m_1 M_1^2 + m_2 M_2^2}{m_1 + m_2} = \frac{m(M_1 + M_2)}{2m_1} \quad [\because m_1 = m_2]$$

$$= \frac{M_1 + M_2}{2} = \frac{10000 + 20000}{2} \text{ g/mol}$$

$$= 15000 \text{ g/mol}$$

Molecular weight determination

- i) Osmometry
- ii) Viscometry
- iii) Light scattering
- iv) End-group analysis
- v) Sedimentation, etc.

Osmometry

The no. avg. molar mass of many polymer can be measured conveniently by osmometry. Using the colligative nature of osmotic pressure - the value of \bar{M}_n is determined.

From thermodynamic derivation of osmotic pressure (Π) we have

$$\Pi V = nRT = \frac{c}{M} RT \Rightarrow \Pi = \frac{c}{M} RT$$

V = vol^m of sol^m, T = temp of experiment

n = no. of moles of species.

The above eqn is strictly valid for ideal and monodisperse sol^m only. Since polymer is a non-ideal sol^m and also polydisperse. So, it will not directly applicable for polymer sol^m.

Thus, with the introduction of non-ideality Π may be written as

$$\Pi = \frac{c}{M} RT + b(T) \cdot RT \left(\frac{c}{M} \right)^2 + \dots \quad \rightarrow (1)$$

For ideal sol^m $b(T) = 0$

$$\text{Now } c = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{N}{V}$$

$$\text{Now, } \frac{c}{M} = \frac{n}{V} = \frac{m}{VM}$$

$$= \frac{N}{NAV} \Rightarrow c = \frac{NM}{NAV} \quad \rightarrow (2)$$

Thus rearranging we get

$$\Pi = \frac{N}{NAV} RT + b(T) \cdot RT \left(\frac{N}{NAV} \right)^2 + \dots \quad \rightarrow (3)$$

Again from eqn (2) we have

$$c = \frac{NM}{NAV}$$

$$\text{i.e. } c_1 = \frac{N_1 M_1}{NAV}, \quad c_2 = \frac{N_2 M_2}{NAV}, \dots, \quad c_i = \frac{N_i M_i}{NAV} \text{ and so on}$$

Thus introducing polydispersity factor we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 c &= \sum_i c_i \\
 &= \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i}{N_A V} = \frac{\sum_i N_i' M_i'}{\sum_i N_i'} \cdot \frac{\sum_i N_i'}{N_A V} \\
 &= \frac{\overline{M_n} \cdot N}{N_A \cdot V} \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{c}{\overline{M_n}} &= \frac{N}{N_A V} \quad \longrightarrow (1)
 \end{aligned}$$

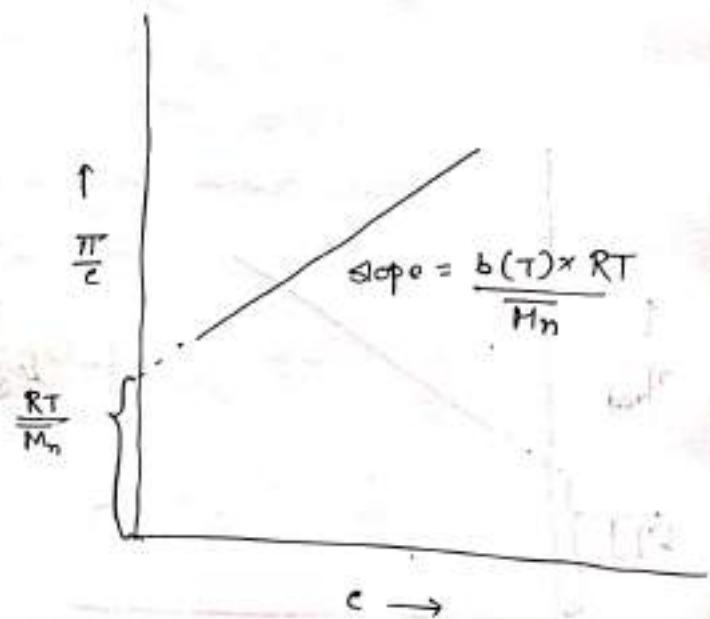
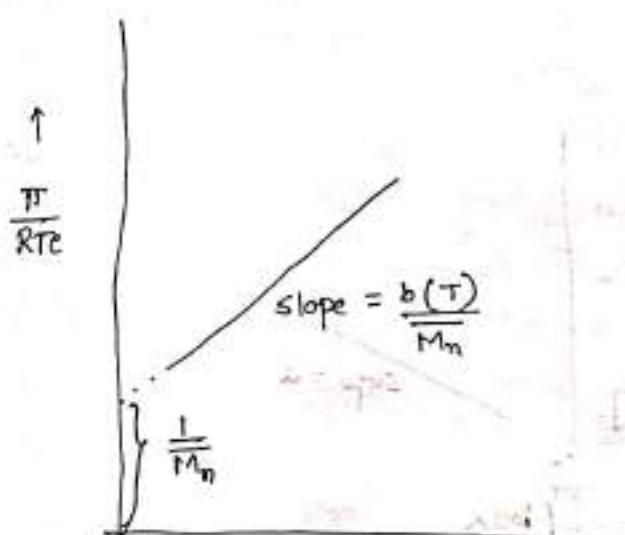
Substitute (1) in eqn (3) we may write

$$\pi = \frac{c}{\overline{M_n}} RT + b(T) \left(\frac{c}{\overline{M_n}} \right)^2 RT + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\pi}{cRT} = \frac{1}{\overline{M_n}} + b(T) \cdot \frac{c}{\overline{M_n}} \quad \{ \text{neglect all the higher terms} \}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\pi}{c} = \frac{RT}{\overline{M_n}} + b(T) \cdot \frac{RTc}{\overline{M_n}}$$

The above eqn are applicable for polymers except for dilute soln.



$$(1 - \frac{1}{c})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \approx 1 + \frac{c}{2} \quad \text{for small } c$$

Viscometry

The most evident distinguish property of a polymer soln is its viscosity. The measurement provide viscosity η_{sp} & molar mass (\bar{M}_v). Determination of \bar{M}_v requires the measurement of the viscosity of a polymer soln relative to that of the pure solvent.

The intrinsic viscosity of a polymer soln is found to increase with increase in avg. molar mass of polymer (\bar{M}_v).

