



Composition of polystyrene determined by IR spectroscopy

Ioana Stanciu

Department of Physical Chemistry, Faculty of Chemistry, University of Bucharest, Bucharest, Romania

Abstract

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) is a fundamental analytical technique for characterizing the chemical structure of polymers, including polystyrene. Spectroscopic analysis reveals the presence of specific absorption bands, which confirm the existence of aromatic phenyl units attached to the polymer chain. The characteristic spectrum of polystyrene highlights the following main regions: 3100–3000 cm^{-1} (aromatic C–H stretching vibrations), 3000–2850 cm^{-1} (aliphatic C–H stretching vibrations), 1600–1490 cm^{-1} (aromatic ring C=C stretching bands), 1450–1370 cm^{-1} (C–H bending vibrations), 1025–1000 cm^{-1} (in-plane C–H vibrations) and 750–690 cm^{-1} (monosubstituted C–H out-of-plane deformation bands). These spectral signatures confirm the chemical structure of polystyrene and allow its differentiation from other styrene-based polymers or copolymers. At the same time, FTIR is a useful tool not only for material identification, but also for monitoring degradation, oxidation or chemical functionalization processes, providing relevant information in the field of materials science and polymer recycling.

Keywords: chemical composition, polystyrene, IR spectroscopy

Introduction

Polystyrene is a polymeric material, slightly transparent, amorphous or partially crystalline, thermally processable (thermoplastic). It is not an electrical conductor. It is made from styrene monomer, a simpler liquid hydrocarbon obtained from petroleum. Polystyrene is one of the most widespread types of plastic, with a (significant) global consumption of billions of kilograms per year.

Characteristics: solid at room temperature, processable by heating (thermoplastic), has a softening temperature of approximately 100 °C and returns to the solid state upon cooling, is used as an industrial (construction) material in solid or spongy (spongy) form [1-5].

The density of polystyrene is a measure of its mass per unit volume, usually expressed in kilograms per cubic meter (kg/m^3). Essentially, the density indicates how compacted the polystyrene granules are in a given volume. The higher the density of polystyrene, the better the material will have a thermal insulating capacity. A denser polystyrene has fewer air spaces between the granules, thus reducing heat transfer. Density also influences the mechanical strength of polystyrene. A high-density polystyrene will be more resistant to compression and other mechanical stresses. For example, a high-density polystyrene is more suitable for use in applications that require structural support, such as under a concrete screed or under floors. High-density polystyrene is usually more dimensionally stable and more durable over time, being less susceptible to compression and deformation.

Types of expanded polystyrene

EPS is the abbreviation for Expanded Polystyrene, and the number indicates its quality.

EPS 50: Density: Approximately 10-15 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 50 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Thermal insulation for roofs, facades and external walls, where high mechanical strength is not required.

EPS 70: Density: Approximately 15-20 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 70 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Thermal and acoustic insulation for walls, floors and roofs, with a lower load-bearing capacity.

EPS 80: Density: Approximately 18-20 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 80 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Insulation for walls, floors and roofs, offering a balance between thermal performance and mechanical resistance.

EPS 100: Density: Approximately 20-25 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 100 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Insulation for floors, roofs and walls requiring moderate mechanical resistance.

EPS 120: Density: Approximately 25-30 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 120 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Floors, terraces, basement walls or other surfaces requiring higher compressive strength.

EPS 150: Density: Approximately 30-35 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 150 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Insulation for foundations, under floors with heavy traffic, or in applications where a high load-bearing capacity is required.

EPS 200: Density: Approximately 35-40 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 200 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Industrial floors, floating screeds, or other structural applications where very high mechanical strengths are required.

EPS 250: Density: Approximately 40-45 kg/m^3 Compressive strength: 250 kPa at 10% deformation Applications: Infrastructure projects or constructions that require extremely high compressive strength [6-12]. In construction, the quality of polystyrene must be at least EPS100

Materials and methods

Styrene (C₈H₈, chemically pure) was alternately washed six times with 0.1 mol/L NaOH and deionized water in order to remove the polymerization inhibitor.

Apparatus used were Fourier Transform Infrared (Perkin Elmer FT-IR Spectrophotometer Frontier).



Fig.1: Perkin Elmer FT-IR Spectrophotometer

Results and discussions

Figure 2 illustrates the infrared absorption spectra of the polystyrene spheres whose average particle size is about 560 nm. Obviously, there are several absorption peaks within the involved wavenumber range. There are absorption peaks at the wave numbers of 3060.8 cm⁻¹ and 3026.0 cm⁻¹ due to aromatic C-H stretching vibration absorption and there are three absorption peaks at the wave numbers of 1600.8 cm⁻¹, 1492.7 cm⁻¹, and 1452.2 cm⁻¹ due to aromatic C=C stretching vibration absorption. These absorption peaks indicate the existence

of benzene rings. The absorption peaks at the wave numbers of 756.0 cm⁻¹ and 698.2 cm⁻¹ correspond to C-H out-of-plane bending vibration absorption and indicate that there is only one substituent in the benzene ring. Figure 2 also shows the absorption peaks at the wave numbers of 2921.9 cm⁻¹ and 2848.6 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the existence of methylenes.

