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# STATIONARY STATE CRITERION FOR FREE RADICAL POLYMERIZATION FOR LINEARLY INCREASING REACTION TEMPERATURE

MATATIAHU GEHATIA JOHN BROEHL

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#### FOREWORD

This report was prepared by the Polymer Branch of the Nonmetallic Materials Division. The work was initiated under Project No. 7340, "Nonmetallic and Composite Materials," Task No. 734004, "New Organic and Inorganic Polymers." It was administered under the direction of the AF Materials Laboratory, Research and Technology Division. Dr. Matatiahu Gehatia was the project engineer.

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This technical report has been reviewed and is approved.

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#### ABSTRACT

The kinetics of free radical polymerization were treated theoretically under the assumption that the reaction temperature increases at constant rate ( $\dot{T} = const$ ). From The Arrhenius relationships for the kinetic rate constants, approximate corresponding functions of time were derived, which transformed the kinetic equations accordingly.

A differential equation describing the sum of the concentrations of all free radicals appearing in such a system was solved by approximation, and from the resulting series the conditions for the lower as well as the upper bound of the stationary state assumptions were obtained. Defining the required precision by a large number N, where the relative error caused by the stationary state assumptions cannot exceed the quantity 1/N, the stationary state criterion obtained could be expressed by the following inequality:

$$\frac{f\left[I\right]k_{\dagger}}{k_{d}} \geq \frac{N^{2}}{64}$$

where f is the efficiency constant,  $[I]_{k_{d}}$  and  $k_{t}$  are the functions of time defining the corresponding concentration of initiator, and the kinetic rate constants for initiator decomposition and termination.

If the constant rate of temperature increase, T, approaches zero, the reaction becomes a polymerization carried out at constant temperature. Under such conditions the derived criterion turns into another criterion valid for constant temperature. This new expression is identical to the corresponding formula derived previously (References 1, 2, and 3).

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
KINETIC SCHEME FOR FREE RADICAL INITIATED POLYMERIZATION	1
APPROXIMATE SOLUTION OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS OF THE SUM OF FREE RADICALS	5
MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS OF EQUATION 46 AND THE EXPRESSION F $(x)$ - $F(x_0)$ , USING EQUATION 47, ACCORDING TO THE STATIONARY STATE CONDITIONS	9
DERIVATION OF STATIONARY STATE CRITERION	19

#### INTRODUCTION

In our previous work (References 1, 2, and 3) a stationary state criterion for free radical polymerization was derived from the rigorous solution of the kinetic equations characterizing the system. The mathematical analysis was carried out under the assumption that a constant temperature was maintained during the polymerization. Since the kinetic rate constants are functions of temperature, according to the Arrhenius relationship, it is important to evaluate the appropriate parameters, by carrying out the experiments at different temperatures.

During the last decade many attempts have been made to study the kinetics of free radical polymerization at varying temperatures, and to derive the Arrhenius parameters from a single experiment. It was found that the most favorable technique was to increase the temperature of reaction at constant rate during the polymerization (References 1 through 5). The growing importance of this method calls for the extension of the mathematical analysis made previously to include also the new experimental conditions. Such a treatment was carried out in the current work and a generalized stationary state criterion was derived. The new formulas obtained are valid if the rate: dT/dt = const, where T = temperature, and t = time. If this rate approaches zero, the new expressions for the stationary state become the old formulas obtained previously (References 1, 2, and 3) for free radical polymerization at constant temperature.

#### KINETIC SCHEME FOR FREE RADICAL INITIATED POLYMERIZATION

The process of free radical polymerization may be considered to involve the following steps (Reference 6):

Initiator decomposition and initiation

$$I \xrightarrow{k_d} 2R$$
 (1)

$$R \cdot + M \xrightarrow{\kappa_{\alpha}} M \cdot$$
 (2)

Propagation

$$M_{n}^{-} + M \xrightarrow{k_{p}} M_{n+1}^{-}$$
(3)

Termination

$$M_{n}^{*} + M_{m}^{*} \xrightarrow{K_{tc}} M_{n+m}$$
(4)

$$M_{n} + M_{m} \xrightarrow{k_{td}} M_{n} + M_{m}$$
(5)

$$\mathbf{R} \cdot + \mathbf{R} \cdot \xrightarrow{\mathbf{k}_{tr}} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R} \mathbf{R}$$
 (6)

$$\mathbf{R} \cdot + \mathbf{M} \cdot \xrightarrow{\mathbf{k}_{\text{tn}}} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{M}, \tag{7}$$

where  $k_d, k_a, k_p, k_{tc}$ ... are the corresponding kinetic rate constants.

1

Similar to the method utilized previously (References 1, 2, and 3), the rate constants of termination will be assumed as  $k_{tr} = k_t$  and  $k_{tn} = 2k_t$ . The relatively small contribution of the terms  $k_{tr} [R \cdot]^2$  and  $k_{tn} [R \cdot] [M \cdot]$  to the total termination makes the possible error introduced by such an assumption negligible. The system defined by Equations 1 through 7 leads to the following differential equations:

$$\frac{d[R\cdot]}{dt} = 2k_{d}[I] - k_{a}[R\cdot][M] - 2k_{t}[R\cdot]^{2} - 2k_{t}[R\cdot][M\cdot]$$
(8)

and

$$\frac{d[M\cdot]}{dt} = k_{0} \left[R\cdot\right] \left[M\right] - 2k_{t} \left[M\cdot\right]^{2} - 2k_{t} \left[R\cdot\right] \left[M\right]$$
(9)

Adding both sides of Equations 8 and 9, one can obtain:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{r}}{\mathrm{d}t} = 2k_{\mathrm{d}}[\mathrm{I}] - 2k_{\mathrm{t}}r^{2} \tag{10}$$

where

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} \cdot \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{M} \cdot \end{bmatrix} \tag{11}$$

is the sum of concentrations of all free radicals.