This is given by Mark-Houwink eqn as

$$[\eta] = K \bar{M}_v^\alpha$$

Where K and α are const

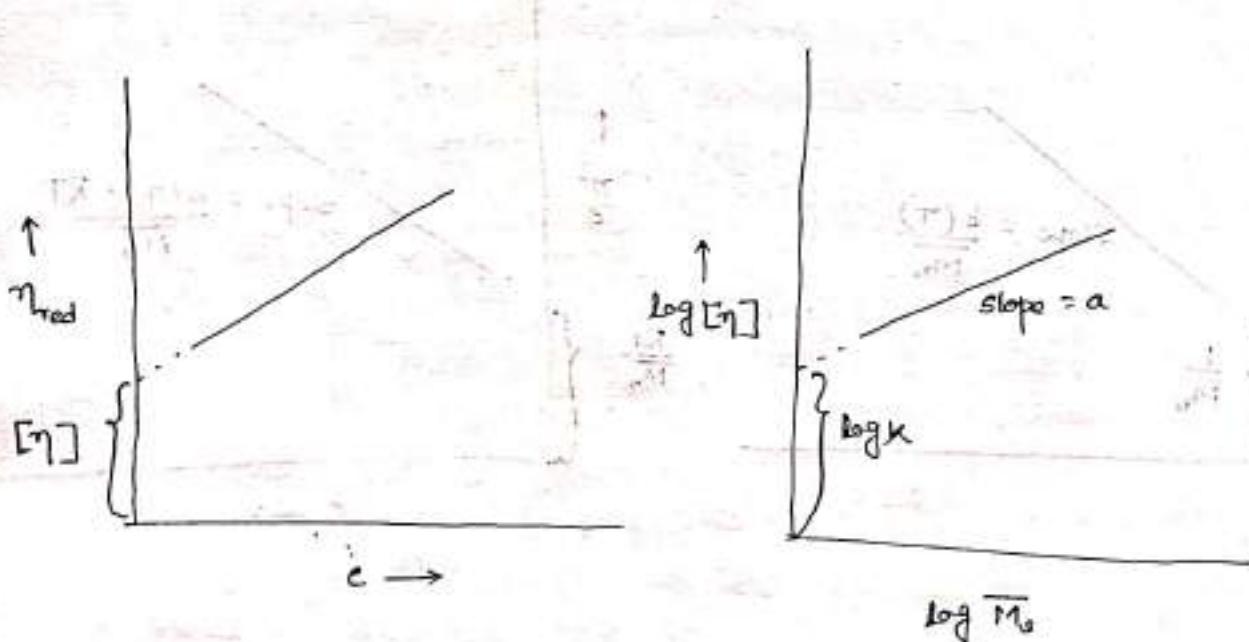
Taking logs we get

$$\log [\eta] = \log K + \alpha \log \bar{M}_v$$

The value of K and α depends on the nature of polymer, nature of the solvent and temp.

Knowing the value of α and K from plot of $\log [\eta]$ vs \bar{M}_v the value of \bar{M}_v can be determined.

The value of $[\eta]_0$ is determined from the intercept of the graph of η_{red} vs c .



$$\eta_{red} = \lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \frac{\eta_{sp}}{c} = K \cdot \frac{1}{c} \left(\frac{\eta}{\eta_0} - 1 \right)$$

$$\eta = \eta_0 + B'c + c'c + \dots$$

The avg. molar mass obtained from viscometry is the \overline{M}_v . This follows from the following analysis.

Since $[\eta]$ is a limiting value as $c \rightarrow 0$, the conc. effect it contains can be written as

$$[\eta] = \lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \frac{\eta_{sp}}{c}$$

For a polydisperse system, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\eta_{sp} &= \sum_i \eta_{sp,i} \\ &= \sum_i c_i [\eta]_i = \sum_i c_i (k M_i^\alpha) \quad [\because [\eta] = k \overline{M}^\alpha]\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Again } c = \sum_i c_i$$

$$\text{Hence } [\eta] = \lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_i c_i (k M_i^\alpha)}{\sum_i c_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow k \overline{M}^\alpha = \frac{k \sum_i c_i M_i^\alpha}{(\sum_i c_i)}$$

~~dropping constant k as it is common in (η) and (\overline{M}) term~~

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M}^\alpha = \frac{\sum_i c_i M_i^\alpha}{\sum_i c_i}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^{(a+1)}}{\sum_i N_i M_i} \stackrel{(1/a)}{=} \overline{M}_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \overline{M} = \left[\frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^{(a+1)}}{\sum_i N_i M_i} \right]^{1/a} = \overline{M}_0^{1/a}$$

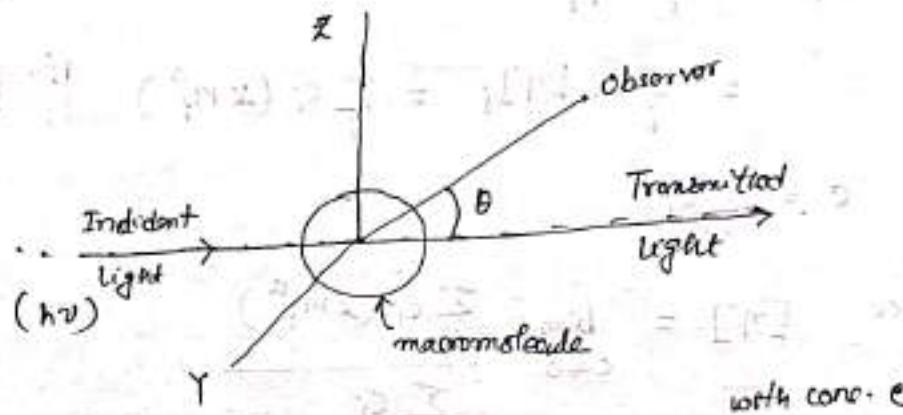
$$\text{for } a=1, \overline{M}_0 = \overline{M}_m$$

for most polymer system, the value a lies in the range of 0.5 to 0.8

Light Scattering techniques

If a light beam is passed through a colloidal solⁿ, it is possible to see the light beam from the sides. This is the well known Tyndall effect which results from the scattering of a part of beam of light by the colloidal particles in all directions.

In case of macromolecules, the colloidal particles are highly swollen and the gel particles consist of about 90 to 99% of solvent. The refractive index of such particles is not very different from that of the solvent.



According to Debye eqⁿ turbidity (γ) of a system is given as

$$\gamma = \frac{32\pi^3}{3\lambda^4} \cdot \left(n \frac{dn}{dc} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{k_B T c}{\left(\frac{d\pi}{dc} \right)} \quad \rightarrow (1)$$

where $\left(\frac{d\pi}{dc} \right)$ is the conc. dependence of eq^m osmotic pressure

λ = wavelength of the incident light

n = refractive index of medium

Now, we know osmotic pressure (π) is given as

$$\pi = RT \left[\frac{c^2}{M} + b(T) \left(\frac{c}{M} \right)^2 + \dots \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\pi}{dc} = RT \left[\frac{1}{M} + 2 \cdot b(T) \cdot \frac{c}{M^2} + \dots \right]$$

$$= RT \left[\frac{1}{M} + 2Bc + \dots \right] \quad [B = \frac{b(T)}{M^2}]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\pi}{dc} = RT \left(\frac{1}{M} + 2Bc \right) \quad [\text{neglecting higher terms}]$$

Putting $\left(\frac{d\pi}{dc} \right)$ in eqⁿ (1) we get

$$\gamma = \frac{32\pi^3}{3\lambda^4} \left(n \frac{dn}{dc} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{k_B T c}{RT \left(\frac{1}{M} + 2Bc \right)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma = \frac{32\pi^3}{3\gamma^4} \left(n \frac{dn}{de} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{N_A} \cdot \frac{e}{\frac{1}{M} + 2Be}$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma = \frac{He}{\frac{1}{M} + 2Be} \quad \longrightarrow (2)$$

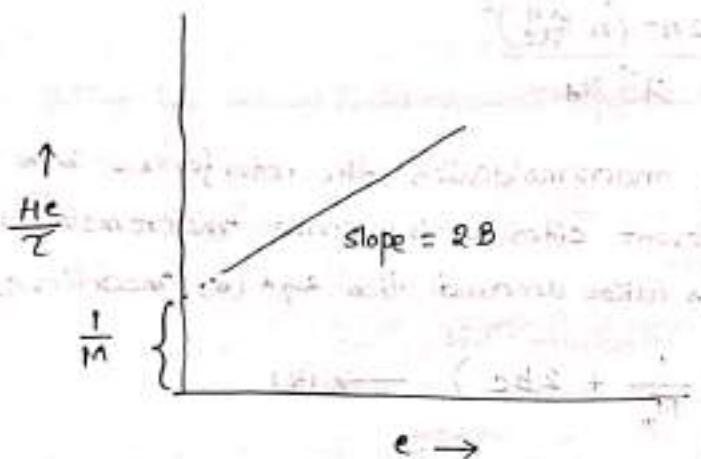
where $H = \frac{32\pi^3 (n \frac{dn}{de})^2}{3\gamma^4 N_A}$ = Debye factor

