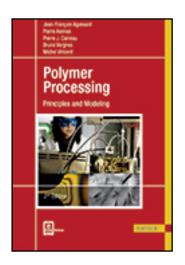
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Book ISBN: 978-1-56990-605-7

eBook ISBN: 978-1-56990-606-4

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Agassant/ Avenas/ Carreau/ Vergnes/ Vincent **Polymer Processing**

Jean-François Agassant Pierre Avenas Pierre J. Carreau Bruno Vergnes Michel Vincent

Polymer Processing

Principles and Modeling

2nd Edition



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Distributed in the Americas by: Hanser Publications 6915 Valley Avenue, Cincinnati, Ohio 45244-3029, USA Fax: (513) 527-8801 Phone: (513) 527-8977 www.hanserpublications.com

Distributed in all other countries by: Carl Hanser Verlag Postfach 86 04 20, 81631 München, Germany Fax: +49 (89) 98 48 09 www.hanser-fachbuch.de

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Cataloging-in-Publication Data is on file with the Library of Congress

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© Carl Hanser Verlag, Munich 2017

Editor: Cheryl Hamilton

Production Management: Thomas Gerhardy

Coverconcept: Marc Müller-Bremer, www.rebranding.de, München

Coverdesign: Stephan Rönigk

Printed and bound by Hubert & Co., Göttingen

Printed in Germany

ISBN: 978-1-56990-605-7 E-Book ISBN: 978-1-56990-606-4

Contents

word t	o the Engli	sh Edition	(XVII
ace to	the Third F	rench Edition	XXIX
nowled	gements.		XXXI
oductio	n		⟨ΧΧV
Strain	and Rate-o	of-Strain Tensor	1
1.1.1			
		<u> </u>	
		, , ,	
		-	
112		9	
11110		, 1	
1.1.4		•	
	1.1.4.1		
	1.1.4.2	r e	
	1.1.4.2.1	*	
	1.1.4.2.2	, ,	
	1.1.4.2.3	Flow between Two Parallel Disks	
	1.1.4.2.4	Flow between a Cone and a Plate	11
	1.1.4.2.5	Couette Flow	
	1.1.4.3	Pure Elongational Flow	
	1.1.4.3.1	Simple Elongation	12
	ace to nowled, oduction	Continuum Mecl Strain and Rate-Continuum Mecl Strain and Rate-Continuum Mecl Strain and Rate-Continuum Mecl 1.1.1 Strain Ter 1.1.1.1 1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1	1.1.1.1 Phenomenological Definitions. 1.1.1.1.1 Extension (or Compression). 1.1.1.1.2 Pure Shear. 1.1.1.2 Displacement Gradient. 1.1.1.3 Deformation or Strain Tensor & 1.1.1.4 Volume Variation During Deformation. 1.1.2 Rate-of-Strain Tensor 1.1.3 Continuity Equation. 1.1.3.1 Mass Balance. 1.1.3.2 Incompressible Materials. 1.1.4 Problems 1.1.4.1 Analysis of Simple Shear Flow 1.1.4.2 Study of Several Simple Shear Flows 1.1.4.2.1 Flow between Parallel Plates (Figure 1.6) 1.1.4.2.2 Flow in a Circular Tube (Figure 1.7). 1.1.4.2.3 Flow between Two Parallel Disks 1.1.4.2.4 Flow between a Cone and a Plate 1.1.4.2.5 Couette Flow 1.1.4.3 Pure Elongational Flow.

		1.1.4.3.2	Biaxial Stretching: Bubble Inflation	13
1.2	Stresse	es and For	ce Balances	14
	1.2.1	Stress Ter	nsor	14
		1.2.1.1	Phenomenological Definitions	14
		1.2.1.1.1	Extension (or Compression) (Figure 1.13)	14
		1.2.1.1.2	Simple Shear (Figure 1.14)	15
		1.2.1.2	Stress Vector	15
		1.2.1.3	Stress Tensor	16
		1.2.1.4	Isotropic Stress or Hydrostatic Pressure	17
		1.2.1.5	Deviatoric Stress Tensor	17
	1.2.2	Equation	of Motion	18
		1.2.2.1	Force Balances	18
		1.2.2.2	Torque Balances	20
	1.2.3	Problems		21
		1.2.3.1	Shear Stress at the Surface of a Tube	21
		1.2.3.2	Stresses in a Shell	21
1.3	Genera	al Equation	ns of Mechanics	22
	1.3.1	General C	ase	22
	1.3.2	Incompre	ssibility	23
	1.3.3		OW	
	1.3.4	Problem:	Stress Tensor in Simple Shear Flow	24
1.4	Appen			
	1.4.1	Appendix	1: Basic Formulae	25
		1.4.1.1	Cylindrical Coordinates	25
		1.4.1.2	Spherical Coordinates	27
	1.4.2	Appendix	2: Invariants of a Tensor	28
		1.4.2.1	Definitions	28
		1.4.2.2	Invariants Used in Fluid Mechanics	29
Refe	rences.			31
2	Rheolo	ogical Beha	avior of Molten Polymers	33
2.1	Viscos	ity: Equati	ons for Newtonian Fluids	33
	2.1.1	Basic Exp	eriment of Newtonian Behavior	
		2.1.1.1	Phenomenological Definition of Newton (1713)	33
		2.1.1.2	Experiment of Trouton: Concept of Elongational	
			Viscosity	34
	2.1.2	Generaliz	ation to Three Dimensions	35
		2.1.2.1	Constitutive Equation	35
		2.1.2.2	Simple Shear Flow	35
		2.1.2.3	Uniaxial Extensional Flow	36
	2.1.3	Magnitud	es of the Forces Involved	36

		2.1.3.1	Units of Viscosity and Orders of Magnitude	.36
		2.1.3.2	Reynolds Number	.37
		2.1.3.3	Effect of Gravity	
	2.1.4	Navier-St	okes Equations	.38
	2.1.5	Problems		.39
		2.1.5.1	Simple Shear Flow	.39
		2.1.5.2	Planar Pressure Flow	.40
		2.1.5.3	Superposition of a Simple Shear Flow and a Planar	
			Pressure Flow	.41
		2.1.5.4	Pressure Flow in a Tube	
		2.1.5.5	Simple Shear between Two Parallel Disks	.44
		2.1.5.6	Couette Flow	.44
		2.1.5.7	Flow in a Dihedron	.46
		2.1.5.8	Flow in a Cone	.47
2.2	Shear-	Thinning I	Behavior	.48
	2.2.1	Phenome	nological Description	.48
	2.2.2	Rheologic	cal Models in One Dimension	.48
		2.2.2.1	Power-Law Model	
		2.2.2.2	Cross Model	
		2.2.2.3	Carreau Model	.50
	2.2.3	-	Explanation of the Shear-Thinning Behavior of Polymers.	
	2.2.4		mensional Constitutive Equations	
	2.2.5	Application	ons of the Power Law to Simple Flows	
		2.2.5.1	Simple Shear Flow	
		2.2.5.2	Pressure Flow in a Tube	
	2.2.6		in Power-Law Fluids	
		2.2.6.1	Simple Shear Flow between Parallel Plates	
		2.2.6.2	Pressure Flow in a Tube	
		2.2.6.3	Planar Pressure Flow	.57
		2.2.6.4	Superposition of a Simple Shear Flow and a Planar	
			Pressure Flow	
		2.2.6.5	Simple Shear Flow between Disks	
		2.2.6.6	Couette Flow	
2.3			d Polymers	
	2.3.1	_	cal Behavior of Suspensions	
		2.3.1.1	Dilute Suspensions of Spheres	
		2.3.1.2	Concentrated Suspensions of Spheres	
		2.3.1.3	Special Case of Fibers.	
		2.3.1.3.1	Orientation	
		2.3.1.3.2	Rheological Behavior	
	232	Vield Stre	ess Fluids	68

	2.3.3	Problem:	Pressure Flow of a Yield Stress Fluid in a Pipe	71
2.4	Viscoe	elastic Beha	avior	72
	2.4.1	Physical 1	Phenomena	72
		2.4.1.1	Extrudate Swell	72
		2.4.1.2	Weissenberg Effect	73
		2.4.1.3	Time-Dependent Behavior	73
		2.4.1.3.1	Stress Retardation and Relaxation	
		2.4.1.3.2	Recovery of Deformation after Cessation of Stress	74
		2.4.1.3.3	Response of a Polymer to a Sinusoidal Motion	75
	2.4.2	Linear Vi	scoelasticity and the Maxwell Model	75
		2.4.2.1	General Information on Linear Viscoelastic Models	75
		2.4.2.2	Behavior of a Maxwell Element	77
		2.4.2.3	Qualitative Interpretation of Time-Dependent	
			Phenomena	78
		2.4.2.3.1	Stress Relaxation (Figure 2.30)	78
		2.4.2.3.2	Stress Retardation (Figure 2.31)	78
		2.4.2.3.3	Strain Recovery	78
		2.4.2.3.4	Response to a Periodic Strain	79
	2.4.3	Normal S	tress Difference in Simple Shear	81
	2.4.4	Extrudate	e Swell	83
	2.4.5	Convected	d Maxwell Model	85
		2.4.5.1	Transient Behavior	86
		2.4.5.2	Viscometric Functions	86
		2.4.5.3	Elongational Viscosity	87
	2.4.6	Viscoelas	tic Dimensionless Numbers	88
	2.4.7	Physical 1	Interpretation of the Viscoelastic Behavior of Polymer	
		Melts		88
		2.4.7.1	Rouse Model (1953)	89
		2.4.7.2	Temporary Network Models	90
		2.4.7.3	Models of Cooperative Motion of a Chain and Its	
			Neighbors	
		2.4.7.4	Reptation Models	90
		2.4.7.5	Pom-Pom Models	91
	2.4.8	Some Vis	coelastic Constitutive Equations	92
		2.4.8.1	Different Types of Viscoelastic Constitutive Equations	92
		2.4.8.1.1	Equations with Memory Function or Integral	
			Constitutive Equations	92
		2.4.8.1.2	Differential Constitutive Equations	93
		2.4.8.2	Choice of a Rheological Model	95
	2.4.9	Problems	in the Convected Maxwell Model	95
		2.4.9.1	Maxwell Fluid in Simple Shear	95

		2.4.9.2	Shear Flow of a Maxwell Fluid between Parallel Disks.	97
		2.4.9.3	Couette Flow of a Maxwell Fluid	.101
		2.4.9.4	Stretching of a Maxwell Fluid	.103
2.5	Measu	rement of	the Rheological Behavior of Polymer Melts	.108
	2.5.1	Capillary	Rheometer: Viscosity Measurements	.108
		2.5.1.1	Principle of the Measurements	.108
		2.5.1.2	Obtaining a Viscosity Curve	.110
		2.5.1.3	Influence of Temperature	.114
		2.5.1.3.1	Arrhenius Equation	.115
		2.5.1.3.2	WLF Equation	.116
		2.5.1.3.3	Master Curves	.117
		2.5.1.4	Influence of Pressure	.118
	2.5.2	Slit Die R	heometer	.119
	2.5.3	Flow with	a Wall Slip	.121
	2.5.4	Cone-and-	-Plate Rheometer	.123
		2.5.4.1	Presentation of the Cone-and-Plate Rheometer	.123
		2.5.4.2	Steady Shear	.123
		2.5.4.3	Oscillatory Shear (SAOS)	.126
		2.5.4.4	Transient Modes	.129
	2.5.5	Parallel-P	late Rheometer	.130
		2.5.5.1	Steady Shear	.130
		2.5.5.2	Oscillatory Shear (SAOS)	.130
	2.5.6	Elongation	nal Rheometry	.131
		2.5.6.1	Difficulties in Elongational Viscosity Measurements	.131
		2.5.6.2	Elongational Rheometers	.132
		2.5.6.3	Other Measurement Methods	.133
		2.5.6.3.1	Isothermal Stretching	.134
		2.5.6.3.2	Converging Flows	.134
	2.5.7	Notions of	f Rheo-optics	.135
		2.5.7.1	Flow Birefringence	.136
		2.5.7.1.1	Measurement Principle and Experimental Setup	.136
		2.5.7.1.2	Example of Experimental Results	.138
		2.5.7.2	Laser Doppler Velocimetry	.140
		2.5.7.2.1	Measurement Principle and Experimental Setup	.140
			Example of Results	
	2.5.8	Perspectiv	ve	.142
2.6	Appen	dices		.142
	2.6.1	Appendix	1: Physics of Viscosity	.142
		2.6.1.1	Eyring Theory	
		2.6.1.2	Molecular Weight Dependence of the Viscosity of	
			Polymers	.144

