

## Reexamination of the Molecular Size Dependence of Diffusivities of Hydrocarbons in Natural Rubber†

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Diffusion coefficients at zero concentration,  $D_0$ , for hydrocarbon vapors in natural rubber have been determined, and their dependence on the size and shape (or length) of the penetrants has been reexamined. For normal hydrocarbons,  $D_0$  decreased gradually with increasing the number of carbon atoms up to 5 and then leveled off. For branched hydrocarbons, such as iso- and neo-paraffins,  $D_0$  was considerably lower than that for the corresponding normal ones. The dependence of  $D_0$  on the size and shape of penetrants could be explained by assuming that the principal resistance to diffusion is defined by the cross-sectional area at the most bulky portion of the major axis and also that an additional resistance due to the molecular length contributes for relatively lower hydrocarbons. The latter resistance was practically negligible for hydrocarbons with more than 4 carbon atoms in the major chain. The effective cross-sectional dimension could be estimated successfully in terms of the group dimension of Pauling.

Extensive studies of gas or vapor diffusion in polymers have been made for elucidating the mechanisms of diffusion and the microstructure of polymers. The free volume theory seems to succeed in interpreting diffusion phenomena in polymer substances (see, for example, Refs. 1–3). However, estimation of the critical size of a hole required for diffusion to take place has not been achieved.

Natural rubber is one of the materials studied from the earliest period because of its high permeability. For common gases, the general dependence of diffusion properties in natural rubber on the size of diffusant molecule seems to be fairly well established and predictable. For organic vapors, on the other hand, the phenomena are more complicated. The diffusion coefficient varies, in general, with the concentration of the vapor in the rubber. Therefore, the diffusion coefficient at zero concentration,  $D_0$ , has often been employed to estimate the diffusivity; it is found to be a function not only of the size but also of the shape of a given penetrant molecule.

According to information published earlier (see, for example, Refs. 4 and 5), the characteristic behavior of  $D_0$  for hydrocarbons in rubber can be summarized as follows. (1)  $D_0$  for normal hydrocarbons decreases with an increase in the number of carbon atoms up to 4 and then levels off, (2)  $D_0$  for branched hydrocarbons such as iso- or neo-paraffins are remarkably lower than the values for the corresponding normal ones.

The effect of length or branching of a penetrant molecule on diffusivity has been studied, but few attempts have been made to explain all these effects together. It is the purpose of this work to reexamine the dependence of  $D_0$  for hydrocarbons in rubber on the size and shape of penetrants, and to discuss how a penetrant molecule moves through rubber.

### Experimental

The average permeability coefficient,  $\bar{P}$  was determined by means of a conventional permeation apparatus.<sup>6)</sup> That

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is, the pressure increase at the low pressure compartment due to vapor transport through a rubber film was measured as a function of time with a Pirani gauge which was calibrated previously through a McLeod gauge.<sup>7)</sup>  $\bar{P}$  was calculated, then, from the steady state permeation rate,  $\Delta p/\Delta t$ , using the expression

$$\bar{P} = \frac{273.2}{76T} \frac{V_e}{p_h} \frac{l}{A} \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}, \quad (1)$$

where  $V_e$  and  $T$  are the volume and temperature, respectively, of the measuring chamber,  $p_h$  is the applied pressure of the penetrant, and  $A$  and  $l$  are the effective area and the thickness of the membrane. The change of  $l$  due to swelling was not taken into account in the calculation of  $\bar{P}$  from Eq. 1. However, the resulting effect on the diffusion coefficient will be compensated for when the average diffusion coefficient is extrapolated to zero concentration.

The solubility coefficient,  $S$ , is defined as

$$S = \frac{c}{p}, \quad (2)$$

where  $c$  is the equilibrium concentration of a penetrant in the film and  $p$  is the partial pressure at sorption equilibrium. When Henry's law is obeyed,  $S$  is a constant. Sorption isotherms were measured by a volumetric method. The apparatus used in this experiment was essentially the same as that of Aitken and Barrer.<sup>8)</sup>

The average diffusion coefficient,  $\bar{D}$ , was calculated from  $\bar{P}$  and the solubility coefficient,  $S_h$  at the high pressure side of the membrane using the relation

$$\bar{D} = \frac{\bar{P}}{S_h}, \quad (3)$$

where the sorption equilibrium is assumed to be established at the both surfaces of the film. A series of  $\bar{D}$  was measured as a function of  $c_h (= p_h S_h)$ , and the diffusion coefficient at zero concentration,  $D_0$ , was obtained by extrapolating  $\bar{D}$  to  $c_h = 0$ .

