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Chaker EL MAZRY, Mouna BEN HASSINE, Olivier CORREC, Xavier COLIN - Thermal oxidation kinetics of additive free polyamide 6-6 - Polymer Degradation and Stability - Vol. 98, n°1, p.22-36 - 2013

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# Thermal oxidation kinetics of additive free polyamide 6-6

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## A B S T R A C T

Thermal aging of an additive free PA 6-6 has been elucidated at 90, 100, 120, 140, 150 and 160 °C in air-ventilated ovens by Fourier transform infrared spectrophotometry, viscosimetry in molten state and uniaxial tensile testing. Oxidation of methylene groups starts after a considerably shorter induction period but reaches a lower maximal rate than in additive free PE. Cleavage of C–N bonds constitutes the main source of chain scissions. It leads to the formation of aldehyde chain-ends and a catastrophic decrease in molar mass. Embrittlement occurs at a very low conversion ratio of the oxidation process, in particular when the concentration of aldehyde chain-ends reaches a critical value of  $[\text{PH=O}]_F \approx 5.6 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ mol l}^{-1}$ , corresponding to a critical value of the number average molar mass of  $M_{nF} \approx 17 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ . At this stage, the entanglement network in the amorphous phase is deeply damaged.

A non-empirical kinetic model has been derived from the oxidation mechanistic scheme previously established for PE, but improved by adding elementary reactions specific to polyamides such as the rapid decomposition of unstable hydroxylated amide groups. This model describes satisfyingly the main features of the thermal oxidation kinetics of PA 6-6, but also of other types of aliphatic polyamides studied previously in the literature such as: PA 6, PA 12 and PA 4-6, as long as it is not controlled by oxygen diffusion. At the same time, it confirms the existence of an universal character for the thermal oxidation kinetics of aliphatic polyamides whatever their origin, i.e. their initial molar mass, crystallinity ratio, concentration of impurities, structural irregularities, etc.

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### Keywords:

Aliphatic polyamides  
Thermal oxidation  
Chain scission  
Embrittlement  
Kinetic modeling

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## 1. Introduction

Polyamides (PAs) are increasingly considered for technical applications because of their excellent resistance to mechanical fatigue, friction and many chemical substances (e.g. oils, greases and hydrocarbons), but also their high barrier properties to liquids and gases. They have already found many applications in various industrial sectors such as offshore (e.g. pipes for the transport of oil and natural gas), automotive (e.g. radiators for the cooling of motors) or drinking water distribution (e.g. safety parts in domestic networks). In most cases, PA pieces are exposed in aggressive environments, where they are in contact with chemical reagents such as water, oxygen, chlorine disinfectants, etc., which poses the problem of their long term durability.

Since the late 1950s, many research works have been devoted to hydrolytic aging of PAs e.g. [1–9]. This type of chemical aging is now fairly well understood [10]. Recently, a heuristic kinetic model has been derived from the classical mechanistic scheme for

reversible hydrolysis in order to access to the molecular and macromolecular changes (against time of exposure), but also to the consequences of these changes on morphology and fracture properties [10]. Now, a new challenge is to determine and elucidate the relationships between PAs structure and rate constants of hydrolysis and condensation reactions by using the kinetic model as an inverse method.

On the contrary, too few research works have been devoted to the thermal aging of additive free PAs [8–29] and their model compounds [14,16,20,21,29,30] to be able to define, at the present time, a general approach for lifetime prediction. Moreover, these studies have focused only on certain aliphatic PAs: essentially PA 6 [11–25] and PA 6-6 [8,9,11,12,26–29], but rarely PA 12 [13,15,16] and PA 4-6 [15,28]. Finally, their thermal oxidation mechanisms and kinetics have been investigated by a small number of analytical techniques, in particular: oxygen absorption [8,14–17,20,21,25,28,30], Fourier transform infra-red (FTIR) [17,22,25] and visible/ultra-violet spectrophotometries (Vis–UV) [11,12,16,25,27], nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) [16], chemical titration [14–17,23,25,27,30], chemiluminescence (CL) [13,15–18,20–22,25,26,29,30] and differential calorimetry under pure oxygen (TIO) [17,19,22].

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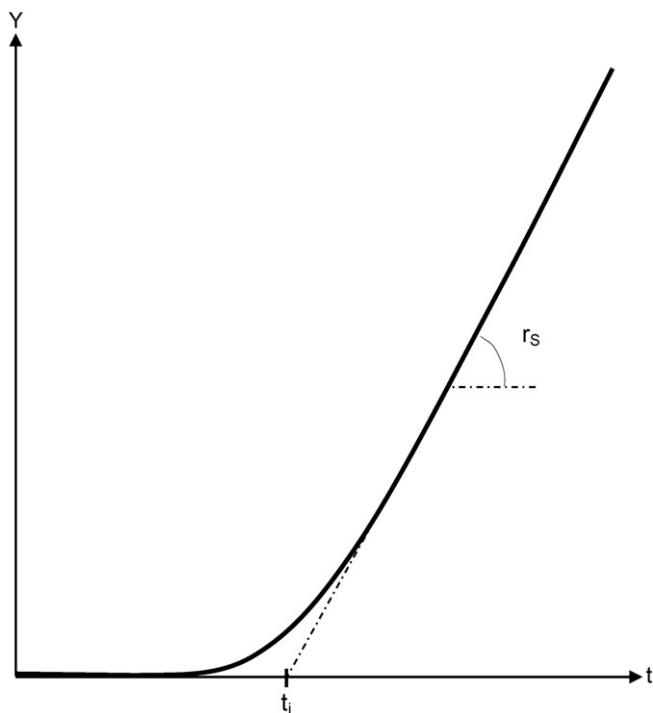
Nevertheless, from the oxidation kinetic curves obtained by plotting the chemical property under consideration versus time of exposure, two important kinetic quantities can be determined graphically (Fig. 1):

- Induction time ( $t_i$ ) would correspond to the period of time during which the effects of oxidation are too small to be detected by common laboratory analytical techniques.
- Maximal oxidation rate ( $r_S$ ) would correspond to the steady-state oxidation rate if the substrate concentration has not been excessively reduced by the rapid auto-acceleration of oxidation at the end of the induction period [31].

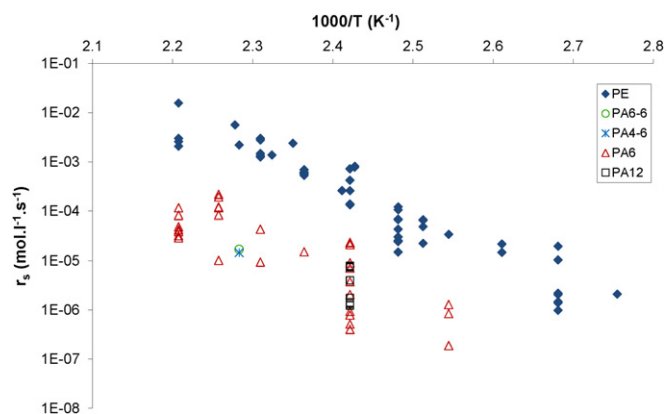
Values of  $t_i$  and  $r_S$  of additive free PAs have been tentatively compiled between 100 and 200 °C from the literature of the past half century [11,13–23,25–30]. Unfortunately,  $t_i$  was too short to be correctly estimated, even from real-time analysis techniques such as oxygen absorption, differential calorimetry (TIO) or chemiluminescence (CL). As a result, only values of  $r_S$  deserved to be exploited. As an example, values of  $r_S$  determined in air or pure oxygen (under atmospheric pressure) are reported in the Arrhenius diagram of Fig. 2. These values are compared to those determined for another important type of polymethylenic substrate extensively studied in the literature and thus, selected as a reference material in this study: additive free polyethylene (PE) [32,33].

From a kinetic analysis of these experimental data, it is possible to get an idea of the resistance to thermal oxidation of aliphatic PAs compared to PE, but also to highlight the main peculiarities of their oxidation kinetics. In the temperature range under study, one can see that:

- The oxidation kinetics of both types of polymethylenic substrates exhibits an universal character whatever their origin, i.e. their initial molar mass, crystallinity ratio, degree of



**Fig. 1.** General shape of oxidation kinetic curves. Y designates a chemical quantity changing during thermal aging of hydrocarbon polymers. Graphical determination of induction time ( $t_i$ ) and maximal oxidation rate ( $r_S$ ).



**Fig. 2.** Arrhenius plot of the maximal oxidation rate ( $r_S$ ) of additive free aliphatic PAs and PE in air or pure oxygen (under atmospheric pressure) between 90 and 200 °C.

branching, concentration of impurities, structural irregularities, etc.

- $r_S$  obeys an Arrhenius law with a different pre-exponential factor, but almost the same activation energy for both types of polymethylenic substrates (Table 1), which would suggest that there are similarities between their thermal oxidation mechanisms and kinetics.
- Oxidation of methylene groups starts from the early periods of exposure in aliphatic PAs, whereas it starts after a well-marked induction period in PE. In contrast, the maximal oxidation rate is significantly lower (about 20–100 times lower) in aliphatic PAs than in PE.