		2.6.1.2.1	Viscosity of Polymers Having a Molecular Weight
			Less than M_c
		2.6.1.2.2	Viscosity of Polymers Having a Molecular Weight
			Higher than M_c
		2.6.1.3	Free Volume Theory
	2.6.2	Appendix	2: An Approach to Viscoelasticity:
			mbbell Model
		2.6.2.1	Interest of the Dumbbell Models
		2.6.2.2	Model Description
		2.6.2.3	Dumbbell in Simple Shear
		2.6.2.3.1	Hydrodynamic Actions151
		2.6.2.3.2	Force due to Brownian Motion152
		2.6.2.3.3	Balance of Forces and Conservation of the Number of
			Molecules
		2.6.2.3.4	Average Deformation of the Macromolecule153
		2.6.2.3.5	Comments
		2.6.2.4	Macromolecule Deformation in Complex Flows154
		2.6.2.5	Macromolecule Deformation in Planar Extension156
		2.6.2.6	Concluding Remarks157
	2.6.3	Appendix	3: Material and Convected Derivatives
		2.6.3.1	Substantial or Material Derivative of a Tensor158
		2.6.3.2	Convected Derivative of a Tensor
		2.6.3.3	Special Case of the Rotation of a Disk about Its Axis 160
	2.6.4	Appendix	4: Rabinowitsch Correction (Rabinowitsch, 1929)162
	2.6.5	Appendix	5: Flow of a Viscoelastic Fluid in a Cone-and-Plate
		Geometry	
		2.6.5.1	Kinematics Hypotheses164
		2.6.5.2	Viscometric Functions
		2.6.5.3	Dynamic Equilibrium of the System165
		2.6.5.4	Small Cone Angle Limit
	2.6.6	Appendix	6: Viscometric Flows
Refe	rences.		
3	Energy	and Heat	Transfer in Polymer Processes 177
3.1	Basic N	Notions on	Heat Transfer
	3.1.1	First Law	of Thermodynamics
	3.1.2	Heat Rece	ived by the System178
	3.1.3	Power Ger	nerated by Internal Forces178
		3.1.3.1	Work Done by Deformation
		3.1.3.1.1	Extension or compression
		3.1.3.1.2	Simple Shear

		3.1.3.2	Generalization	170	
		3.1.3.3			
			Power Generated by Internal Forces (Dissipated Po		
	2 1 4	3.1.3.4	Newtonian and Shear-Thinning, Power-Law Liquids		
	3.1.4	-	of Energy		
	3.1.5		Energy		
		3.1.5.1	Temperature-Dependent Internal Energy, $e \dots$		
		3.1.5.2	Compressible Materials		
		3.1.5.3	Change of State or Chemical Reaction		
	3.1.6	-	Conditions		
		3.1.6.1	Mathematical Conditions		
		3.1.6.2	Conditions Depending on the Environment	185	
		3.1.6.2.1	Polymer in Contact with a Metallic Surface	185	
		3.1.6.2.2	Polymer in Contact with a Fluid (Air or Water)	188	
	3.1.7	Solutions	of the Heat Transfer Equation	189	
3.2	Coolin	g in Molds	s, in Air, and in Water	190	
	3.2.1	Context.		190	
	3.2.2	Heat Trai	nsfer Equation	190	
		3.2.2.1	•		
		3.2.2.2	Body in Motion		
	3.2.3	•			
	3.2.4				
	3.2	3.2.4.1	Conductive Heat Transfer: Notion of Effusivity		
		3.2.4.2	Conductive and Convective Heat Transfer		
	3.2.5		or Cooling) of a Plate		
	0.2.0	3.2.5.1	Isothermal Boundary Conditions		
			Exact Solution		
		3.2.5.1.1			
		3.2.5.2	Convective Boundary Conditions		
		3.2.5.2.1	Exact Solution		
	ъ.	3.2.5.2.2	1 1		
3.3	•		d Heat Transfer		
	3.3.1		ce of Viscous Heating: The Brinkman Number		
	3.3.2		a Thermal Regime		
	3.3.3		tions		
		3.3.3.1	Energy Equation		
		3.3.3.2	Calculation of the Dissipated Heat, \dot{W}		
		3.3.3.2.1	Newtonian Behavior	206	
		3.3.3.2.2	Shear-Thinning, Power-Law Behavior	206	
	3.3.4	Equilibri	um Regime	207	
		3.3.4.1	Equilibrium Regime for a Newtonian Polymer	207	
		3.3.4.1.1	Constant Temperature at the Walls, $T(R) = T$		

		3.3.4.1.2	Convective Boundary Condition	.208
		3.3.4.2	Equilibrium Regime for a Power-Law Polymer and a	
			Constant Wall Temperature	.210
	3.3.5	Adiabatic	Regime	.211
	3.3.6		n Regime for a Newtonian Fluid	
		3.3.6.1	Average Temperature with a Convective Boundary	
			Condition	.213
		3.3.6.2	Evaluation of the Nusselt Number	
			(or of the Heat Transfer Coefficient)	.214
		3.3.6.2.1	Expression for Nu _{eq}	.214
		3.3.6.2.2	Control Temperature Equal to the Initial Polymer	
			Temperature	.215
		3.3.6.2.3	Control Temperature Different from the Initial Polyme	
			Temperature	
	3.3.7	Transition	n Regime with a Power-Law Fluid	.219
	3.3.8		on with an Exact Solution	
		3.3.8.1	Calculations without Mechanical-Thermal Coupling	.220
		3.3.8.1.1	Newtonian Polymer	.220
		3.3.8.1.2	Shear-Thinning Polymer	.223
		3.3.8.2	Computations with Thermal Coupling	.224
	3.3.9	Other Flo	w Geometries	.224
		3.3.9.1	Simple Shear Flow between Parallel Plates	.224
		3.3.9.1.1	Thermal Equilibrium Regime	.225
		3.3.9.1.2	Adiabatic Regime	.226
		3.3.9.1.3	Transition Regime	.226
		3.3.9.2	Heat Generation in Planar Pressure Flow	.227
	3.3.10	Application	on to Flat Die Extrusion	.228
	3.3.11	Conclusio	n	.231
3.4	Appen	dices		.231
	3.4.1	Appendix	1: Convective Heat Transfer	.231
		3.4.1.1	Free and Forced Convection	.231
		3.4.1.2	The Bénard Problem	.232
		3.4.1.2.1	Description of the Experiments	.232
		3.4.1.2.2	Determination of ΔT_c (Rayleigh, 1916)	.233
		3.4.1.3	Heat Transfer by Free Convection	.235
		3.4.1.3.1	General Principles	.235
		3.4.1.3.2	Horizontal Cylinder	.235
		3.4.1.3.3	Vertical Plate or Cylinder	.236
		3.4.1.3.4	Horizontal Plate	.236
		3.4.1.4	Example: Determination of the Heat Transfer Coefficie	nt
			in Free Convection	.237

		3.4.1.4.1	Introduction	237
		3.4.1.4.2	Physical Properties of Air and Water	238
		3.4.1.4.3	Example	
		3.4.1.5	Forced Convection	239
		3.4.1.5.1	Introduction	239
		3.4.1.5.2	General Relationships	240
		3.4.1.5.3	Sphere	240
		3.4.1.5.4	Cylinder Perpendicular to the Flow Stream	240
		3.4.1.5.5	Plate or Cylinder Parallel to the Flow Stream	240
		3.4.1.5.6	Example: Determination of the Heat Transfer Coefficie	ent
			in Forced Convection	241
	3.4.2	Appendix	2: Radiation Heat Transfer	242
		3.4.2.1	Blackbody	242
		3.4.2.2	Nonblackbodies	243
		3.4.2.2.1	Absorption of Nonblackbodies	243
		3.4.2.2.2	Radiation Emitted by a Nonblackbody	243
		3.4.2.3	Radiation Heat Exchange between Gray Bodies	244
		3.4.2.3.1	Generalities	244
		3.4.2.3.2	Examples	245
		3.4.2.4	Determination of Radiation Heat Transfer Coefficient	246
	3.4.3	Appendix	3: Internal Energy for Compressible Materials	246
Refe	rences.			248
4	Appro	ximations a	and Calculation Methods	. 251
4.1	_		ymer Processing	
4.2			ant Rheological Constitutive Equation	
4.3	Choice	e of Bounda	ary Conditions	255
	4.3.1		cs Boundary Conditions	
	4.3.2		sfer Boundary Conditions	
	4.3.3		litions	
	4.3.4		itions	
4.4	Appro		lethods	
	4.4.1	Approxim	ations Concerning the Geometry of the Flow	257
		4.4.1.1	Unwinding or Flattening of an Annular or a Helical	
			Geometry	257
		4.4.1.2	Decomposition of Complex Flow Geometry in Several	
			Simple Flows	
	4.4.2		cs Approximations	
		4.4.2.1	Lubrication Approximations	
		4.4.2.2	Hele-Shaw Approximations	
		4.4.2.3	Approximation of a Slender Body (or Thin Film)	263

		4.4.2.4	Important Remark	265	
	4.4.3	Approxim	nations for the Temperature	265	
	4.4.4		on and Application Example		
	4.4.5		**		
		4.4.5.1	Flow in a Dihedron	268	
		4.4.5.2	Flow in a Cone		
4.5	Pressu	ıre Buildur	o in Polymer Flows: Hydrodynamics Bearings	272	
	4.5.1	-	ion		
	4.5.2	Qualitativ	ve Analysis of Some Hydrodynamics Bearings	273	
		4.5.2.1	Rayleigh Bearing		
		4.5.2.2	Reynolds Bearing		
		4.5.2.3	Flow between Two Rolls		
	4.5.3	Pressure	Generated by a Sudden Flow Restriction		
			Bearing)	275	
	4.5.4		culation in a Bearing of Variable Gap:		
		the Reyno	olds Equation	276	
	4.5.5	Problem: Reynolds Bearing			
4.6	Calcul	Calculation Methods			
	4.6.1	Calculation	on Methods as Functions of the Type of Flow	279	
		4.6.1.1	Simple Shear or Simple Stretching Isothermal Flows.	279	
		4.6.1.2	Unidirectional Isothermal Flows	279	
		4.6.1.3	Nonisothermal Shear or Elongation Unidirectional		
			Flows	280	
		4.6.1.4	Bidirectional Thin Layer Flows		
			(Isothermal or Nonisothermal)	280	
		4.6.1.5	2D or 3D Flows		
	4.6.2	Solution of	of Unidirectional Flows: Slab Method		
		(or Increr	nental Method)	281	
	4.6.3	Solution	of the Hele-Shaw Equations	282	
		4.6.3.1	Newtonian Isothermal Case	282	
		4.6.3.2	Non-Newtonian Isothermal Viscous Case	284	
		4.6.3.3	Nonisothermal Case (Average Temperature Solution)	285	
	4.6.4	2D and 3	D Viscous Flow Calculations with a Finite Elements		
		Method.		287	
		4.6.4.1	Mechanical Equations	287	
		4.6.4.2	Meshing	287	
		4.6.4.3	Finite Elements Solution	289	
		4.6.4.4	Finite Elements Solution of the Energy Equation	290	
	4.6.5	Isotherma	al Flow Viscoelastic Computations		
		4.6.5.1	Direct Solution Methods	292	
		4652	Iterative Methods	203	

