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OFFICE OF NAVAL RESEARCH
Contract N00014-82-K-0608
Task No. NR 092-576

TECHNICAL REPORT NO. 5

EFFECT OF SIMPLE STRESS ON THE GLASS TRANSITION OF POLYMERS AT HIGH PRESSURE

by

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Prepared for Publication

in

Journal of Materials Science

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October 1, 1985

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REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		**READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM**
1. REPORT NUMBER Technical Report No. 5	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO. AD-A166	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER 282
4. TITLE *(and Subtitle)* EFFECT OF SIMPLE STRESS ON THE GLASS TRANSITION OF POLYMERS AT HIGH PRESSURES		5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED Technical Report - Interim
		6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER
7. AUTHOR(s) K.D. Pae, C.L. Tang, and K. Vijayan		8. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s) N00014-82-K-0608
9. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS High Pressure Materials Research Laboratory Rutgers University P.O. Box 909, Piscataway, NJ 08854		10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS NR 092-576
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS Office of Naval Research Arlington, VA 22217		12. REPORT DATE October 1, 1985
		13. NUMBER OF PAGES 27
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS *(if different from Controlling Office)*		15. SECURITY CLASS. *(of this report)* Unclassified
		15a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE

16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT *(of this Report)*

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17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT *(of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)*

18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

19. KEY WORDS *(Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)*

High Pressure, Tg, Effects of stress Yielding, Young's Modulus.

T [illegible]

20. ABSTRACT *(Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)*

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$$\Gamma = \Sigma W(f, n_0)\exp[-\beta(PV+U-\sigma V\varepsilon)]$$

where the strain $\varepsilon = \xi(f-f_0)$ in which f and f_0 are the fraction of flexed bonds with and without stress, respectively. Furthermore, by this model, the Young's modulus across the transition, E_L and E_G, can be evaluated. The Young's modulus increases with increasing pressure at lower and moderate pressure range but the increase is rather small at very high pressure range.

EFFECT OF SIMPLE STRESS ON THE GLASS TRANSITION OF POLYMERS AT HIGH PRESSURES

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Abstract

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An extension of Gibbs-Dimarzio theory is proposed to account for the effect of applied stress on the glass transition temperature of glass forming polymers. When a simple stress, such as tensile, compressive or shear stress is applied to a polymer, the T_g will decrease, compared to the polymer without applied stress. A glass forming polymer in the vicinity of the transition would behave differently than what is predicted by rubber elasticity. The partition function taking into account the effect of stress is suggested to be

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1. Introduction

Experimental studies have been carried out in this laboratory in last several years on the effect of hydroststic pressure on tensile, compressive and shear stress-strain behavior of polymers, including elastomers in the rubbery and the glassy states(1-10) as shown in Fig.1. It was observed in all polymers tested that yielding occured under all three stress conditions and the yielding strengths increased with increasing pressure. It was also observed that the Young's modulus and the shear modulus increased with icreasing pressure and underwent abrupt changes across glass transition pressure (P_g). Specially the change is as much as three orders of magnitude in the case of elastomers. We adopt the hypothesis that yielding occurs as the result of lowering of glass transition temperature (T_g) due to the applied load(7). A similar concept is employed in free volume theories of yielding(11,12). That is, yielding occures if the fraction of free volume reaches a certain value. Under a simple compressive stress, for instance, the fraction of free volume increases as a result of decrease in the total volume under the compressive stress.

In this study, the effect of tensile, compressive and shear stress on the glass-transition behavior of glass forming-polymers and its related properties are investigated on the basis of Gibbs-Dimarzio (G-D) theory which is based on the statistical mechanics(10,13-17). The G-D theory takes into account specific configurations of polymers, making it possible to express the thermodynamic quantities as a function of molecular parameters, such as flexed energy ϵ, hole energy E_h, coordination number z, degree of polymerization x, etc. In addition, it is also a function of an intensive parameter of the system, temperature T(13,14). The extension of the theory to incorporate the effect of pressure P was accomplished by use of "isothermal-isobaric" partittion function of the system. The Gibb's free energy can then be obtained in terms of the internal parametrs, f and n_0, and the intensive parameters T and P(15), where f is the fraction of flexed bonds and n_0 is the number of unoccupied sites. According to the theory, the second order transition temperature T_2 corresponding to zero configurational entropy increases with incresing pressure but approaches a finite asympototic value at very high pressures.

From thermodynamic considerations, it has been shown that for the iso-ξ_i plane (a "special glass" formed under pressure P_i) the transition line in the STP space is given by(10)

$$\frac{dP}{\Delta C_P} = \frac{dT}{VT\Delta\alpha} = \frac{dS}{(\alpha_L C_{PG} - \alpha_G C_{PL})V} \qquad (1)$$

In G-D theory, both f and n_0 are assumed frozen in when cooled down along a isobar to glass state(15); therefore $\alpha_G = 0$, $C_{PG} = 0$ and we have

$$\frac{dT}{dP} = \frac{VT\Delta\alpha}{\Delta C_P} \qquad (2)$$

only when dS = 0. Owing to the argument that Eq. (2) holds for an iso-ξ transition, this result indicates that the iso-ξ transition stems from a constant entropy process. Moreover, allowing for a variation of the flex energy $\Delta\epsilon$ for glasses formed at different pressures, a better agreement between the experimental data and *theoretical pridiction has been achieved*(10).

The effect of tensile, compressive and shear stess superimposed on hydrostatic pressure on the transition temperature will be determined by further modifying the Gibbs-Dimarzio theory. The Young's modulus (E) can also be calculated at various pressures and temperatures.

2. Theory

A. Fundamental

In the G-D theory, a polymer chain is cut into segments, each of which occupies one site of the lattice. For the liquid state, the configurational entropy $S_L(T)$ of a system of n_x polymer molecules with x segments and n_0 empty sites related to the number of possible configurations, $W(f, n_0)$, may be witten as(10)

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_L &= k\ln W \qquad (3)\\
&= kn_x x\Big[-\frac{V_0}{V_x}\ln S_0 + \Big(\frac{z-2}{2V_x}\Big)\ln\frac{V_0}{S_0} - \frac{\ln S_x}{x} + \frac{\ln([(z/2-1)x+1][z-1])}{x}\\
&\quad + \Big(\frac{x-3}{x}\Big)\Big(f\ln\Big[\frac{(z-2)(1-f)}{f}\Big] - \ln[1-f]\Big)\Big]
\end{aligned}
$$

In Eq.(3), k is Boltzman constant, T the absolute temperatue, $V_0 = n_0/(xn_x+n_0)$, $V_x = 1-V_0$, $S_0 = zn_0/([(z-2)x+2]n_x+zn_0)$, $S_x = 1-S_0$ and f fraction of flexed bonds with rotational isomerism (RI) approximation$^{(13)}$ assumed.

The usual thermodynamic theories of simple liquid bodies specify their state by the volume only; whereas in the case of a solid body besides the volume the shape is also taken into account and specified by six components of strain tensor. Inasmuch as no distinction of a qualitative character can be made between a solid amorphous body, i.e. a supercooled liquid which is usually considered a meta-stable state, and a liquid in a state of absolute thermodynamical equilibrium, it is clear that dealing with such a liquid we are, on one hand, entitled to make statistical thermodynamics calculations and, on the other, compelled to take into account not only the volume variation but also the complete strain tensor associating the latter with the corresponding elastic stress$^{(18)}$.

The Euler's relation for a system of continuous medium is given by$^{(19)}$

$$U=TS+\mu N+V_0T^0_{ij}\epsilon^0_{ij} \qquad (4)$$

where V_0 is the volume of the system in some fiducial state, T^0_{ij} Piola-Kirchoff stress tensor and ϵ^0_{ij} the Lagrangian strain tensor. Eq.(4) may also be witten, by transforming the deformation energy term to Eulerian representation$^{(20)}$

$$U=TS+\mu N+Vt_{ij}\epsilon_{ij} \qquad (5)$$

in which t_{ij} and ϵ_{ij} represent respectively the Cauchy stress tensor and Eulerian strain tensor. The strain energy term in Eq.(5) represents the energy produced by all possible combinations of stresses.

When a tensile stress σ (or σ_T), a compressive stress σ_C or a shear stress τ applied to the system, the term $Vt_{ij}\epsilon_{ij}$ in Eq.(5) reduces, respectively, to

$$U=TS-PV+\sigma V\epsilon+\mu N \qquad (6)$$

$$U_C=TS-PV_C+\sigma_C V_C \epsilon_C+\mu N \qquad (7)$$

$$U_S=TS-PV_S+\tau V_S \gamma+\mu N \qquad (8)$$

With regard to G-D theory under the RI approximation, the energy of a system is$^{(15)}$

$$U=\Phi+n_x(x-3)\,[f\epsilon_2+(1-f)\,\epsilon_1] \qquad (9)$$

where Φ is the hole energy, ϵ_2 and ϵ_1 the higher and lower energy level, respectively, and f the fraction of segments at ϵ_2.