Such differences can be tentatively explained by using, in a first approach, relatively simple kinetic equations derived from the classical version of the standard oxidation scheme at low to moderate temperatures (typically for  $T < 200$  °C) in oxygen excess [34]. In such thermal aging conditions, oxidation is essentially initiated by the bimolecular decomposition of hydroperoxide groups (POOH) [35]. Then,  $t_i$  and  $r_S$  can be expressed by [35]:

$$t_i = \frac{1 - \ln Y_0}{\sqrt{2r_S k_{1b}}} \quad \text{with } Y_0 = \frac{[\text{POOH}]_0}{[\text{POOH}]_S} \quad (1)$$

$$r_S = \frac{k_3^2 [\text{PH}]^2}{2k_{6 \text{ app}}} \quad (2)$$

where  $k_{1b}$ ,  $k_3$  and  $k_{6 \text{ app}}$  are initiation, propagation and apparent termination rate constants respectively.  $[\text{POOH}]_0$  and  $[\text{POOH}]_S$  are initial and steady-state concentrations of POOH respectively.  $[\text{PH}]$  is the concentration of oxidizable CH groups in the amorphous phase. Examples of  $[\text{PH}]$  values for aliphatic PAs and PE have been reported in Table 2.

According to these equations, only a combination of high values of  $k_{1b}$  and  $k_{6 \text{ app}}$  would allow to obtain simultaneously low values of  $t_i$  and  $r_S$ . This important result can be interpreted as follows: Hydroperoxide groups (POOH) would be more unstable and

**Table 1**

Arrhenius parameters: pre-exponential factor ( $r_{S0}$ ) and activation energy ( $E_S$ ), for maximal oxidation rate ( $r_S$ ) of additive free aliphatic PAs and PE in oxygen excess between 90 and 200 °C.

Polymers	$r_{S0}$ ( $\text{l mol}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	$E_S$ ( $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ )
PE	$5.5 \times 10^{13}$	138
PAs	$1.4 \times 10^9$	115

**Table 2**

Physico-chemical characteristics of some aliphatic PAs and PE [36,37]: molar mass of monomer unit ( $m_{\text{UCR}}$ ), density of amorphous phase ( $\rho_a$ ), concentration of oxidizable groups in the amorphous phase [PH], average values of density ( $\rho$ ) and crystallinity ratio ( $X_C$ ).

Polymer	$m_{\text{UCR}}$ (kg mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$\rho_a$	[PH] (mol.l <sup>-1</sup> )	$\rho$	$X_C$ (%)
PA 6-6	226	1.08	9.6	1.14	50
PA 4-6	198	1.08	10.9	1.18	70
PA 6	113	1.08	9.6	1.13	50
PA 12	197	0.99	5.5	1.02	35
PE	28	0.85	60	0.94	50

secondary peroxy radicals ( $\text{PO}_2$ ) would be more reactive in aliphatic PAs than in PE.

The aim of the present article is double. First of all, it is to outline the main characteristics of a non-empirical kinetic model predicting the thermal oxidation of additive free aliphatic PAs, and to check its validity for PA 6-6. Because of the existence of striking similarities between the oxidation kinetics of additive free aliphatic PAs and PE, this model will be derived from the oxidation mechanistic scheme previously established for PE [38], but improved by adding elementary reactions specific to PAs of which the key importance has been clearly evidenced by several authors in the literature [11,28,39–42]. Secondly, it is to use this sophisticated numerical tool for interpreting experimental results published previously in the literature, in particular for explaining the main differences and similarities between the thermal oxidative behaviors of both polymethylenic substrates and elucidating the universal character of the oxidation kinetics of aliphatic PAs.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Material

Unstabilized and unfilled PA 6-6 pellets were supplied by Rhodia. Their main characteristics are: glass transition temperature:  $T_{g0} = 38.6 \pm 4.5$  °C, melting point  $T_{m0} = 266.9 \pm 1.2$  °C, crystallinity ratio  $X_{C0} = 42 \pm 2\%$ , density  $\rho_0 = 1.14$  kg m<sup>-3</sup>, weight average molar mass  $M_{W0} = 37.3$  kg mol<sup>-1</sup> and molar mass distribution  $IP_0 \approx 2$ .

Prior to processing, pellets were carefully dried at 80 °C during 72 h under a primary vacuum in order to prevent hydrolysis at high temperature in molten state. Then, thin PA 6-6 films, with thicknesses ranging from 30 to 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , were elaborated by compression molding at 270 °C under a pressure of 17 MPa. They were kept in a desiccator containing silica-gel in order to prevent any moisture uptake before oxygen permeation and thermal aging tests.

### 2.2. Ageing conditions and methods of characterization

#### 2.2.1. Oxygen permeation

Oxygen transport properties in PA 6-6 were determined at 23, 30 and 40 °C by permeation. Although it is considered less sensitive than gravimetric, barometric or volumetric sorption methods [43], permeation was chosen for this study because it is, still today, the most widely used method for the determination of transport properties of gases in polymers, in particular in the field of packaging where it has been the subject of international standards [44,45]. That is presumably the reason why values of oxygen solubility and diffusivity, compiled from the literature of the past half century and reported in reference books in this area [46] and in polymer handbooks [47,48], were almost all determined by this method. Due to a large amount of analytical data, permeation appeared to us as an interesting tool for the elucidation of structure/oxygen transport property relationships in polymers.

A thin PA 6-6 film was placed between the two compartments of a Systech 8001 permeameter: the upstream compartment was maintained under a pure oxygen pressure of 2–3 bars, whereas the downstream one was swept by an oxygen free gas carrier (in this case, pure nitrogen) under atmospheric pressure. The pressure difference induced an oxygen flow through the sample thickness. The cumulative oxygen flow  $Q$  in the downstream compartment was determined by a coulometric detector. Its general shape versus time of exposure is presented in Fig. 3.

Two important kinetic quantities were determined graphically:

- Time lag ( $t_L$ ) would correspond to the duration of the transient regime. It is the characteristic time for oxygen diffusion through a polymer membrane of thickness  $L$ . According to Barrer [49],  $t_L$  is inversely proportional to the coefficient of oxygen diffusion  $D_{O_2}$ :

$$t_L = \frac{L^2}{6D_{O_2}} \quad (3)$$

- Oxygen permeability ( $P_e$ ) would correspond to the slope of the steady-state straight-line. Its general expression is:

$$P_e = S_{O_2} \times D_{O_2} \quad (4)$$

where  $S_{O_2}$  is the coefficient of oxygen solubility.

Coefficients  $D_{O_2}$  and  $S_{O_2}$  were calculated at each temperature under study from Eqn. (3) and (4). Then, the equilibrium oxygen concentration  $[O_2]$  was deduced by using the classical Henry's law:

$$[O_2] = S_{O_2} \times p_{O_2} \quad (5)$$

where  $p_{O_2}$  is the oxygen partial pressure in the aging environment. As an example, in air under atmospheric pressure,  $p_{O_2} = 0.21$  bar.

It was found that  $D_{O_2}$  obeys an Arrhenius law for PA 6-6 in glassy state. As an indication, its corresponding Arrhenius parameters are reported in Table 3.

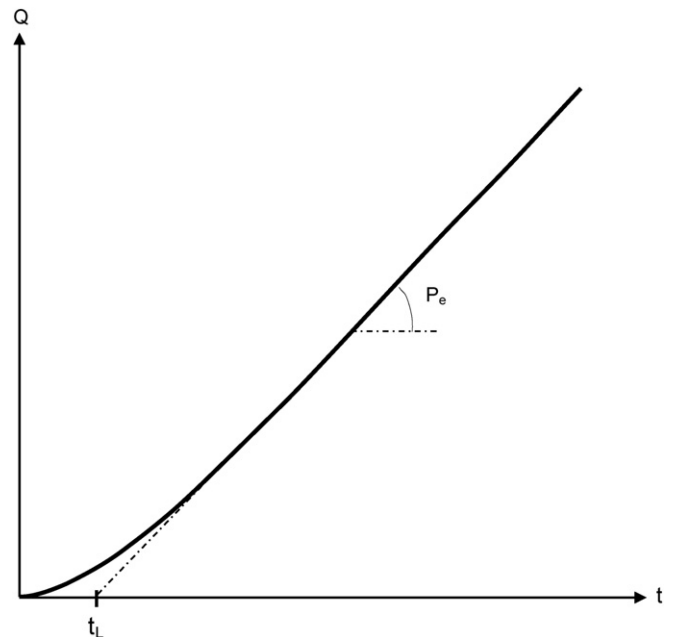


Fig. 3. General shape of the cumulative oxygen flow versus exposure time in the downstream compartment of a permeameter. Graphical determination of time lag ( $t_L$ ) and oxygen permeability ( $P_e$ ).

**Table 3**

Arrhenius parameters: pre-exponential factor ( $P_0$ ) and activation energy ( $E_a$ ), for coefficients of oxygen diffusion ( $D_{O_2}$ ) and solubility ( $S_{O_2}$ ) of PA 6-6 between 23 and 40 °C.

	$P_0$	$E_a$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )
$D_{O_2}$ (m <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$4.7 \times 10^{-4}$	52.8
$S_{O_2}$ (mol l <sup>-1</sup> Pa <sup>-1</sup> )	$1.7 \times 10^{-8}$	0

On the contrary,  $S_{O_2}$  varies erratically with temperature confirming that, in PA 6-6 as in almost all other polymers [50], it is practically temperature independent. Between 23 and 40 °C, its average value is:

$$S_{O_2} = (1.7 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol l}^{-1} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$\text{i.e. } (3.8 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}^3(\text{STP}) \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ bar}^{-1}$$

It leads to an average value of equilibrium oxygen concentration in air of:

$$[O_2] = 3.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol l}^{-1}$$

$$\text{i.e. } 8.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^3(\text{STP}) \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

In a first approach, such average values have been kept for modeling the thermal oxidation kinetics of PA 6-6 between 90 and 160 °C, although discontinuities may appear in the Arrhenius graphs of oxygen transport properties [51]. This choice results essentially from the fact that it is impossible to perform oxygen permeation tests without oxidizing additive free PA 6-6 films above 90 °C and thus, to determine non-erroneous values of  $S_{O_2}$ .