4.7	Appen	dix		.295
	4.7.1		1: Analysis of the Lubrication Approximations	
		4.7.1.1	Introduction	
		4.7.1.2	Analysis of the Relative Weight of the Terms of the	
			Rate-of-Strain Tensor	.295
		4.7.1.3	Simplification of the Equations of Motion	
		4.7.1.4	Validity of the Lubrication Approximations	
Refe	rences.			
5			rusion and Die Flows	
5.1	Single		rusion	
	5.1.1	Geometri	c and Kinematic Description	
		5.1.1.1	The Different Zones of the Extruder	.303
		5.1.1.2	Geometry of the Screw	.304
		5.1.1.3	Description of the Screw Channel	.305
		5.1.1.4	Classical Approximations	.306
		5.1.1.4.1	Approximation of a Fixed Barrel and a Rotating Screw	.306
		5.1.1.4.2	Unwound Screw Channel	.307
		5.1.1.4.3	Relative Velocity of the Barrel	.308
		5.1.1.5	Reference Extruder	.309
	5.1.2	Feeding Z	Zone	.309
		5.1.2.1	Solid Polymer Conveying	.309
		5.1.2.2	Polymer-Metal Friction	.310
		5.1.2.3	Archimedes' Screw	.311
		5.1.2.4	Model of Darnell and Moll (1956)	.313
		5.1.2.5	Flow Rate Calculation and Optimization	.315
		5.1.2.6	Role of Pressure	.317
		5.1.2.7	Technological Consequences	.319
		5.1.2.8	Model Improvements	.320
	5.1.3	Melting Z	one	.322
		5.1.3.1	Physical Description of the Phenomena	.322
		5.1.3.1.1	Experimental Observations	.322
		5.1.3.1.2	Delay Zone (Kacir and Tadmor, 1972)	.324
		5.1.3.1.3	Initiation of the Melting by Melt Pool	.325
		5.1.3.1.4	Melting Mechanism by Melt Pool	.325
		5.1.3.2	Initiation of the Melting Process by Melt Pool	.326
		5.1.3.3	Melting Model of Tadmor and Klein (1970)	
		5.1.3.3.1	Melting Rate	
		5.1.3.3.2	Changes Induced by the Clearance between the Screw	
			and the Barrel	
		5.1.3.3.3	Length of the Melting Zone; Role of Compression	

		5.1.3.4	Other Models	335
		5.1.3.5	Technological Consequences: Barrier Screws	336
	5.1.4	Flow of th	ne Molten Polymer	339
		5.1.4.1	Pumping Zone	339
		5.1.4.1.1	Review of the Geometry	340
		5.1.4.1.2	Flow Equations	340
		5.1.4.1.3	Study of the Transverse Flow	341
		5.1.4.1.4	Study of the Longitudinal Flow	343
		5.1.4.1.5	Concept of Residence Time Distribution	345
		5.1.4.2	Compression Zone	348
		5.1.4.3	Role of the Screw/Barrel Clearance	350
		5.1.4.4	Study of Thermal Phenomena	352
		5.1.4.5	Concept of Characteristic curves	355
		5.1.4.6	Model Improvements	357
		5.1.4.7	Technological Consequences	358
		5.1.4.7.1	Degassing Extruders (Two-Stage Vented Screws) .	358
		5.1.4.7.2	Mixing Elements	359
	5.1.5	Overall M	lodel of Single-Screw Extrusion	361
		5.1.5.1	Introduction	361
		5.1.5.2	Examples of Results	361
		5.1.5.2.1	Reference Extruder	361
		5.1.5.2.2	Optimization of the Pumping Zone	364
		5.1.5.3	Conclusions	365
	5.1.6	Extrusion	Problems	366
		5.1.6.1	Initiation of the Melting by Melt Pool	366
		5.1.6.2	Melting Regime by Melt Pool	368
		5.1.6.3	Criteria for Choosing an Extruder	373
5.2	Extrus	sion Dies		378
	5.2.1	Introduct	ion: Role of an Extrusion Die	378
	5.2.2	Description	on of the Encountered Geometries	378
		5.2.2.1	Film-Blowing Dies	378
		5.2.2.2	Pipe Dies	379
		5.2.2.3	Plate Dies (or Flat Dies)	380
		5.2.2.4	Profile Dies	381
		5.2.2.5	Wire-Coating Dies	381
	5.2.3	Assumpti	ons and Calculation Methods Revisited	382
	5.2.4	Examples	of Results	383
		5.2.4.1	Film-Blowing Dies	383
		5.2.4.2	Pipe Dies	388
		5.2.4.3	Flat Dies	392
		5.2.4.4	Wire-Coating Dies	395

		5.2.4.5	Profile Dies	399
	5.2.5	Conclusi	on	402
	5.2.6	Die Prob	lems	403
		5.2.6.1	Flow in a Flat T-die	403
		5.2.6.2	Flow in a Flat Coat-Hanger Die	405
5.3	Multil	ayer Flow	S	408
	5.3.1	Interest	of Multilayer Flows and Related Problems	408
	5.3.2	Study of	the Steady Flow of Two Viscous Fluids between Parall	lel
		Plates		410
		5.3.2.1	Continuity Conditions at the Interface	411
		5.3.2.2	Isothermal Newtonian Two-Layer Flow	411
		5.3.2.3	Generalization to Power-Law Behavior	414
	5.3.3	Flat Die	Coextrusion	416
		5.3.3.1	Process Description	416
		5.3.3.2	One-Dimensional Approach	417
		5.3.3.3	Two-Dimensional Approach	420
		5.3.3.4	Two-Dimensional Hele-Shaw Approach	422
	5.3.4	Coextrus	sion Die Problems	423
		5.3.4.1	Three-Layer Coextrusion Flow between Parallel Plat	es .423
		5.3.4.2	Coextrusion Flow in a Capillary	425
5.4	Apper	ndix		426
	5.4.1	Appendi	x 1: Calculation of Solid Velocity in Single-Screw	
		Extrusio	n	426
Refe	erences			427
6			rusion and Applications	
6.1	Gener		tion of Twin-Screw Extrusion Process	
	6.1.1		t Types of Twin-Screw Extruders	
	6.1.2	, ,	oes	
	6.1.3		Features of Corotating Twin-Screw Extrusion	
	6.1.4		y of Screws and Barrel	
	6.1.5		Approximations	
	6.1.6		t Modeling Approaches	
	6.1.7		e Extruder	
6.2			g and Melting	
	6.2.1		nveying Zone	
	6.2.2	_	Zone	
6.3				
	6.3.1	0	nd Left-Handed Screw Elements	
		6.3.1.1	One-Dimensional Models	
		6312	Two-Dimensional Models	456

		6.3.1.3	Three-Dimensional Models	457
		6.3.1.4	Thermal Effects	
	6.3.2		lements	
	0.3.2	6.3.2.1	One-Dimensional Models	
		6.3.2.2	Two-Dimensional Models	
Z 1	Clabal	6.3.2.3	Three-Dimensional Models	
6.4			Twin-Screw Extrusion	
	6.4.1		Description	
	6.4.2		e Time Distribution	
/ -	6.4.3	-	of Results	
6.5			e Production of Polymer Blends	
	6.5.1		chanisms	
		6.5.1.1	Mechanisms of Rupture	
		6.5.1.2	Mechanisms of Coalescence	
	6.5.2	_	along the Extruder and Examples of Results	
6.6			ompounding Operations	
	6.6.1		Types of Mixing	
	6.6.2		ve Mixing	489
	6.6.3	-	e Mixing: Application to the Production	
			omposites	
6.7			eactive Extrusion	
6.8	-		l Scale-Up	
6.9				
		•	ied Model of the Flow around a Kneading Disk	
Refe	rences.			512
7	Injecti	on Molding	g	521
7.1	Descri	ption	-	521
7.2		•		
	_	_	ies of the Filling Phase	
	7.2.2		ootheses and Governing Equations	
		7.2.2.1	Purely Viscous Flow Behavior	
		7.2.2.2	Incompressibility	
		7.2.2.3	Negligible Gravitational and Inertial Forces	
		7.2.2.4	Equations	
	7.2.3		ional Flows	
		7.2.3.1	Introduction	
		7.2.3.2	Filling of a Center-Gated Disk Mold	
		7.2.3.2.1	Newtonian Isothermal Behavior	
		7.2.3.2.2	Isothermal Shear-Thinning Behavior	
			Nonisothermal Generalized Newtonian Behavior	

	7.2.4	Thin Flow or Hele-Shaw Models	540			
	7.2.5	3D Computations	544			
7.3	Packir	ng and Holding Phase	548			
	7.3.1	Introduction				
	7.3.2	Simplified Calculations of the Packing Phase	549			
	7.3.3	Physical Data for the Packing-Holding Calculations	551			
		7.3.3.1 Measurements of PVT Data	551			
		7.3.3.2 Modeling	552			
	7.3.4	Calculations	553			
		7.3.4.1 Thin-Flow Approaches	553			
		7.3.4.2 3D Computations	556			
	7.3.5	Conclusions	557			
7.4	Residu	ual Stresses and Deformations	558			
	7.4.1	Introduction	558			
	7.4.2	Main Physical Phenomena Involved	558			
		7.4.2.1 Thermal Shrinkage	558			
		7.4.2.2 Frozen-In Stresses	561			
	7.4.3	Measurement of Residual Stresses	562			
	7.4.4	Calculations of Residual Stresses	563			
7.5	Nonstandard Injection-Molding Techniques					
	7.5.1	Gas-Assisted Injection Molding (GAIM)	564			
	7.5.2	Water-Assisted Injection Molding (WAIM)	566			
	7.5.3	Multicomponent Injection Molding	567			
7.6	Injecti	ion of Short Fiber Reinforced Polymers	569			
7.7	Conclu	usion	571			
7.8	Proble	ems	572			
	7.8.1	Filling of a Center-Gated Disk	572			
	7.8.2	Balancing of a Multicavity Mold	575			
Refe	rences		580			
8	Calend	dering	587			
8.1	Introd	uction	587			
8.2	Rigid	Film Calendering Process	588			
	8.2.1	Presentation	588			
	8.2.2	Calendering Problems				
	8.2.3	Aim of Calendering Process Modeling	591			
	8.2.4	Kinematics of Calendering	591			
	8.2.5	Isothermal Newtonian Model Based on Lubrication				
		Approximations				
		8.2.5.1 Reynolds Equation				
		8.2.5.2 Spread Height Calculation	594			

		8.2.5.3	Roll Separating Force and Torque Exerted on the Roll	596		
	8.2.6	More Ger	neral Newtonian Models	597		
		8.2.6.1	Two-Dimensional Model	597		
		8.2.6.2	Influence of Slippage between the Polymer and the			
			Rolls	599		
		8.2.6.3	Calendering Analysis When Introducing a Velocity			
			Differential between the Rolls	600		
		8.2.6.4	Conclusions of the Different Newtonian Models	601		
	8.2.7	Shear-Thi	nning Calendering Model	601		
		8.2.7.1	Generalized Reynolds Equation	602		
		8.2.7.2	Integrated Generalized Reynolds Equation	603		
	8.2.8	Thermal	Effects in Calendering	604		
	8.2.9	Viscoelas	tic Models	608		
	8.2.10	Use of Ca	lendering Models	608		
8.3	Postex	trusion Ca	llendering Process	610		
	8.3.1	Presentat	ion	610		
	8.3.2	Process N	Modeling	611		
		8.3.2.1	Pressure Field Calculations	611		
		8.3.2.2	Temperature Field Calculations	612		
8.4	Appen	dix		614		
	8.4.1 Appendix 1: Calculations of Two-Dimensional Flow in the					
		Calender	Bank by a Finite Element Method	614		
		8.4.1.1	The Stokes Equations in Terms of the Stream and			
			Vorticity Functions	614		
		8.4.1.2	Solving the Stream and Vorticity Equations for the 2D			
			Calendering Problem (Agassant and Espy, 1985)	615		
Refe	rences.			616		
9	Polym	er Stretch	ing Processes	. 619		
9.1	Introd	uction		619		
9.2	Fiber Spinning					
	9.2.1	Different	Fiber Spinning Situations	619		
	9.2.2	Isotherma	al Melt Spinning of a Newtonian Fluid	621		
		9.2.2.1	Kinematics Hypotheses	622		
		9.2.2.2	Set of Equations	623		
		9.2.2.3	Solution for Isothermal Newtonian Fiber Spinning	623		
		9.2.2.4	Application Examples	624		
		9.2.2.5	Validity of the Approximations Used	625		
		9.2.2.5.1	Neglecting the Shear Component			
		9.2.2.5.2	Neglecting the Gravitational (Mass) Force			
		92253	Neglecting the Inertia Force	626		