When a loading is applied to a glass forming polymer, either in tension, compression or shear, a certain amount of work will be done on it. In the vicinity of its transition, the polymer system may absorb this work to increase its energy. This pridiction is unlike the situation of a polymer in highly rubber-elastic state that it does not incur any energy change when stretched but behave as the so-called entropy spring$^{(21)}$. As far as the RI approximation is concerned, ignoring the change of the hole energy part Φ on account of a negligible variation of volume, the absorbed energy may increase the fraction of segments in higher energy level. Representing these fractions with and without load by f and f_0, we have the energy increase ΔU as

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta U &\sim f\epsilon_2+(1-f)\,\epsilon_1-f_0\epsilon_2-(1-f_0)\,\epsilon_1 \qquad (10)\\ &=(f-f_0)\,(\epsilon_2-\epsilon_1)=\Delta f\Delta\epsilon\end{aligned}$$

Eq.(10) gives a clue to express the tensile strain energy in Eq.(6) by $\xi\sigma V(f-f_0)$. In other words,

$$\epsilon=\xi\,(f-f_0)=\frac{\Delta L}{L} \qquad (11)$$

As has been noted for Eqs.(6) and (9), the introductioin of the effect of tensile stress into G-D theory can be achieved by means of a "isothermal-isobaric-isotensile" partition function of the form

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma &= \sum_{f,n_0} W(f,n_0)\,exp[-\beta\{PV+U(f,n_0)-\sigma V\epsilon\}] \qquad (12)\\ &=\sum Wexp[-\beta\{PCN_0+U-\sigma CN_0\xi\,(f-f_0)\}]\end{aligned}$$

Through the Lengendre's transfomation$^{(19)}$, we obtained the Gibb's free energy associated with Γ by

$$G(T,P,\sigma)=U[T,P,\sigma]=\mu N=U+PV-\sigma V\epsilon-TS=-kT\,ln\Gamma \qquad (13)$$

The summation over f and n_0 in Eq.(12) can be replaced by their maximum values without introducing detectable errors in the logarithm of $\Gamma^{(22)}$. The maximum terms can be obtained by differentiating with respect to f and n_0 as,

$$\frac{\partial lnW}{\partial t}-\beta\frac{\partial U}{\partial t}+\beta\sigma CN_0\xi\left(1-\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial f}\right)=0 \qquad (14)$$

$$\frac{\partial lnW}{\partial n_0}-\beta\frac{\partial U}{\partial n_0}-\beta PC+\beta\sigma C\xi(f-f_0)=0 \qquad (15)$$

For solving Eq. (14), the successive approximation technique is employed. As the first approximation, assuming $\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial f}=0$ in Eq. (14), we get an equation for f_{max} (later denoted by f)

$$\frac{f_{max}}{1-f_{max}}=(z-2)\,exp\left[\frac{-(\epsilon_2-\epsilon_1)+\sigma CN_0\xi/(x-3)n_x}{kT}\right] \qquad (16)$$

or

$$f=\frac{(z-2)\,exp\left[\frac{-\Delta\epsilon+\sigma CN_0\xi/(x-3)n_x}{kT}\right]}{1+(z-2)\,exp\left[\frac{-\Delta\epsilon+\sigma CN_0\xi/(x-3)n_x}{kT}\right]}=\frac{AB}{1+AB} \qquad (17)$$

where $A=(z-2)\,exp(-\Delta\epsilon/kT)$ and $B=exp[\sigma CN_0\xi/(x-3)n_x kT]$. Neverthless, the f_C for the fiducial state, when the tensile load is released, should be

$$f_0=\frac{(z-2)\,exp(-\Delta\epsilon/kT)}{1+(z-2)\,exp(-\Delta\epsilon/kT)}=\frac{A}{1+A} \qquad (18)$$

Combining Eqs. (17) and (18) and differentiatig, it can be shown that

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial f}=\left(\frac{1+AB}{1+A}\right)^2\frac{1}{B} \qquad (19)$$

Substituting Eq.(19) for $\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial f}$ in Eq.(14) as the second approximation, we have

$$f=\frac{AB_1}{1+AB_1} \qquad (20)$$

where

$$B_1 = exp[\frac{\sigma C N_0 \xi}{kT(x-3)\, n_x}\{1-(\frac{1+AB}{1+A})^2 \frac{1}{P}\}]$$

Eq.(15) yields an implicit equation for $(n_0)_{max}$, i.e.,

$$ln(V_0^{z/2-1}/S_0^{z-2}) - \frac{E_h}{kT} S_x^2 - \frac{PC_T}{kT} + \frac{\sigma C_T \xi_T (f-f_0)}{kT} = 0$$

$$ln(v_0^{z/2-1}/S_0^{z-2}) - \frac{E_h}{kT} S_x^2 - \frac{PC_C}{kT} + \frac{\sigma_C C_C \xi_C (f-f_0)}{kT} = 0$$

$$ln(V_0^{z/2-1}/S_0^{z-2}) - \frac{E_h}{kT} S_x^2 - \frac{PC_S}{kT} + \frac{\tau C_S \xi_S (f-f_0)}{kT} = 0 \qquad (21)$$

where C_T, C_C and C_S are the unit cell dimensions under tensile, compressive and shear stresses, respectively. Or, in a dimensionless form,

$$ln(V_0^{z/2-1}/S_0^{z-2}) - \frac{S_x^2}{T_e E_e} - \frac{P_e}{T_e} + \frac{\sigma_e}{T_e}(f-f_0) = 0 \qquad (22)$$

where

$$\frac{\sigma C \xi}{\Delta\epsilon} = \sigma_e \ , \quad \frac{PC}{\Delta\epsilon} = P_e \quad (for\ tensile\ stress)$$

$$\frac{\sigma_C C_C \xi_C}{\Delta\epsilon} = \sigma_e \ , \quad \frac{PC_C}{\Delta\epsilon} = P_e \quad (for\ compressive\ stress)$$

$$\frac{\tau C_S \xi_S}{\Delta\epsilon} = \sigma_e \ , \quad \frac{PC_S}{\Delta\epsilon} = P_e \quad (for\ shear\ stress)$$

$$\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{E_h} = E_e \ , \quad \frac{S_L}{kN_a} = S, \quad \frac{kT}{\Delta\epsilon} = T_e \ , \quad \frac{n_x}{n_0} = n \qquad (23)$$

With the dimensionless groups introduced as in Eq.(23), Eqs.(3), (17), (18), (19), (20) are also converted to dimensionless forms and a single plot of Eq.(22), as shown in Figs. 2 and 3, was made possible for each of three stress conditions because of the dimensionless quantities σ_e and P_e. From these dimenssionless equations, the T_e vs P_e curves of the equilibrium transition lines under infinitely slow cooling rate (S = 0) are produced with σ_e=0.000001, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 and plotted in Fig. 2 (for first approximation) and Fig. 3 (for second approximation). Values of z, x and E_e are taken respectively to be 4, 1640, 0.945 for polystyrene(11). The discrepency between the two approximations is not remarkable for low σ_e values and with regard to the first approximation, the decrease of T_e is supposed to be linearly related to the increase of stress as $T_e = 0.5(1-\sigma_e)$. T_e vs P_e curves with S not equal to zero can also be produced[10], but, for non-equilibrium transition, the glass formed will continuously relax toward the equilibrium state with a rate depending upon the relaxation time[23].

The yield stress σ_e in Eq.(22) assumes the same value given under the same condition of T_e and $P_e = 0$ (atmospheric condition) and, therefore, we obtain

$$\sigma C_T \xi_T = \sigma_C C_C \xi_C = \tau C_S \xi_S$$

$$\frac{\sigma^2}{E} C_T = \frac{\sigma_C^2}{E} C_C = \frac{\tau^2}{G} C_S$$

$$\frac{\sigma_C}{\sigma} = \frac{\epsilon_C}{\epsilon} = \frac{\xi_C}{\xi_T} = \left(\frac{C_T}{C_C}\right)^{1/2} \tag{24}$$

in which a linear elastic behavior with $E_T = E_C = E$ is assumed. If the pressure-dependent yield criterion proposed by Pae[3] is adopted, we obtain

$$\frac{C_T}{C} = 2(1+\nu)\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} - a_1\right)^2$$

$$\frac{C_C}{C_T} = \left(\frac{1/\sqrt{3} + a_1}{1/\sqrt{3} - a_1}\right)^2$$

where $C = C_S$ (no volume change under shear loading) and a_1 a material constant. If $\nu = 0.42$ and $a_1 = -0.023$ are used, $C_T = 1.024C$, $C_C/C_T = 0.825$, $\xi_C/\xi_T = 1.08$ and $\xi_S/\xi_T = 1.574$ are obtained.