### 2.2.2. Thermal aging tests

PA 6-6 films were exposed in air-circulating ovens 90, 100, 120, 140, 150 and 160 °C during several hundreds of hours. Films were regularly removed from the ovens and stored at room temperature in a desiccator containing silica-gel in order to avoid moisture absorption before characterization. The films were characterized by conventional laboratory techniques in order to determine the resulting structural changes at different pertinent scales (i.e. molecular, macromolecular and macroscopic scales).

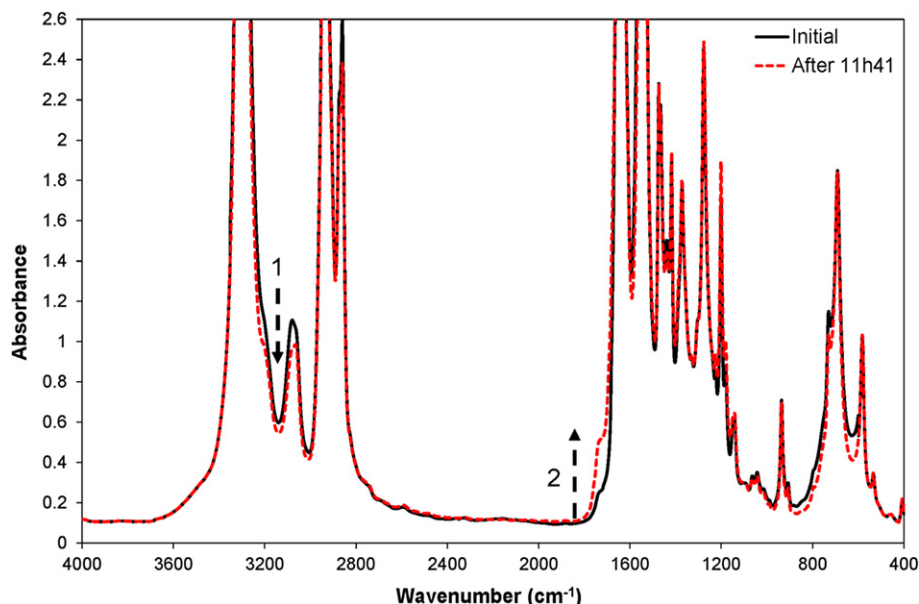
### 2.2.3. FTIR spectrophotometry

After thermal aging, PA 6-6 films were first analyzed by Fourier transform IR spectrophotometry (Brüker IFS 28 spectrometer, minimal resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>) between 400 and 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> in a transmission mode. As previously evidenced by Gonçalves et al. [42], two main molecular changes were clearly put in evidence on FTIR spectra (Fig. 4):

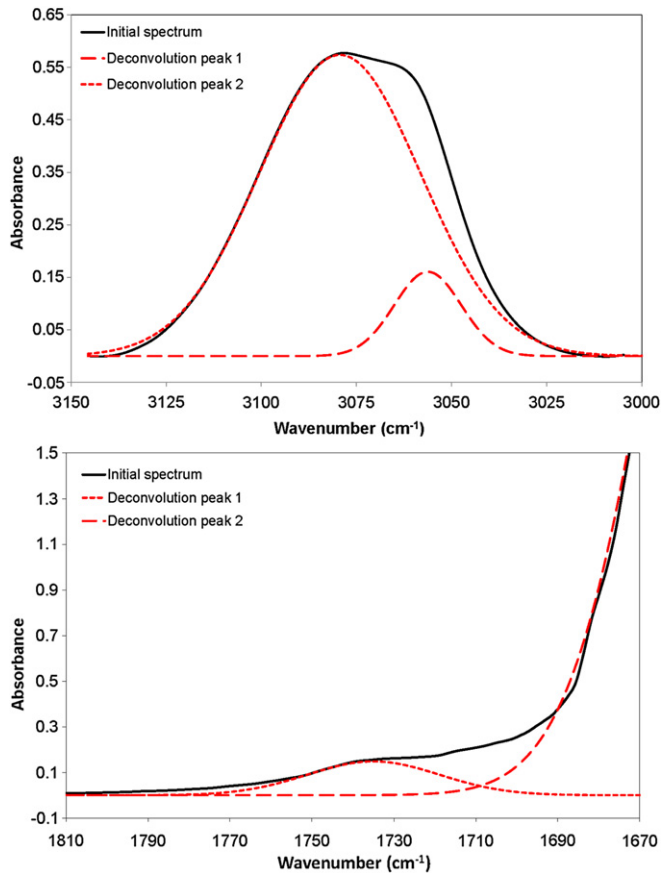
- Between 3000 and 3150 cm<sup>-1</sup>, one observes the progressive disappearance of the peak centered at 3080 cm<sup>-1</sup>. According to Cannon [52], this peak is the result of two different contributions: Stretching of C–N bonds and deformation of N–H bonds. Stretching of C–N bonds is by far the main contribution at low conversion ratio of oxidation process [42]. Indeed, by making a mathematical deconvolution (Fig. 5), deformation of N–H bonds can be revealed as a small shoulder centered at 3060 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Since amide groups (CO–NH) are stable during PA 6-6 oxidation at moderate to low temperatures (typically for T < 200 °C), the progressive disappearance of the peak centered at 3080 cm<sup>-1</sup> has been obviously attributed to the cleavage of the C–N bonds of amino-aliphatic type (NH–CH<sub>2</sub>), i.e. to the transformation of monosubstituted amide groups (CO–NH–CH<sub>2</sub>) into non-substituted ones (CO–NH<sub>2</sub>) [42].
- Between 1670 and 1810 cm<sup>-1</sup>, one observes the progressive appearance and increase of a series of carbonyl peaks. The most intense peak is centered at 1735 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

On the contrary, no change in absorbance was detected in the hydroxyl region (i.e. typically between 3300 and 3650 cm<sup>-1</sup>), indicating that there is no formation of stable hydroxylated products (in particular alcohols and carboxylic acids) during PA 6-6 thermal oxidation (Fig. 4). That is the reason why, in a first approach, it was assumed that the new carbonyl species are mainly composed of aldehyde chain-ends (PH=O).

The absorbances of the peaks relative to C–N bonds and PH=O chain-ends were determined after mathematical deconvolution of the absorption bands overlapped respectively between 3000 and 3150 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1670 and 1810 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Examples of deconvolution, made before thermal aging, are reported in Fig. 5.



**Fig. 4.** FTIR spectrum of a PA 6-6 film of about 30 μm thick before and after 11 h 45 min of thermal aging at 150 °C in air.



**Fig. 5.** Mathematical deconvolution of the absorption bands overlapped in the FTIR spectra of a virgin PA 6-6 film (see Fig. 5). Top: Between 3000 and 3150  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  before thermal aging. Bottom: Between 1670 and 1810  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

The changes in absorbance against time of exposure at 150 °C in air of both IR peaks are reported in Fig. 6.

Then, the concentrations of C–N bonds and PH=O chain-ends were determined by using the classical Beer–Lambert’s law:

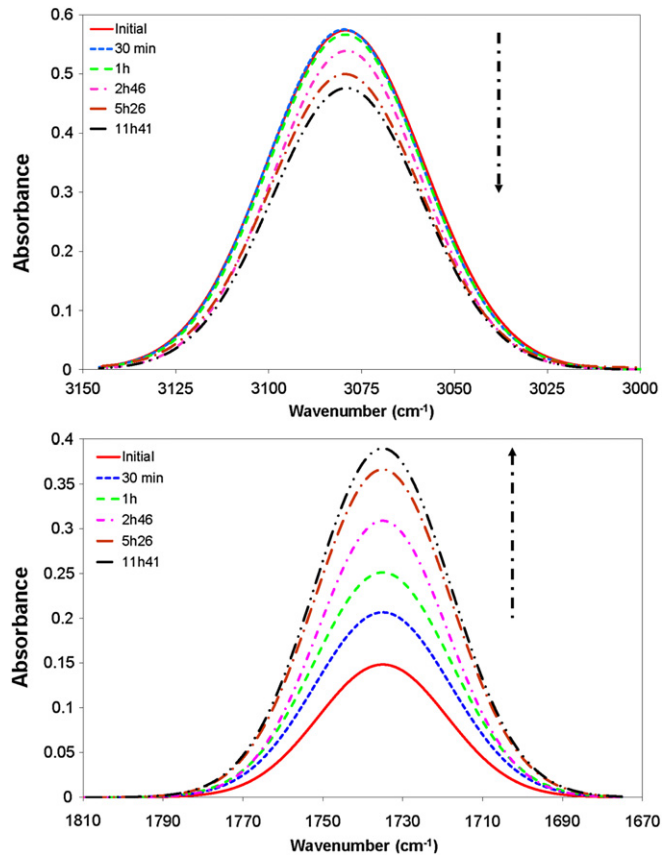
$$\text{Abs}(Y) = \varepsilon_Y L[Y] \quad (6)$$

where  $\text{Abs}(Y)$ ,  $\varepsilon_Y$  and  $[Y]$  are respectively the absorbance, the coefficient of molar absorptivity and the concentration of the chemical specie  $Y$  under consideration for a polymer film of thickness  $L$ .