	9.2.3	Isotherma	al Melt Spinning of a Viscoelastic Fluid	627
		9.2.3.1	Equations	627
		9.2.3.2	Dimensionless Equations	628
		9.2.3.3	Solution	629
		9.2.3.4	Results	630
	9.2.4	Drawing	of a Viscous Fluid in Nonisothermal Conditions	632
		9.2.4.1	Mechanical Equations	632
		9.2.4.1.1	Equations of Motion	632
		9.2.4.1.2	Force Balance at the Filament Surface	633
		9.2.4.1.3	Newtonian Hypothesis	634
		9.2.4.2	Heat Transfer Equation	634
		9.2.4.2.1	Forced Convection Term	635
		9.2.4.2.2	Radiative Heat Transfer Coefficient	636
		9.2.4.2.3	Viscous Dissipation Rate during Drawing	636
		9.2.4.3	Solution for the Momentum and Heat Transfer	
			Equations	637
		9.2.4.4	Results	637
	9.2.5	More Ger	neral Models of Fiber Spinning	639
9.3	Biaxia	l Drawing		640
	9.3.1	Introduct	ion	640
	9.3.2	Biaxial St	retching of a Newtonian Liquid	640
9.4	Cast-F	ilm Proces	S	642
	9.4.1	Presentat	ion	642
	9.4.2	Different	Kinematics Approaches	
		9.4.2.1	Two-Dimensional Membrane Approach	
		9.4.2.2	One-Dimensional Membrane Approach	
		9.4.2.3	One-Dimensional Approach	
	9.4.3		ensional Newtonian Model	
	9.4.4	One-Dime	ensional Membrane Model	
		9.4.4.1	Equations of the Newtonian Model	
		9.4.4.1.1	Stress Tensor	
		9.4.4.1.2	Equations	
		9.4.4.1.3	Boundary Conditions	
		9.4.4.2	Results of the One-Dimensional Newtonian Membran	ne
			Model	
		9.4.4.3	Equations of a Viscoelastic Model	649
		9.4.4.4	Results of the One-Dimensional Viscoelastic Membra	
			Model	
	9.4.5	Two-Dime	ensional Membrane Model	
		9.4.5.1	Equations of the Problem	
		9.4.5.2	Results of the Two-Dimensional Membrane Model	653

			37 1 3 136 13	
		9.4.5.3	Nonisothermal Model	
	9.4.6		ons	
	9.4.7			
		9.4.7.1	Drawing of a Constant-Width Film	
		9.4.7.2	Extrusion of Tubes	
9.5	Film-E	_	ocess	
	9.5.1		Description	
	9.5.2		metry	
	9.5.3	Equations	s of the Film-Blowing Process	665
		9.5.3.1	Kinematics of Bubble Formation	665
		9.5.3.2	Stresses Acting on the Bubble	665
		9.5.3.2.1	Force Balance in the Drawing Direction and Meridian	1
			Stress	665
		9.5.3.2.2	Force Balance Perpendicular to the Film	667
		9.5.3.2.3	Order of Magnitude of the Stress Components	668
		9.5.3.3	Heat Balance Equations	669
	9.5.4	Nonisoth	ermal Newtonian Model	670
		9.5.4.1	Equations	670
		9.5.4.2	Examples of Results	
	9.5.5	Nonisothe	ermal Viscoelastic Model	
		9.5.5.1	Equations	
		9.5.5.2	Examples of Results	
	9.5.6	A Semien	npirical Model of the Blown-Film Process	
	9.5.7		ons	
9.6	Manut		Hollow Plastic Bodies	
,	9.6.1		low-Molding Processes	
	,	9.6.1.1	Extrusion Blow Molding	
		9.6.1.2	Stretch Blow-Molding Process	
		9.6.1.3	Problems Encountered in Blow Molding	
	9.6.2		of Extrusion Blow Molding	
	7.0.2	9.6.2.1	Membrane or Thick Shell?	
		9.6.2.2	Choice of Rheological Behavior	
		9.6.2.3	Application to the Blowing of a Complex Hollow Part	
		9.6.2.3.1	Curvilinear Coordinates	
		9.6.2.3.2	Dynamic Equilibrium of the Membrane	
		9.6.2.3.3	Boundary Conditions for the Pressure	
		9.6.2.3.4	Example	
	9.6.3		low-Molding Process	
	9.0.3	9.6.3.1	Introduction	
		9.6.3.2	Process Modeling	

		9.6.3.2.2	Boundary Conditions	.694
		9.6.3.2.3	Numerical Solution	.694
		9.6.3.3	Example	.695
	9.6.4	Conclusio	ns	.696
	9.6.5	Problems		.697
		9.6.5.1	Inflation of a Newtonian Spherical Membrane	.697
		9.6.5.2	Blowing of a Tubular Newtonian Membrane of Constan	t
			Length	.698
		9.6.5.3	Blowing of a Thick Newtonian Tube of Constant Length	701
9.7	Appen	dices		.704
	9.7.1	Appendix	1: Solution of the Isothermal Cast-Film Equations	.704
		9.7.1.1	One-Dimensional Membrane Model, Newtonian Case	.704
		9.7.1.1.1	Equations	.704
		9.7.1.1.2	Dimensionless Variables	.706
		9.7.1.1.3	Solution	.707
		9.7.1.2	Two-Dimensional Membrane Model: Viscoelastic Case	.707
		9.7.1.2.1	Dimensionless Variables	.708
		9.7.1.2.2	Solution	.709
		9.7.1.3	Two-Dimensional Membrane Model	.709
	9.7.2	Appendix	2: Cooling of Films in Air or Water	.711
		9.7.2.1	Problem Statement	.711
		9.7.2.2	Solution	.712
		9.7.2.3	Cooling of the Film in Air	.712
		9.7.2.3.1	Heat Transfer Coefficient by Convection	.712
		9.7.2.3.2	Heat Transfer Coefficient by Radiation	.713
		9.7.2.3.3	Cooling Calculations	.714
		9.7.2.3.4	Results	.714
		9.7.2.4	Cooling of the Film in Water	.716
	9.7.3	Appendix	3: Solving the Film Blowing Equations	.718
		9.7.3.1	Newtonian Case	.718
		9.7.3.1.1	Equations and Unknowns	.718
		9.7.3.1.2	Dimensionless Variables	.719
		9.7.3.1.3	Solution	.721
		9.7.3.2	Viscoelastic Case	.722
		9.7.3.2.1	Equations and Unknowns	.722
		9.7.3.2.2	Dimensionless Variables	.723
		9.7.3.2.3	Solution	.724
Refe	rences.			.725
10	Flow In	nstabilities		731
10.1	Extrus	ion Defects	S	.731

10.1.1 Description of the Various Defects Observed in Capillary	
Rheometry	731
10.1.2 Extrusion Defects of Linear Polymers	734
10.1.2.1 Sharkskin Defect	734
10.1.2.1.1 Description	734
10.1.2.1.2 Defect Quantification	734
10.1.2.1.3 Key Parameters	737
10.1.2.1.4 Interpretation	739
10.1.2.1.5 Remedies	742
10.1.2.2 Oscillating Defect	745
10.1.2.2.1 Presentation	745
10.1.2.2.2 Key Parameters	747
10.1.2.2.3 Bagley Corrections	748
10.1.2.2.4 Stress at the Walls	749
10.1.2.2.5 Description of the Oscillating Cycle	
10.1.2.2.6 Interpretation and Mechanisms	752
10.1.2.2.7 Molecular Interpretation	755
10.1.2.2.8 Example of Descriptive Model	756
10.1.2.2.9 Remedies	
10.1.3 Extrusion Defects of Branched Polymers	
10.1.3.1 Description	
10.1.3.2 Wall Shear Stress	
10.1.3.3 Influence of Geometry	
10.1.3.4 Interpretation	
10.1.3.4.1 Remedies	
10.1.4 Summary and Outlook	
10.2 Coextrusion Defects	
10.2.1 Investigation of Coextrusion Instabilities	
10.2.1.1 Influence of the Flow Configuration	
10.2.1.2 Analysis of the Flow within a Coextrusion Die	
10.2.2 Modeling Coextrusion Instabilities	
10.2.2.1 Convective Stability Investigation	
10.2.2.1.1 Asymptotic Stability Analysis	
10.2.2.1.2 Convective Stability Analysis	776
10.2.2.2 Direct Numerical Simulation	778
10.2.3 Conclusions	780
10.3 Calendering Defects	
10.3.1 Different Types of Defects	
10.3.2 Analysis of the Matteness Defect	
10.3.3 Analysis of the V-Shaped Defect	
10.3.4 Analysis of the Rocket Defect	786

10.3.5 Conclusi	ons	788
10.4 Drawing Instabi	lities	789
10.4.1 Descript	ion of Drawing Instabilities	789
10.4.1.1	Example of Fiber Spinning	789
10.4.1.2	Example of the Cast-Film Process	791
10.4.1.3	Example of the Film-Blowing Process	792
10.4.1.4	Conclusions	794
10.4.2 Modeling	g Fiber Spinning Instability	795
10.4.2.1	Stretching of a Newtonian Fluid under Isothermal	
	Conditions	795
10.4.2.2	Influence of Thermal Phenomena	796
10.4.2.3	Influence of Viscoelasticity	798
10.4.3 Modeling	g Cast-Film Instability	799
10.4.3.1	Stability of a Constant Film Width Stretching Model	799
10.4.3.2	Stability of a 1D Membrane Model Accounting for	
	Neck-In	800
10.4.3.3	Stability of the 2D Membrane Model	802
10.4.4 Modeling	g Film-Blowing Instabilities	803
10.4.5 Conclusi	on	806
References		806
Notations		817
Color Supplement		827
Subject Index		837

Foreword to the English Edition

It was with great enthusiasm that I agreed to compose this foreword for the second edition of Polymer Processing: Principles and Modeling (P³M-2). In 1994, when I arrived at the Mechanical Engineering Department of the University of Wisconsin - Madison, it was Professor Tim Osswald who introduced me to teaching from the first edition of this book (P³M-1). I then taught the introductory course on polymer processing from P³M-1, twice a year, for years to come. My senior elective course classroom was well populated by students from the departments of Mechanical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, and Materials Science and Engineering. P³M-1 was a student favourite for its readability and its expert use of terms with plain meaning. wherever possible. I used this first edition until, disappointingly, it went out of print. P³M-2 expands on P³M-1 from 6 chapters to 10, and P³M-2 is reorganized, now opting to cover rheology in one consolidated second chapter rather than postponing viscoelasticity until Chapter 6. This expansion and reorganization are clever improvements. I am pleased to report that Chapter 2 retains a clear explanation of the Jaumann derivative, making Chapter 2 a gem. I see that the writing style still employs terms with plain meaning, wherever possible. Undergraduate students, the hardest to please, will enjoy this book.

Each chapter is designed pedagogically to sets students free to solve a broad class of relevant problems, as it should. For instance, Chapter 7 on injection molding equips students to solve time-unsteady processing problems, Chapter 5 on single-screw extrusion enables students to attack problems with non-obvious coordinates systems, and Chapter 8 on calendering teaches students how an apparently complicated process geometry, cleverly chosen, may yield process working equations of remarkable simplicity. In Chapter 6 on twin-screw extrusion, new to P³M-2, we enjoy Vergnes' special touch, the foremost authority on extrusion, and Chapter 8 on calendering, bears Agassant's signature, who for decades has been the foremost authority on this process. P³M-2 is a translation from the recent French fourth edition [Mise en forme des polymères (2014)] and, as was the case for P³M-1, P³M-2 has the readability of English first language authorship.