B. Evaluation of the Young's modulus

We have been carrying out experimental studies on the stress-strain behavior of elastomers at high pressures for last several years[6,7,24]. The elastomers studied include a polyurethane elastomer, Solithane 113, with $T_g = -20^\circ$C. The stress-strain measurements were made as a function of pressure, temperature and aging time

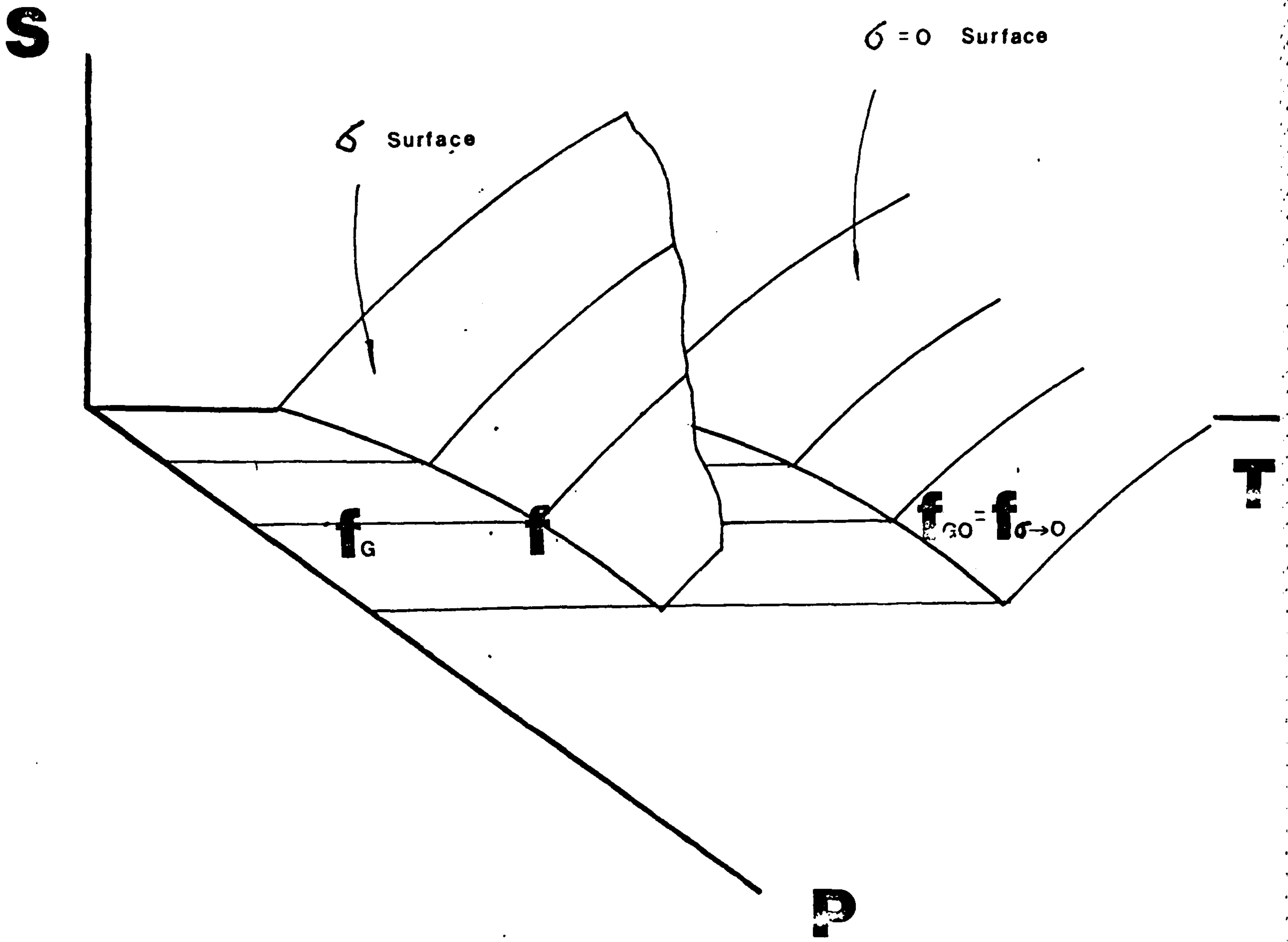


Fig. 4

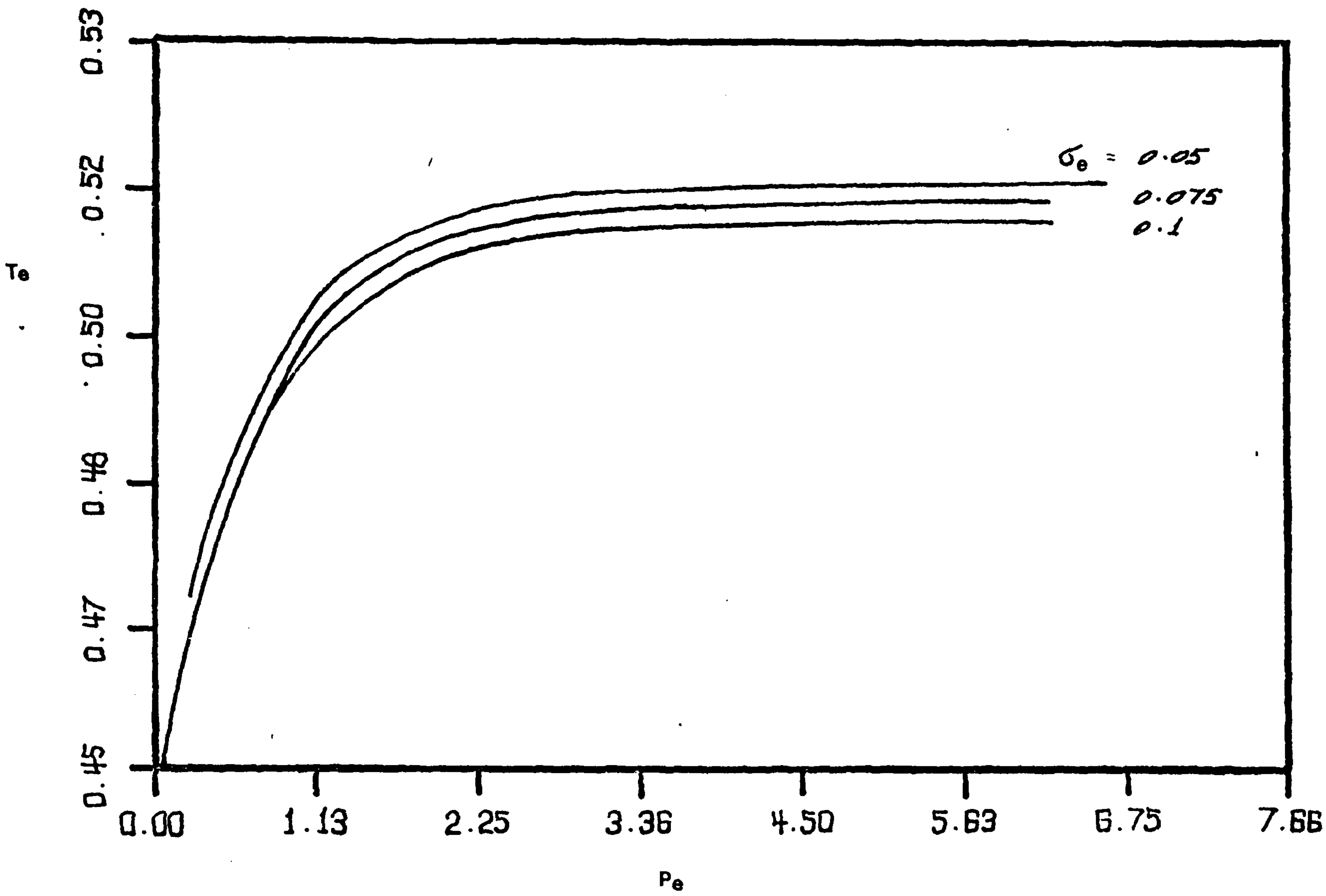
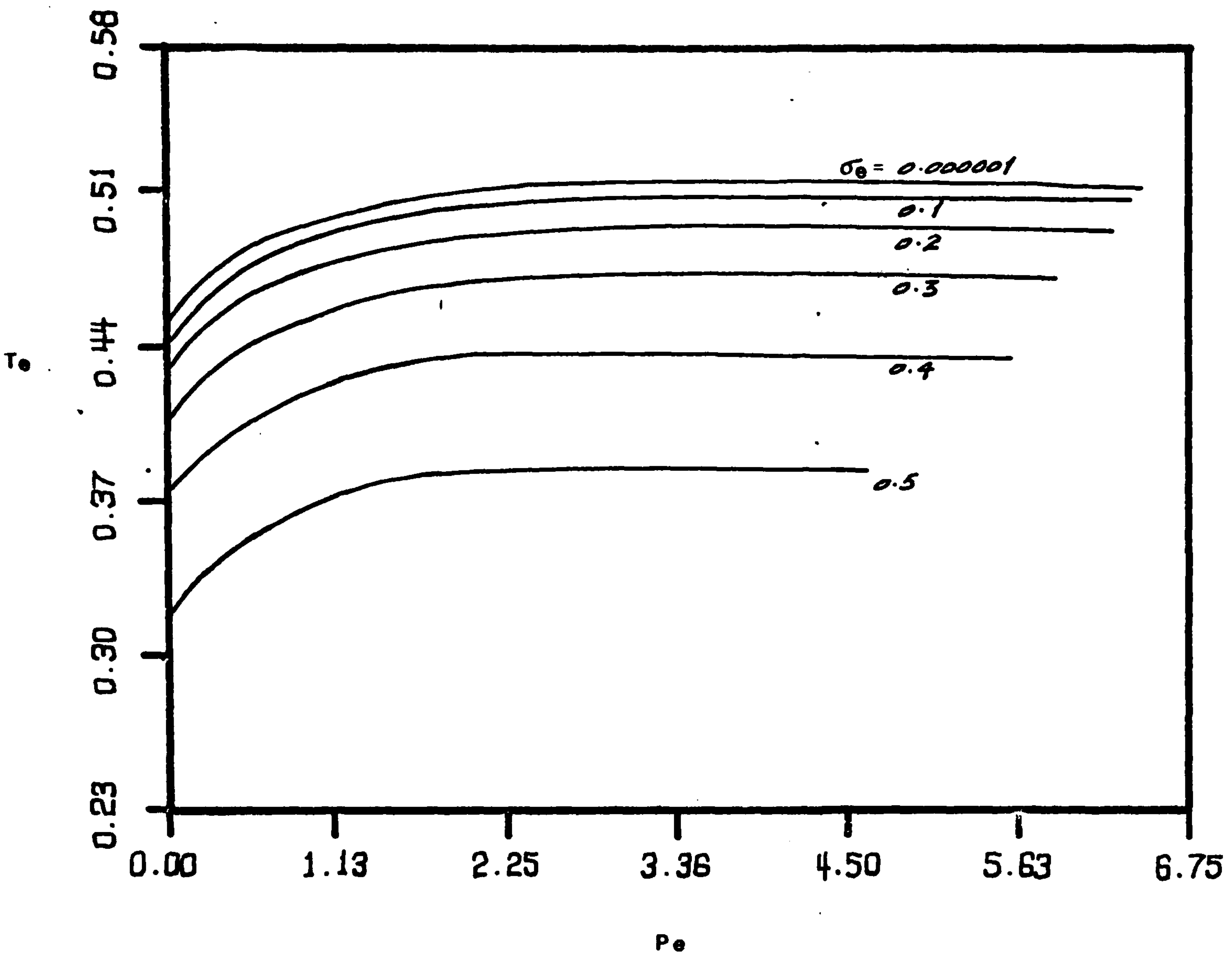