Coefficient  $\varepsilon_{\text{C-N}}$  was determined for a series of virgin PA 6-6 films, with thicknesses ranging from 30 to 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , knowing that initial concentrations of C–N bonds in the amorphous phase are:  $[\text{CO-NH}]_0 = [\text{NH-CH}_2]_0 \approx 9.6 \text{ mol l}^{-1}$ . It was found that:  $\varepsilon_{\text{C-N}} \approx 45 \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . In contrast, value of  $\varepsilon_{\text{PH=O}}$  was found in the literature:  $\varepsilon_{\text{PH=O}} = 200 \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [13].

#### 2.2.4. Rheometry

Afterwards, PA 6-6 films were analyzed by viscosimetry (TA Instruments ARES rheometer) under nitrogen in molten state, at 265 °C, using a coaxial parallel plate geometry, a plate diameter of 25 mm and a gap of 1 mm, in order to evaluate the macromolecular changes. Sweep angular frequency experiments were performed in a relatively large frequency domain (typically between 0.1 and 100  $\text{rad.s}^{-1}$ ) with a strain amplitude of 5%. These experiments show that the PA 6-6 rheological behavior is Newtonian in the low frequency range, typically for  $\omega \leq 30 \text{ rad s}^{-1}$ . Moreover, as expected



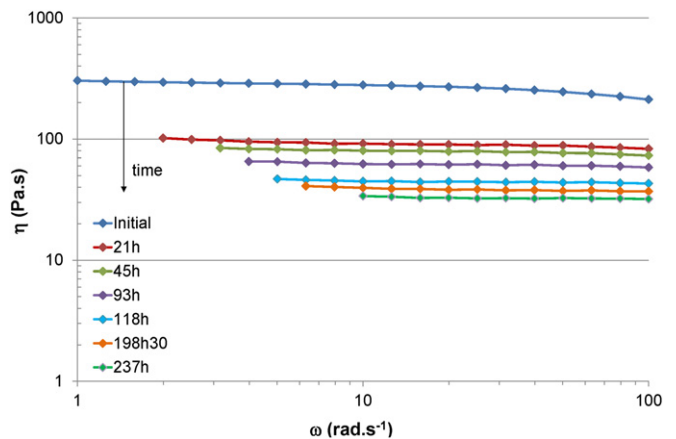
**Fig. 6.** Peaks resulting from the deconvolution of the FTIR spectra of PA 6-6 films before and after thermal aging at 150 °C in air (see Fig. 6). Top: Peak relative to C–N bonds at 3080  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . Bottom: Peak relative to PH=O chain-ends at 1735  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

in the case of a predominant chain scission process, the Newtonian plateau is a decreasing function of exposure time (Fig. 7).

Thus, the decreases in weight average molar weight  $M_W$  were determined from the decreases in Newtonian viscosity  $\eta$  using the classical Bueche’s equation [53,54]:

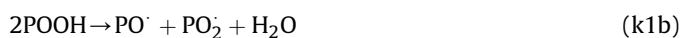
$$\eta = K M_W^{3.4} \quad (7)$$

where  $K$  is a constant depending only on molecular structure and temperature.



**Fig. 7.** Curves of dynamic melt viscosity versus angular frequency at 265 °C for PA 6-6 before and after thermal aging at 100 °C in air.

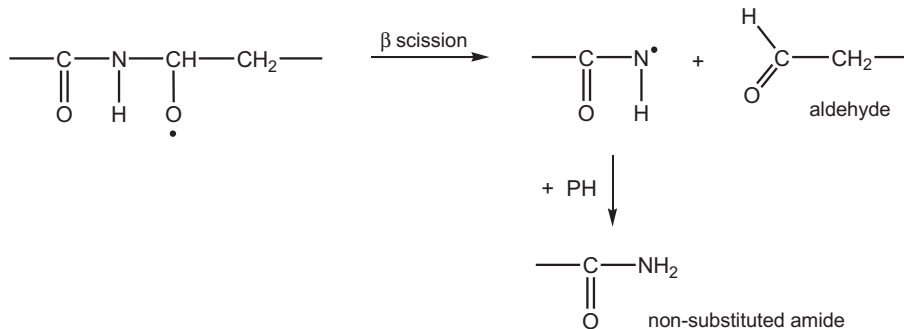




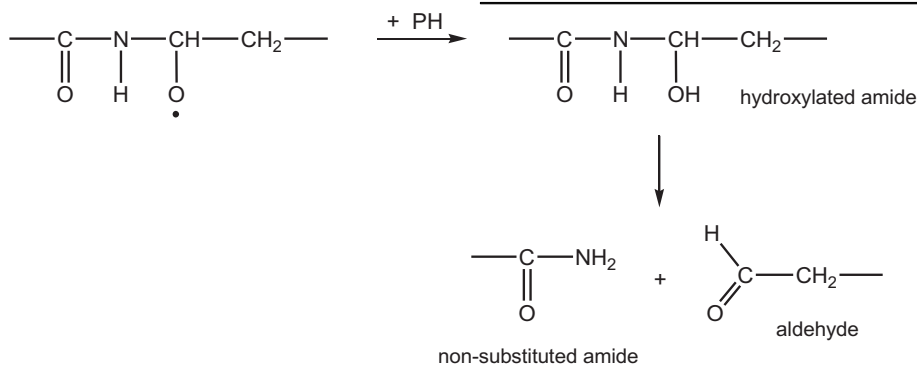
where  $k_{1u}$  and  $k_{1b}$  are the corresponding rate constants.

Hydroxyl and alkoxy radicals ( $\text{HO}^\cdot$  and  $\text{PO}^\cdot$ ) are very reactive, their lifetime is too short to be observed by conventional spectroscopic techniques (for instance by ESR). Indeed, they are almost instantaneously transformed into  $\text{P}^\cdot$  radicals according to different competitive pathways.

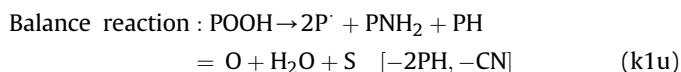
$\text{PO}^\cdot$  radicals can rearrange by  $\beta$  scission. In aliphatic PAs, it is suspected that this rearrangement involves preferentially the cleavage of C–N bonds because these latter present a much lower activation energy ( $E_D \approx 292 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) than common C–C bonds ( $E_D \approx 342 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ). In this case,  $\beta$  scission reduces the substitution degree of amide groups by leading to the formation of amide and aldehyde chain-ends:



Of course,  $\text{PO}^\cdot$  radicals can also abstract labile hydrogens to polymer substrate. This reaction leads a very unstable hydroxylated amide group [11,28,39–42], of which the rapid decomposition leads also to amide and aldehyde chain-ends:

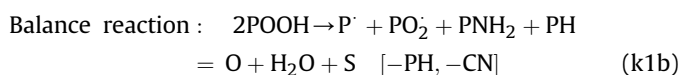
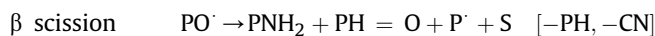
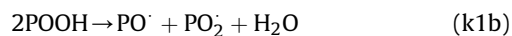


In contrast,  $\text{HO}^\cdot$  radicals will only abstract labile hydrogens to polymer substrate. As a result, unimolecular decomposition of hydroperoxides can be written as follows:



where  $\text{PNH}_2$ ,  $\text{PH}=\text{O}$  and  $\text{S}$  designate respectively amide and aldehyde chain-ends, and chain scissions.

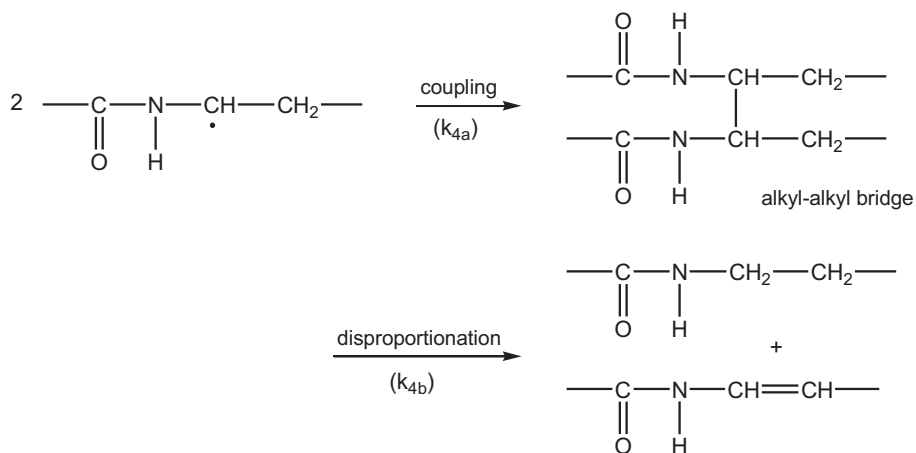
As a same way, bimolecular decomposition can be written as follows:



It is thus licit to write balance reactions for both decomposition modes because the cleavage of the O–O bond is largely slower than all other steps that follow. Let us notice that an important characteristic of these two balance reactions is that every initiation event leads to one chain scission (S), involving the cleavage of one C–N bond of amino-aliphatic type, and thus the formation of one aldehyde chain-end ( $\text{PH}=\text{O}$ ). Such a high yield of chain scissions could explain the higher sensitivity of aliphatic PAs to embrittlement in an oxidizing environment, compared to common hydrocarbon polymers such as PP and PE.

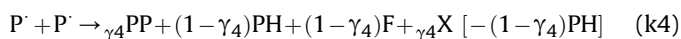
Combinations of radical pairs will also lead to the formation of a large variety of oxidation products. First of all, secondary alkyl radicals can undergo coupling or disproportionation:





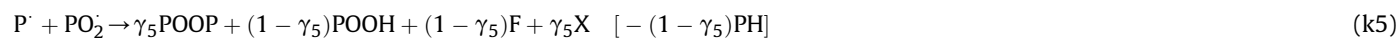
where  $k_{4a}$  and  $k_{4b}$  are the corresponding rate constants.