Our world's polymer processing industry continues to grow steadily, to employ and to govern our prosperity and quality of life. Creative polymer chemists and product designers continue to challenge plastics engineers with novel combinations of material and shape. Our need to arrive at solutions to the ensuing manufacturing problems, in a hurry, confidently, and inexpensively, more than ever, requires our plastics engineering community to be well versed in the fundamentals of plastics processing. P³M-2 addresses this need expertly by empowering plastics engineers to create knowledge about plastics processing, and thus, to fill knowledge gaps, as they arise, in our quickly evolving world of plastics manufacturing.

A. Jeffrey Giacomin, PhD, PEng, PE Tier 1 Canada Research Chair in Rheology Queen's University at Kingston, Canada

Preface to the Third French Edition

The viscoelastic properties of long chain molecules are quite extraordinary. Even in a highly diluted solution (100 parts per million), polyethylene oxide drastically reduces the turbulent losses of water. It also allows tubeless siphons to function, as discovered by James in Toronto, which are fascinating objects. The same for molten polymers; in very slow flows, they behave like liquids. In more rapid motions, they behave like rubber and, in flow near walls, they exhibit astonishing slip properties that we are beginning to examine at Collège de France using rather sophisticated optical techniques. All that I briefly described here has major practical implications, in particular for the processing of plastic materials. In injection molding, extrusion, or more sophisticated processes, consistently one has to force the liquid polymer to rapidly adopt preset shapes-which it does not like. Hence the many defects in the final product, such as sharkskin, which is a disaster for the manufacturer of extruded products. Plastics engineering is, therefore, a difficult art, and the authors describe here the basic notions based on extensive experiences, working directly with many manufacturers. Their approach is based mainly on principles of mechanics, but they have incorporated in their first chapters (and a few other places) a useful introduction to the physical underlying phenomena. Of course, this introduction is no substitute for basic textbooks such as that of John Ferry on viscoelasticity, or that of S. Edwards and M. Doi on the behavior of entangled chains. The first edition of this book has already been proven to be quite useful; chemical engineering communities in France and Canada have heavily relied on it. This new version, which is significantly expanded, should be of great service; I wish it great success.

P.G. de Gennes, Nobel Prize in Physics 1991 December 1995 Translated by P.J. Carreau August 2016

Acknowledgements

Four authors of this book are or have been associated with the Centre de Mise en Forme des Matériaux (Materials Forming Center, CEMEF) of Ecole des Mines de Paris (now MINES-ParisTech).

This research center was established in 1974, and it was one of the first institutions to be established in the Sophia-Antipolis Techno-park (Alpes-Maritimes, France) in 1976. It has been associated with the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS) since 1979 (joint research Unit 7635). It now has nearly one hundred fifty people: professors, researchers, PhD students, advanced-master and master students, engineers, technicians, and administrative staff.

The role of CEMEF is twofold:

- Training, in the field of engineering materials and processing, of engineers, master, and PhD students. Since the beginning, nearly 450 doctoral degrees and more than 350 advanced-master's degrees were supported by the center. These graduates are now working in many industrial companies with which the center is related.
- Contribution to solving scientific and technical problems in the field of processing and forming of materials (particularly metals and polymers). The center maintains relations with the major French and European companies in the development, implementation, and use of materials.

Jean-François Agassant is an engineer from Ecole des Mines de Paris, Doctor of Science, and professor at the Ecole des Mines de Paris. He was deputy director of CEMEF (1981–2007) and director of the joint unit between MINES-ParisTech and CNRS (1989–2001). He is now responsible for the "Mechanical and Material Engineering" department and the head of MINES-ParisTech on the Sophia-Antipolis site.

Pierre Avenas is an alumnus of Ecole Polytechnique (Paris) and engineer "corps of Mines." He initiated research on polymers at the Ecole des Mines de Paris and helped create CEMEF, of which he was director from 1974 to late 1978. After heading the industrial research department at the Ministry of Industry of France (1979–1981), he held several positions in the chemical industry, including Director of R & D chemistry of Total group until 2004.

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Michel Vincent is an engineer from Ecole des Mines of Saint-Etienne and Doctor of engineering from Ecole des Mines de Paris. He is currently director of research at CNRS, and he is responsible within the research unit "Polymers and Composites" of CEMEF for the injection molding and reinforced polymers.

The fifth author, **Pierre Carreau**, was responsible for the translation and adaptation of the original French book into English. He graduated in chemical engineering from Ecole Polytechnique of Montreal. He obtained his PhD from the University of Wisconsin (Madison, USA). He is now professor emeritus of Ecole Polytechnique of Montreal. He was the founder of the Center on Applied Polymer Research and, more recently, of the Research Center for High Performance Polymer and Composite Systems (CREPEC). CREPEC is an interuniversity research center joining 50 of Quebec's scientists specialized in the development of new high performance polymers and composites and their transformation and implementation process.

Both CEMEF and CREPEC have been associated for many years. Initially, under the France-Quebec collaboration program, a few joint research projects have been initiated. The first English book, published in 1991, and this revised and expanded version are major outcomes of this collaboration.

The initial French book was first published in 1982 and updated in 1986, 1996, and 2014. The second edition in 1986 was adapted and translated into English by Pierre Carreau; it was published by Hanser in 1991. The present translated version of the latest French edition is completely redesigned, both in the presentation and scope of the topics. It presents a synthesis of research and teaching approaches developed over more than thirty years in the field of processing of polymers at CEMEF.

We would like to mention all researchers, colleagues, doctoral and master's graduates, who were or are still at CEMEF and at Polytechnique Montreal, whose work has contributed to the realization of this book: H. Alles, J.M. André, B. Arpin, G. Ausias, Ph. Barq, C. Barrès, S. Batkam, P. Beaufils, M. Bellet, N. Bennani, C. Beraudo, F. Berzin, R. Blanc, F. Boitout, R. Bouamra, C. Champin, M. Coevoet, C. Combeaud, D. Cotto, T. Coupez, L. Delamare, Y. Demay, F. Démé, O. Denizart, E. Devilers, F. Dimier, T. Domenech, J.L. Dournaux, C. Dubrocq-Baritaud, R. Ducloux, V. Durand, A. Durin, M. Espy, E. Foudrinier, E. Gamache, J.F. Gobeau, S. d'Halewyn, J.M. Haudin, I. Hénaut, C. Hoareau, S. Karam, D. Kay, M. Koscher, P. Lafleur, P. Laure, M. Leboeuf, D. Le Roux, W. Lertwimolnun, O. Mahdaoui, H. Maders, R. Magnier, B. Magnin, J. Mauffrey, M. Mouazen, Ph. Mourniac, B. Neyret, I. Noé, H. Nouatin, L. Parent,

C. Peiti, S. Philipon, A. Philippe, A. Piana, E. Pichelin, A. Poitou, A. Poulesquen, S. Mighry, L. Robert, A. Rodriguez-Villa, P. Saillard, G. Schlatter, F. Schmidt, D. Silagy, L. Silva, C. Sollogoub, G. Sornberger, B. Souloumiac, J. Tayeb, J. Teixeira-Pirès, R. Valette, C. Venet, E. Wey, and J.L. Willien. Our thanks go to them and to all those with whom we had the opportunity to work, in both French and foreign universities and in industry, on topics of rheology and polymer processing.

Finally, we thank Ms. Corinne Matarasso who improved the quality of many figures.

Continuum Mechanics: Review of Principles

1.1 Strain and Rate-of-Strain Tensor

1.1.1 Strain Tensor

1.1.1.1 Phenomenological Definitions

Phenomenological definitions of strain are first presented in the following examples.

1.1.1.1.1 Extension (or Compression)

In extension, a volume element of length l is elongated by Δl in the x direction, as illustrated by Figure 1.1. The strain can be defined, from a phenomenological point of view, as $\varepsilon = \Delta l/l$.

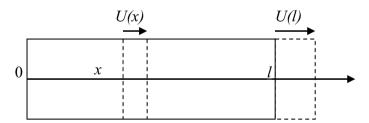


Figure 1.1 Strain in extension

For a homogeneous deformation of the volume element, the displacement U on the x-axis is $U(x) = \Delta l \frac{x}{l}$, and $\frac{dU}{dx} = \frac{\Delta l}{l}$. Hence another definition of the strain is $\varepsilon = \frac{dU}{dx}$.

1.1.1.1.2 Pure Shear

A volume element of square section $h \times h$ in the x-y plane is sheared by a value a in the x-direction, as shown in Figure 1.2. Intuitively, the strain may be defined as $\gamma = a/h$. For a homogeneous deformation of the volume element, the displacement (U, V) of point M(x, y) is

$$U(y) = a\frac{y}{h}; V = 0 \tag{1.1}$$

Hence, another possible definition of the strain is $\gamma = \frac{dU}{dv}$.

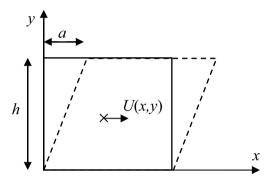


Figure 1.2 Strain in pure shear

1.1.1.2 Displacement Gradient

More generally, any strain in a continuous medium is defined through a field of the displacement vector $\mathbf{U}(x, y, z)$ with coordinates

$$U(x, y, z)$$
, $V(x, y, z)$, $W(x, y, z)$

The intuitive definitions of strain make use of the derivatives of U, V, and W with respect to x, y, and z, that is, of their gradients. For a three-dimensional flow, the material can be deformed in nine different ways: three in extension (or compression) and six in shear. Therefore, it is natural to introduce the nine components of the displacement gradient tensor ∇U :

$$\nabla \mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial W}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial W}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial W}{\partial z} \end{bmatrix}$$
(1.2)

This notion of displacement gradient applied to the two previous deformations presented in Section 1.1.1.1 leads to the following expressions:

Extension deformation:

$$\nabla \mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.3}$$

Shear deformation:

$$\nabla \mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.4}$$

If this notion is applied to a volume element that has rotated θ degrees without being deformed, as shown in Figure 1.3, the displacement vector can be written as

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{vmatrix} U(x,y) = x(\cos\theta - 1) - y\sin\theta \\ V(x,y) = x\sin\theta + y(\cos\theta - 1) \end{vmatrix}$$
 (1.5)

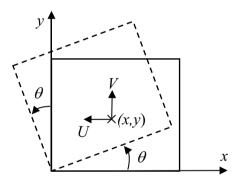


Figure 1.3 Rigid rotation

For a very small value of
$$\theta$$
: $U(x,y) \approx -y\theta$ (1.6) $V(x,y) \approx x\theta$

hence
$$\nabla \mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\theta & 0 \\ \theta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.7)

It is obvious from this result that ∇U cannot physically describe the strain of the material since it is not equal to zero when the material is under rigid rotation without being deformed.

1.1.1.3 Deformation or Strain Tensor ε

To obtain a tensor that physically represents the local deformation, we must make the tensor ∇U symmetrical, as follows:

Write the transposed tensor (symmetry with respect to the principal diagonal);
 the transposed deformation tensor is

$$(\nabla \mathbf{U})^{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial W}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial W}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial U}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} & \frac{\partial W}{\partial z} \end{bmatrix}$$
(1.8)

Write the half sum of the two tensors, each transposed with respect to the other:

$$\mathbf{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\nabla \mathbf{U} + (\nabla \mathbf{U})^t \right) \tag{1.9}$$

or
$$\varepsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$$
 (1.10)

where U_i stands for U, V, or W and x_i for x, y, or z.

Let us now reexamine the three previous cases:

• In *extension* (or compression):

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.11}$$

The deformation tensor ε is equal to the displacement gradient tensor ∇U .

■ In *pure shear*:

$$\mathbf{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2}\gamma & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}\gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.12}$$

The tensor ε is symmetric, whereas ∇U is not. We see that pure shear is physically imposed in a nonsymmetrical manner with respect to x and y; however, the strain experienced by the material is symmetrical.

