

Synthesis and characterisation of bio-based polyester materials from vegetable oil and short to long chain dicarboxylic acids

Maëlle Gobin, Patrick Loulergue, Jean-Luc Audic, Loïc Lemiègre

► To cite this version:

Maëlle Gobin, Patrick Loulergue, Jean-Luc Audic, Loïc Lemiègre. Synthesis and characterisation of bio-based polyester materials from vegetable oil and short to long chain dicarboxylic acids. Industrial Crops and Products, Elsevier, 2015, 70, pp.213-220. <10.1016/j.indcrop.2015.03.041>. <hal-01134645>

HAL Id: hal-01134645 https://hal-univ-rennes1.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-01134645

Submitted on 11 Mar 2016

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Synthesis and characterisation of bio-based polyester materials
2	from vegetableoil and short to long chain dicarboxylic acids.
3	Maëlle Gobin, ^{a,b} Patrick Loulergue, ^{a,b} Jean-Luc Audic, ^{*a,b} and Loïc Lemiègre ^{*a,b}
4	
5	a) Ecole Nationale Supérieure de Chimie de Rennes, CNRS, UMR 6226, 11 allée de Beaulieu, CS 50837, 35708
6	Rennes Cedex 7, France.
7	b) Université Européenne de Bretagne, France.
8	[*] Corresponding author. Tel. : +33 223238160 ; Fax. +33 223238199
9	E-mail adress: jean-luc.audic@univ-rennes1.fr
10	

11 Abstract

12 Polyester-type polymers were efficiently prepared from broccoli seed oil and 13 severalcarboxylic diacids. The polyesters were prepared through a simple two-step 14 process including oxidation of the insaturations to oxiranes followed by ring opening 15 with dicarboxylic acids under basic conditions. Eight polymer materials derived from 16 different fatty diacids (from 5C to 16C) and an aromatic diacid were prepared and 17 characterised. Rubber-type crosslinked biobased materials exhibited low Tg values comprised between -5 and +5°C depending on the diacid type and length. These 18 materials could find applications as they are or as plasticizer when blended with other 19 20 polymers.

21 *Keywords*: Bio-based polyesters; epoxidation; epoxidized vegetable oil; broccoli seed oil

22 **1. Introduction**

The production of bio-based material is an increasing field of research that aims to replace non-renewable sourced polymers.(Belgacem and Gandini, 2008; Biermann et al., 2011; Chernykh et al., 2013; Meier, 2014; Meier et al., 2007; Montero de Espinosa 26 and Meier, 2011; Mutlu and Meier, 2010; Stempfle et al., 2014; Xia et al., 2013) Vegetable 27 oils are remarkable renewableresourcesparticularly abundant and cheap. Among them 28 soybean oil is the subject of numerous research topics dealing with applications in 29 polymer material. Indeed, soybean oil finds applications as lubricant, plasticizer or as 30 other types of additives for polymer materials.(Altuna et al., 2011; Chernykh et al., 2013; 31 Montero de Espinosa et al., 2014)Few examples describe also the use of vegetable oil for 32 the preparation of polymer material through direct polymerisation of modified 33 oils.(Maisonneuve et al., 2013; Stemmelen et al., 2011; Tan and Chow, 2010; Winkler 34 and Meier, 2014; Yang et al., 2014)Usually, strategies developed so far for 35 polymerisation of soybean or linseed oils involved multistep triglyceride modification 36 ended by the key polymerisation step. (Biermann et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2013; Stempfle et 37 al., 2014)The most promisingstrategies involve shorter processes mainly based on 38 anhydride-curing(España et al., 2012; Espinoza-Perez et al., 2011; Ručigaj et al., 2014; 39 Samper et al., 2012) or acid-curing(Shogren et al., 2004; Shogren, 1999) of epoxidised 40 vegetable oil. The present researchwork focuses on this field with threemain goals: 1) 41 Finding new non-food applications for vegetable oils, 2) Developing apolymerisation process leading topotentially biodegradable(Shogren et al., 2004; Shogren, 1999; Yang 42 43 et al., 2014)polyester-type materialscompatible with the use ofcuring agents of various 44 structures and 3) Determine the influence of the structure of the curing agent used in 45 the polymerisation process. Our choice towards broccoli seed oil (BO) showed up 46 several advantages. This oil is a by-productproducedbyan extraction process of the food 47 complement industry.(Audic et al., 2014)Its production is actually about 2 tons per year but it could rapidly increase up to 20 tons per year in a near future. The broccoli seed oil 48 49 is useless for human food industries considering its high erucic acid content (39%). 50 Thus, there is no ethical issue to use such broccoli oil in non-food applications.Broccoli 51 seed oil is also particularly richin diunsaturated fatty chains such as linoleic and 52 linolenic acid (22%); in addition it contains an average of 3.9double bonds per 53 triglycerides as determined by NMR in a previous paper.(Audic et al., 2014)