As a result, termination of alkyl radical pairs can be ascribed:



$$\gamma_4 = \frac{k_{4a}}{k_4} \quad (11)$$

In a same way, termination between secondary alkyl and peroxy radicals can be ascribed:

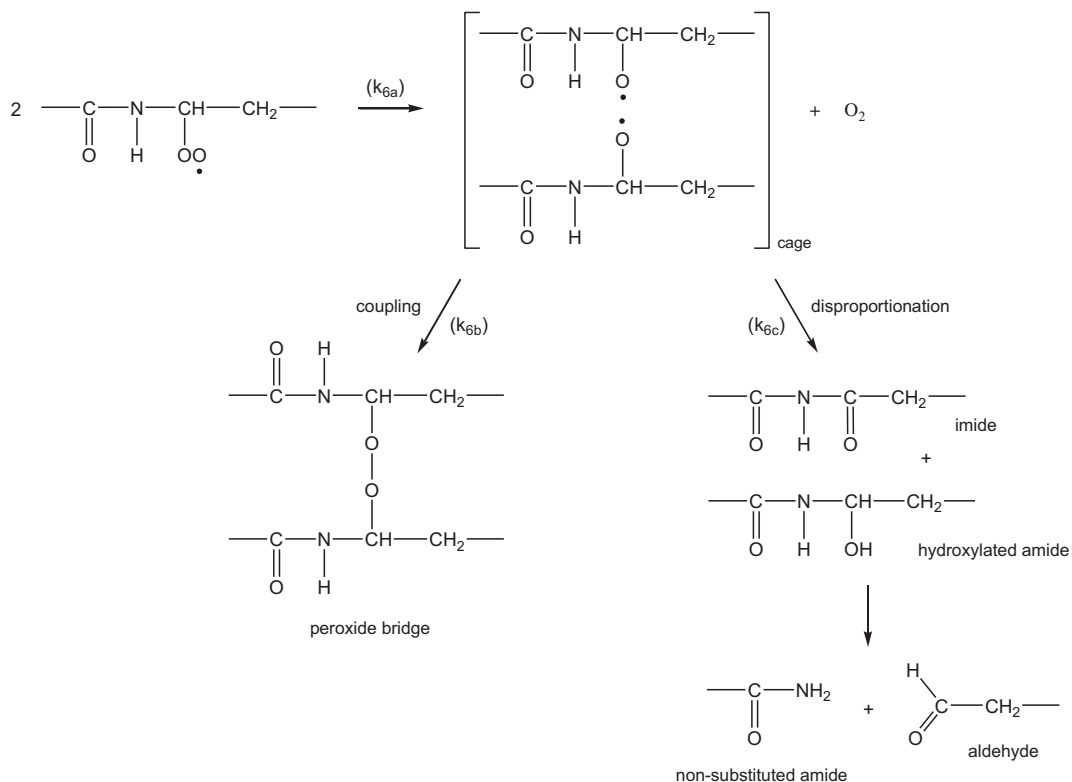


where F and X designate respectively double bonds and crosslink points. The global rate constant  $k_4$  and the yield of alkyl-alkyl bridges  $\gamma_4$  express as:

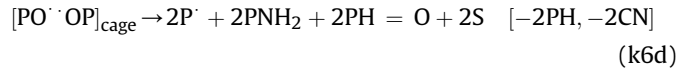
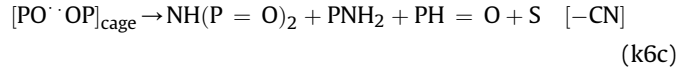
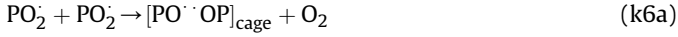
$$k_4 = k_{4a} + k_{4b} \quad (10)$$

where  $\gamma_5$  is the yield of peroxide bridges.

In contrast, the case of secondary peroxy radicals is more complex. In principle, these latter would undergo coupling or disproportionation:

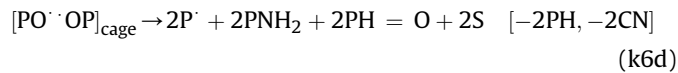
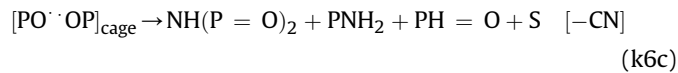
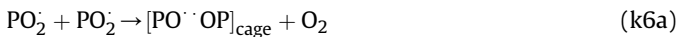
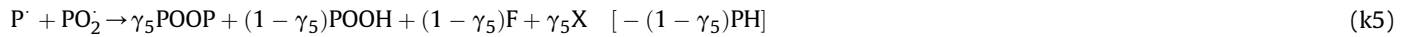
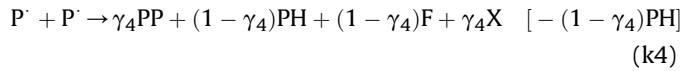
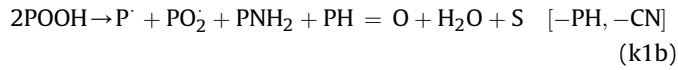
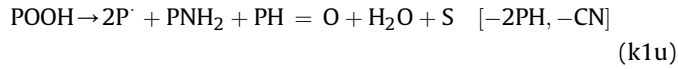


But, recent kinetic studies on PE oxidation have reached the conclusion that the termination of secondary peroxy radicals is not very efficient [59]. Indeed, a non-negligible part of alkoxy radical pairs can escape from the cage to initiate new radical oxidation chains. Finally, combination of secondary peroxy radical pairs can be ascribed:



where  $\text{NH}(\text{P}=\text{O})_2$  designates imide groups.

Finally, a realistic mechanistic scheme for the thermal oxidation of PAs could be:



Let us notice that it is suspected that aldehyde groups rapidly oxidize into acid groups as already evidenced, for instance, in the case of saturated polyesters [57]. Such an assumption will be carefully checked from IRTF analysis.

### 3.2. Kinetic model

A kinetic model can be derived from the previous mechanistic scheme using the common theoretical concepts of chemical kinetics. It involves 5 non-linear differential equations:

$$\frac{d[\text{POOH}]}{dt} = -k_{1u}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{POOH}] - 2k_{1b}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{POOH}]^2 + k_3[\text{PH}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] + (1 - \gamma_5)k_5f_{\text{PH}}[\text{P}^{\cdot}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] \quad (12)$$

$$\frac{d[\text{P}^{\cdot}]}{dt} = 2k_{1u}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{POOH}] + k_{1b}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{POOH}]^2 - k_2[\text{O}_2][\text{P}^{\cdot}] + k_3[\text{PH}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] - 2k_4[\text{P}^{\cdot}]^2 - k_5f_{\text{PH}}[\text{P}^{\cdot}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] + 2k_{6d}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{PO}^{\cdot\cdot}\text{OP}]_{\text{cage}} \quad (13)$$

$$\frac{d[\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}]}{dt} = k_{1b}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{POOH}]^2 + k_2[\text{O}_2][\text{P}^{\cdot}] - k_3[\text{PH}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] - k_5f_{\text{PH}}[\text{P}^{\cdot}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] - 2k_{6a}[\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}]^2 \quad (14)$$

$$\frac{d[\text{PO}^{\cdot\cdot}\text{OP}]_{\text{cage}}}{dt} = k_{6a}[\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}]^2 - (k_{6b} + k_{6c} + k_{6d}f_{\text{PH}})[\text{PO}^{\cdot\cdot}\text{OP}]_{\text{cage}} \quad (15)$$

$$\frac{d[\text{PH}]}{dt} = -2k_{1u}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{POOH}] - k_{1b}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{POOH}]^2 - k_3[\text{PH}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] - (1 - \gamma_5)k_5f_{\text{PH}}[\text{P}^{\cdot}][\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] - 2k_{6d}f_{\text{PH}}[\text{PO}^{\cdot\cdot}\text{OP}]_{\text{cage}} \quad (16)$$

where  $f_{\text{PH}}$  is a mathematical function introduced in the system of differential equations to avoid that the substrate concentration becomes negative at high conversion ratios of oxidation process. In a first approach, a hyperbolic mathematical form has been chosen to describe the changes of  $f_{\text{PH}}$  against  $[\text{PH}]$ :

$$f_{\text{PH}} = \frac{[\text{PH}]}{[\text{PH}] + \varepsilon} \quad (17)$$

with, typically:  $\varepsilon = 10^{-2} \ll 1$ . This function does not induce significant changes of the oxidation kinetics below a conversion value of about 99%.

This system of differential equations admits the following initial conditions (at  $t = 0$ ):

$$[\text{POOH}] = [\text{POOH}]_0 = 5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$$

$$[\text{P}^{\cdot}] = [\text{PO}_2^{\cdot}] = [\text{PO}^{\cdot\cdot}\text{OP}]_{\text{cage}} = 0$$

$$\text{and } [\text{PH}] = [\text{PH}]_0$$

At this stage, it is important to recall that  $[\text{POOH}]_0$  does not correspond to the real initial concentration of hydroperoxides within the material, but often to a higher value, since it takes into

accounts the presence of “extrinsic” species very difficult to titrate chemically (e.g. catalytic residues, polymer–oxygen complex, structural irregularities, etc.) which are also largely responsible for the earliest acts of polymer oxidation. However, since the decomposition rate of these latter vanishes rapidly with time of exposure, POOH decomposition becomes rapidly the main source of radicals.