■ In rigid rotation:

$$\mathbf{\varepsilon} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.13}$$

The definition of ε is such that the deformation is nil in rigid rotation; it is physically satisfactory, whereas the use of ∇U for the deformation is not correct.

As a general result, the tensor ϵ is always symmetrical; that is, it contains only six independent components:

- three in extension or compression: ε_{xx} , ε_{yy} , ε_{zz}
- three in shear: $\varepsilon_{xy} = \varepsilon_{yx}$, $\varepsilon_{yz} = \varepsilon_{zy}$, $\varepsilon_{zx} = \varepsilon_{xz}$

Important Remarks

(a) The definition of the tensor ε used here is a simplified one. One can show rigorously that the strain tensor in a material is mathematically described by the tensor Δ (Salençon, 1988):

$$\Delta_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial U_i}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial U_j}{\partial x_i} + \sum_k \frac{\partial U_k}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial U_k}{\partial x_j} \right) = \varepsilon_{ij} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_k \frac{\partial U_k}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial U_k}{\partial x_j}$$
(1.14)

This definition of the tensor $\mathbf{\varepsilon}$ is valid only if the terms $\partial U_i/\partial x_j$ are small. So the expressions for the tensor written above are usable only if $\varepsilon, \gamma, \theta$, and so on are small (typically less than 5%). This condition is not generally satisfied for the flow of polymer melts. As will be shown, in those cases, we will use the rate-of-strain tensor $\dot{\mathbf{\varepsilon}}$.

(b) The deformation can also be described by following the homogeneous deformation of a continuum media with time. The Cauchy tensor is then used, defined by

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{F}^{t} \text{ with } F_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_{i}}{\partial X_{j}}$$
(1.15)

where x_i are the coordinates at time t of a point initially at X_i , and \mathbf{F}^t is the transpose of \mathbf{F} . The inverse tensor, called the Finger tensor, will be used in Chapter 2:

$$\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \mathbf{F}^{-1} \cdot \left(\mathbf{F}^t\right)^{-1} \tag{1.16}$$

1.1.1.4 Volume Variation During Deformation

Only in extension or compression the strain may result in a variation of the volume. If l_x , l_y , l_z are the dimensions along the three axes, the volume, \mathcal{V} , is then

$$V = l_x l_y l_z \Rightarrow \frac{dV}{V} = \frac{dl_x}{l_x} + \frac{dl_y}{l_y} + \frac{dl_z}{l_z} = \varepsilon_{xx} + \varepsilon_{yy} + \varepsilon_{zz}$$
(1.17)

1.1.2 Rate-of-Strain Tensor

For a velocity field $\mathbf{u}(x, y, z)$, the rate-of-strain tensor is defined as the limit:

$$\dot{\mathbf{\varepsilon}} = \lim_{dt \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{\varepsilon}_t^{t+dt}}{dt} \tag{1.18}$$

where $\mathbf{\varepsilon}_t^{t+dt}$ is the deformation tensor between times t and t+dt. However, in this time interval the displacement vector is $d\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{u} dt$. Hence,

$$\varepsilon_{ij} t^{+dt} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right) dt \tag{1.19}$$

where $u_i = (u, v, w)$ are the components of the velocity vector. The components of the rate-of-strain tensor become

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right) \tag{1.20}$$

As in the case of ε , this tensor is symmetrical:

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\boldsymbol{\nabla} \mathbf{u} + (\boldsymbol{\nabla} \mathbf{u})^t \right) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \right) \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \right) \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \right) & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \right) & \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \end{bmatrix}$$
(1.21)

The diagonal terms are elongational rates; the other terms are shear rates. They are often denoted $\dot{\alpha}$ and $\dot{\gamma}$, respectively.

Remark: Equation (1.20) is the general expression for the components of the rate-of-strain tensor, but its derivation from the expression (1.18) for the strain tensor is correct only if the deformations and the displacements are infinitely small (as in the case of a high-modulus elastic body). For a liquid material, it is not possible, in general, to make use of expression (1.19). Indeed, a liquid experiences very large deformations for which the tensor ε has no physical meaning. Tensors Δ , C, or C^{-1} are used instead.

1.1.3 Continuity Equation

1.1.3.1 Mass Balance

Let us consider a volume element of fluid dx dy dz (Figure 1.4). The fluid density is $\rho(x, y, z, t)$.

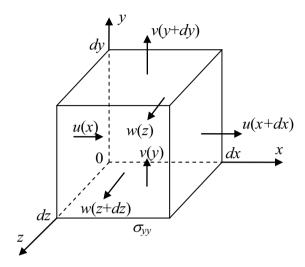


Figure 1.4 Mass balance on a cubic volume element

The variation of mass in the volume element with respect to time is $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} dx dy dz$. This variation is due to a balance of mass fluxes across the faces of the volume element:

- In the *x* direction: $(\rho(x+dx)u(x+dx)-\rho(x)u(x))dydz$
- In the *y* direction: $(\rho(y+dy)v(y+dy)-\rho(y)v(y))dzdx$
- In the z direction: $(\rho(z+dz)w(z+dz)-\rho(z)w(z))dxdy$

Hence, dividing by dx dy dz and taking the limits, we get

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\rho v) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\rho w) = 0 \tag{1.22}$$

which can be written through the definition of the divergence as

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \,\mathbf{u}) = 0 \tag{1.23}$$

This is the continuity equation.

Remark: This equation can be written using the material derivative $\frac{d\rho}{dt} = \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \rho$, leading to $\frac{d\rho}{dt} + \rho \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$.

1.1.3.2 Incompressible Materials

For incompressible materials, ρ is a constant, and the continuity equation reduces to

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \tag{1.24}$$

This result can be obtained from the expression for the volume variation in small deformations:

$$\frac{d\mathcal{V}}{\mathcal{V}} = \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{\varepsilon} = \varepsilon_{xx} + \varepsilon_{yy} + \varepsilon_{zz} \tag{1.25}$$

also:
$$\frac{1}{\mathcal{V}}\frac{d\mathcal{V}}{dt} = \operatorname{tr}\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{xx} + \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{yy} + \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}_{zz} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{u}$$
 (1.26)

It follows that
$$\frac{d\mathcal{V}}{dt} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{tr} \dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$
 (1.27)

1.1.4 Problems

1.1.4.1 Analysis of Simple Shear Flow

Simple shear flow is representative of the rate of deformation experienced in many practical situations. Homogeneous, simple planar shear flow is defined by the following velocity field:

$$u(y) = \dot{\gamma}y\left(\dot{\gamma} = \frac{U}{h}\right); \ v = 0; \ w = 0$$

where Ox is the direction of the velocity, Oxy is the shear plane, and planes parallel to Oxz are sheared surfaces; $\dot{\gamma}$ is the shear rate. Write down the expression for the tensor $\dot{\varepsilon}$ for this simple planar shear flow.

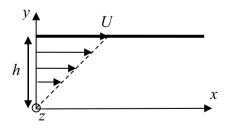


Figure 1.5 Flow between parallel plates

Solution

$$\dot{\mathbf{\epsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2}\dot{\gamma} & 0\\ \frac{1}{2}\dot{\gamma} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1.28}$$

1.1.4.2 Study of Several Simple Shear Flows

One can assume that any flow situation is locally simple shear if, at that given point, the rate-of-strain tensor is given by the above expression (Eq. (1.28)). Then show that all the following flows, encountered in practical situations, are locally simple shear flows. Obtain in each case the directions 1, 2, 3 (equivalent to x, y, z for planar shear) and the expression of the shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$ (use the expressions of $\dot{\epsilon}$ in cylindrical and spherical coordinates given in Appendix 1, see Section 1.4.1).

1.1.4.2.1 Flow between Parallel Plates (Figure 1.6)

The velocity vector components are u(y), v = 0, w = 0.

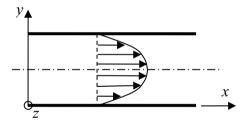


Figure 1.6 Flow between parallel plates

Solution

$$\dot{\mathbf{\epsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \frac{du}{dy} & 0\\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{du}{dy} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.29)

1.1.4.2.2 Flow in a Circular Tube (Figure 1.7)

The components of the velocity vector $\mathbf{u}(r,\theta,z)$ in a cylindrical frame are u=0, v=0, w=w(r).

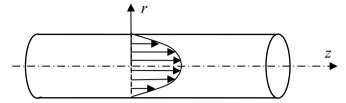


Figure 1.7 Flow in a circular tube

Solution

$$\dot{\mathbf{\varepsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \frac{dw}{dr} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{dw}{dr} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.30)

Directions 1, 2, and 3 are respectively z, r, and θ . The shear rate is $\dot{\gamma} = \frac{dw}{dr}$.

1.1.4.2.3 Flow between Two Parallel Disks

The upper disk is rotating at an angular velocity Ω_0 , and the lower one is fixed (Figure 1.8). The velocity field in cylindrical coordinates has the following expression:

$$\mathbf{u}(r, \theta, z) : u = 0, v(r, z), w = 0$$

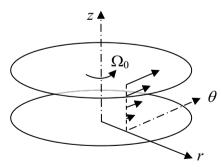


Figure 1.8 Flow between parallel disks

- (a) Show that the tensor $\dot{\epsilon}$ does not have the form defined in Section 1.1.4.1.
- (b) The sheared surfaces are now assumed to be parallel to the disks and rotate at an angular velocity $\Omega(z)$. Calculate v(r, z) and show that the tensor $\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}$ is a simple shear one.

Solution

(a)
$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} - \frac{v}{r} \right) & 0 \\
\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} - \frac{v}{r} \right) & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} \\
0 & \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} & 0
\end{bmatrix}$$
(1.31)

(b) If $v(r, z) = r\Omega(z)$, then $\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} - \frac{v}{r} = 0$ and $\dot{\mathbf{\epsilon}}$ is a simple shear tensor. The shear rate is $\dot{\gamma} = \frac{dv}{dz} = r\frac{d\Omega}{dz}$ and directions 1, 2, and 3 are θ , z, and r, respectively.

1.1.4.2.4 Flow between a Cone and a Plate

A cone of half angle θ_0 rotates with the angular velocity Ω_0 . The apex of the cone is on the disk, which is fixed (Figure 1.9). The sheared surfaces are assumed to be cones with the same axis and apex as the cone-and-plate system; they rotate at an angular velocity $\Omega(\theta)$.

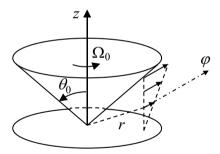


Figure 1.9 Flow in a cone-and-plate system

Solution

In spherical coordinates (r, θ, φ) , the velocity vector components are u = 0, v = 0, and $w = r \sin\theta \Omega(\theta)$.

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \sin\theta \frac{d\Omega}{d\theta} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \sin\theta \frac{d\Omega}{d\theta} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.32)

The shear rate is $\dot{\gamma} = \sin\theta \frac{d\Omega}{d\theta}$, and directions 1, 2, and 3 are φ , θ , and r, respectively.

1.1.4.2.5 Couette Flow

A fluid is sheared between the inner cylinder of radius R_1 rotating at the angular velocity Ω_0 and the outer fixed cylinder of radius R_2 (Figure 1.10). The components of the velocity vector $\mathbf{u}(r, \theta, z)$ in cylindrical coordinates are u = 0, v(r), and w = 0.

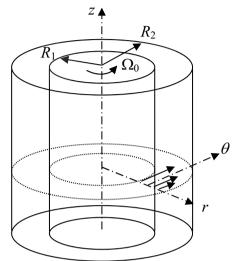


Figure 1.10 Couette flow

Solution

$$\dot{\mathbf{\epsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{dv}{dr} - \frac{v}{r} \right) & 0 \\
\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{dv}{dr} - \frac{v}{r} \right) & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}$$
(1.33)

The shear rate is $\dot{\gamma} = \frac{dv}{dr} - \frac{v}{r}$, and directions 1, 2, and 3 are θ , r, and z, respectively.

1.1.4.3 Pure Elongational Flow

A flow is purely elongational or extensional at a given point if the rate-of-strain tensor at this point has only nonzero components on the diagonal.