0.53
0.52
0.50
0.48
0.47
0.45
Te
0.00
1.13
2.25
3.36
4.50
5.63
6.75
7.66
Pe
σ_e = 0.05
0.075
0.1

Fig 3a



Te
0.58
0.51
0.44
0.37
0.30
0.23
0.00
1.13
2.25
3.36
4.50
5.63
6.75
Pe
$\sigma_e = 0.000001$
0.1
0.2
0.3
0.4
0.5

Fig 3

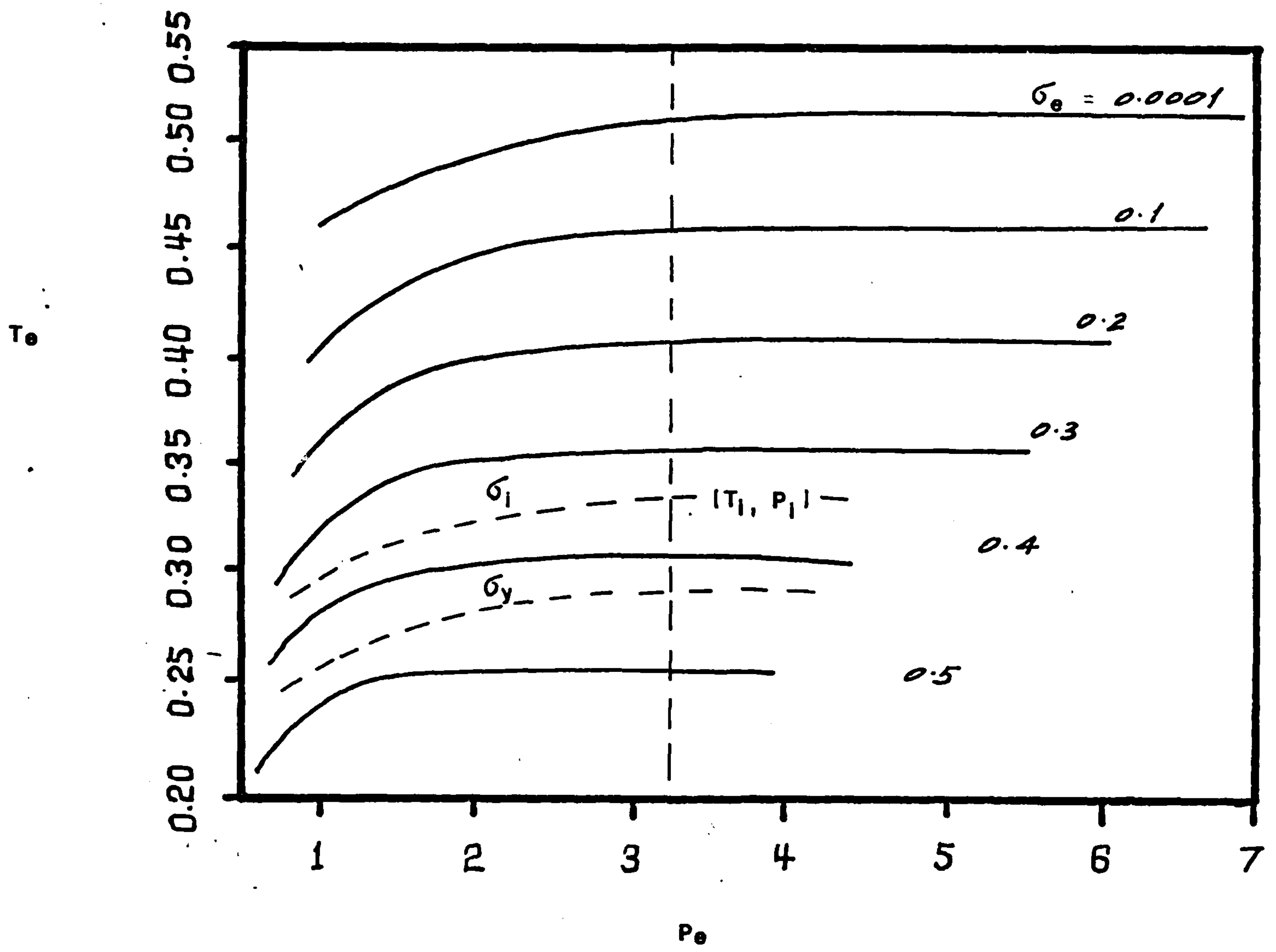

T_e
0.20
0.25
0.30
0.35
0.40
0.45
0.50
0.55
P_e
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
$\sigma_e = 0.0001$
0.1
0.2
0.3
0.4
0.5
σ_1
σ_y
(T_1, P_1)