The system of differential equations has been solved numerically using semi-implicit algorithms recommended for stiff problems of chemical kinetics, in particular the ODE23s solver of Matlab commercial software. Thus, it has given access to the changes against time of exposure of the main reactive species: [POOH], [P•], [PO<sub>2</sub>•], [PO••OP]<sub>cage</sub> and [PH] =  $f(t)$ .

These quantities have been used to calculate the changes of some important physico-chemical properties easily measurable experimentally and thus, chosen to check the validity of the kinetic model:

- Molecular changes:

$$\frac{d[O_2]_{abs}}{dt} = k_2[O_2][P•] - k_{6a}[PO_2•]^2 \quad (18)$$

$$\frac{d[PNH_2]}{dt} = k_{1u}f_{PH}[POOH] + k_{1b}f_{PH}[POOH]^2 + (k_{6c} + 2k_{6d}f_{PH})[PO••OP]_{cage} \quad (19)$$

$$\frac{d[PH=O]}{dt} = \frac{d[PNH_2]}{dt} \quad (20)$$

$$\frac{d[NH(P=O)_2]}{dt} = k_{6c}[PO••OP]_{cage} \quad (21)$$

$$\frac{d[C-N]}{dt} = \frac{d[PNH_2]}{dt} \quad (22)$$

where  $[O_2]_{abs}$  is the concentration of oxygen consumed by the chemical reaction with the polymer.

Thus, according to Eqs. (20) and (22), the changes in the concentration of amide (PNH<sub>2</sub>) and aldehyde chain-ends (PH=O), and C–N bonds would be closely linked. The integration of these two equations leads to:

$$[PNH_2] = [PH=O] = [C-N]_0 - [C-N] \quad (23)$$

This important characteristic of the kinetic model will be carefully checked from IRTF analysis.

- Macromolecular changes:

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = \frac{d[PNH_2]}{dt} \quad (24)$$

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \gamma_4 k_4 [P•]^2 + \gamma_5 k_5 f_{PH} [P•] [PO_2•] + k_{6b} [PO••OP]_{cage} \quad (25)$$

- And finally, the changes in molar masses, by using the classical Saito's equations [60,61]:

$$\frac{1}{M_n} - \frac{1}{M_{n0}} = S - X \quad (26)$$

$$\frac{1}{M_w} - \frac{1}{M_{w0}} = \frac{S}{2} - 2X \quad (27)$$

where  $M_{n0}$ ,  $M_{w0}$ ,  $M_n$  and  $M_w$  are respectively the number and weight average molar masses before and after thermal aging.

Let us notice that Eq (26) and (27) can be rewritten:

$$M_n = \frac{M_{n0}}{M_{n0}(S-X) + 1} \quad (28)$$

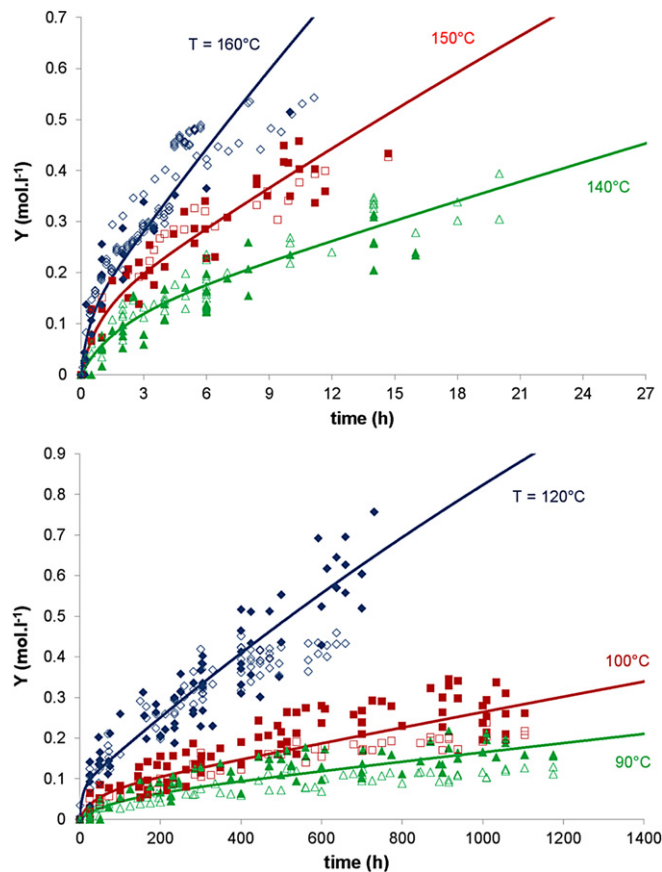
$$M_w = \frac{2M_{w0}}{M_{w0}(S-4X) + 2} \quad (29)$$

## 4. Results and discussion

### 4.1. Simulation of molecular changes

The changes against time of exposure in the concentration of aldehyde chain-ends and broken C–N bonds in air between 90 and 160 °C are reported in Fig. 9.

As expected, in this temperature range, the oxidation induction time of additive free PA 6-6 is clearly too short to be correctly estimated. As a result, oxidation rate is maximum from the early periods of exposure, then decreases progressively with time. It vanishes at long term, presumably when the substrate concentration is totally depleted. Moreover, one can see that the cleavage of



**Fig. 9.** Changes against time of exposure in the concentration of aldehyde chain-ends and broken C–N bonds in air between 90 and 160 °C. Comparison between theory (solid lines) and experiment (symbols). Concentrations of PH=O chain-ends and broken C–N bonds are represented by open and solid symbols respectively.

one C–N bond leads to the formation of one aldehyde chain-end, which confirms the validity of Eq. (23) and thus, constitutes of first proof in favor of the oxidation mechanistic scheme proposed for aliphatic PAs.

Eq. (20) (or Eq. (22)) has been used to tentatively simulate these experimental data. One can observe a satisfying agreement between theory and experiment in Fig. 9. Elementary rate constants have been determined between 90 and 160 °C by using the kinetic model as an inverse method. Their values are reported in Table 6. As an example, they are compared to the values determined for PE at 160 °C in previous studies made in our laboratory [32,33,35].

These values call for the following comments:

- Orders of magnitude of initiation and termination rate constants seem to be quite realistic. Indeed, they check the following hierarchy:

$$10^{12} > k_4 > k_5 > k_{6a} > k_{6d} \geq k_{6b} \approx k_{6c} \gg 1 \gg k_{1b} > k_{1u} \quad (30)$$

- As expected, POOH are more unstable in PA 6-6 than in PE. As an example, at 160 °C:

$$k_{1u}(\text{PA 6-6}) = 7.3 \times k_{1u}(\text{PE}) \text{ and } k_{1b}(\text{PA 6-6}) \\ = 9.7 \times k_{1b}(\text{PE})$$

- As expected,  $\text{PO}_2^*$  radicals are more reactive in PA 6-6 than in PE. Indeed, let us recall that the apparent termination rate constant for the bimolecular termination of radicals can be written [33]:

$$k_{6\text{app}} = \frac{2k_{6a}k_t^2}{(k_t + k_{6d})(2k_t + k_{6d})} \quad (31)$$

with  $k_t = k_{6b} + k_{6c}$ .  
Thus, at 160 °C:

$$k_{6\text{app}}(\text{PA 6-6}) = 6.6 \cdot 10^9 \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ and } k_{6\text{app}}(\text{PE}) \\ = 9.9 \cdot 10^8 \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

i.e.  $k_{6\text{app}}(\text{PA 6-6}) \approx 6.7 \times k_{6\text{app}}(\text{PE})$

- As expected, the bimolecular termination of  $\text{PO}_2^*$  radicals is not very efficient in PA 6-6, as previously found in PE. Indeed, about 85 and 70 mol% of alkoxy radical pairs escape from the cage to initiate new radical oxidation chains at 160 °C in PA 6-6 and PE

**Table 7**

Arrhenius parameters of elementary rate constants between 90 and 160 °C for aliphatic PAs. Comparison with the values obtained between 40 and 220 °C for PE in previous studies [32,33,35].

Polymer	PA 6-6		PE	
	$k_0$	$E_a$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$k_0$	$E_a$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )
$k_{1u}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	$7.6 \cdot 10^{12}$	132	$8.0 \cdot 10^{12}$	140
$k_{1b}$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$1.4 \cdot 10^9$	94	$2.8 \cdot 10^9$	105
$k_2$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$10^8$	0	$10^8$	0
$k_3$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$1.8 \cdot 10^9$	63	$1.5 \cdot 10^{10}$	73
$k_4$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$8.0 \cdot 10^{11}$	0	$8.0 \cdot 10^{11}$	0
$k_5$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$5.0 \cdot 10^{11}$	0	$2.3 \cdot 10^{11}$	0
$k_{6a}$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$5.4 \cdot 10^{16}$	46	$4.9 \cdot 10^{19}$	80
$k_{6b}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	$2.0 \cdot 10^8$	0	$2.0 \cdot 10^6$	0
$k_{6c}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	$3.4 \cdot 10^8$	0	$1.2 \cdot 10^6$	5
$k_{6d}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	$3.7 \cdot 10^{13}$	35	$8.0 \cdot 10^{12}$	50

respectively. This proportion decreases respectively to 38 and 19 mol% at 100 °C, but remains significant.

It was found that the elementary rate constants obey an Arrhenius law between 90 and 160 °C. Their Arrhenius parameters are reported in Table 7. They are compared to the values determined for PE in previous studies [32,33,35].