The rubber film was prepared by casting a benzene solution of smoked sheet on a glass plate. This was first air dried, followed by vacuum drying at room temperature for at least 2 days. The average thickness of a film used in the measurements was determined from the density and the weight per unit area of the film. Six kinds of lower hydrocarbons of 99.0% minimum purities (Seitetsu Kagaku Co.) and four kinds of liquid ones of commercial reagent grade (Tokyo Kasei Kogyo Co.) were employed. They

TABLE 1. DIFFUSIVITY AND SOLUBILITY DATA AT 298 K FOR HYDROCARBONS IN NATURAL RUBBER

Hydrocarbon	Symbol	$\frac{10^7 D_0}{\text{cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}}$		$\beta^{\text{a})}$	$\frac{S_0}{\text{cm}^3 \text{ (STP)} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ MPa}^{-1}}$		$\alpha^{\text{a})}$
Methane	C <sub>1</sub>	6.8	(8.9) <sup>b)</sup>		3.35		
Ethane	C <sub>2</sub>	4.7			6.78		
Propane	C <sub>3</sub>	2.1	(2.1) <sup>b)</sup>		52.9		
Butane	C <sub>4</sub>	1.5		1.8	159		2.1
Pentane	C <sub>5</sub>	1.3		7.3	640		2.3
Hexane	C <sub>6</sub>	1.3		7.7	1520		3.0
Isobutane	iso-C <sub>4</sub>	0.91		4.8	101		2.4
Isopentane	iso-C <sub>5</sub>	0.70		7.5	362		2.9
Neopentane	neo-C <sub>5</sub>	0.47		5.5	164		2.5
Neohexane	neo-C <sub>6</sub>	0.43		4.3	701		3.1

a) These parameters have the unit of  $\text{cm}^3(\text{rubber})\text{cm}^{-3}(\text{penetrant as liquid})$ . b) The values in parentheses represent the data of Michaels and Bixler.<sup>13)</sup>

were subjected to repeated freeze-thaw cycles to remove dissolved gases before being introduced into the apparatus.

### Results and Discussion

For lighter hydrocarbons such as methane, ethane, and propane,  $P$  did not show any pressure dependence in the applied pressure range (up to about 50 kPa for lighter hydrocarbons) and Henry's law was obeyed. In this case, the diffusion coefficient,  $D$ , is essentially independent of  $c$  and may be also determined directly from the time lag observed in the permeation measurement. Actually, the values of  $D$  obtained by the time lag method and those from Eq. 3 were in excellent agreement.

For heavier hydrocarbons, on the other hand, the concentration dependence of solubility coefficients was observed. Thus, Henry's law was no longer obeyed. In the range of measurements (the range was limited by the vapor pressure at room temperature for liquid hydrocarbons), the sorption isotherms could be well represented by the equation

$$S = S_0 \exp(\alpha c), \quad (4)$$

where  $S_0$  is the solubility coefficient at zero concentration and  $\alpha$  is a constant. Equation 4 can be derived from a simplified form of the Flory-Huggins equation

$$\ln a = \ln v + (1-v) + \chi(1-v)^2, \quad (5)$$

where  $a$  and  $v$  are the activity and the volume fraction of the penetrant, and  $\chi$  is the interaction parameter. That is, assuming  $a = p/p_0$  (where  $p_0$  is the vapor pressure of the penetrant at the measuring temperature), making the substitutions and neglecting higher terms, we obtain the expression

$$S = S_0 \exp[2(1+\chi)c]. \quad (6)$$

Therefore, it is clear that the parameter  $\alpha$  in Eq. 4 is approximately equal to  $2(1+\chi)$ .<sup>9-12)</sup> The solubility coefficient,  $S_h$  required to calculate  $\bar{D}$  from Eq. 3 was estimated from Eq. 4.

Average permeabilities, and therefore, average diffusion coefficients varied with the applied pressure for C<sub>4</sub> and higher hydrocarbons. The concentration dependence of  $\bar{D}$  could be expressed fairly well by the equation

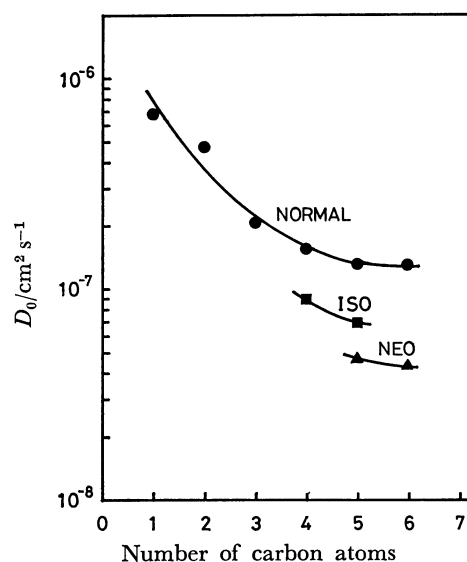


Fig. 1. Dependence of  $D_0$  for hydrocarbons in natural rubber at 298 K on the number of carbon atoms.