Fig. 2

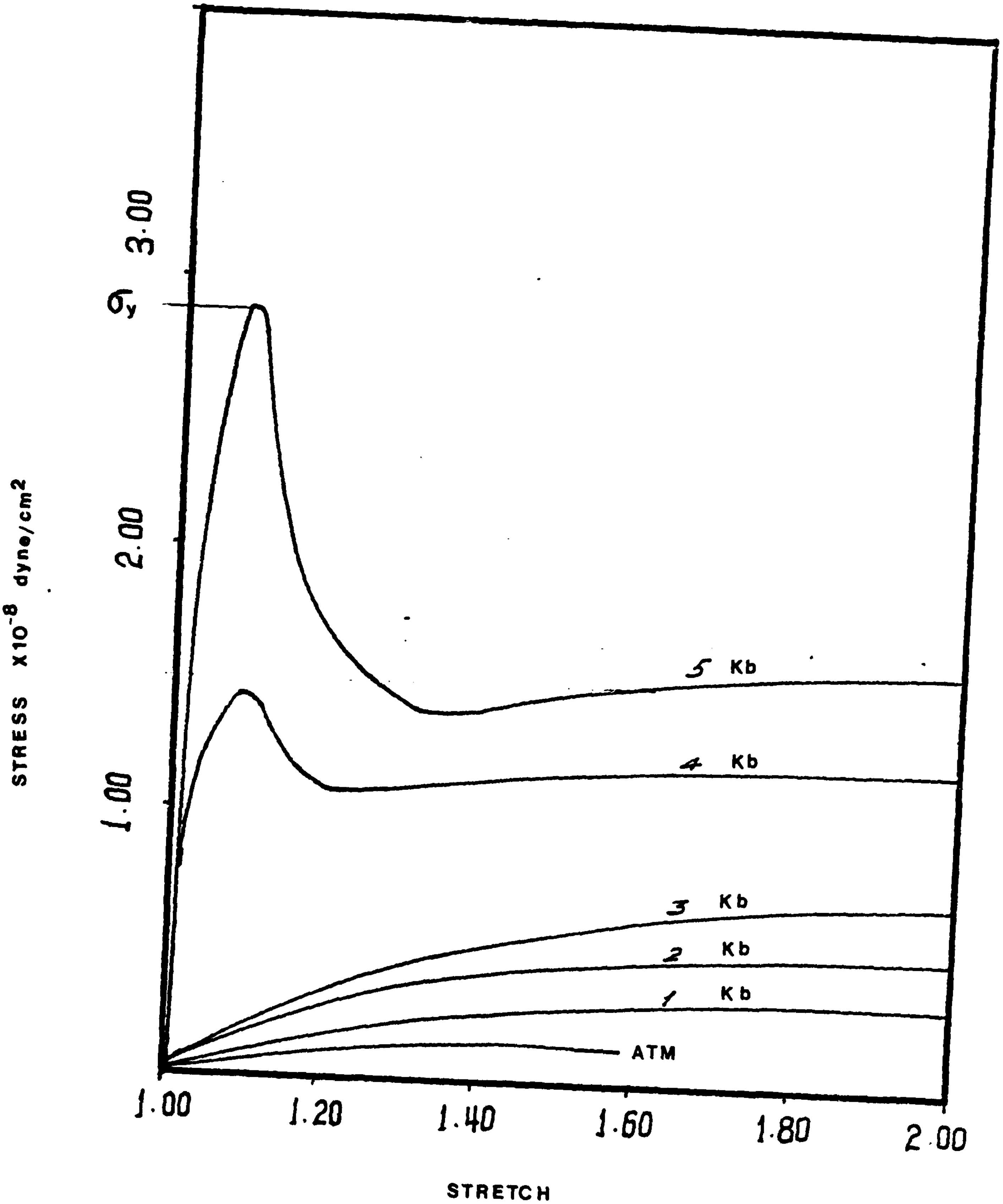

STRESS X10^{-8} dyne/cm^2
σ_y
3.00
2.00
1.00
5 Kb
4 Kb
3 Kb
2 Kb
1 Kb
ATM
1.00
1.20
1.40
1.60
1.80
2.00
STRETCH

Fig. 1

Macromolecules **9**, 736 (1976)

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Figure Caption

Fig. 1 : Tensile stress vs stretch for solithane 113 at various pressures.

Fig.2 : Theoretical curves of T_e vs P_e with S = 0 and σ_e = 0.0001, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 based on first approximation.

Fig.3 : Theoretical curves of T_e vs P_e with S = 0 and σ_e = 0.000001, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 based on second approximation.

Fig.3a : T_e vs P_e curves of Fig. 2 with scale enlarged; σ_e = 0.05, 0.075, 0.1.

Fig.4 : Schematic iso-tensile stress surfaces in STP space.

Fig.5 : Incipient Young's modulus of glass (E_{Ge}) and liquid (E_{Le}) vs P_e with σ_e = 0.3

Fig.6 : E_{Ge} (E_{Le}) vs P_e with σ_e = 0.1.

Fig.7 : E_{Ge} (E_{Le}) vs P_e with σ_e = 0.2.

Fig.8 : ln ϕ vs P_e.

Fig.9 : Young's modulus of glass (E_{Ge}) vs pressure (P_e).

Fig. 10 : Young's modulus of solithane 113 vs temperature at various pressures.

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial \sigma}\Big]_{S,P} = -\frac{\partial (V\epsilon)}{\partial T}\Big]_{\sigma,P}\frac{T}{C_{P,\sigma}} = -\frac{T}{C_{P,\sigma}}\left(V\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial T} + \epsilon\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)$$

$$= -\frac{T}{C_{P,\sigma}}\left[N_0 C\xi\frac{\partial (f-f_0)}{\partial T} + \xi (f-f_0) N_0 C\alpha_L\right]$$

The dimensionless parameters for α_L and C_p are

$$\alpha_e = \frac{\alpha_L \Delta \epsilon}{k}, \quad C_e = \frac{C_{P,\sigma}}{x n_x k} = \frac{C_{P,\sigma}(mole)}{kNa}$$

Acknowledgment

The authers wish to gratefully acknowledge the Propulsion and Energetics Program of office of Naval Research(Contract No. N00014-82-K-0608. Task No. NR 092-576) for its financial support for this research study.

$$\alpha_L = \frac{1}{V}\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\Big]_{P,\sigma}$$

$$= \frac{V_0}{T}\left[\frac{(E_h S_x^2 + PC)/kT - \dfrac{\sigma C\xi\,(f-f_0)}{kT} + \dfrac{\sigma C\xi}{k}\dfrac{\partial\,(f-f_0)}{\partial T}}{S_x z/2 - (z/2-1)\,V_x - 2E_h S_0 S_x^2/kT}\right]$$

in which, $\frac{\partial(f-f_0)}{\partial T}$ is evaluated by differentiating Eqs.(17) and (18) as

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial T} = f\,(1-f)\left(\frac{\dfrac{T\sigma C\xi N_0}{(x-3)\,n_x}\alpha_L + \Delta\epsilon - \dfrac{\sigma C N_0\xi}{(x-3)\,n_x}}{kT^2}\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial T} = f_0\,(1-f_0)\,\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{kT^2}$$

The configurational heat capacity of the liquid is

$$C_{PL} = T\frac{\partial S_L}{\partial T}\Big]_{P,\sigma}$$

$$= n x_n\left\{\frac{\alpha_L}{V_x}\left[E_h S_x^2 + PC - \sigma C\xi\,(f-f_0) - \frac{\sigma C\xi}{\alpha_L}\frac{\partial\,(f-f_0)}{\partial T}\right] + k\left(\frac{x-3}{x}\right) f\,(1-f)\left(\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{kT}\right)^2\right\}$$

Based on the G-D theory, in the glassy state, f and n_0 being kept constant with temperature, both C_{PG} and α_G vanish. The variation of the transition temperature T_g with tensile stress can be obtained by

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial \sigma}\Big]_{S,P} = -\frac{\partial S}{\partial \sigma}\Big]_{T,P} \Big/ \frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\Big]_{\sigma,P}$$

Considering σ and $V\epsilon$ are mutually conjugated intensive and extensive quantities in the term $\sigma V\epsilon$ of Eq.(13), we have

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \sigma}\Big]_{T,P} = \frac{\partial\,(V\epsilon)}{\partial T}\Big]_{\sigma,P}$$

Thereby,

induced glass transition(26,27).Yielding under compressive and shear stresses are natually pridiced by the modified G-D theory developed in this paper since the strain energy increases, whatever the stress state is, tension, compression or shear and consequently the glass transition temperature decreases.

In Fig. 2, where T_e vs P_e for various σ_e are plotted, we consider schematically a polymer at certain temperature T_i and pressure P_i in glassy state with the reference (transition) line $\sigma = 0$. This point represents the state of glass which was formed at pressure P_i without applied stress and is further cooled to T_i in the glassy state. When a tensile, compressive or shear stress is aplied to this glass, the reference line or the transition line (T_e vs P_e with $\sigma_e \neq 0$ itself) will shift downward. If the stress is increased and the stretch is carried on at an infinitely slow rate (a quasi-static loading), the glass yields at $\sigma = \sigma_i$, which correspods to the stress-induced transition. If the stress is increased at a rate higher than infinitely slow rate, the glass will yield at $\sigma' = \sigma_y > \sigma_i$ as shown in Figs. 2 and 1.

As a result of the fact that all curves in Figs. 2 and 3 are produced with S = 0 corresponding to a glass transition at T_2 which is about 50 dgrees below T_g(15), the dimensionless Young's modulus in Figs. 5, 6, 7, 9 is also produced on this basis. However, configurational entropys will take on some value for most experimental situations where cooling rate or the loading rate is greater than the infinitely slow rate. Consequently, transition occurs with S not equal to zero. The Young's modulus associated with $S \neq 0$ can be produced(10), adopting the same calculation procedure.

Appendix

The thermal expansion coefficient above the transition T_g is given by the same pressure P but with σ approaching zero. in other words, $f_G = f$. but f_{G0} for the glassy state with stress removed is different than f_C for the rubbery state without stress which must be calculated by Eq.(18). So that, the strain may decrease from $\xi(f-f_0)$ to $\xi(f-f_{G0}) = \xi(f-f_{\sigma\to0})$ in the amount of several decades, whose ratio

$$\phi=\frac{f-f_0}{f-f_{\sigma\to0}}$$

is pressure dependent as shown by the curve $\ln\phi$ vs P_e in Fig. 8.

The Young's modulus based on the strain of glassy state is defined by

$$\frac{1}{E'_G}=\frac{\partial\epsilon}{\partial\sigma}=\xi\frac{\partial(f-f_{G0})}{\partial\sigma} \qquad (32)$$

in which, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial\sigma}$ adopts the same formula as Eq.(26) and

$$\frac{\partial f_{G0}}{\partial\sigma}=\frac{\partial f}{\partial\sigma}\Big]_{P,\sigma\to0}=f_{\sigma\to0}(1-f_{\sigma\to0})\frac{CN_0\xi}{kT_{\sigma\to0}(x-3)\,n_x}$$

We denote this ultimate modulus of glass by E_G' and the dimensionless parameter associated with it by E_{Ge}'. As observed in Solithane 113, the Young's modulus increased with about three orders of magnitude across transition(7). From Figs. 5, 6 and 7, we see the E_{Ge} and E_{Le} are of the same magnitude. However, in Fig. 9, it turns out that E_{Ge}' is greater than E_{Le} by such an amount of order of magnitude and E_{Ge}' increases about three times with the pressure P_e increasing from 0 to 4. This result is comparable with experimental data on Solithane 113 in Fig. 10.