The rate of the initiator decomposition derived from Equation 1,

$$\frac{d[I]}{dt} = -[I]k_d$$
(12)

leads to the following expression for [I]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} I \end{bmatrix} = I_0 \exp(-\int_0^t k_d du)$$
(13)

where  $I_{O}$  is the initial value of  $\left[ 1 \right]$  . From Equations 10 and 13 one can obtain:

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = 2k_d \exp\left(-\int_0^t k_d du\right) - 2k_t r^2$$
(14)

Analogously to the method applied in the previous work (References 1, 2, and 3), the stationary state will occur if the rate dr/dt in Equation 14 is much smaller than either of the other two terms appearing in this equation. With such an assumption, dr/dt can be omitted, and the concentration can be expressed as follows:

$$r_{s} = \left(\frac{k_{d}I_{o}}{k_{t}}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\int_{0}^{t}k_{d}du\right)$$
(15)

Since such an assumption is only justified, if r is very close to  $r_s$ , another condition has also to be fulfilled simultaneously:

 $\frac{r}{r_{\rm s}} = l - h \tag{16}$ 

$$|I - \frac{\mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{r}_{s}}| = |\mathbf{h}| \leq \frac{1}{N}$$
(17)

where N is a large number defining the degree of precision, and 1/N is the maximum deviātion of  $r/r_s$  from unity. The criterion for the stationary state can be derived according to the conditions defined by Equation 17, if the expression for r is known explicitly. To obtain such an expression one has to solve differential Equation 14.

It has to be borne in mind, that the temperature of the system under consideration is no longer constant, and must be defined as a function of time as follows:

$$T = T_0 + \dot{T} t \tag{18}$$

where  $T_0$  is the initial temperature and  $\dot{T} = (dT/dt) = const.$  According to the Arrhenius relationship, any kinetic rate  $k_s$  can be expressed as:

$$k_{s} = A_{s} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{s}}{RT}\right)$$
(19)

where the constant parameters  $A_s$ ,  $E_s$ , and R are respectively, frequency factor, activation energy, and gas constant. T is expressed in °K. Since T varies with time,  $k_s$  is also a function of time. This function defined in Equation 19 will now be expanded into the following series:

$$\mathbf{k}_{s} = \mathbf{A}_{s} \exp\left\{-\frac{\mathbf{E}_{s}}{\mathbf{R}T_{o}}\left[1-\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n}\left(\frac{\dot{\mathbf{T}}_{t}}{T_{o}}\right)^{n}\right]\right\}$$
(20)

In general  $(\dot{T} t/T_0) \ll 1$ , and Equation 20 reduces to:

$$k_{s} \approx A_{s} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{s}}{RT_{o}}\right) \exp\left(\frac{E_{s}\dot{T}}{RT_{o}^{2}}t\right)$$
 (21)

Two quantities, constant during a single experiment, will now be introduced. The initial value of  $k_s$  at  $T = T_0$ :

$$k_{s,o} = A_{s} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{s}}{RT_{o}}\right)$$
(22)

$$f_{s} = \frac{E_{s}T}{RT_{0}^{2}}$$
(23)

and

Applying these two experimental constants, the Arrhenius formula, Equation 19, can be transformed into the following approximate function of time:

$$k_{s} = k_{s,o} \exp(f_{s}t)$$
(24)

which is simple and convenient for further calculations. In general, the term  $(\dot{T} t/T_0)$  appearing in Equation 20 is a small number over the entire period of the reaction, and the approximation, Equation 21, is justified.

Applying the formalism given by Equations 22, 23, and 24 one can express the kinetic rates of  $k_d$  and  $k_t$  as follows:

$$k_{d} = k_{d,o} \exp(f_{d}t)$$
 (25)

where

$$k_{d,o} = A_d \exp\left(-\frac{E_d}{RT_o}\right)$$
 (26)

$$f_{d} = \left(\frac{E_{d}\dot{T}}{RT_{0}^{2}}\right)$$
(27)

and

$$k_{t} = k_{t,0} \exp(f_{t}t)$$
 (28)

where

$$\mathbf{k}_{t,o} = A_t \exp\left(-\frac{E_t}{RT_o}\right)$$
(29)

$$f_{\dagger} = \left(\frac{E_{\dagger} \dot{T}}{RT_0^2}\right)$$
(30)

Equations 25 through 30 can be used to transform Equation 14 into a new equation:

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = 2k_{d,0} I_0 \exp\left(\frac{k_{d,0}}{f_d} + f_d t - \frac{k_{d,0} \rho^{f_d}}{f_d}\right) - 2k_{t,0} \rho^{f_t t} r^2$$
(31)

Then by dividing both sides of Equation 31 by  $k_{\text{d}},$  and introducing a new variable, x, one gets

$$x = \frac{k_d}{f_d}$$
(32)

and the following differential equation is obtained:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{r}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}\boldsymbol{\theta}^{-\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{b}\mathbf{x}^{-\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{r}^2 \tag{33}$$

where p, a, and b are constants defined as follows:

$$p = \frac{f_d - f_t}{f_d} = 1 - \frac{E_t}{E_d}, \qquad (34)$$

$$a = 2I_0 \exp \frac{k_{d,0}}{f_d}$$
(35)

and

$$b = \left(\frac{2k_{1,0}}{k_{d,0}}\right) \left(\frac{k_{d,0}}{f_{d}}\right)^{p}$$
(36)

In general p<1, and  $|1-p|\ll1$ . According to the initial conditions,  $x_0 = k_{d,0}/f_d$ , and  $r(x_0)=0$ . For reasonable values of  $\dot{T}$ ,  $x_0$  is usually a small number. In the current work it will often be considered as  $10^{-2}$ .