These values call for the following comments:

- Orders of magnitude of Arrhenius parameters of initiation and termination rate constants seem to be quite realistic. Indeed, they check the following hierarchies:

$$k_{1u0} \gg k_{1b0} \text{ and } E_{1u} > E_{1b} \quad (32)$$

with typically:

$$k_{1u0} = 10^{12} - 10^{13} \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ and } E_{1u} \\ = 130 - 140 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$k_{1b0} = 10^9 - 10^{10} \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ and } E_{1b} = 90 - 110 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\text{And } k_{6d0} > k_{40} \approx k_{50} > k_{6c0} \approx k_{6b0} \\ E_{6d} > E_{6c} \geq E_{6b} \geq E_5 \approx E_4 \quad (33)$$

with typically:

$$k_{6d} = 10^{12} - 10^{13} \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ and } E_{6d} = 30 - 50 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

**Table 6**

Values of elementary rate constants and yields used between 90 and 160 °C for the kinetic modeling of the thermal oxidation of aliphatic PAs. Comparison with the values obtained at 160 °C for PE in previous studies [32,33,35].

Polymer	PA 6-6						PE
	T (°C)	90	100	120	140	150	160
$k_{1u}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )		$8.0 \times 10^{-7}$	$2.2 \times 10^{-6}$	$1.8 \times 10^{-5}$	$1.6 \times 10^{-4}$	$4.0 \times 10^{-4}$	$8.0 \times 10^{-4}$
$k_{1b}$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> .s <sup>-1</sup> )		$4.0 \times 10^{-5}$	$9.0 \times 10^{-5}$	$5.0 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.7 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.5 \times 10^{-3}$	$6.0 \times 10^{-3}$
$k_2$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> .s <sup>-1</sup> )		$10^8$	$10^8$	$10^8$	$10^8$	$10^8$	$10^8$
$k_3$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> .s <sup>-1</sup> )		1.6	2.7	7.7	19.6	30.3	45.8
$k_4$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> .s <sup>-1</sup> )		$8.0 \times 10^{11}$	$8.0 \cdot 10^{11}$	$8.0 \cdot 10^{11}$	$8.0 \cdot 10^{11}$	$8.0 \cdot 10^{11}$	$8.0 \cdot 10^{11}$
$k_5$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> .s <sup>-1</sup> )		$5.0 \times 10^{11}$	$5.0 \times 10^{11}$	$5.0 \times 10^{11}$	$5.0 \times 10^{11}$	$5.0 \times 10^{11}$	$5.0 \times 10^{11}$
$k_{6a}$ (l.mol <sup>-1</sup> .s <sup>-1</sup> )		$8.0 \times 10^9$	$2.6 \times 10^{10}$	$6.0 \times 10^{10}$	$5.0 \times 10^{10}$	$9.5 \times 10^{10}$	$1.6 \times 10^{11}$
$k_{6b}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )		$2.0 \times 10^8$	$2.0 \times 10^8$	$2.0 \times 10^8$	$2.0 \times 10^8$	$2.0 \times 10^8$	$2.0 \times 10^6$
$k_{6c}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )		$3.4 \times 10^8$	$3.4 \times 10^8$	$3.4 \times 10^8$	$3.4 \times 10^8$	$3.4 \times 10^8$	$3.0 \times 10^5$
$k_{6d}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )		$3.2 \times 10^8$	$4.7 \times 10^8$	$7.9 \times 10^8$	$1.2 \times 10^9$	$1.8 \times 10^9$	$2.2 \times 10^9$
$\gamma_4$ (%)		100	95	80	55	55	50
$\gamma_5$ (%)		100	95	80	55	55	50

$$k_{40} \approx k_{50} = 10^{11} - 10^{12} \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ and } E_5 \approx E_4 = 0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$k_{6c0} \approx k_{6b0} = 10^6 - 10^8 \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}, E_{6c} \\ = 0 - 5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \text{ and } E_{6b} = 0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- As expected, in both polymethylenic substrates, initiation is essentially initiated by the bimolecular decomposition of POOH. Indeed, let us recall that the critical POOH concentration for which initiation switches from unimolecular to bimolecular mode can be written [33]:

$$[\text{POOH}]_C = \frac{k_{1u}}{k_{1b}} = A \exp(-E_C/RT) \quad (34)$$

with  $A = k_{1u0}/k_{1b0}$  and  $E_C = E_{1u} - E_{1b}$ .

It was found that  $[\text{POOH}]_C$  is very close for PA 6-6 and PE:

$$[\text{POOH}]_C = 5.3 \cdot 10^3 \exp(-38000/RT) \text{ for PA 6-6}$$

$$[\text{POOH}]_C = 2.9 \cdot 10^3 \exp(-35000/RT) \text{ for PE}$$

As an example, at 160 °C:

$$[\text{POOH}]_C = 1.3 \cdot 10^{-1} \text{ mol l}^{-1} \text{ for PA 6-6}$$

$$[\text{POOH}]_C = 1.7 \cdot 10^{-1} \text{ mol l}^{-1} \text{ for PE}$$

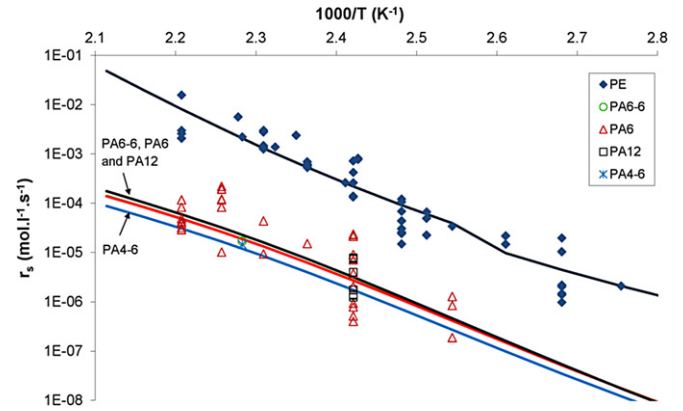
Such  $[\text{POOH}]_C$  values are not so far from the initial hydroperoxide concentration:  $[\text{POOH}]_0 = 5 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ mol l}^{-1}$ , used for kinetic modeling. Thus, at 160 °C, thermal oxidation starts in unimolecular mode, but switches rapidly into bimolecular mode. Since  $E_{1u} > E_{1b}$  (typically,  $E_C = 35-40 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  for both polymethylenic substrates),  $[\text{POOH}]_C$  is an increasing function of temperature. As a result, thermal oxidation is exclusively initiated by the bimolecular mode at low temperature (typically when  $T < 70 \text{ °C}$ ).

- Finally, the apparent termination rate constant  $k_{6 \text{ app}}$  is almost temperature independent in the whole temperature range under study for PA 6-6, and above 120 °C for PE [33]. This characteristic of the oxidation kinetics of polymethylenic substrates will allow us to simplify the kinetic analysis on the temperature dependence of  $t_i$  and  $r_s$ .

#### 4.2. Prediction of literature data

The kinetics curves of oxygen absorption in air between 100 and 200 °C have been computed from Eq. (18) for four aliphatic PAs: PA 6-6, PA 4-6, PA 6 and PA 12. In a first approach, it was assumed that the unique difference between all these polymers is the initial concentration of oxidizable CH groups in the amorphous phase (Table 2). Thus, calculations have been made by using the set of values of elementary rate constants and yields previously determined for PA 6-6 (Tables 6 and 7).

Then, the corresponding values of  $t_i$  and  $r_s$  have been determined graphically (as shown in Fig. 1). Since the values of  $t_i$  are very short for PAs (typically  $t_i \ll 1 \text{ s}$ ), as previously observed experimentally by different authors [11,13-23,25-30], the kinetic analysis was only performed on values of  $r_s$ . These latter are reported in the Arrhenius diagram of Fig. 10. They are compared to the experimental values compiled from the literature for additive free



**Fig. 10.** Arrhenius plot of the maximal oxidation rate ( $r_s$ ) of additive free aliphatic PAs and PE in air or pure oxygen (under atmospheric pressure) between 90 and 200 °C. Comparison between theory (solid lines) and experiment (symbols).

aliphatic PAs [14-17,20,21,25,26,28], but also to the theoretical and experimental values reported for PE in previous studies [32,33].

One can observe a satisfying agreement between theory and experiment for both types of polymethylenic substrates, which validates our general methodology for kinetic modeling. It appears thus possible to extend the oxidation mechanistic scheme, previously established for PE, to all types of polymethylenic substrates by adding elementary reactions specific to these latter. This study constitutes a first step towards the elaboration of a non-empirical kinetic model for lifetime prediction of polymethylenic substrates.

The kinetic model confirms the universal character of the thermal oxidation kinetics of each polymethylenic substrate under study, but also allows to explain the main differences and similarities observed between the oxidation behaviors of these polymethylenic substrates:

- The fact that  $r_s$  takes almost the same value in all types of aliphatic PAs could be explained by the fact that the thermal oxidation kinetics is practically insensitive to small variations in substrate concentration.
- The fact that  $t_i$  and  $r_s$  take different values in aliphatic PAs and PE, could be explained by differences in stability of POOH groups, but also in reactivity of  $\text{PO}_2^{\bullet}$  radicals.
- Finally, the fact that  $r_s$  presents almost the same activation energy  $E_5$  in both polymethylenic substrates can be explained by the fact that  $k_{6 \text{ app}}$  is almost temperature independent. Indeed, in a first approach, orders of magnitude of  $E_5$  can be estimated from Eq. (2):

$$E_5 = 2E_3 - E_{6 \text{ app}} \quad (35)$$

Since  $E_{6 \text{ app}} \approx 0$ , it comes:

$$E_5 \approx 2E_3 \quad (36)$$

The numerical application of this last equation leads to:

$$E_5 \approx 126 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ for PA 6-6}$$

$$E_5 \approx 146 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ for PE}$$

These values are not so far from those determined experimentally (Table 1).