3. Glass Yielding

It is well known that the glass transition temperature is reduced under a tensile stress σ(25) and experimentally the deformation of a glass formed without a tensile stress at a temperature below T_g will be elastic at small strain, then followed by a yield point and plastic deformation, which is similar to the deformation in the rubbery state(7). The yield point under tension is essentially a strain or stress-

$$\frac{\partial\epsilon_L}{\partial T}\Big]_F dT+\frac{\partial\epsilon_L}{\partial\sigma}\Big]_{P,T_g} d\sigma=\frac{\partial\epsilon_G}{\partial T}\Big]_{P,\sigma} dT+\frac{\partial\epsilon_G}{\partial\sigma}\Big]_{P,T_g} d\sigma \qquad (29)$$

Assuming the rate of variation of ϵ_G with respect to T just across the transition equal to zero because of the freezing in of internal parameters, i. e., $\frac{\partial\epsilon_G}{\partial T}\Big]_{P,\sigma}=0$ and defining

$$\frac{1}{E_G}=\frac{\partial\epsilon_G}{\partial\sigma}\Big]_{P,T}$$

through Eq.(25), one finds

$$\frac{dT}{d\sigma}=\left(\frac{1}{E_G}-\frac{1}{E_L}\right)\Big/\frac{\partial\epsilon_L}{\partial T}=\left(\frac{1}{E_G}-\frac{1}{E_L}\right)\Big/\xi\frac{\partial(f-f_0)}{\partial T} \qquad (30)$$

Thermodynamic calculations of $\frac{dT}{d\sigma}$ and $\frac{\partial(f-f_0)}{\partial T}$ are given in appendix. This enables us to obtain E_G from E_L.

Introducing more dimensionless groups as

$$\frac{1}{E_{Le}}=\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{C\xi^2E_L},\quad \frac{1}{E_{Ge}}=\frac{\Delta\epsilon}{C\xi^2E_G} \qquad (31)$$

the above equations may be normalized and the curves of E_{Le} vs P_e and E_{Ge} vs P_e are produced as shown by Figs. 5, 6 and 7.

However, the E_G so far obtained is the result of an "incipient transition" from E_L, since, just across the secondary transition, ϵ_G is supposed to be equal to ϵ_L, i. e., $\epsilon_G=\epsilon_L=\xi(f-f_0)$. This is because both ϵ_G and ϵ_L are estimated on the basis of liquid. In fact, below the secondary transition, the glass with the constant V and S continues to undergo a change in ϵ_G until it reaches $\xi(f_G-f_{G0})$ which is calculated on the basis of glass. The strain of a glass $\epsilon_G=\xi(f_G-f_{G0})$ can be clearly illustrated using Fig. 4, as

$$f_G=f_G[P,\sigma,T]=f[T_g(P,\sigma),\sigma,P]$$
$$f_{G0}=f_{0\,\sigma\to 0}[T_g(P,\sigma),\sigma,P]=f[T_g(P),P]$$

That is, f_G is equal to the fraction of the flexed bonds at the transition temperature T_g under pressure P and tensile strss σ, whereas the f_{G0} is the fraction at T_g under

under a constant rate (.02° /mim.), as in Figs. 1 and 10. Some of these tests were carried out under glassy state and some in the rubbery state, or a "solid-like liquid" state or solid amorphous body whatever it is termed. From the stress-strain curves, we were able to determine the Young's modulus. It is true that the material behaves in a viscoelastic manner. Howevere, the solid amorphous bodies are distinguishable from ordinary liquids by their relatively longer relaxation time(18). E is measured for given conditions of experiment, such as P, T, strain rate, and under proper assumptions, such as ignoring time effect iike creep and stress relaxation during the short time period of the test.

The Young's modulus of the liquid is defined by

$$E_L = \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \epsilon}\Big]_{P,T}$$

$$\frac{1}{E_L} = \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial \sigma}\Big]_{P,T} = \xi \frac{\partial (f-f_0)}{\partial \sigma} \tag{25}$$

in which, from Eqs.(17) and (18),

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = f(1-f)\left[\frac{CN_0\xi}{kT(x-3)n_x} + \frac{\sigma\xi\left(\frac{1}{V}\frac{\partial V}{\partial \sigma}\right)N_0 C}{kT(x-3)n_x}\right] \tag{26}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \sigma} = 0 \tag{27}$$

Furthermore, they are coupled with another derivative

$$\frac{1}{V}\frac{\partial V}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{V_0 C\xi}{kT}\left[\frac{(f-f_0) + \sigma\frac{\partial (f-f_0)}{\partial \sigma}}{\frac{z}{2}S_x - \frac{2E_h S_0 S_x^2}{kT} - \left(\frac{z}{2}-1\right)V_x}\right] \tag{28}$$

For evaluating Young's modulus of glass, we propose two stages of calculation. Firstly, consider a second order transformation,

$$V = \frac{\partial G}{\partial P}\Big]_{T,\sigma} \quad -S = \frac{\partial G}{\partial T}\Big]_{P,\sigma} \quad -V\epsilon = \frac{\partial G}{\partial \sigma}\Big]_{P,T}$$

along the transition line, we have $V_L = V_G$, $S_L = S_G$, and $(V\epsilon)_L = (V\epsilon)_G$, therefore, $\epsilon_L = \epsilon_G$ or $d\epsilon_L = d\epsilon_G$. This leads to