### APPROXIMATE SOLUTION OF DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS OF THE SUM OF FREE RADICALS

Equation 33 was solved rigorously in the previous work (References 1, 2, and 3) for p = 0. For  $p \neq 0$  no rigorous solution was achieved. However, methods exist which provide an approximate solution of Equation 33, and enable one to derive a criterion for the stationary state; one of these methods will be introduced in the following:

Under stationary state assumptions, Equation 33 reduces to:

$$a\theta^{-X} - bx^{-P}r_{s}^{2} = 0$$
 (37)

Hence:

$$\mathbf{r}_{\rm s} = \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{1/2} - \frac{x}{a^2} \frac{p}{x^2}$$
(38)

The function r appearing in Equation 33 will now be replaced by a new function, g, defined as

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_{s} \left( \frac{\mathbf{l} - \mathbf{g}}{\mathbf{l} + \mathbf{g}} \right) \tag{39}$$

From Equations 33, 38, and 39 one can derive a differential equation for g:

$$\frac{dg}{dx} = -2ce^{-\frac{x}{2}} x^{\frac{p}{2}} g + \frac{1}{4} (\frac{p}{x} - 1)(1 - g^{2})$$
(40)

where  $c = (ab)^{1/2}$ .

The relationship given by Equation 39 can also be expressed by the following series:

$$\frac{r}{r_{s}} = \frac{1-g}{1+g} = 1+2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n}g^{n}$$
(41)

In the interval in which stationary state assumption is justified,  $|g| \ll 1$ . Hence:

$$\frac{r}{r_{s}} \approx 1 - 2g \qquad (42)$$

and according to Equation 17:

$$|\mathbf{g}| \leq \frac{1}{2N} \tag{43}$$

Finally, within the same interval  $g^2 \ll 1$ , and Equation 40 reduces to:

$$\frac{dg}{dx} \approx -2ce^{-\frac{x}{2}-\frac{p}{2}}g + \frac{1}{4}(\frac{p}{x}-1)$$
(44)

This new approximate equation can be solved, if at least one fixed point (boundary condition) is known. Unfortuately, the initial conditions cannot be applied for this case. Since the initial value of g is  $g(x_0)=1$ , this function cannot be considered small for  $x = x_0$ . Thus, at the very beginning of the polymerization, the approximation, Equation 44, is not justified. However, it will be shown in the following that this formal objection can be disregarded if special conditions do exist, and that these special conditions are also identical to the stationary state conditions. Therefore, the following method will be applied. At first a new differential equation will be solved in which the function g(x) in Equation 44 will be replaced by another function y(x):

 $\frac{dy}{dx} = -2c\theta \frac{x}{2} \frac{p}{x^2} y + \frac{1}{4}(\frac{p}{x} - 1)$ (45)

where  $y(x_0) = 1$ .

Integration of Equation 45 leads to the following expression:

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{4} e^{-F(x)} \int_{x_0}^{x} e^{F(z)} (\frac{p}{z} - 1) dz + e^{F(x_0) - F(x)}$$
(46)

where

$$F(x) = 2c \int e^{-\frac{x}{2}x^{-\frac{p}{2}}} dx$$
 (47)

Since F(x) itself is a transcendental function, the general integral appearing in Equation 46 can only be given by approximation, or can be expanded into a series which employs successive integration by parts:

$$\int e^{F(z)} \left(\frac{p}{z} - 1\right) dz = \frac{1}{2c} e^{\frac{z}{2}} \frac{p}{z^2} \left(\frac{p}{z} - 1\right) e^{F(z)} - \frac{1}{2c} \int e^{F(z)} d\left[e^{\frac{z}{2}} z^{\frac{p}{2}} \left(\frac{p}{z} - 1\right)\right] = \cdots$$
(48)

Then by denoting

$$u(z) = \frac{\frac{z}{e^2} \frac{p}{z^2}}{2c}$$
(49)

such a transformation repeated n times leads to the following expression:

$$\int e^{F(z)} (\frac{p}{z} - 1) dz = e^{F(z)} \sum_{k=1}^{n} S_{k}(z) - R_{n}(z)$$
(50)

where

$$S_{k}(z) = u^{k}(z)b_{k}P_{k}(z)$$
(51)

$$P_{k}(z) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} a_{ki} z^{-i}$$
(52)

$$R_{n}(z) = \int e^{F(z)} d\left[b_{n} u^{n}(z) P_{n}(z)\right]$$
(53)

and  $\mathbf{b}_k$  and  $\mathbf{a}_{ki}$  are constants. According to Equations 50 through 53 the function  $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})$  given in Equation 47 becomes

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{n} S_{k}(x) + \left[1 - \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{n} S(x_{0})\right] \exp\left[F(x_{0}) - F(x)\right] - R_{n}(x, x_{0})$$
(54)

where  $R_n(x, x_0) = R_n(x) - R_n(x_0)$ . For the sake of convenience Equation 54 will be expressed:

$$y(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} T_k(x) - R_n(x, x_0)$$
 (55)

where

$$T_{i} = \frac{1}{4}S_{i}(x) + \left[1 - \frac{1}{4}S_{i}(x_{0})\right]\exp\left[F(x_{0}) - F(x)\right]$$
(56)

$$T_{k\neq 1} = \frac{1}{4}S_{k}(x) - \frac{1}{4}S_{k}(x_{0})\exp\left[F(x_{0}) - F(x)\right]$$
(57)

and

$$R_{n}(x, x_{o}) = \int_{x_{o}}^{x} e^{F(z)} b_{n} d\left[u^{n}(z) P_{n}(z)\right]$$
(58)