#### 4.3. Prediction of macromolecular changes and embrittlement

The changes against time of exposure in the number average molar mass  $M_n$  in air between 90 and 160 °C are reported in Fig. 11.

One can see that  $M_n$  decreases catastrophically with time of exposure, which indicates that a predominant chain scission process takes place during the thermal oxidation of PA 6-6. As previously observed for the changes in the concentration of C–N bonds, the rate of chain scission is maximum from the early period of exposure, then decreases progressively with time.

Eq. (28) has been used to tentatively simulate these experimental data by using the set of values of elementary rate constants and yields determined previously (Tables 6 and 7). One can observe, here also, a satisfying agreement between theory and experiment, which constitutes a final proof in favor of the oxidation mechanistic scheme and kinetic model proposed for aliphatic PAs (Fig. 11).

At this stage of our investigations, the question is: How to predict the lifetime of PAs?

It has been shown that the non-empirical kinetic model, composed of Eq. (12)–(29), allows to simulate accurately both the molecular and macromolecular changes of PAs between 90 and 160 °C in air. This model can be also used to predict the oxidation kinetics of PAs at lower temperatures, since its elementary parameters (i.e. coefficient of oxygen solubility and rate constants) obey really an Arrhenius law (Tables 3 and 7). Thus, to predict the lifetime of PAs, one just needs to use a relevant structural endlife criterion. Such a criterion can be tentatively determined at both molecular and macromolecular scales.

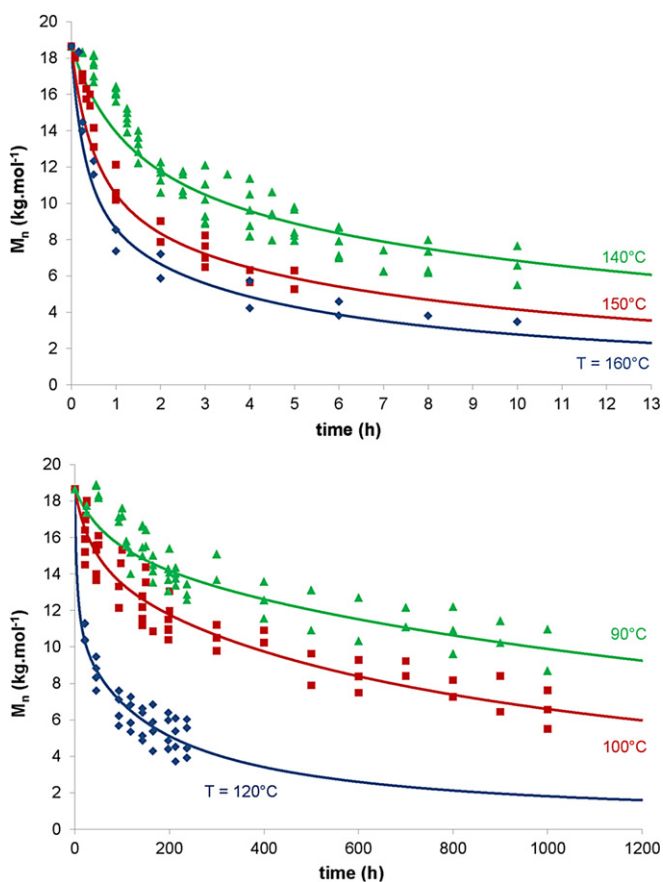


Fig. 11. Changes against time of exposure in the number average molar mass in air between 90 and 160 °C. Comparison between theory (solid lines) and experiment (symbols).

At first, let us recall that, in semi-crystalline polymers, the entanglement network allows the unwinding and drawing of chain segments located in the amorphous phase and connecting crystalline lamellae, i.e. plastic deformation. It is thus responsible for high values of tenacity and ultimate elongation. In contrast, in the absence of entanglement network, Van der Waals interactions are the only intermolecular forces. These latter are clearly too low to allow plastic deformation. In this case, the semi-crystalline polymer is extremely brittle (behaves like an eggshell) and is characterized by a value of tenacity about 2 or 3 decades lower than that for a ductile material [62].

Thus, in the case of a predominant chain scission process, one expects that the fracture properties of semi-crystalline polymers fall catastrophically when the entanglement network is deeply damaged, in particular when the number average molar mass reaches a critical value  $M_{nF}$  close to the entanglement threshold [63]:

$$M_{nF} \approx 5 M_e \quad (37)$$

In a recent communication on PA 6-6 hydrolysis, an universal value of  $M_{nF}$  was proposed for aliphatic PAs [10]:

$$M_{nF} = 17 \pm 3 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$$

It corresponds to a critical concentration of chain scissions:

$$S_F = \frac{1}{M_{nF}} - \frac{1}{M_{n0}} \quad (38)$$

$$\text{i.e. } S_F = 5.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol l}^{-1}$$

This macromolecular endlife criterion seems to be also valid in the case of thermal oxidation of PA 6-6. Indeed, the ultimate elongation of PA 6-6 films, exposed in air between 90 and 160 °C or immersed in pure water between 60 and 90 °C, have been plotted versus their number average molar mass in Fig. 12. In both cases, one can see that the embrittlement of PA 6-6 occurs effectively for a  $M_{nF}$  value ranged between 18.6 and 16.5 kg mol<sup>-1</sup>.

Now, let us recall that, in the case of thermal oxidation of PA 6-6, each chain scission event leads to the formation of one aldehyde chain-end. It is thus also possible to define a molecular endlife criterion:

$$[\text{PH} = \text{O}] = [\text{PH} = \text{O}]_F = 5.6 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$$

It corresponds to a conversion of only 0.06 mol% of the methylenic CH bonds, located in  $\alpha$  position of nitrogen atoms, into aldehyde chain-ends.

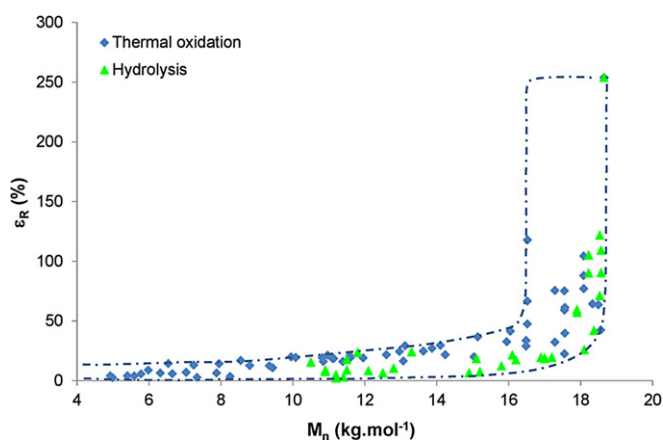


Fig. 12. Ultimate elongation versus number average molar mass for PA 6-6 films of about 100  $\mu\text{m}$  thick exposed in air between 90 and 160 °C or immersed in pure water between 60 and 90 °C.

Unfortunately, such a molecular endlife criterion is out of reach of any common analytical techniques (e.g. FTIR or NMR).

## 5. Conclusions

A non-empirical kinetic model has been elaborated for describing the thermal oxidation not controlled by oxygen diffusion of additive free aliphatic PAs. This model has been derived from the oxidation mechanistic scheme previously established for PE, but improved by adding elementary reactions specific to PAs such as the rapid thermal decomposition of unstable hydroxylated amide groups. Its validity has been successfully checked from the changes in concentration of chemical groups and molar mass of PA 6-6 between 90 and 160 °C in air, but also from the temperature dependence of the maximal oxidation rate of PA 6-6, PA 6, PA 12 and PA 4-6 between 100 and 200 °C in air. Since its elementary parameters obey really an Arrhenius law, this model can be now used to predict the oxidation kinetics of aliphatic PAs at lower temperatures. It can be also used to predict lifetime by using a structural endlife criterion characterizing the ductile/brittle transition of aliphatic PAs. At this stage of our investigation, the most relevant criterion, which can be easily measurable experimentally (e.g. by rheometry in molten state or steric exclusion chromatography), is a critical value of molar mass:  $M_{nF} \approx 17 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ .

This model confirms the universal character of the thermal oxidation kinetics of aliphatic PAs and PE whatever their origin, i.e. their initial molar mass, degree of branching, crystallinity ratio, concentration of impurities, structural irregularities, etc. It explains also the main differences and similarities between the oxidation behaviors of both polymethylene substrates. At first, it was found that hydroperoxide groups are more unstable and peroxy radicals are more reactive in PAs than in PE. Such differences explain well why the thermal oxidation of methylene groups starts in the early periods of exposure for aliphatic PAs, whereas it starts after a well-marked induction period for PE. They explain also why, in contrast, the maximal oxidation rate is significantly lower (about 20–100 times lower) in aliphatic PAs than in PE. Moreover, it was found that the apparent termination rate constant of peroxy radical pairs is almost temperature independent in both polymethylene substrates. This generality explains well why the maximal oxidation rate presents almost the same activation energy in both polymethylene substrates.

The present study was a first attempt to extend the oxidation mechanistic scheme, previously established for PE, to other types of polymethylene substrates by adding elementary reactions specific to these latter. The results obtained in the present study for aliphatic PAs are very promising. New challenges will be now to check the validity of this methodology on other types of linear polymethylene substrates such as: aromatic PAs and saturated polyesters (e.g. PET and PBT), but also on tridimensional polymethylene substrates such as: styrene crosslinked unsaturated polyesters, diamine and anhydride crosslinked polyepoxys, etc.

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