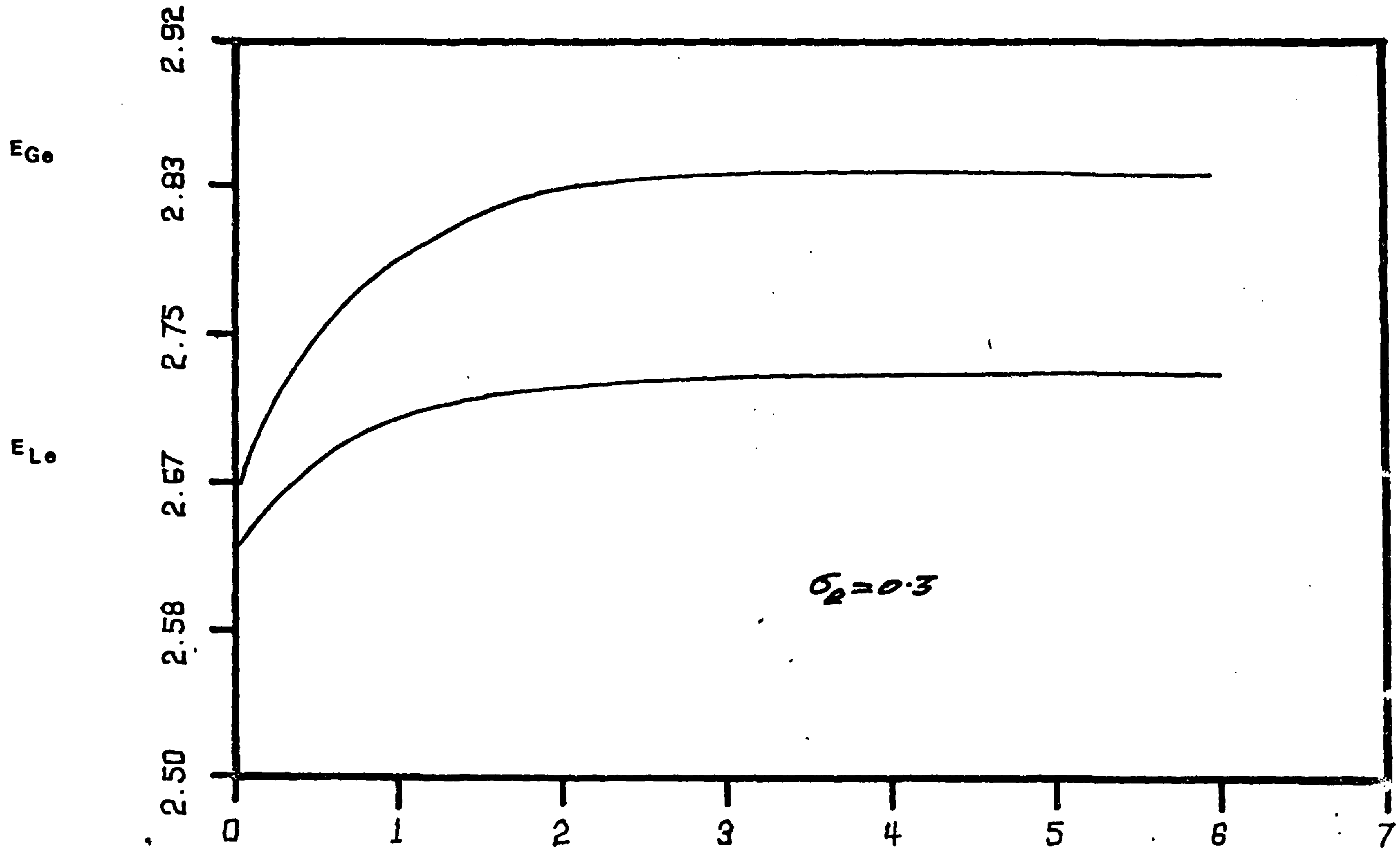

Fig 5

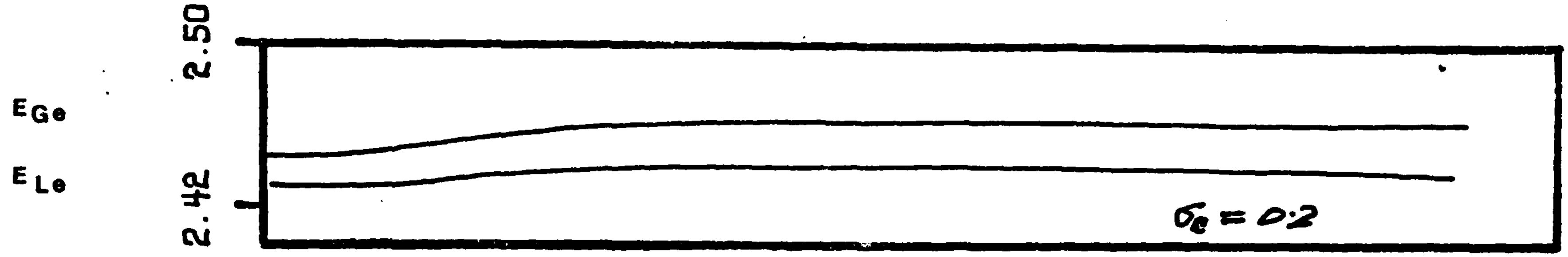
E_{Ge}
E_{Le}
2.50
2.42
$\sigma_e = 0.2$

Fig.. 7

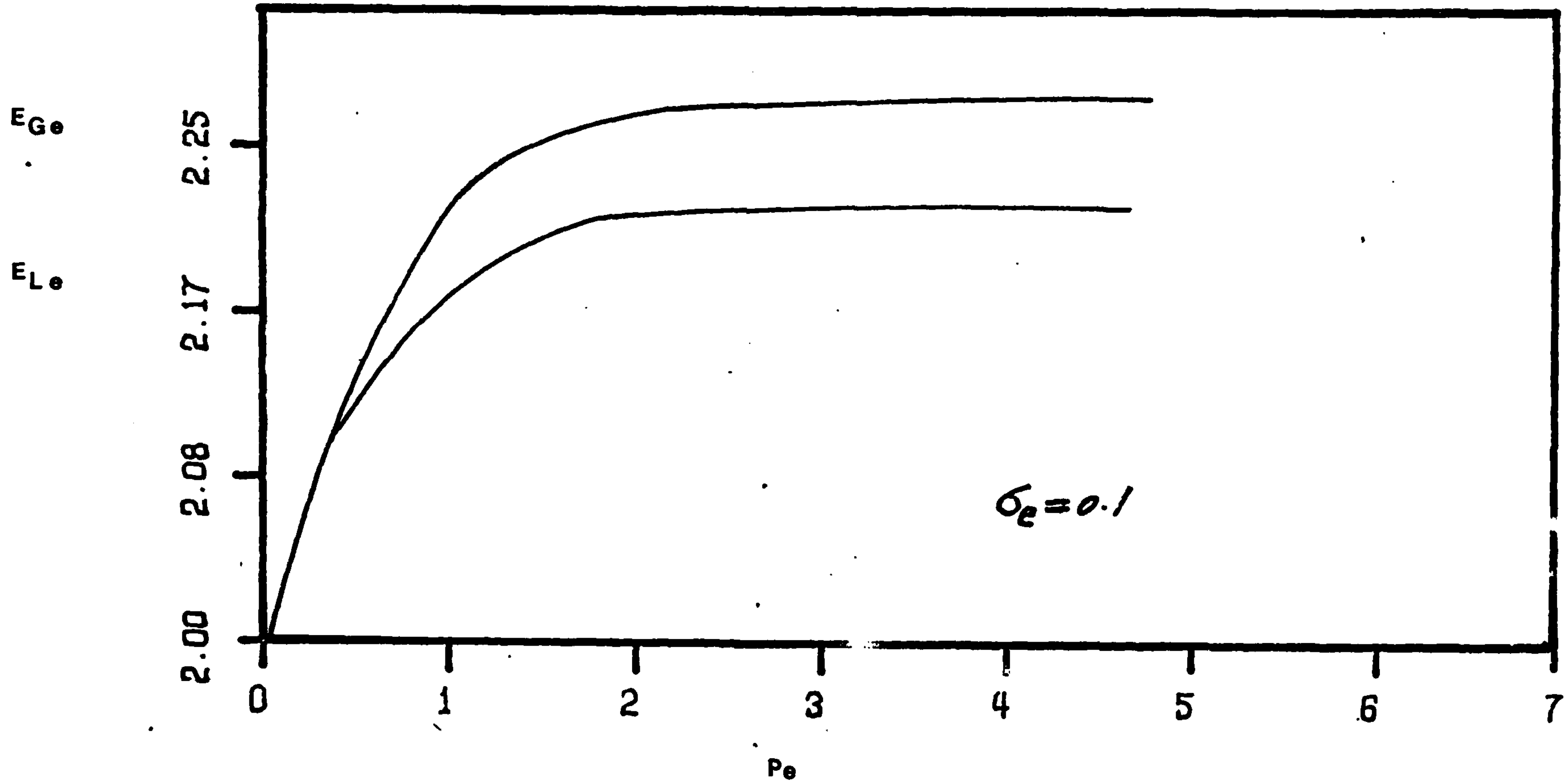
E_{Ge}
E_{Le}
2.25
2.17
2.08
2.00
$\sigma_e = 0.1$
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
Pe