For  $x \gg 1$ ,  $P_k(x) \approx a_{k,0}$ . Hence for large values of x:

$$S_k(x) \approx b_k a_{k,0} u^k(x)$$
 (59)

On the other hand, if x is small,  $x^k P_k(x) \approx a_{k,k}$ , and

$$S_k \approx a_k \left[\frac{u(x)}{x}\right]^k$$
 (60)

where  $a_k = b_k a_{k, k}$ . Since  $x_0$  is a small number,

$$S_{k}(x_{o}) \approx a_{k} \left[ \frac{a(x_{o})}{x_{o}} \right]^{k}$$
 (61)

Finally, for large values of x:

$$T_{I} \approx -\frac{I}{4}u(x) + \left[I - \frac{pu(x_{0})}{4x_{0}}\right] \exp\left[F(x_{0}) - F(x)\right]$$
(62)

and

$$T_{k\neq l} \approx \frac{1}{4} b_{k} a_{k,0} u^{k}(x) - \frac{1}{4} a_{k} \left[ \frac{u(x_{0})}{x_{0}} \right]^{k} \exp \left[ F(x_{0}) - F(x) \right]$$
(63)

For small values of x:

$$T_{i} \approx \frac{pu(x)}{4x} + \left[1 - \frac{pu(x)}{4x_{o}}\right] \exp\left[F(x_{o}) - F(x)\right]$$
(64)

$$T_{k\neq l} \approx \frac{1}{4} a_{k} \left[ \frac{u(x)}{x} \right]^{k} - \frac{1}{4} a_{k} \left[ \frac{u(x_{o})}{x_{o}} \right]^{k} \exp \left[ F(x_{o}) - F(x) \right]$$
(65)

Remembering that y(x) and g(x) are not identical, the conditions justifying the stationary state will be mathematically applied to the y(x). To find such conditions means to find an interval  $x_{\min} \leq x \leq x_{\max}$ , within which  $|y(x)| \leq 1/2N$ . One has also to regard the needs of the experimenter, that is, to have a stationary state which (1) appears almost simultaneously with the beginning of the reaction (short period of induction), and (2) which is valid over a considerable period of time. The first condition enables one to neglect the period of induction and to evaluate the experimental curves by assuming that the simplifying conditions are valid practically from the beginning. The second condition ensures that proper measurements can be carried out during a period of time in which a substantial part of the initiator underwent polymerization. Such a stable stationary state will appear, if  $x_{\min}$  is very close to  $x_0$ , and if  $x_{\max}$  is a large number which covers a substantial period of the reaction.

The function y(x) given in Equation 46 will now be expressed by the mean value of the integral:

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{4} e^{F(\xi) - F(x)} \left[ p \ln(\frac{x}{x_0}) - x + x_0 \right] + e^{F(x_0) - F(x)}$$
(66)

where  $x_0 < \xi < x$ .

By substituting  $x = x_0$  into Equation 66, the resulting value of  $y(x_0)$  is unity. Therefore, Equation 66 satisfies the initial conditions for y(x). A short induction period means:  $y(x_{\min}) \leq 1/2N$  also if  $x_{\min}$  is very close to  $x_0$ . Such a condition can be achieved only if the expression appearing in the exponent of Equation 66,  $F(x)-F(x_0)$ , which is zero for  $x = x_0$  will increase rapidly as x starts to exceed  $x_0$ . Therefore, it is important to examine the function  $F(x)-F(x_0)$  closely, to derive conditions assuming a short period of induction.

#### MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS

# OF EQUATION 46 AND THE EXPRESSION $F(x) - F(x_0)$ , USING EQUATION 47, ACCORDING TO THE STATIONARY STATE CONDITIONS

Let z = 2t, then the integral

$$I(z) = \int e^{-\frac{z}{2}} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz$$
 (67)

transforms into

$$I(t) = 2^{1-\frac{p}{2}} \int e^{-t} t^{-\frac{p}{2}} dt$$
 (68)

Successively integrating I(t) by parts gives rise to the following series expansion:

$$I(t) = \frac{2^{1-\frac{p}{2}}}{1-\frac{p}{2}} t^{1-\frac{p}{2}} e^{-t} \left[1+\frac{t}{2-\frac{p}{2}}+\frac{t^{2}}{(2-\frac{p}{2})(3-\frac{p}{2})}+\cdots\right]$$
(69)

By substituting  $t = \frac{1}{2}z$  Equation 69 becomes

$$I(z) = \frac{2}{2-p} z^{1-\frac{p}{2}} - \frac{z}{2} |F| (1, 2-\frac{p}{2}, \frac{z}{2}), \qquad (70)$$

where

$$|F_{|}(a,b,x) = 1 + \frac{ax}{b!!} + \frac{a(a+1)x^{2}}{b(b+1)2!} + \frac{a(a+1)(a+2)x^{3}}{b(b+1)(b+2)3!} + \cdots$$
(71)

F

F(a, b, x) is known as the confluent hypergeometric function (Reference 7). Since the confluent hypergeometric function is absolutely convergent for all values of a, b, and x, real or complex, excluding  $b = 0, -1, -2, \ldots$ , the integral I(z) always exists except for p = 2 + 2n ( $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ ). In general, p varies only within the interval  $o \le p \le 1$ . Hence, the integral I(z) is always defined.