$$\bar{D} = D_0 \exp(\beta c_h), \quad (7)$$

where  $\beta$  is a constant (see, for example, Refs. 9-12). Then,  $D_0$  was determined readily by extrapolation of the  $\ln \bar{D}$  vs.  $c_h$  plot. The results are shown in Table 1. The values of  $D_0$  for methane and propane are in fair agreement with those obtained by Michaels and Bixler.<sup>13)</sup>

The values of  $S_0$  satisfy the relation between  $S_0$  and the boiling or critical temperature which has been reported earlier.<sup>14)</sup> The parameter  $\alpha$  can be taken as being roughly constant for the seven hydrocarbons examined. This means that the Flory-Huggins interaction parameters are also the same for the systems of these hydrocarbons and natural rubber. According to the free volume theory,<sup>1-3)</sup> the concentration dependence parameter of  $D$  is a function of the critical size of the hole required for diffusion to take place. In the present work, however, the parameter  $\beta$  only represents the extent of the concentration dependence of  $\bar{D}$  and has a complicated meaning. Moreover, these values can not be compared as such, be-

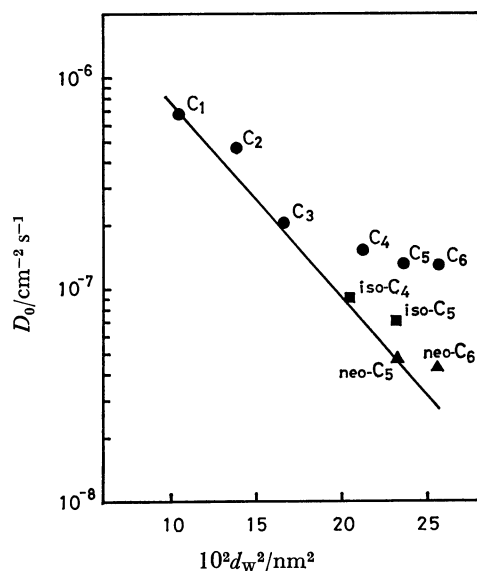


Fig. 2. Correlation of  $D_0$  with  $d_w^2$ . Symbols refer to hydrocarbons given in Table 1.

cause the concentration ranges measured are appreciably different. The dependence of  $D_0$  on the size of a penetrant molecule will now be discussed.

In Fig. 1,  $D_0$  values are plotted against the number of carbon atoms. Obviously,  $D_0$  for normal paraffins decreases with the chain length from  $C_1$  to  $C_5$ , to reach a constant value at  $C_5$  and higher homologues. Note also that the branching of a penetrant molecule increases somewhat its effective dimension and hence yields a lower value of  $D_0$ .

For diffusion in polymers it is generally accepted that the hole formation in a given polymer-diffusant system as a result of thermal fluctuations of the diffusant molecule and/or the polymeric jumping unit is responsible for the diffusivity. According to Fujita's free volume theory,<sup>2,5)</sup> the diffusivity is proportional to the probability of finding a hole exceeding a critical volume, and can be described as

$$D = A_d \exp\left(-\frac{B_d}{f}\right), \quad (8)$$

where  $B_d$  is a parameter corresponding to the minimum hole required for diffusion,  $f$  is the average fractional free volume of the system, and  $A_d$  is a proportionality factor which is considered to be dependent primarily on the size and shape of the diffusant molecule. Some attempts have been made to correlate the diffusivities with the size and shape of diffusant vapors.

As one idea, the "diffusive cross-section" defined as the ratio of the molar volume  $\bar{V}$  and the maximum molecular length  $\bar{L}$  of the penetrant has been proposed for the diffusivities of organic vapors (see, for example, Refs. 15–17). This parameter, however, could not be applied to the present systems, as shown in Fig. 1. The value of  $D_0$  decreases with the number of carbon atoms from  $C_3$  to  $C_6$  normal hydrocarbons, while that of  $\bar{V}/\bar{L}$  is almost constant for them. This measure tends to overestimate the effective size, especially for lighter hydrocarbons.