Inverting eqn (2) we get

$$\frac{1}{\gamma} = \frac{\frac{1}{M} + 2Be}{He}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{He}{\gamma} = \frac{1}{M} + 2Be \quad \longrightarrow (3)$$

Thus a plot of $\frac{He}{\gamma}$ vs e is a straight line with intercept $\frac{1}{M}$



For polydisperse system, the molar mass is computed as below

$$c = \sum_i c_i \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma = \sum_i \gamma_i$$

$$\text{Thus } M = \frac{\gamma}{He} = \frac{\sum_i \gamma_i}{H \sum_i c_i} \quad [\text{When } c \rightarrow 0 \text{ from plot}]$$

$$\Rightarrow M = \frac{\sum_i H c_i M_i}{H \sum_i c_i} = \frac{\sum_i c_i M_i}{\sum_i c_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow M = \frac{\sum_i N_i M_i^2}{\sum_i N_i M_i} = \overline{M_m} \quad \longrightarrow (4)$$

Thus introducing polydispersity it is seen than M obtained in this plot is mean avg. molar mass ($\overline{M_m}$)

Substitute eqn (4) in (5) we have

$$\frac{Kc}{\gamma} = \frac{1}{M_m} + 2Be \longrightarrow (6)$$

Now γ related to optical-molar factor $R(\theta)$ or R_0 as

$$\gamma = R_0 = \frac{3\gamma}{16\pi}$$

Hence eqn (5) becomes

$$\frac{Kc}{\frac{16\pi}{3} R_0} = \frac{1}{M_m} + 2Be$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{Kc}{R_0} = \frac{1}{M_m} + 2Be \longrightarrow (6)$$

Where K is known as scattering const i.e.

$$K = \frac{3H}{16\pi} = \frac{2\pi^2 (n \frac{dn}{dc})^2}{2^9 N_A}$$

For a solⁿ containing macromolecules, the interference b/w the scattering light from different sites of the same macromolecules cannot be excluded. If this is taken account, then eqn (6) modifies as

$$\frac{Kc}{R_0} = \frac{1}{P_0} \left(\frac{1}{M_m} + 2Be \right) \longrightarrow (7)$$

$$\text{Where } P_0 = 1 + \frac{16\pi^2}{3\gamma^2} \overline{r_g^2} \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2}$$

$$\text{Where } \overline{r_g^2} = \text{radii of gyration} = \frac{\pi l^2}{6}$$

θ is the angle b/w scattered and transmitted light

Hence now we can write

$$\frac{Kc}{R_0} = \left(1 + \frac{16\pi^2}{3\gamma^2} \overline{r_g^2} \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{M_m} + 2Be \right) \longrightarrow (8)$$

$$= \frac{1}{M_m} + S \cdot \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} + 2Be + \dots$$

$$\text{Where } S = \frac{16\pi^2}{3\gamma^2} \overline{r_g^2} \cdot \frac{1}{M_m}$$

From the eqⁿ (8), it is apparent that $\frac{Kc}{R_0}$ is linearly depend on conc. c (for a const. angle) and also on $\sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2}$ (provided c is held const).

Zimm plot is the representation of light-scattering data which can be used to conduct the following extrapolation on a single graph

- i) In limit, $c \rightarrow 0$ and $\theta = 0$, $\left(\frac{Kc}{R_0}\right)_{c=0, \theta=0} = \frac{1}{M_m}$
- ii) In limit $\theta = 0$, $\left(\frac{Kc}{R_0}\right)_{\theta=0} = \frac{1}{M_m} + 2Be$
- iii) In limit $c = 0$, $\left(\frac{Kc}{R_0}\right)_{c=0} = \frac{1}{M_m} + S \cdot \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2}$

End group analysis

The number avg. molecular weight (M_n) of linear polymers can be determined by estimating the no. of end groups by chemical analysis. For the successful application of the end group method, the number and nature of end groups per polymer molecule should be reliably known. This method is applicable to linear condensation polymer and also to addⁿ polymers. For example carboxyl terminated polybutadiene, hydroxyl terminated polybutadiene; for detecting and analyzing qualitatively functional end-group of linear polymer, the amino end groups of nylon dissolved in m-cresol are readily determined by titrimetric method. From the knowledge of functional group equivalent and functionality, the molecular weight can be calculated using the following eq²

$$\overline{M}_n = \frac{\text{Functionality}}{\text{Functional group eqv.}}$$

This method is limited to the determination of polymers with a molecular weight of less than 25,000.

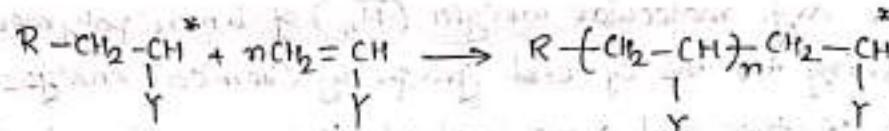
Kinetics of addⁿ polymerization

Addⁿ polymerization has the features of a chain reaction. The reactive centre may be formed by reaction with a free radical, a cation or an anion. Polymerization occurs through the propagation of the active species by the successive addition of a large no. of monomer molecules in a chain reaction occurring in a matter of a second or so at most, and usually in a much shorter time. By far the most common example of chain polymerization is that of the polymerization of vinyl monomers. The process can be as

Initiation



Propagation



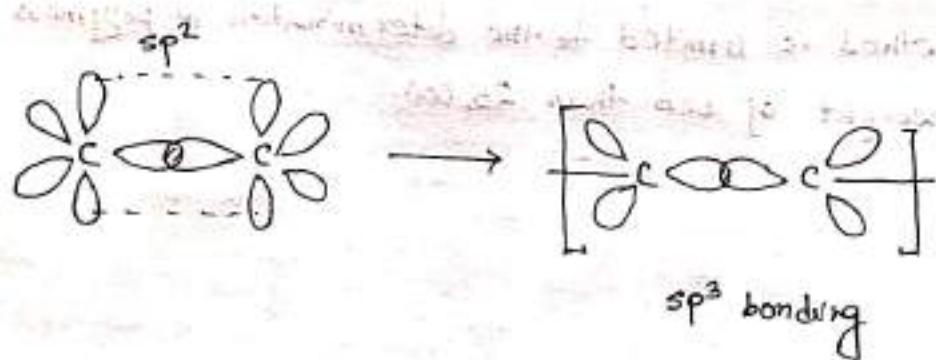
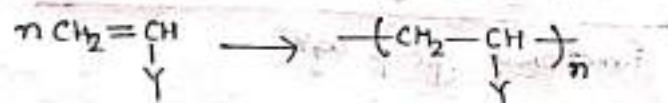
The growth of the polymer chain ceases when the reactive centre is destroyed by one of a no. of possible termination reactions. The basic individual steps in the process are thus

i) Initiation (through UV-ray / $\text{h}\nu$ / α -ray etc.)

ii) Propagation

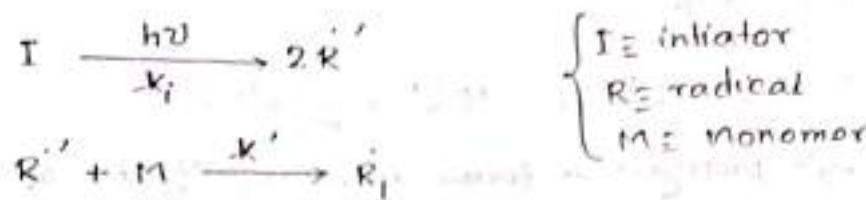
iii) Termination

The driving force for the reaction is provided by the relief in the steric strain by the change of sp^2 bonding to sp^3 bonding.