Equations 47 and 70 clearly lead to:

$$(x) - F(x_0) = 2c \int_{x_0}^{x} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz$$
$$= \frac{4c}{2-p} \left[ x^{1-\frac{p}{2}} e^{-\frac{x}{2}} F_1(1, 2-\frac{p}{2}, \frac{x}{2}) - x_0^{1-\frac{p}{2}} e^{-\frac{x_0}{2}} F_1(1, 2-\frac{p}{2}, \frac{x}{2}) \right]$$
(72)

For very small values of x, the confluent hypergeometric function approaches unity, and:

$$F(x) - F(x_0) \approx \frac{4c}{2-p} \left[ x^{1-\frac{p}{2}} - x_0^{-\frac{p}{2}} \right]$$
 (73)

if  $o < x_0 < x \ll 1$ . Under such conditions, namely, when x and  $x_0$  are very small and x is close to  $x_0$ , then  $F(x) - F(x_0)$  can only be very large if c is sufficiently large, that is:

$$F(x) - F(x_0) > M$$

where M is a large number, if

$$4c > \frac{M(2-p)}{1-\frac{p}{2}}$$
(74)  
$$x = -\frac{p}{x_0}$$

Therefore, one may expect a short induction period only if c is a very large number. Hence, the following mathematical analysis will be carried out under the assumption that c is very large. Let us now evaluate the function  $F(x)-F(x_0)$  for large values of x. Since the integral

 $2c\int_{x_0}^{x} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz \text{ exists for all values of x, then:}$   $\int_{x_0}^{x} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz = \int_{x_0}^{x} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz + \int_{x_0}^{\infty} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$ (75)

After repeated integration by parts,  $I_1$  yields the following series expansion:

$$I_{i} = 2c \int_{\infty}^{x} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz$$

$$= -4cx \frac{p}{2}e^{-\frac{x}{2}} \left[1 - \frac{p}{x} + \frac{p(2+p)}{x^2} - \frac{p(2+p)(4+p)}{x^3} + \cdots\right]$$
(76)

Therefore, if  $x \gg 1$ ,

$$I_{\mu} \approx -4 \operatorname{cx}^{2} e^{\frac{-p}{2}}$$
(77)

The value of  $I_{s}$  is readily available from tables of integrals and is given as

$$I_{2} = 2c\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} z^{-\frac{p}{2}} dz = 2^{2-\frac{p}{2}} c \Gamma(1-\frac{p}{2}), \qquad (78)$$

where  $\Gamma(x) \equiv \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt$  is the well known gamma function. Since

 $x_{_0}\!\ll\!1$  ,  $I_{_3}$  may be approximated according to Equation 73. That is:

$$I_{3} = 2c \int_{x_{0}}^{0} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} \frac{p}{z} dz = -\frac{4c}{2-p} x_{0}^{1-\frac{p}{2}}$$
(79)

Combining Equations 77, 78, and 79 one obtains:

$$F(x) - F(x_0) = 2^{2 - \frac{p}{2}} c \Gamma(1 - \frac{p}{2}) - 4 c x^{-\frac{p}{2}} e^{-\frac{x}{2}} - \frac{4c}{2 - p} x_0^{1 - \frac{p}{2}}$$

$$- - 2^{2 - \frac{p}{2}} c \Gamma(1 - \frac{p}{2})$$

Since  $p \approx 1$  and  $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$ , Equation 80 may be expressed:

$$F(x) - F(x_0) = 2^{\frac{3}{2}} c \sqrt{\pi}$$
, if  $x >>1$ . (81)

(80)

From the above, it can readily be seen that the function  $F(x)-F(x_0)$  approaches its asymptotical value  $2c\sqrt{\pi}$  very rapidly. This property of F(x) is illustrated in Figure 1 for

the case p = 1 and  $x_0 = 0$ . By imposing these conditions and substituting  $z = t^2$ , F(x) transforms into the normal distribution function. That is:

$$F(x) = 2c \int_{0}^{x} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} \frac{p}{z^{2}} dz = 4c \int_{0}^{\sqrt{x}} e^{-\frac{t^{2}}{2}} dt$$
(82)

= 
$$4c\sqrt{2\pi}\int_{0}^{\sqrt{x}}\phi(t)dt = 2cY(x)$$
 (83)

where

$$\phi(t) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} .$$

Let us now consider the expansion of y(x) as expressed by Equations 56, 57 and 58:

 $y(x) = T_1 + T_2 + T_3 - R_3$  (84)

where

$$T_{1} = \frac{1}{4}u(x)(\frac{p}{x}-1) + \left[1 - \frac{1}{4}u(x_{0})(\frac{p}{x_{0}}-1)\right]e^{F(x_{0})-F(x)}$$
(85)

$$T_{2} = \frac{1}{8}u^{2}(x)(\frac{2p-p^{2}}{x^{2}}+1) - \frac{1}{8}u^{2}(x_{0})(\frac{2p-p^{2}}{x_{0}^{2}}+1)e^{F(x_{0})-F(x)}$$
(86)

$$T_{3} = \frac{1}{8} u^{3}(x) \left( \frac{p^{3} - 4p^{2} + 4p}{x^{3}} + \frac{p^{2} - 2p}{x^{2}} - \frac{p}{x} - 1 \right) \\ - \frac{1}{8} u^{3}(x_{0}) \left( \frac{p^{3} - 4p^{2} + 4p}{x_{0}^{3}} + \frac{p^{2} - 2p}{x_{0}^{2}} - \frac{p}{x_{0}} - 1 \right) e^{F(x_{0}) - F(x)}$$
(87)

$$R_{3} = \frac{1}{8} e^{-F(x)} \int_{x_{0}}^{x} e^{F(z)} d\left[u^{3}(z) \frac{p^{3} - 4p^{2} + 4p}{z^{3}} + \frac{p^{2} - 2p}{z^{2}} - \frac{p}{z} - 1\right]$$
(88)



Figure 1. Behavior of the Function Y(x) as Defined by Equation 83

13

Let  $\hat{x}_{max}$  and  $\hat{x}_{min}$  be defined by the following equations:

$$\frac{1}{4} u(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\max}) = \frac{1}{2N}, \text{ and } \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\max} \gg 1$$
(89)

and

 $\frac{p}{4\hat{x}_{\min}} u(\hat{x}_{\min}) + e^{F(x_0) - F(\hat{x}_{\min})} = \frac{1}{2N}$ 

in which

$$x_o < \hat{x}_{min}$$
, and  $\hat{x}_{min}$  is close to  $x_o$ . (90)

Since  $\hat{x}_{max}$  and  $\hat{x}_{min}$  are dependent upon c, the conditions  $\hat{x}_{max} \gg 1$  and  $\hat{x}_{min}$  close to  $x_0$  are easily satisfied by adjusting c.