Fig. 6

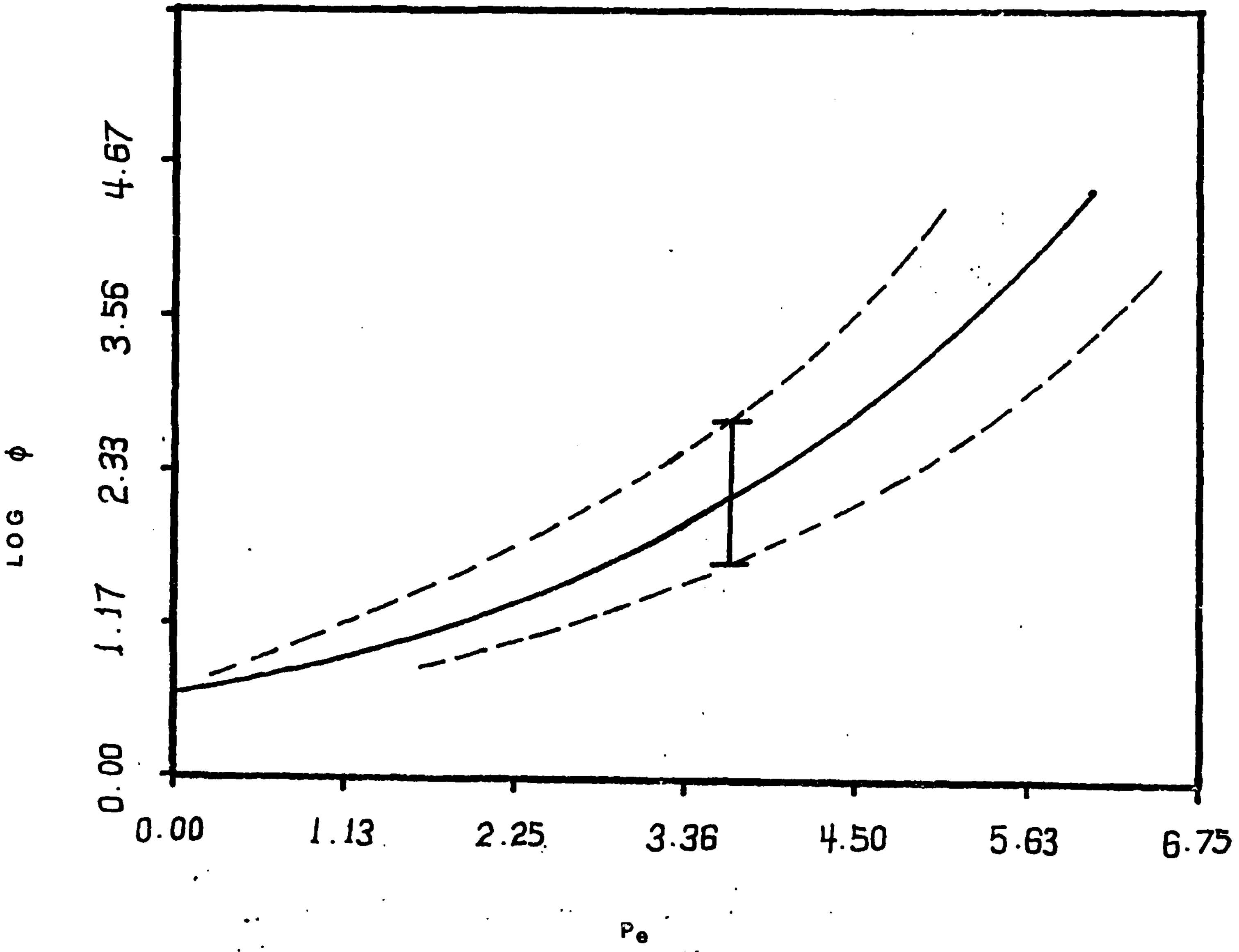

Fig. 8

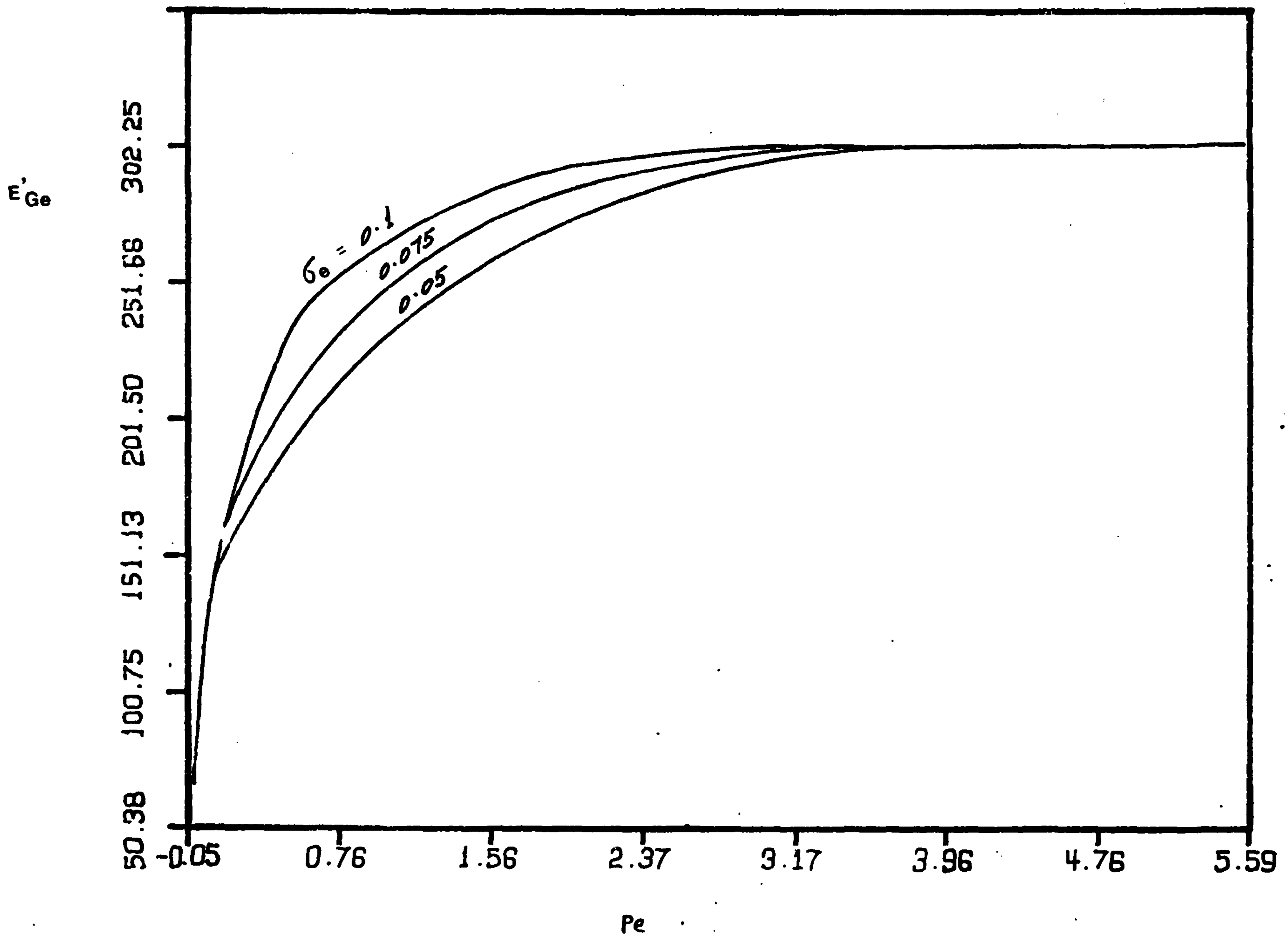
E'Ge
302.25
251.68
201.50
151.13
100.75
50.38
-0.05
0.76
1.56
2.37
3.17
3.96
4.76
5.59
Pe
Ge = 0.1
0.075
0.05

Fig.9

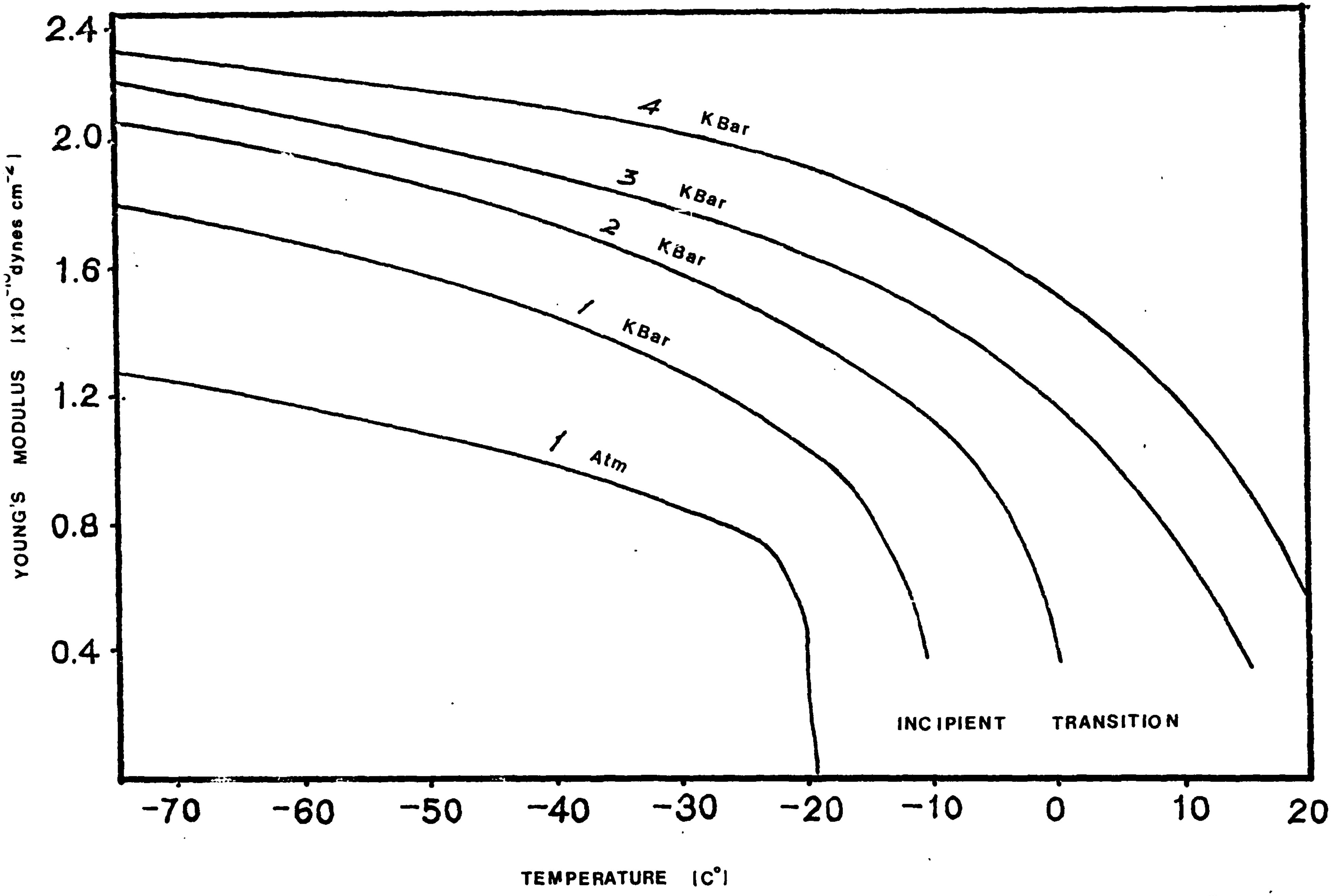
2.4
2.0
1.6
1.2
0.8
0.4
YOUNG'S MODULUS (X 10^{-10} dynes cm^{-2})
4 KBar
3 KBar
2 KBar
1 KBar
1 Atm
INCIPIENT TRANSITION
−70
−60
−50
−40
−30
−20
−10
0
10
20
TEMPERATURE (C°)

Fig. 10