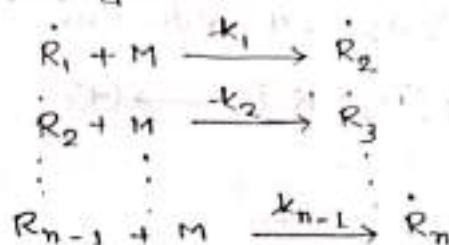


Mechanism and kinetics of free radical addition

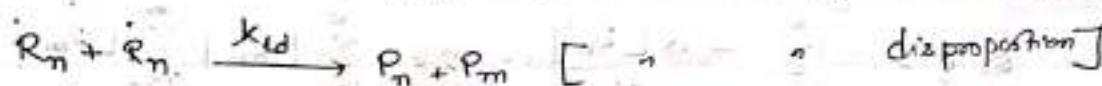
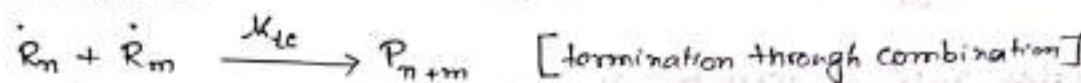
i) Initiation



ii) Chain propagation



iii) Chain termination



Now, rate of initiation will be

$$r_i = 2k_i [I] \longrightarrow (1)$$

$$r_i = \frac{d[\dot{R}_1]}{dt} = 2fk_i [I] = k'[\dot{R}][M] \longrightarrow (2)$$

Assuming 'f' fraction of monomer is reacted at time t

Again total rate of propagation (r_p) will be

$$r_p = k_{1p}[\dot{R}_1][M] + k_{2p}[\dot{R}_2][M] + \dots$$

Rate of propagation step does not depend on the chain length or size of the radical. so,

$$k_{1p} = k_{2p} = k_{3p} = \dots = k_p$$

Putting this we get

$$r_p = k_p [M] \{ [\dot{R}_1] + [\dot{R}_2] + [\dot{R}_3] + \dots \}$$

$$\Rightarrow r_p = k_p [M] \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\dot{R}_n] \longrightarrow (3)$$

Now, Rate of polymerization (r)

= rate of consumption of monomer

$$\text{i.e. } r = -\frac{d[M]}{dt}$$

Since consumption of monomers actually occurs in initiation and propagation.

Thus, $r = r_i + r_p$

$$= k' [M] [\dot{R}'] + k_p [M] \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [\dot{R}_n]$$

In the above eqn propagation terms have infinity no. of terms so, neglecting the r_i term and adding $n=0$ th term, so that we get all the monomer unit without loss of any; it reduces as

$$r = k_p [M] \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [\dot{R}_n] = k_p [M] [\dot{R}] \rightarrow (1)$$

From the termination steps

$$-\frac{d[\dot{R}_n]}{dt} = 2k_t [\dot{R}_n] \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} [\dot{R}_m]; k_t = \frac{k_{t1} + k_{t2}}{2}$$

Total rate of termination

$$\text{By } r_t \doteq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} -\frac{d[\dot{R}_n]}{dt} = 2k_t \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [\dot{R}_n] \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} [\dot{R}_m] \\ = 2k_t [\dot{R}] [\dot{R}] = 2k_t [\dot{R}]^2 \rightarrow (2)$$

Introducing steady state approximation

$$\frac{d[\dot{R}']}{}{dt} = \frac{d[\dot{R}_i]}{dt} = \dots = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\dot{R}_n) \right\} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d[\dot{R}]}{dt} = 0$$

For steady state approximation

$$r_i = r_t$$

$$\Rightarrow 2f k_i [I] = 2k_t [\dot{R}]^2$$

$$\Rightarrow [\dot{R}] = \left\{ \frac{f k_i [I]}{k_t} \right\}^{1/2} \rightarrow (3)$$

Substituting eqn (3) in (1) we get

$$r = k_p [M] \left\{ \frac{f k_i [I]}{k_t} \right\}^{1/2}$$

$$= k_p \left(\frac{f k_i}{k_t} \right)^{1/2} [I]^{1/2} [M]$$

Factors affecting chain-polymerization

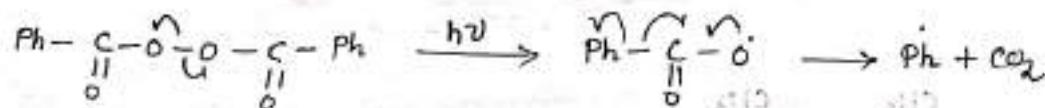
Ethylene, $\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2$ is the only aliphatic hydrocarbon which polymerizes well under free-radical mode of initiation. Propylene and isobutylene are unreactive under these conditions. Electron density at the double bond may determine whether a particular monomer polymerizes by cationic, anionic or free-radical mech.

Monomer str.	Mode of initiation
$\text{CH}_2=\overset{\text{X}}{\underset{\text{C}}{\diagdown}}$	Cationic ⁺ , e.g. butene, styrene, vinyl ether
$\text{CH}_2=\overset{\text{X}}{\underset{\text{C}}{\diagup}}$	Anionic ⁻ , e.g. acrylonitrile, styrene
$\text{CH}_2=\overset{\text{X}}{\underset{\text{C}}{\diagup \diagdown}}$	Free radical, ethyl acrylate

Initiators

A no of polymerization are initiated by heat and UV radiation. Usually, the initiation is peroxide, hydroperoxide, an azo-nitrite, etc, which can readily be converted to free radical under the condition for the desired polymerization.

One typical initiator is benzoyl peroxide



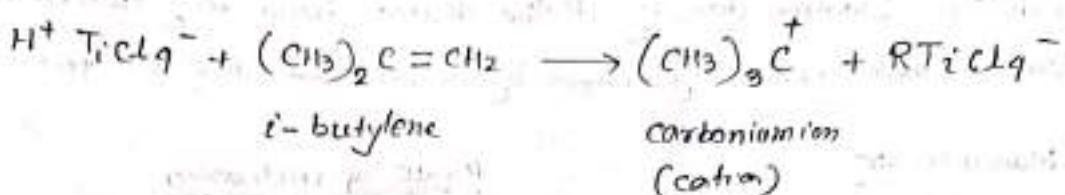
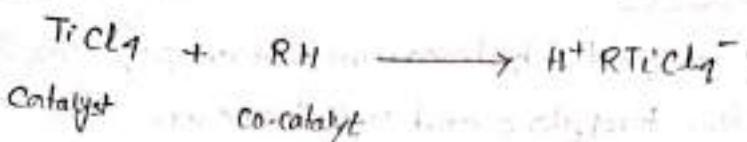
Ionic addⁿ polymerization

The polymerization of vinyl monomers can take place in the presence of a cation or an anion also.