In Fig. 2,  $D_0$  is plotted against the square of the

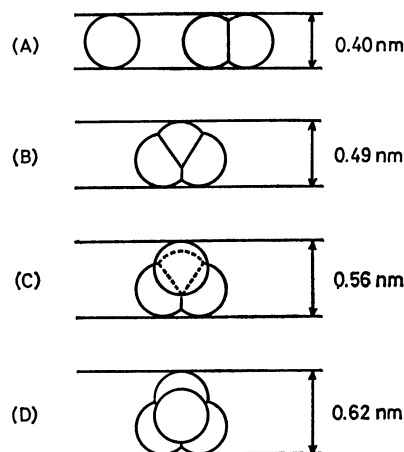


Fig. 3. Schematic drawing of the effective cross-sectional dimension,  $d_p$ . (A) Methane and Ethane, (B) Normal hydrocarbons above Propane, (C) Branched hydrocarbons with a single methyl group, (D) Branched hydrocarbons with two methyl groups on the same carbon atom.

van der Waals diameter,  $d_w^2$ , instead of the number of carbon atoms. This dimension can be considered to represent the size of molecule regarded as spheres. In the figure, the points of methane ( $C_1$ ) and neopentane (neo- $C_5$ ), whose the shapes are practically spherical, are connected by a solid line for convenience. It can be noted that all the points for other non-spherical hydrocarbons studied here are above this line. This means these hydrocarbons have more preferable shape for diffusion than a spherical molecule. The effective size of such penetrants, therefore, must be smaller than  $d_w^2$ .

As previously described,  $D_0$  for normal paraffins decreases gradually with an increase in the number of carbon atoms and finally levels off for homologues higher than  $C_4$ . This implies a mode of diffusion in which the diffusant molecule moves through rubber with its major axis aligned with the diffusion direction. Under such circumstances the resistance to diffusion may be a function of the cross-sectional area normal to the main axis and the length of a given penetrant. When the cross-sectional dimension is not uniform along the axis, that at the most bulky part must become the predominant factor. Thus, for estimating such a dimension, an alternative measure,  $d_p$ , was proposed. Speculations on these dimensions in terms of the group dimension of Pauling<sup>18)</sup> are illustrated in Fig. 3, where the diameters of methylene and methyne group have been both assumed to be 0.4 nm, which is the methyl group diameter.

The relationship between  $D_0$  and  $d_p^2$  is shown in Fig. 4, in which a line joining the points of  $C_1$  and neo- $C_5$  is also drawn for convenience. This line can be considered to reflect the effective size of the spherical penetrant. For isomeric butanes and pentanes in cross-linked natural rubber, Aitken and Barrer<sup>9)</sup> have demonstrated that  $D_0$  decreased linearly with the size expressed as the product of the minimum dimension,  $l_1$  and the next smallest dimension,  $l_2$  of the molecule. Such a dimension  $l_1 l_2$  may be a useful measure of

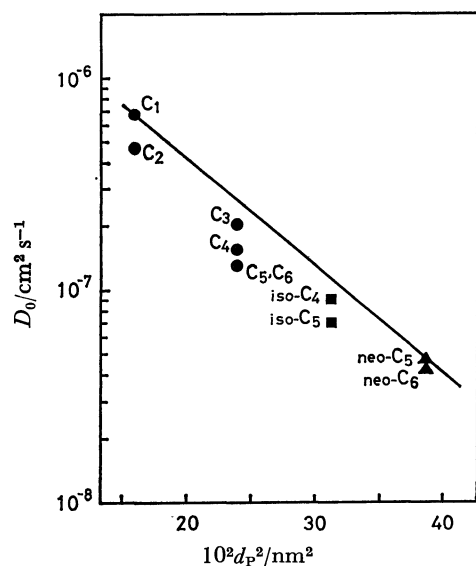


Fig. 4. Correlation of  $D_0$  with  $d_P^2$ . Symbols refer to hydrocarbons given in Table 1.

the cross-section when the diffusant is not spherical. They have suggested that the maximum dimension has little significance, but did not explain further. We have also confirmed that a reasonably linear relationship holds between  $D_0$  and  $l_1 l_2$  for isomeric butanes, pentanes, and hexanes. The data for  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , however, deviated considerably from the rectilinear relationship. In addition, the appreciable difference between  $D_0$  for  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  implies that the maximum length of the molecule has some significance. In Fig. 4, the distance along the ordinate between a certain point and the line may suggest the effect of the molecular length. It is inferred that the extent of this effect is more significant at the first increase in the number of carbon atoms in major axis, and then gradually diminishes with a subsequent increase in length. Thus, Fig. 4 is a convenient illustration for understanding the effects of both the size and shape (or length) of hydrocarbon penetrants on their diffusivities.

From above discussion, we obtain the following conclusions. A hydrocarbon molecule moves through rubber matrix with its major axis aligned in the diffusion direction. The largest resistance to diffusion is thus determined by the cross-sectional area

at the most bulky part of the axis. An additional effect is caused by the length of major chain, but this effect practically diminishes for more than 4 carbon atoms. The effective cross-sectional area at the most bulky part can be estimated successfully using the group dimension concepts of Pauling.

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