Since  $\hat{x}_{\min}$  is very close to  $x_0$ , Equation 90 gives rise to the following inequality:

$$\frac{p}{4x_0} u(x_0) \ll I \tag{91}$$

Hence:

$$T_1 < \frac{1}{4}u(x)(\frac{p}{x}-1) + e^{F(x_0) - F(x)}$$
 (92)

It can readily be seen that for sufficiently large c the term  $e^{F(x_0)-F(x)}$  decreases rapidly and may be neglected if  $x \gg \hat{x}_{\min}$ . Then:

$$T_{i} \leq \frac{l}{2N}$$
, if  $\hat{x}_{\min} \leq x \leq \hat{x}_{\max}$ , (93)

where  $\hat{x}_{\min}$  and  $\hat{x}_{\max}$  are defined by Equations 89 and 90 respectively. Examining  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  in the interval  $\hat{x}_{\min} \leq x \leq \hat{x}_{\max}$  one observes that:

$$T_{2} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2N}\right)^{2}$$
(94)

and

$$T_{3} \leq \left(\frac{1}{2N}\right)^{3}$$
(95)

The integral  $R_3$  appearing in Equation 88 may be expressed by the mean value theorem as follows:

$$R_{3} = \frac{1}{8} \left[ u^{3}(x) \left( \frac{p^{3} - 4p^{2} + 4p}{x^{2}} + \frac{p^{2} - 2p}{x^{2}} - \frac{p}{x} - 1 \right) - u^{3}(x_{0}) \left( \frac{p^{3} - 4p^{2} + 4p}{x_{0}^{3}} + \frac{p^{2} - 2p}{x_{0}^{2}} - \frac{p}{x_{0}} - 1 \right) \right] e^{F(\xi) - F(x)}$$
(96)

where  $x_0 \leq \xi \leq x$ .

Consequently:

$$|R_{3}| \leq \left(\frac{1}{2N}\right)^{3}, \text{ if } \hat{x}_{\min} \leq x \leq \hat{x}_{\max}$$
(97)

Since N is a very large number, the terms  $T_2$ ,  $T_3$  and  $R_3$  may be neglected and the following relationships arise:

$$|y(x)| \approx |T_1(x)| \le \frac{1}{2N}$$
, if  $\hat{x}_{\min} \le x \le \hat{x}_{\max}$ . (98)

Recalling that the validity of the stationary state assumption can be expressed by the inequality  $|\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})| \leq \frac{1}{2N}$ , where  $\mathbf{x}_{\min} \leq \mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{x}_{\max}$ , it is obvious from Equation 98 that the stationary state exists in the interval  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\min} \leq \mathbf{x} \leq \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\max}$ . Hence, Equations 89 and 90 define the lower and upper bounds of the interval in which the stationary state exists.

Assume the exponential term in Equation 90 is the leading one, that is:

$$\frac{p}{4x_{\min}} u(x_{\min}) \ll e^{F(x_0) - F(x)} = \frac{1}{2N}$$
(99)

This additional condition on Equation 90 forces  $x_{\min}$  to approach  $x_0$ , thus decreasing the induction period. By using Equation 99, the expression for  $x_{\min}$  is simplified to:

$$x_{\min}^{1-\frac{p}{2}} - x_{o}^{1-\frac{p}{2}} = \frac{(2-p)\ln 2N}{4c}$$
(100)

It should be pointed out that the condition in Equation 99 is not a necessary one. It means that the stationary state may also exist without satisfying Equation 99. If Equation 99 cannot be satisfied, but the approximation  $e^{\chi_{min}/2} \approx 1$  is valid, the general Equation 90 reduces to a simplified transcendental equation:

$$\frac{p}{r-\frac{p}{2}} + \exp\left[-\frac{4c}{2-p}\left(x_{\min}^{1-\frac{p}{2}}-x_{o}^{1-\frac{p}{2}}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{2N}$$
(101)  

$$\frac{8cx_{\min}}{min}$$

It must be emphasized that the stationary state conditions above were not derived from the proper function g(x), but from a hypothetical one, y(x). One of many ways to show that  $g(x) \approx y(x)$  in the stationary state interval is to prove the existence of a point  $\hat{x}$ such that  $x_{\min} \leq \hat{x} \leq x_{\max}$  and  $g(\hat{x}) \approx y(\hat{x})$ . It is obvious that if such a point  $\hat{x}$  exists, then  $|g(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2N}$  in some interval containing  $\hat{x}$ , and therefore, one may neglect the term  $g^2(x)$  appearing in Equation 40 in such an interval. This neglect of  $g^2(x)$  in Equation 40 leads to Equation 44 and finally to Equation 45, the defining equation of y(x). Hence, the derived stationary state conditions will be proper for the function g(x) if, under the given conditions, the following relationships hold:

 $\mathbf{or}$ 

$$\frac{\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}_{\min})}{|\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}_{\min}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{\min})|} << |\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_{\min})| \qquad (102)$$

Now consider the interval  $x_0 \leq x \leq x_{\min}$ . Since  $x_{\min}$  is close to x and  $x \leq 1$ , x is a small number, and the approximation  $e^x \approx 1$  holds in this interval. Using this approximation, Equation 33 reads as follows:

1 and and and and

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{r}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\mathbf{x}^{-\mathbf{p}}\mathbf{r}^2 \tag{103}$$

By introducing a new function v, defined implicitly by:

.

$$\mathbf{r} = \frac{\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{p}}}{\mathbf{b}} \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{d\mathbf{x}}$$
(104)

Equation 103 transforms into a new second order differential equation:

$$\frac{d^2 v}{dx^2} + \frac{p}{x} \frac{dv}{dx} - c^2 x^{-p} v = 0$$
 (105)

where  $c^2 = ab$ .