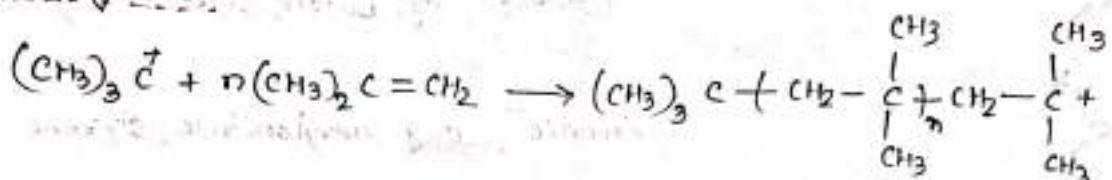
Cationic Polymerization

Cationic Polymerization differs from free-radical polymerization, specially in the initiation and termination steps. The initiator used are Lewis acid such as BF_3 , AlCl_3 , TiCl_4 , H_2SO_4 and other strong protonic acid. All these, except possibly the strong-protonic acids, need a co-catalyst to initiate the polymerization. The co-catalyst supplies hydrogen, and the real initiator is believed to be a proton in every case. This means that one end of the polymer is hydrogen atom. The monomers which best polymerize by cationic initiation are olefins substituted with electron releasing group (EDG) such as $\text{CH}_2=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_2$, $\text{PhCH}=\text{CH}_2$, etc.

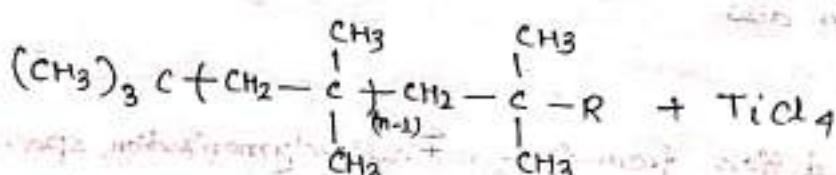
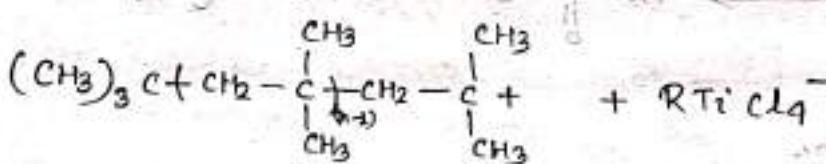
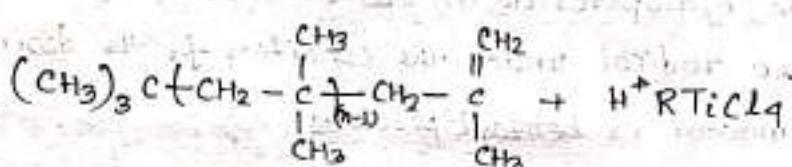
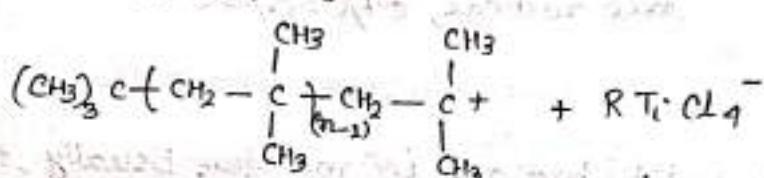
Introduction



Propagation



Termination

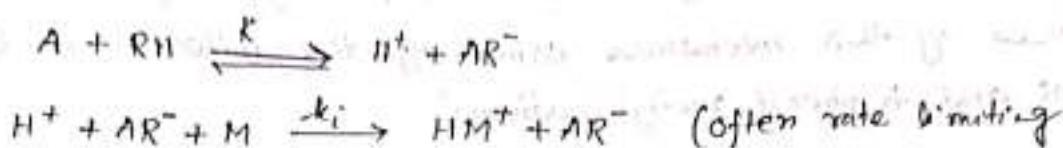


Polymerisation proceeds most rapidly to give the high molecular weight polymers at very low temp. For example i-butylene at -100°C gives a high polymer in a fraction of second. At room temp a dimer is formed slowly.

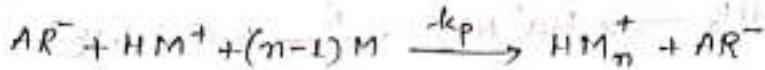
Kinetics of cationic polymerization

Most of the cationic polymerization proceed so rapidly that it is difficult to establish the steady state. However, the following kinetic scheme seems to be valid. Let the catalyst be designated A and co-catalyst by RH. Then,

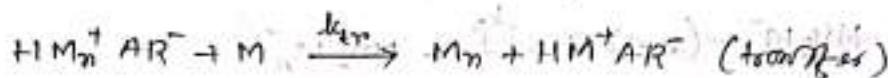
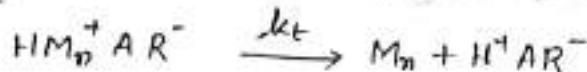
Initiation



Propagation



Termination



Rate of initiation,

$$R_i = k_i [A] [RH] [M]$$

If the formation of $H^+ AR^-$ is the rate determining step, R_i can be independent of $[M]$. The scheme is then appropriately modified, since termination is first order,

$$R_i = k_i [HM^+ AR^-] = k_i [M^+]$$

Assuming steady state approximation

$$\Rightarrow R_i = R_t$$

$$\Rightarrow k_i [A] [RH] [M] = k_t [M^+]$$

$$\Rightarrow [M^+] = \frac{k_i}{k_t} [A] [RH] [M]$$

Now overall rate of polymerization is decide by the propagation step

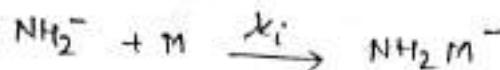
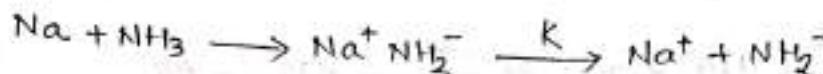
$$\text{i.e. } r = r_p = k_p [M] [M^+]$$

$$= K \cdot \frac{k_p k_i}{k_t} [A] [RH] [M]^2$$

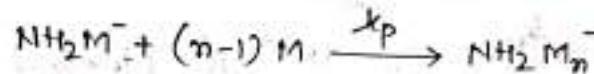
Anionic Polymerization

Monomers containing electron withdrawing group (EWG) or electronegative groups can polymerize by anionic mechanism. It was found that Na^+ in Liq. NH_3 at -75°C was a particularly effective initiator for the polymerization of α -methyl acrylonitrile, methyl acrylate, etc. were polymerized by this mechanism. Other effective initiator are Grignard reagent and triphenyl methyl sodium.

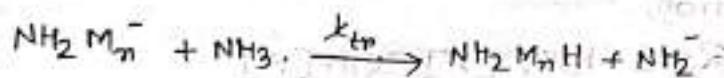
Initiation



Propagation



Termination



Rate of initiation, $r_i = k_i [\text{NH}_2^-] [M]$

Applying steady state, $r_i = r_t$

$$\Rightarrow k_i [\text{NH}_2^-] [M] = k_{tr} [\text{NH}_2 M_n^-] [\text{NH}_3]$$

$$\Rightarrow [\text{NH}_2 M_n^-] = \frac{k_i}{k_{tr}} \frac{[\text{NH}_2^-] [M]}{[\text{NH}_3]}$$

Thus rate of polymerization

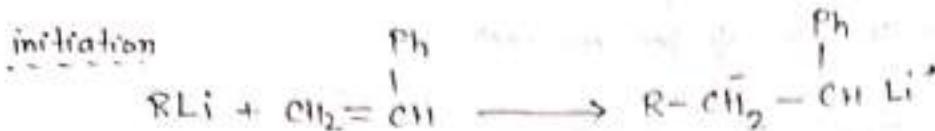
$$r_p = k_p [\text{NH}_2 M^-] [M]$$

$$= \frac{k_i k_p}{k_{tr}} \frac{[\text{NH}_2^-]}{[\text{NH}_3]} [M] [M]$$

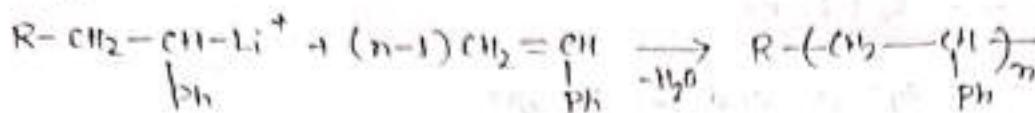
$$= \frac{k_i k_p}{k_{tr}} \frac{[\text{NH}_2^-]}{[\text{NH}_3]} [M]^2$$

The above is the required rate expression.