1.1.4.3.1 Simple Elongation

An incompressible parallelepiped specimen of square section is stretched in direction x (Figure 1.11). Then $\dot{\alpha} = \frac{1}{l} \frac{dl}{dt}$ is called the elongation rate in the x-direction. Write down the expression of $\dot{\mathbf{\epsilon}}$.

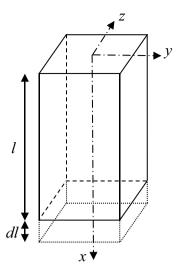


Figure 1.11 Deformation of a specimen in elongation

Solution

Assuming a homogeneous deformation, the velocity vector is $\mathbf{u} = (u(x), v(y), w(z))$ and

$$\frac{du}{dx} = \dot{\alpha} = \frac{1}{l} \frac{dl}{dt} \tag{1.34}$$

The sample section remains square during the deformation, so $\frac{dv}{dy} = \frac{dw}{dz}$. Incompressibility implies $\dot{\alpha} + 2\frac{dv}{dy} = 0$. Therefore, $\frac{dv}{dy} = \frac{dw}{dz} = -\frac{\dot{\alpha}}{2}$ and

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\alpha} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{\dot{\alpha}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{\dot{\alpha}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (1.35)

1.1.4.3.2 Biaxial Stretching: Bubble Inflation

The inflation of a bubble of radius R and thickness e small compared to R is considered in Figure 1.12.

- a) Write the rate-of-strain components in the r, θ, φ directions.
- b) Write the continuity equation for an incompressible material and integrate it.
- c) Show the equivalence between the continuity equation and the volume conservation.

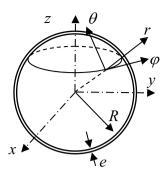


Figure 1.12 Bubble inflation

Solution

(a) The bubble is assumed to remain spherical and to deform homogeneously so that the shear components are zero. The rate-of-strain components are as follows:

■ In the thickness (r) direction:
$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{rr} = \frac{1}{e} \frac{de}{dt}$$

• In the
$$\theta$$
-direction: $\dot{\varepsilon}_{\theta\theta} = \frac{1}{2\pi R} \frac{d(2\pi R)}{dt} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{dt}$

• In the
$$\varphi$$
-direction:
$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{\varphi\varphi} = \frac{1}{2\pi R \sin\theta} \frac{d(2\pi R \sin\theta)}{dt} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{dR}{dt}$$

(b) For an incompressible material, $\frac{1}{e}\frac{de}{dt} + \frac{2}{R}\frac{dR}{dt} = 0$, which can be integrated to obtain $R^2e = \mathrm{cst}$.

(c) This is equivalent to the global volume conservation: $4\pi R^2 e = 4\pi R_0^2 e_0$.

■ 1.2 Stresses and Force Balances

1.2.1 Stress Tensor

1.2.1.1 Phenomenological Definitions

1.2.1.1.1 Extension (or Compression) (Figure 1.13)

An extension force applied on a cylinder of section S induces a normal stress σ_n = F/S.



Figure 1.13 Stress in extension

1.2.1.1.2 Simple Shear (Figure 1.14)

A force tangentially applied to a surface *S* yields a shear stress $\tau = F/S$.

The units of the stresses are those of pressure: pascals (Pa).

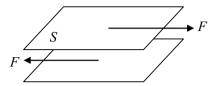


Figure 1.14 Stress in simple shear

1.2.1.2 Stress Vector

Let us consider, in a more general situation, a surface element dS in a continuum. The part of the continuum located on one side of dS exerts on the other part a force dF. As the interactions between both parts of the continuum are at small distances, the stress vector T at a point O on this surface is defined as the limit:

$$\mathbf{T} = \lim_{dS \to 0} \frac{d\mathbf{F}}{dS} \tag{1.36}$$

At point O, the normal to the surface is defined by the unit vector, \mathbf{n} , in the outward direction, as illustrated in Figure 1.15.

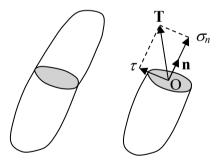


Figure 1.15 Stress applied to a surface element

The stress components can be obtained from projections of the stress vector:

- Projection on \mathbf{n} : $\sigma_n = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ where σ_n is the normal stress (in extension, $\sigma_n > 0$; in compression, $\sigma_n < 0$).
- Projection on the surface: τ is the shear stress.

1.2.1.3 Stress Tensor

The stress vector cannot characterize the state of stresses at a given point since it is a function of the orientation of the surface element, that is, of **n**. Thus, a tensile force induces a stress on a surface element perpendicular to the orientation of the force, but it induces no stress on a parallel surface element (Figure 1.16).

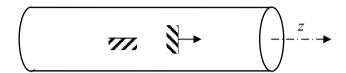


Figure 1.16 Stress vector and surface orientation

The state of stresses is in fact characterized by the relation between \mathbf{T} and \mathbf{n} and, as we will see, this relation is tensorial. Let us consider an elementary tetrahedron OABC along the axes Oxyz (Figure 1.17): the x, y, and z components of the unit normal vector to the ABC plane are the ratios of the surfaces OAB, OBC, and OCA to ABC:

$$n_x = \frac{OBC}{ABC}$$
 $n_y = \frac{OCA}{ABC}$ $n_z = \frac{OAB}{ABC}$

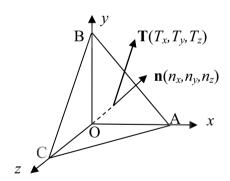


Figure 1.17 Stresses exerted on an elementary tetrahedron

Let us define the components of the stress tensor in the following table:

Projection on	of the stress vector exerted on the face normal to			
	Ox	Oy	Oz	
Ox	$\sigma_{_{XX}}$	σ_{xy}	$\sigma_{_{X\!Z}}$	
Oy	$\sigma_{_{\!y\!x}}$	σ_{yy}	$\sigma_{_{\!y\!\scriptscriptstyle Z}}$	
Oz	$\sigma_{_{ZX}}$	$\sigma_{_{\!Z\!Y}}$	$\sigma_{_{\! extsf{ZZ}}}$	

The net surface forces acting along the three directions of the axes are as follows:

$$T_{x}(ABC) - \sigma_{xx}(OBC) - \sigma_{xy}(OAC) - \sigma_{xz}(OAB)$$

$$T_{y}(ABC) - \sigma_{yx}(OBC) - \sigma_{yy}(OAC) - \sigma_{yz}(OAB)$$

$$T_{z}(ABC) - \sigma_{zx}(OBC) - \sigma_{zy}(OAC) - \sigma_{zz}(OAB)$$

with OA, OB, OC being of the order of d; the surfaces OAB, OBC, and OCA are of the order of d^2 ; and the volume OABC is of the order of d^3 . The surface forces are of the order of Td^2 and the volume forces of the order of Fd^3 (e.g., $F = \rho g$ for the gravitational force per unit volume).

When the dimension d of the tetrahedron tends to zero, the volume forces become negligible compared with the surface forces, and the net forces, as expressed above, are equal to zero. Hence, in terms of the components of \mathbf{n} :

$$T_{x} = \sigma_{xx} n_{x} + \sigma_{xy} n_{y} + \sigma_{xz} n_{z}$$

$$T_{y} = \sigma_{yx} n_{x} + \sigma_{yy} n_{y} + \sigma_{yz} n_{z}$$

$$T_{z} = \sigma_{zx} n_{x} + \sigma_{zy} n_{y} + \sigma_{zz} n_{z}$$

$$(1.37)$$

This result can be written in tensorial notation as

$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{n} \tag{1.38}$$

where σ is the stress tensor, which contains three normal components and six shear components defined for the three axes. As in the case of the strain, the state of the stresses is described by a tensor.

1.2.1.4 Isotropic Stress or Hydrostatic Pressure

The hydrostatic pressure translates into a stress vector that is in the direction of \mathbf{n} for any orientation of the surface:

$$\mathbf{T} = -p\mathbf{n} \tag{1.39}$$

The corresponding tensor is proportional to the unit tensor **I**:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} -p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -p \end{bmatrix} = -p\mathbf{I} \tag{1.40}$$

1.2.1.5 Deviatoric Stress Tensor

For any general state of stresses, the pressure can be defined in terms of the trace of the stress tensor as

$$p = -\frac{1}{3}\operatorname{tr}\mathbf{\sigma} = -\frac{\sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy} + \sigma_{zz}}{3}$$
 (1.41)

The pressure is independent of the axes since the trace of the stress tensor is an invariant (see Appendix 2, see Section 1.4.2). It could be positive (compressive state) or relatively negative (extensive state, possibly leading to cavitation problems in a liquid).

The stress tensor can be written as a sum of two terms, the pressure term and a traceless stress term, called the deviatoric stress tensor σ' :

$$\mathbf{\sigma} = -p\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{\sigma}' \tag{1.42}$$

Examples

• *Uniaxial extension* (or compression):

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow p = -\frac{\sigma_{11}}{3}, \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}' = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2\sigma_{11}}{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{\sigma_{11}}{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{\sigma_{11}}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$
(1.43)

• *Simple shear* under a hydrostatic pressure *p*:

$$\mathbf{\sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} -p & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & -p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -p \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{\sigma}' = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \tau & 0 \\ \tau & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(1.44)$$

More generally, we will see that the stress tensor can be decomposed into an isotropic arbitrary part denoted as $p'\mathbf{I}$, and a tensor called the extra-stress tensor σ' . The expressions of the constitutive equations in Chapter 2 will use either the deviatoric part of the stress tensor σ' for viscous behaviors or the extra-stress tensor σ' for viscoelastic behaviors (in this case, σ' is no longer a deviator, and p' is not the hydrostatic pressure).

1.2.2 Equation of Motion

1.2.2.1 Force Balances

Considering an elementary volume of material with a characteristic dimension *d*:

- The surface forces are of the order of d^2 , but the definition of the stress tensor is such that their contribution to a force balance is nil.
- The volume forces (gravity, inertia) are of the order of d^3 , and they must balance the derivatives of the surface forces, which are also of the order of d^3 .

We will write that the resultant force is nil (Figure 1.18).

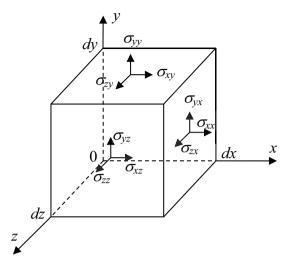


Figure 1.18 Balance of forces exerted on a volume element

The forces acting on a volume element dx dy dz are the following:

- The mass force (generally gravity): F dx dy dz
- The inertial force: $\rho \gamma dx dy dz = \rho (d\mathbf{u}/dt) dx dy dz$
- The net surface force exerted by the surroundings in the *x*-direction: $[\sigma_{xy}(x+dx) \sigma_{yy}(x)] dydz + [\sigma_{yy}(y+dy) \sigma_{yy}(y)] dzdx + [\sigma_{xz}(z+dz) \sigma_{yz}(z)] dxdy$

and similar terms for the *y* and *z*-directions.

Dividing by dx dy dz and taking the limits, we obtain for the x, y, and z components:

$$F_{x} - \rho \gamma_{x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{xz}}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$F_{y} - \rho \gamma_{y} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{yx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{yy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{yz}}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$F_{z} - \rho \gamma_{z} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{zx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{zy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \sigma_{zz}}{\partial z} = 0$$

$$(1.45)$$

The derivatives of σ_{ij} are the components of a vector, which is the divergence of the tensor σ . Equation (1.45) may be written as

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{\sigma} + \mathbf{F} - \rho \, \gamma = 0 \tag{1.46}$$

This is the equation of motion, also called the dynamic equilibrium. It is often convenient to express the stress tensor as the sum of the pressure and the deviatoric stress:

$$-\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{\sigma}' + \mathbf{F} - \rho \gamma = 0 \tag{1.47}$$

1.2.2.2 Torque Balances

Let us consider a small volume element of linear dimension d; the mass forces of the order of d^3 induce torques of the order of d^4 . There is no mass torque, which would result in torques of the order of d^3 (as in the case of a magnetic medium). Finally, the surface forces of the order of d^2 induce torques of the order of d^3 , so only the net torque resulting from these forces must be equal to zero.