This equation may be solved readily for any p, but, for the sake of additional simplicity only the case p = 1 will be considered. Thus, Equation 105 reads:

$$\frac{d^2 v}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{x} \frac{dv}{dx} - \frac{c^2 v}{x} = 0$$
 (106)

By utilizing a new variable z defined by:

$$x = \frac{1}{4c^2} z^2$$
 (107)

Equation 106 is expressed by:

$$\frac{d^2v}{dz^2} + \frac{1}{z}\frac{dv}{dz} - v = 0$$
(108)

which is the modified Bessel equation of zero order. This equation has two independent solutions  $I_0(z)$  and  $K_0(z)$ . Hence,

$$v(z) = C_1 I_0(z) + C_2 K_0(z)$$
 (109)

where  $C_1$  and  $C_3$  are arbitrary constants, and  $I_0(z)$  and  $K_0(z)$  are modified Bessel functions of zero order (Reference 8).

Since

$$\frac{dI_{0}(z)}{dz} = I_{1}(z)$$
(110)

and

$$\frac{dK_{0}(z)}{dz} = -K_{1}(z)$$
(111)

where  $I_1$  (z) and  $K_1$  (z) are modified Bessel functions of the first order, the function r defined by Equation 104 can be written:

$$r = \frac{z}{2b} \frac{C_1 I_1(z) - C_2 K_1(z)}{C_1 I_0(z) + C_2 K_0(z)}$$
(112)

The stationary state condition  $\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{d\mathbf{x}} = 0$  applied to Equation 103 yields the following  $\mathbf{r}_s$  function:

$$r_{s} = \left(\frac{0x}{b}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 if  $p = 1$  (113)

or in terms of z:

$$\mathbf{r_s} = \frac{\mathbf{z}}{2 \, \mathbf{b}} \tag{114}$$

Dividing Equation 112 by Equation 114 one obtains:

$$\frac{r}{r_{s}} = \frac{1-g}{1+g} = \frac{C_{1}I_{1}(z) - C_{2}K_{1}(z)}{C_{1}I_{0}(z) + C_{2}K_{0}(z)}$$
(115)

Since the initial conditions require  $r(z_0)=0$ ; where  $z_0 = 2cx_0^2$ ,  $C_1 = K_1(z_0)$  and  $C_2 = I_1(z_0)$ . Finally:

$$\frac{r}{r_{s}} = \frac{K_{1}(z_{0})I_{1}(z) - I_{1}(z_{0})K_{1}(z)}{K_{1}(z_{0})I_{0}(z) + I_{1}(z_{0})K_{0}(z)}$$
(116)

From Equation 91 one obtains:

$$2 \operatorname{cx}_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} > 1$$
 (117)

if p = 1 and  $e^{x_0} \approx 1$ .

In the case of large arguments, one may express the functions  $I_0(z)$ ,  $I_1(z)$ ,  $K_0(z)$  and  $K_1(z)$  by the following series (Reference 9):

$$I_{0}(z) = \frac{\theta^{2}}{\sqrt{2\pi z}} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{8z} + \frac{(1)(9)}{21(8z)^{2}} + \frac{(1)(9)(25)}{3!(8z)^{3}} + \cdots \right]$$
(118)

$$I_{1}(z) = \frac{\theta^{2}}{\sqrt{2\pi z}} \left[ 1 - \frac{3}{8z} - \frac{(3)(5)}{2!(8z)^{2}} - \frac{(3)(5)(21)}{3!(8z)^{3}} - \cdots \right]$$
(119)

$$K_{0}(z) = \frac{\pi \bar{\theta}^{-2}}{\sqrt{2\pi z}} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{8z} + \frac{(1)(9)}{2!(8z)^{2}} - \frac{(1)(9)(25)}{3!(8z)^{3}} + \cdots \right]$$
(120)

$$K_{1}(z) = \frac{\pi e^{-z}}{\sqrt{2\pi z}} \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{8z} - \frac{(3)(5)}{2!(8z)^{2}} + \frac{(3)(5)(21)}{3!(8z)^{3}} + \cdots \right]$$
(121)

Using the above expansions one obtains:

 $\frac{1-g}{1+g}$ 

$$= \frac{e^{Z^{-Z_{0}}}\left[1 + \frac{3}{8z_{0}} - \frac{15}{2!(8z_{0})^{2}} + \cdots\right]\left[1 - \frac{3}{8z} - \frac{15}{2!(8z)^{2}} - \cdots\right] - e^{Z_{0}^{-Z}}\left[1 - \frac{3}{8z_{0}} - \frac{15}{2!(8z_{0})^{2}} - \cdots\right]\left[1 + \frac{3}{8z} - \frac{15}{2!(8z)^{2}} + \cdots\right]}{e^{Z^{-Z_{0}}}\left[1 + \frac{3}{8z_{0}} - \frac{15}{2!(8z_{0})^{2}} + \cdots\right]\left[1 + \frac{1}{8z} + \frac{9}{2!(8z)^{2}} + \cdots\right] + e^{Z_{0}^{-Z}}\left[1 - \frac{3}{8z_{0}} - \frac{15}{2!(8z_{0})^{2}} - \cdots\right]\left[1 + \frac{3}{8z} - \frac{9}{2!(8z)^{2}} + \cdots\right]}$$
(122)