The following example shows the scope of this type.

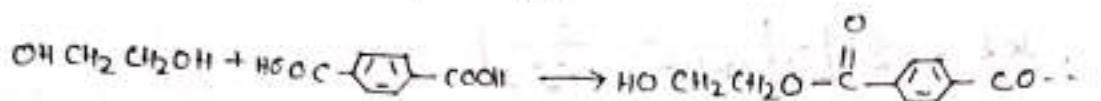


Propagation



Kinetics of condensation (step growth) Polymerization

It may be discussed by the example of polyester formation b/w a dicarboxylic acid and ethylene glycol.



The above reaction may proceed with or without the presence of an acid catalyst.

The acid catalysed rate of polymerisation may be written as

$$-\frac{d[\text{COOH}]}{dt} = k [\text{COOH}] [\text{OH}] [\text{H}^+] \\ = k' [\text{COOH}] [\text{OH}] = k' [\text{COOH}]^2 \quad [k' = k [\text{H}^+]]$$

Because $[\text{COOH}] = [\text{OH}]$ because equimolecular amount of an acid and glycol are generally used. If c mol/l be the conc. of acid and glycol

then, $-\frac{dc}{dt} = k' c^2 \Rightarrow 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ order kinetics}$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{dc}{c^2} = -k \int dt \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{When } t=0, c=c_0 \\ = \text{initial conc. of reactant} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow k't = \frac{1}{c} - \frac{1}{c_0} \rightarrow (i)$$

If no external acid is used as catalyst i.e. for uncatalysed reacⁿ, one molecule of the dicarboxylic acid act as an catalyst. Then,

$$-\frac{d[\text{COOH}]}{dt} = k [\text{COOH}]^2 [\text{OH}]$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{dc}{dt} = k c^3 \Rightarrow 3^{\text{rd}} \text{ order kinetics}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{dc}{c^3} = -k \int dt$$

$$\Rightarrow kt = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{c^2} - \frac{1}{c_0^2} \right] \rightarrow (2)$$

It is convenient to express the rate eqn in terms of the extent of reaction p , rather than in terms of conc. of the reactant.

$$\text{Again } p = \frac{c_0 - c}{c_0} = \frac{N_0 - N}{N_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow c = c_0(1-p)$$

Replacing this in eqn (1) and (2) we get

$$K't = \frac{1}{c_0(1-p)} - \frac{1}{c_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{1-p} = c_0 K't + 1 \longrightarrow (3)$$

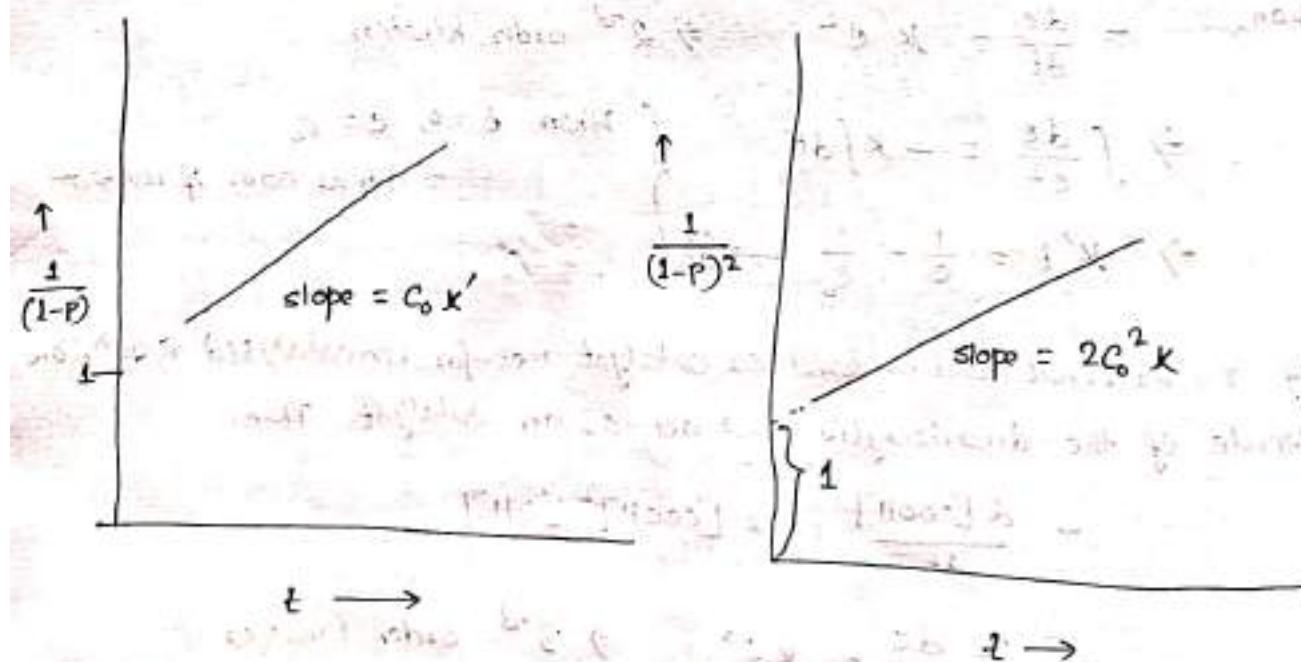
.. and

$$Kt = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{c_0^2(1-p)^2} - \frac{1}{c_0^2} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{(1-p)^2} = 2c_0^2 Kt + 1 \longrightarrow (4)$$

From eqn (3) and (4) it is clear that for acid-catalysed polyesterification, a plot of $\frac{1}{(1-p)}$ vs t of polymerization should result a straight line.

Similarly for uncatalysed polyesterification a plot $\frac{1}{(1-p)^2}$ vs t should be linear.

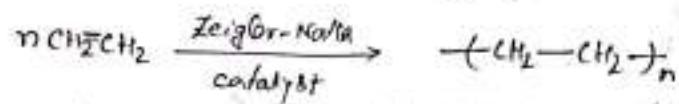


From the slope we can calculate the value of rate const (K)

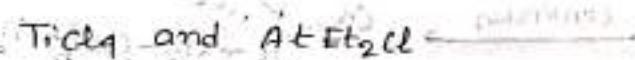
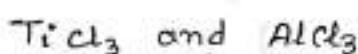
Co-ordination Polymerization

There are a no. of coordination catalyst which can polymerize olefins. The most common catalyst of this type are composed of aluminium trialkyls and titanium or vanadium chloride. These catalyst are mostly effective for the polymerization of 1-olefins.

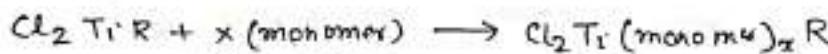
The Ziegler-Natta method, provide a heterogeneous fibrous catalyst suitable for polymerization of olefins (ethylene).