If we consider the moments about the *z*-axis (Figure 1.19), only the shear stresses σ_{xy} and σ_{yx} on the upper (U) and lateral (L) surfaces of the element dx dy dz lead to torques. They are obtained by taking the following vector products:

$$\sigma_{xy}: \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ dy \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{xy} dx dz \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -\sigma_{xy} dx dy dz \end{pmatrix}$$
 (1.48)

$$\sigma_{yx}: \begin{pmatrix} dx \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \sigma_{yx} dy dz \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \sigma_{yx} dx dy dz \end{pmatrix}$$
 (1.49)

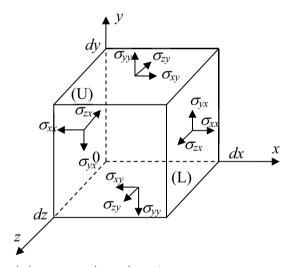


Figure 1.19 Torque balance on a volume element

A torque balance, in the absence of a mass torque, yields $\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_{yx}$. In a similar way, $\sigma_{yz} = \sigma_{zy}$ and $\sigma_{zx} = \sigma_{xz}$. The absence of a volume torque then implies the symmetry of the stress tensor. Therefore, as for the strain tensor ε , the stress tensor has only six independent components (three normal and three shear components).

Subject Index

Symbol3D calculations 290, 401, 459, 468, 489, 544

activation energy 115, 142 adiabatic 185 adiabatic regime 205, 211, 215, 226, 227 air ring 661 approximation methods 257 Arrhenius equation 115, 267, 674, 720 asymptotic stability 775 average residence time 345, 475

B
Bagley corrections 110,
119, 748
barrier screws 336
Barr screw 339
biaxial extensional
viscosity 641
biaxial stretching 640,
663, 692
Bingham model 68
Biot number 201, 712

birefringence 136, 739, 764 blowing pressure 681, 690,694 blow molding 679, 681 blow-up ratio 663, 664, 721, 792, 804 Brewster coefficient 136, 294 Brinkman number 204, 214, 329 Bubble geometry 675 bulk temperature 208

C calender 589 - bank 591, 614, 784 calendering 587 defects 781 Cameron 213 capillary number 482 capillary rheometer 108 Carreau model 50 Carreau-Yasuda model 52, 69 cast film 642, 791, 799 Cauchy tensor 5 C-chamber 435, 443, 452 centerline distance 438 chaotic defect 732, 767 characteristic curve 355, 455 chill roll 647 closure approximation 66 coalescence 484 coat-hanger die 380, 392, 405 coextrusion 408, 416 defects 770 Cogswell method 135, 767 coinjection 567 Cole-Cole plot 128 complex modulus 80, 126 complex viscosity 69, 80, 128 compounding 488 compressibility 549, 553, 751, 756 compression ratio 335 compression zone 304, 333, 348, 373 cone-and-plate rheometer 123, 164 confined flows 255 consistency 49 Constitutive equation 35, 52, 68, 92, 252, 253 continuity equation convected derivative 86, 158

196 convection convective stability 774, 776 cooling 190, 525, 558 - of films 711 - ring 669 Couette flow 12, 73, 168, 307 Couette Flow 44, 60, 101 Coulomb's law 310 counterpressure flow 344 Cox-Merz rule 128 critical draw ratio 789, 795, 798 critical shear rate 737, 752, 754, 765, 768 critical shear stress 784 critical stress 737, 742, 749, 754, 755, 767 Cross model 50 crystallization temperature 529, 552 cumulative strain 492

D damping function 93 Deborah number 88. 254, 630, 652, 674, 709, 798 deformation or strain tensor 4 delay zone 322, 324 deviatoric stress tensor 17 direct numerical simulation 778 dispersive mixing 488, 492 dissipated power 179 488, distributive mixing dog-bone defect 642, 802

drawing force 634, 665, 666
drawing instabilities 789
draw ratio 619, 621, 642, 664, 789
draw resonance 789
dynamic equilibrium 19, 26, 28
dynamic mixer 359

eigenvalue 776, 796, 804 Einstein equation 61 elastic dumbbell 89, 149 elongational rates elongational rheometer 132 elongational viscosity 34, 87, 103, 131 emissivity 188, 243, 636, 713 encapsulation 409 energy balance 634, 655 energy balance equation 606 energy equation 182, 183, 184, 252, 290 entanglement 50, 89, 739, 741, 752, 755 enthalpy of crystallization 184 equation of motion 18 equilibrium regime 205, 207, 215 exit pressure 120 extrudate swell 72, 83 extrusion blow molding 679,681 extrusion defects 731 Eyring theory 142

F feedblock 416 feeding 309 – zone 303 fiber 63, 569 - spinning 619, 789, 795 filled polymers 60 filling 522, 526 - ratio 437, 477 film-blowing 661, 792, 803 - die 378, 383, 408 film shrinkage 655 finger strain tensor 93 finite difference methods finite element 611, 614, 693 finite elements method 283, 287 fixed-point method 284 flat die 380, 392, 416 flight angle 304, 440 flow birefringence force balance 252 forced convection 188, 232, 239, 242, 635, 661, 669, 712 fountain flow 534 Fourier's law 178 free convection 188, 232, 235, 237 free surface flows 255 free volume 148 freezing line 671, 674 - height 662, 722 frequency sweep 126 friction coefficient 310, 324 Froude number 38

G Galerkin method 283, 290 gas-assisted injection molding 564	interface instability 773 interfacial tension 482 internal energy 177, 690 internal pressure 666, 680	longitudinal flow 343 loss modulus 80 lubrication approximations 259, 295, 297, 540, 553, 592, 594
glass transition 116 Graetz number 213 Grashof number 235 grooved barrel 319 H	interpenetration zone 438, 442, 454 intrinsic viscosity 62 iterative method 285, 293	M Maillefer screw 338 mass balance 252 master curve 117, 128 material derivative 177
heat capacity 181, 189 heat flux 178 heat penetration thickness 193	J Jauman derivative 94, 160 Jeffery equation 65	matteness defect 781, 783 Maxwell model 75, 85, 95
heat transfer boundary conditions 256 heat transfer coefficient	Johnson and Segalman model 94	mechanical-thermal coupling 220 melt fracture 731
185, 200, 214, 232, 237, 242, 246, 460, 471, 478, 635, 712	K Kelvin-Voigt model 76 kinematics boundary	melting mechanism 323, 368 melting model 328, 335
Hele-Shaw Approximations 260 Hele-Shaw equation	conditions 255 kinematic viscosity 36 kneading disk 436, 447,	melting rate 328 melting zone 303, 322, 437, 447
262, 282, 541, 553 helical defect 732, 734, 759	461, 508 Krieger-Dougherty equation 62, 451	melt pool 322, 325, 366, 447 membrane 681, 686, 697
Herschel-Bulkley model 68 holding phase 523, 548 hydrodynamics bearings	L laser doppler velocimetry 140, 743, 753	hypothesis 673model 644, 646memory function 93
272 hydrostatic pressure 17	left-handed screw element 444, 447, 453, 457, 461 length stretch 489	meshing 287 mixing elements 359, 460
I incompressible materials 8 inflation time 683	level-set 544 linear domain 126 linear stability 795, 800, 804	molecular weight 89, 144, 503, 737, 742, 747, 750, 755, 758 Mooney method 122,
injection cycle 522, 524 injection-molding machine 521	linear viscoelasticity 75, 108, 132 lodge model 92	761 multicavity mold 523, 575

Ν nanocomposite 70, 492 Navier-Stokes equation 26, 28, 38 neck-in 642, 800 Newtonian behavior 33,52 Newtonian plateau 48 Newton method 285 no-flow temperature 529 normal stress difference 81, 120, 124, 130, 767, 770 Nusselt number 183, 201, 214, 233, 235, 240, 265, 353, 460, 478, 606, 635, 712 0 optimization 357, 364, 506 orientation tensor

Oldroyd-B model 93, 693
Oldroyd derivative 86, 159
optimization 357, 364,
506
orientation tensor 64, 94
oscillating defect 732,
745, 769
oscillatory shear 126,
130, 494
overheating 359, 371,
388, 390, 395

p packing 524, 548, 549 pancake die 409 parallel-plate rheometer 130 parison 679, 686 particulate models 320 Peclet number 191, 206, 290 Phan-Thien Tanner model 94

phase angle 126 physical properties - of air 238 - of water 238 pipe die 379, 388 polymer blends 481 polymerization 503, 507 polymer processing aids 742 pom-pom model 91, 293 postextrusion calendering 610 Power law 49, 52 - index 49, 54, 393 Prandtl number 235, 239, 713 preform 680, 695 pressure-dependent coefficient 118 pressure flow 40, 53, 56, 71, 168 pressure hole 120 pressure oscillations 745, 750 principal stress difference 294 profile die 381, 399 pumping zone 303, 339, 364, 373 pure shear 2 PVT 524, 551

R
Rabinowitsch correction
111, 162
radiation 188, 242
radiative heat transfer 636
rate-of-strain tensor 6,
26, 27
Rayleigh bearing 273,
275, 344

Rayleigh instability 482 234 Rayleigh number reactive extrusion 499 relaxation time 74, 88, 90, 125, 129 reptation 90 residence time distribution 345, 473 residual stresses 558 resistances 186 restrictive elements 437 Reynolds bearing 273, 277 Reynolds equation 260, 277, 348, 388, 594, 602, 606 Rheo-optics 135 right-handed screw element 437, 452, 457 rocket defect 783, 786 roll bending 590, 608 roller bearing 274, 592 Rouse model 89

S scale-up 506 screw pitch 304, 440 separating force 597, 608 shape factor 64, 347, 455 sharkskin defect 732-734, 769 shear rates 6 shear-thinning 48, 50, 601, 603 shift factor 114, 116 shooting method 629, 709 shrinkage 525, 548, 554, 558 simple shear 8, 24, 33, 35, 39, 44, 53, 55, 59, 81, 95, 168

single-screw extruder 303 slab method 281, 637 slender body theory 263 slender thread approximation 623 slip velocity 599 slit die rheometer 119 solids conveying zone 445 specific heat 181 specific mechanical energy (SME) 450, 495 spread height 592, 594, 603 staggering angle 466, 468 stanton number 797 static mixer 359 Stefan-Boltzmann constant 188, 242 stick-slip 732, 733, 745, 752, 755 storage modulus 80 strain 1 hardening 132 - recovery 74, 78 stream function 614 streamlines 597 stress 14 relaxation 78 - retardation 74, 78 - tensor 16 - vector 15 stretch blow molding 680, 692 stretching force 623, 630, 632 suspension 61

Т 552 Tait T-die 403 temperature field 656 thermal conductivity 178 thermal contact resistance 206, 533, 554 thermal diffusivity 189, thermal effusivity 189, 195 thermal regime 204 thickness distribution 696 thickness recovery 592, 612 thick shell 681 thin flow 540, 553 thin layer flows thin-shell assumption 646,653 three-layer flow 423 time-temperature superposition 114, 127 transition regime 205, 213 transverse flow 341 Trouton behavior 36, 132 Trouton equation 264, 628 twin-screw extruder 433 two-layer flow 411, 420, 425 two-stage extruder 359 U unattainable zone 630, 651, 674, 801

uniaxial extension

36

velocity-gradient tensor 25, 27 velocity profiles viscoelastic computations 292 viscometric functions 81, 86, 121, 165 viscosity 33, 34, 36, 48, 109, 119, 142 viscous dissipation 180, 604,636 volume defects 733, 759, 769 vorticity 615 V-shaped defect 782, 784

V

W

wall slip 121, 741–743, 749, 754, 761, 768
water-assisted injection molding 566
weight-averaged total strain 346
Weissenberg effect 73, 82
Weissenberg number 88, 254, 778, 780
wire-coating die 381, 395
WLF equation 116

Y yield stress 68, 494