Neglecting all terms involving  $1/z^2$  and solving for g, one obtains:

$$g \approx \frac{\frac{1}{4z} + e^{2(z_0 - z)} \left(1 - \frac{3}{8z_0} + \frac{1}{8z}\right)}{1 + \frac{3}{8z_0} - \frac{1}{8z} - \frac{1}{4z} e^{2(z_0 - z)}}$$
(123)

Finally, from the above it can readily be shown that:

$$\frac{y(x_{\min}) - g(x_{\min})}{g(x_{\min})} <<1$$
(124)

Hence, it is concluded that at  $x_{\min}$  the y function and the g function are almost identical and that approximating the g function by the y function in the interval  $x_{\min} \le x \le x_{\max}$ is justified. Thus the stationary state conditions derived for y(x) hold for the function g(x) and express the true stationary state conditions of the system under consideration.

## DERIVATION OF STATIONARY STATE CRITERION

According to Equation 89 the upper bound of the stationary state leads to the following inequality:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} -\frac{p}{2} & \frac{x}{2} \\ 4cx & \geq N e^{2} \end{array}$$
(125)

Substituting the kinetic parameters defining x and c (Equations 32 through 36 and 40) into Equation 125 one can obtain the following formula:

$$8\left(\frac{\mathbf{I}_{0}\mathbf{k}_{\dagger}}{\mathbf{k}_{d}}\right) \ge N \exp\left[\frac{RT_{0}^{2}(\mathbf{k}_{d}-\mathbf{k}_{d},\mathbf{0})}{2E_{d}^{\dagger}}\right]$$
(126)

This inequality can be considered as a stationary state criterion for polymerization under the current conditions. In general, the initial concentration,  $I_o$ , has also to be multiplied by the factor of efficiency of initiation, f. For the sake of simplicity, this factor was disregarded in this theoretical investigation.

Equation 126 will now be transformed into a simpler formula. At first, the integral appearing in Equation 13 will be solved, and the concentration of initiator, [I], at any time will be expressed:

$$\left[\mathbf{I}\right] = \mathbf{I}_{o} \exp\left[\frac{RT_{o}(k_{d,o}-k_{d})}{E_{d}\dot{T}}\right]$$
(127)

By substituting Equation 127 into Equation 126 one can obtain another inequality defining the stationary state conditions:

$$8\left(\frac{\left[I\right]k_{\dagger}}{k_{d}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \ge N$$
(128)

Equation 128 shows that the validity of the stationary state conditions, within an error 1/N, is given by the value of a simple ratio (f[I]k<sub>t</sub>)/k<sub>d</sub>), which has to be greater than

or equal to  $N^3/64$ . It follows that the stationary state conditions will always cease to be valid before the initiator is entirely decomposed. It is obvious that the duration of the stationary state increases as the value of the initial concentration of the initiator,  $I_0$ , increases. On the other hand, by increasing the value of  $I_0$ , one will obtain lower values for the average degree of polymerization of the resulting polymer. Therefore, the higher the required degree of polymerization, the shorter is the duration of the stationary state.

From the general criterion defining the stationary state conditions under the assumption that the temperature of reaction increases at a constant rate,  $\dot{T}$ , Equation 126, one can derive another criterion for  $\dot{T} = O$ , which defines the corresponding polymerization at constant temperature. For this purpose a function v will be introduced, defined as:

$$v = \frac{E_d t}{R_D T_0^2} \dot{T}$$
(129)

By keeping time constant, and varying only  $\dot{T}$ , the quantity  $(E_d t)/(RT_0^2)$  appearing in Equation 129 is now a constant, and the newly introduced function, v, is proportional to  $\dot{T}$ . Under such conditions it is obvious that if  $\dot{T}$  approaches zero, v also approaches zero. By denoting the exponent appearing in Equation 126 as G, and substituting Equation 129 into Equation 126, this exponent can be expressed by

$$G = \frac{1}{2} k_{d,0} t \left( \frac{\theta V_{-1}}{v} \right)$$
 (130)

Since

$$\lim_{\mathbf{V} \to \mathbf{0}} \left( \frac{\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{V}} - \mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{v}} \right) = \mathbf{1}$$
(131)

the exponent  $G = \frac{1}{2} k_{d,0} t$ , if one maintains a constant temperature of reaction.

The appropriate criterion for stationary state derived from Equations 126 and 131 can be given by the following inequality:

$$8\left(\frac{I_{0}k_{\uparrow}}{k_{d}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \ge N \exp\left(\frac{k_{d}}{2}\right)$$
(132)

where  $k_t$  and  $k_d$  are constant during the reaction. Equation 132 is identical to the corresponding expression derived previously (References 1, 2, and 3) for free radical polymerization at constant temperature.

The period of induction of the stationary state can be derived from the inequality given in Equation 89. The resulting formula will be given, in general, by a transcendental equation. However, in order that this period be extremely short, the general

expression must be reduced to an approximate one, according to Equation 99, and the derived relationship is:

$$\ln 2N \leq \frac{4c}{2-p} \left( x \frac{p}{2} - \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1-\frac{p}{2}}{x_{0}} - \frac{x_{0}}{x_{0}} - \frac{x_{0}}{2} \right)$$
(133)

By substituting the original parameters into c, p, x, and  $x_0$ , Equation 133 can be transformed into an approximate formula defining a short period of induction:

$$\ln 2N \leq (I_0 k_{t,0} k_{d,0})^{\frac{1}{2}} t$$
 (134)

An identical formula could easily be derived from a corresponding expression obtained in a previous work (References 1, 2, and 3) for polymerization at constant temperature.

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