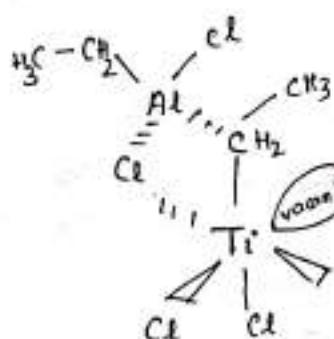
Ziegler discovered that combination of TiCl_4 and AlEt_2Cl gave comparable activities for the production of polyethylene. Natta used crystalline $\alpha\text{-TiCl}_3$ in combination with AlEt_3 to produce first isotactic polypropylene. i.e. two sets are



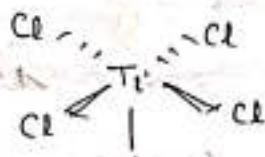
The following eqn seem to best describe the reacn b/w titanium tetrachloride and a aluminium trialkyl.



Two type of str. have been put forward for the Ziegler-Natta initiator, a bimetallic (I) and monometallic (II) one:



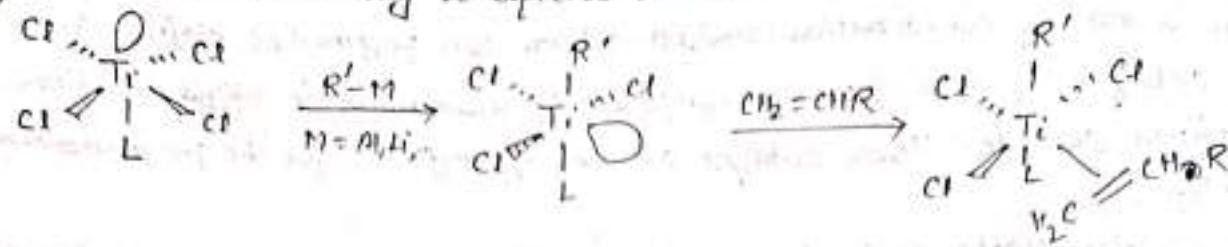
I



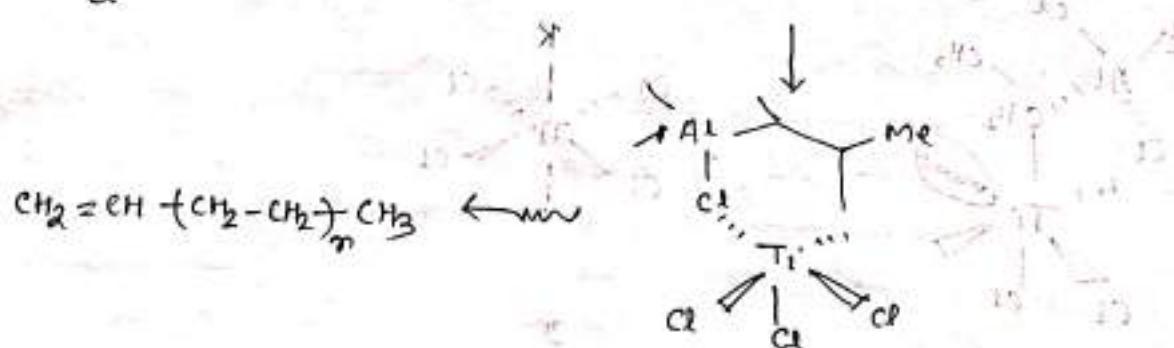
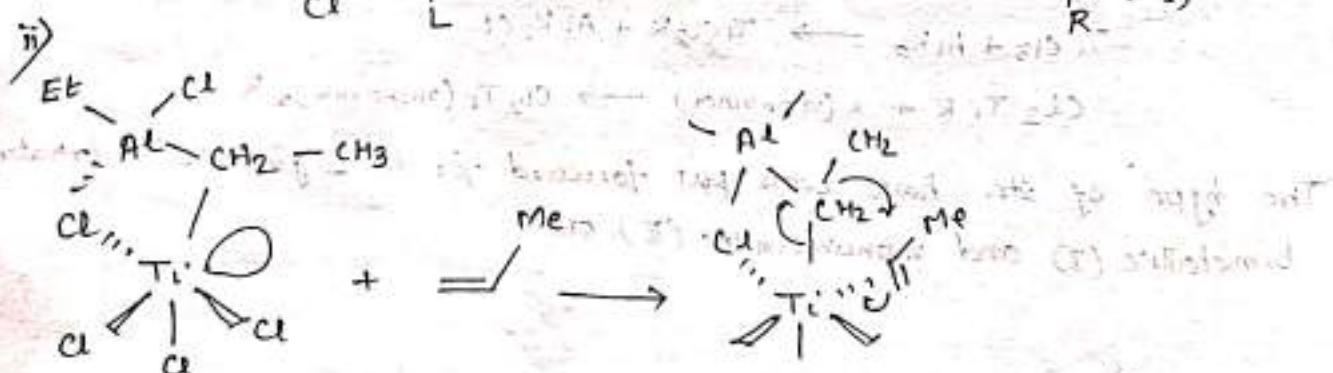
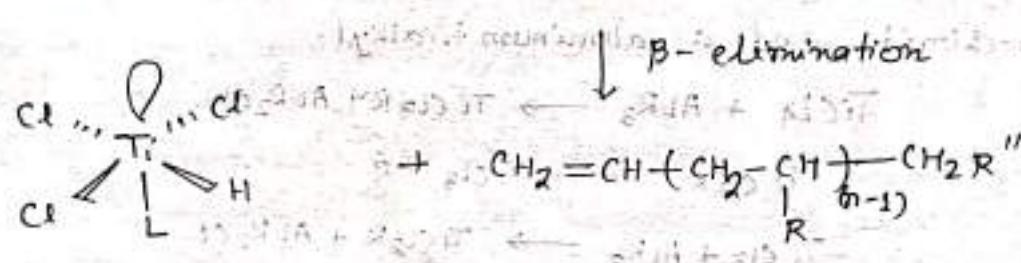
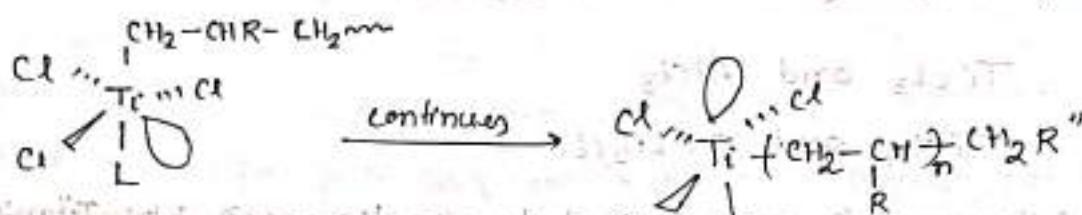
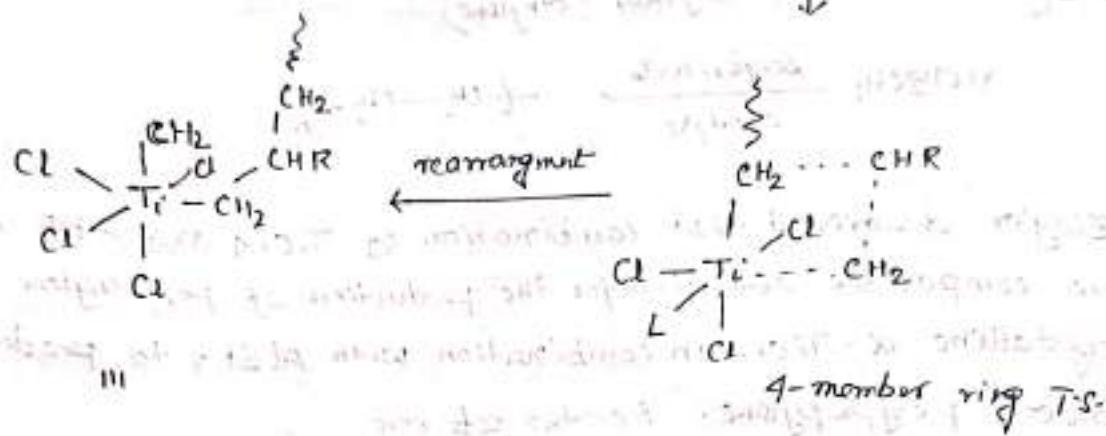
II