These IR results have confirmed that the styrene reacts to produce polystyrene through polymerization reaction. In addition, the absorption peaks at the wave number of 3446.5 cm⁻¹ is for the stretching vibration absorption of O-H, which indicates the existence of hydroxyl. The hydroxyl may come from water or hydrolysis of strong acid weak alkali salt such as sodium p-styrenesulfonate, potassium hydrogen carbonate [13-19].

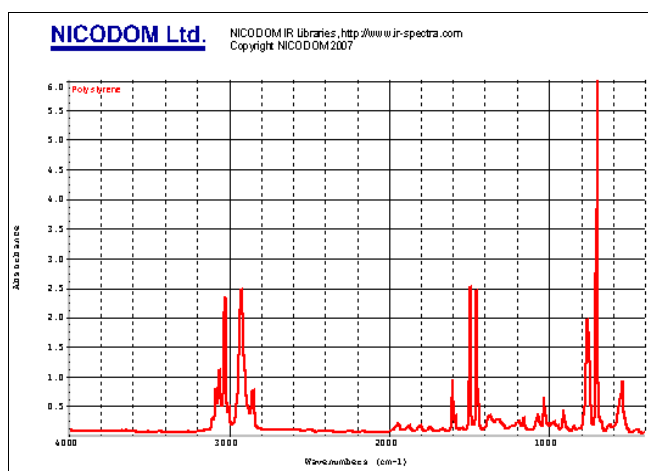


Fig.2: Spectrul IR al polistirenului

Conclusions

FTIR spectroscopic analysis confirmed the specific chemical structure of polystyrene by identifying bands characteristic of both the aromatic chain and the aliphatic segments. The presence of aromatic C-H stretching vibrations (3100–3000 cm⁻¹), of the C=C bands of the phenyl ring (1600–1490 cm⁻¹) and of the C-H “out of plane” deformations (750–690 cm⁻¹) constitute clear evidence of the existence of monosubstituted phenyl units attached to the polymer chain. Also, the aliphatic bands in the 3000–2850 cm⁻¹ region confirm the hydrocarbon structure of the polymer backbone. Therefore, FTIR proves to be an effective method for identifying polystyrene and differentiating it from other polymers, as well as for monitoring structural changes occurring following degradation, recycling or chemical functionalization processes.

Reference

1. Subagio A, Morita N. Food Chemistry. Food Chemistry,2003;81:97–102.
2. Dupont J, White PJ, Carpenter MP, Schaefer EJ, Meydani SN, Elson CE, *et al.* Journal of the American College of Nutrition. Journal of the American College of Nutrition,1990;9(5):438–470.
3. Veljković VB, Biberdžić MO, Banković-Ilić IB, Djalović IG, Tasi MB, Nježić ZB, *et al.* Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews,2018;91:531–548.
4. Beadle JB, Just DE, Morgan RE, Reiners RA. Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society. Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society,1965;42(2):90–95.
5. Strocchi A. Journal of Food Science. Journal of Food Science,1982;47(1):36–39.
6. Stanciu I. Rheological behaviour of biodegradable lubricant. Journal of Science and Arts,2019;3(48):703–708.
7. Stanciu I. Rheological investigation of soybean oil from soya beans. Journal of Science and Arts,2019;4(49):938–988.
8. Stanciu I. Modeling the temperature dependence of dynamic viscosity for rapeseed oil. Journal of Science and Arts,2011;1:55–58.
9. Meneghetti SMP, Meneghetti MR, Wolf CR, Silva EC, Lima GE, Coimbra MDA, *et al.* Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society. Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society,2006;83(9):819–822.
10. Stanciu I. Journal of Science and Arts. Journal of Science and Arts,2018;18(2):453–458.
11. Sheibani A, Ghotbaddini-Bahraman NA, Sadeghi F. Oriental Journal of Chemistry. Oriental Journal of Chemistry,2014;30(3):1205–1209.
12. Stanciu I. Some methods for determining the viscosity index of hydraulic oil. Indian Journal of Science & Technology,2023;16(4):254–258.
13. Stanciu I. Rheological behavior of corn oil at different viscosity and shear rate. Oriental Journal of Chemistry,2023;39(2):335–339.
14. Stanciu I. Rheological characteristics of corn oil used in biodegradable lubricant. Oriental Journal of Chemistry,2023;39(3):592–595.
15. Stanciu I. Effect of temperature on rheology of corn (Zea mays) oil. Oriental Journal of

- Chemistry,2023:39(4):1068–1070.
16. Stanciu I. Study Rheological Behavior of Rapeseed oils Compared to Mineral oil. *Oriental Journal of Chemistry*,2021:37(1):247–249.
 17. Stanciu I. Influence of Temperature on the Rheological Behavior of Orange Honey. *Oriental Journal of Chemistry*,2021:37(2):440–443.
 18. Hunsom M, Saila P, Chaiyakam P, Kositnan W. *International Journal of Renewable Energy Research*, 2013, 3(2).
 19. Catterick J, Thornton P. *Adv Inorg Chem and Radio Chem*. *Adv Inorg Chem and Radio Chem*, 1977, 20.