L = unspecified ligand

➤ The mechanism may be depicted as below

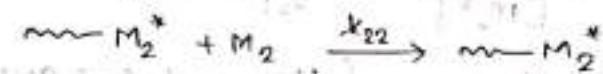
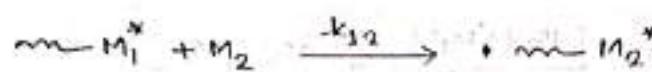
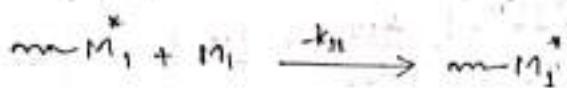


↓ Insertion of $\text{CH}_2=\text{CHR}$



Co-polymerization composition eqn

The composition of the co-polymer is most instantanous found to be different from that of the co-monomer from which it is produced. In other words, different monomers have different tendencies towards undergoing co-polymerization. Monomers M_1 and M_2 can each add either to propagating chain ending in M_1 or M_2 .



Where k_{11} is the rate const. for the addⁿ of an M_1^* radical to M_1 , k_{12} is the rate const. for the addⁿ of an M_1^* radical to M_2 , k_{21} is the rate const. for the addⁿ of an M_2^* of M_1 , and k_{22} is the rate const. for the addⁿ of an M_2^* to M_2 .

The rate of disappearance of monomer M_1 and M_2 (neglecting any loss in the initiation process) is given by

$$-\frac{d[M_1]}{dt} = k_{11}[M_1^*][M_1] + k_{21}[M_2^*][M_1] \rightarrow (1)$$

$$\text{and } -\frac{d[M_2]}{dt} = k_{12}[M_1^*][M_2] + k_{22}[M_2^*][M_2] \rightarrow (2)$$

Dividing eqn (1) by (2) we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d[M_1]}{d[M_2]} &= \frac{k_{11}[M_1^*][M_1] + k_{21}[M_2^*][M_1]}{k_{12}[M_1^*][M_2] + k_{22}[M_2^*][M_2]} \\ &= \frac{[M_1]}{[M_2]} \cdot \frac{k_{11}[M_1^*] + k_{21}[M_2^*]}{k_{12}[M_1^*] + k_{22}[M_2^*]} \rightarrow (3) \end{aligned}$$

Assuming steady state approximation, we get

$$k_{21}[M_2^*][M_1] = k_{12}[M_1^*][M_2]$$

$$\Rightarrow [M_1] = \frac{k_{12}}{k_{21}} \frac{[M_1^*][M_2]}{[M_2^*]} \rightarrow (4)$$

Now reactivity ratio is given as

$$r_1 = \frac{k_{11}}{k_{12}} \quad \text{and} \quad r_2 = \frac{k_{22}}{k_{21}}$$

Multiplying both numerator and denominator by factor $\frac{1}{k_{11} [M_1^*]}$ of RHS of eqⁿ (5) we have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d[M_1]}{d[M_2]} &= \frac{[M_1]}{[M_2]} \cdot \frac{\frac{1}{k_{11}} \cdot \frac{[M_2]}{[M_2^*]} (k_{11}[M_1^*] + k_{21}[M_2^*])}{\frac{1}{k_{21}} \frac{[M_2]}{[M_2^*]} (k_{12}[M_1^*] + k_{22}[M_2^*])} \\ &= \frac{[M_1]}{[M_2]} \cdot \frac{\frac{k_{11}}{k_{12}} \cdot \frac{[M_1^*][M_2]}{[M_2^*]} \cdot \frac{k_{12}}{k_{21}} + [M_2]}{\frac{k_{21}}{k_{22}} \cdot \frac{[M_2][M_1^*]}{[M_2^*]} + \frac{k_{22}}{k_{21}} [M_2]} \quad \left\{ \alpha = \frac{1}{k_{21}} \frac{[M_2]}{[M_2^*]} \right\} \\ &= \frac{[M_1]}{[M_2]} \cdot \frac{[M_1]^{\gamma_1} + [M_2]}{[M_1] + \gamma_2 [M_2]} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Using working q and substitue} \\ \gamma_1 \text{ and } \gamma_2 \text{ value replace} \end{array} \right.\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d[M_1]}{d[M_2]} = \frac{[M_1]}{[M_2]} \cdot \frac{\gamma_1 [M_1] + [M_2]}{\gamma_2 [M_2] + [M_1]} \longrightarrow (5)$$

Eqⁿ (5) is called co-polymer composition eqⁿ.

Various polymerization techniques

For laboratory and industrial purposes, polymerization is practised by a variety of approaches and techniques that require different design consideration w.r.t. recipe of polymerization and, w.r.t. physical conditions for the process and process equipment. Generally, polymerizations are studied and practised by four different techniques:

- i) Bulk or mass polymerization
- ii) solⁿ Polymerization
- iii) suspension polymerization
- iv) Emulsion polymerization

Among all these four techniques, the last two are essentially heterogeneous polymerization system containing a large portion of a non-solvent, usually water acting as a dispersion medium for the immiscible liquid monomer. Both and solⁿ polymerization may be either homogeneous all the way or heterogeneous, to begin, with, but becoming heterogeneous with progress of polymerization due to the solvent used to dilute the monomer (for solⁿ polymerization) or polymer formed being insoluble in its monomer (for bulk polymerization). Most condensation polymerization are conveniently done by employing bulk or the solⁿ techniques.

Bulk polymerization

When a monomer is polymerized in bulk, an initiator which can decompose to give free-radicals at a fairly good rate at the temp of polymerization is used. There are advantages as well as disadvantages of this process. This method is now used for casting object to be preserved such as an insect, a flower or any other thing. This process can be carried out at comparatively low temp. Poly(methylmethacrylate) sheets and rods are made in this way. However, thermal control is difficult to achieve as also is any further isolation from the monomer.

Solⁿ polymerization

In solⁿ polymerization, on the other hand, improved thermal control is possible, but it is difficult to remove the solvent. Further, chain-transfer to solvent may limit the molecular weight of polymer obtained. This limits the usefulness of the technique.

Emulsion and suspension polymerization

Emulsion and suspension polymerization in aqueous media are free from the problems of heat transfer, chain transfer and viscosity. These two methods have assumed industrial importance. It is possible to get higher molecular weights with emulsion polymerization. In emulsion polymerization, the monomer is emulsified in water with an emulsifying agent which may be a soap or detergent. Usually, a redox system is used. In a typical emulsion system a monomer(s), water, emulsifier (surfactant), a chain transfer agent and a water soluble initiator are usually used. This is illustrated by the recipe