54 The polymerisation process described hereafter involves a two-step procedure: a 55 classical oxidation of the double bonds to epoxides and crosslinking by epoxide-opening 56 with dicarboxylic diacids in basic media. Diacids were preferred to anhydrides because 57 of their high availability at low cost and in various molecular structures. Indeed several 58 carboxylic diacids were evaluated, 7 fatty diacids (C5, C6, C8, C10, C12, C14, C16) and 1 59 aromatic diacid (o-phenylene diacetic acid). The efficiency of the chemical reaction 60 involved in the polyester synthesis, i. e. the ring opening reaction of oxirane with 61 carboxylic acid was confirmed by NMR and ATR-FTIR analyses.Corresponding polymer 62 materials were characterised by DMA (Dynamic Mechanical Analysis) demonstrating the 63 potential of these polyester materials and determining the influence of the nature of the diacid (length, structure). 64

65 **2. Material and methods.**

66 **2.1. Synthesis.**

All reagents and solvents were used directly from the supplier without further 67 68 purification unless noted. Nuclear magnetic resonance spectra were recorded at 400 69 MHz (¹H) and 100 MHz (¹³C). For CDCl₃ solutions, the chemical shifts (δ) are reported as 70 parts per million (ppm) referenced to the appropriate residual solvent peak. Coupling 71 constants are reported in Hertz (Hz). Data are reported as follows: chemical shift 72 (multiplicity, coupling constants where applicable, number of hydrogen atoms, 73 attribution). Abbreviations are as follows: *s* (singlet), *d* (doublet), *t* (triplet), *q* (quartet), dd (doublet of doublet), dt (doublet of triplet), m (multiplet), bs (broad singlet). The 74 NMR peak assignments were determined from 2D NMR experiments such as COSY, 75

HSQC, HMBC. Mass spectra were performed on a MS-ESI spectrometer and are reported
as m/z. Masses are reported for the molecular ion [M+Na]⁺.

78

2.1.1. Epoxidized Broccoli seed oil.

79 BO (300 g, 0.32 mol, 1 equiv.), toluene (1.4 L) and formic acid (24 mL, 0.64 mol, 2 80 equiv.) were mixed into a well-stirred reactor. Hydrogen peroxide (35% wt in water) 81 (143 mL, 1.91 mol, 6 equiv.) was added dropwise to the reaction mixture at 50°C. The 82 reaction mixture was kept at the same temperature and monitored by MS-ESI. After 25h, 83 the aqueous phase was extracted twice with toluene and the combined organic phases 84 were dried (MgSO₄). The solvent was then evaporated under reduced pressure affording the EBO (319 g, 99%). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz), δ (ppm) 0.79-1.01 (m, 9H, CH₃), 1.18-85 86 1.77 (m, 86H, CH₂), 2.22-2.27 (m, 6H, CH₂-C=O), 2.82-3.15 (m, 7.8H (3.9 epoxides 87 per/molecule), epoxides), 4.07 (dd, *J* = 5.9, 11.9 Hz, 2H, CH2-0), 4.22 (dd, *J* = 4.4, 11.9 Hz, 88 CH₂-O), 5.17-5.22 (m, 1H, CH-O); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃, 100 MHz), δ (ppm) 14.0 (CH₃), 22.6 89 (CH₂), 24.8 (CH₂), 26.6 (CH₂), 27.9 (CH₂), 28.9-29.7 (CH₂), 31.9 (CH₂), 34.0 (CH₂-C=O), 90 54.1 (epoxides), 56.7-57.2 (epoxides), 62.1 (CH₂-0), 68.9 (CH-0), 172.8-173.3 (C=0); 91 MS-ESI *m/z* [M+Na]⁺ : 927.8, 941.8, 955.8, 969.8, 983.8, 997.8, 1011.8, 125.8, 1039.8, 92 1053.8, 1067.9, 1081.9, 1095.8.

93

2.1.2. Reaction of EBO with benzoic acid.

EBO (1.0 g, 1.0 mmol, 1 equiv.) was dissolved in toluene (7 mL). Benzoic acid (244 mg, 2.0 mmol, 2 equiv.) and MeONa (5.4 mg, 0.1 mmol, 0.1 equiv.) were added and the reaction mixture was heated to 110° C. After 96h, AcOEt (10 mL) was added and the reaction mixture was washed with NaOH 1M (2x10 mL) and HCl 1M (10 mL). The organic phase was dried over MgSO₄ and the solvents were removed under reduced pressure. The product was obtained as a yellow oil (1.2 g) with a benzoic acid incorporation of 1.35 per molecule. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz), δ (ppm), 0.77-0.85 (*m*, 101 9H); 0.97-1.74 (m, 95H); 2.22-2.28 (m, 6H); 2.83-3.13 (m, 3.16H); 3.33-3.50 (m, 102 0.42H); 3.53-3.64 (*m*, 1.11H); 3.73-4.02 (*m*, 0.49H); 4.06 (*dd*, I=5.9Hz, I=11.6Hz, 2H); 103 4.21 (dd, J=4.4Hz, J=11.6Hz, 2H); 5.02 (m, 1.15H); 5.17 (p, J=5.2Hz, 1H); 5.40-5.49 (m, 104 0.36H); 7.38 (*t*, J=7.2Hz, 3.2H); 7.50 (*t*, J=7.2Hz, 1.6H); 7.98 (*d*, J=7.6Hz, 3.2H); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃, 100 MHz), δ (ppm) 14.2, 21.0, 22.5-22.7, 24.8, 25.3, 25.5, 26.6, 27.8, 29.0-29.7. 105 106 30.7, 31.8, 33.7, 34.0, 34.1, 54.2, 54.3, 57.2, 60.4, 62.1, 68.9, 72.7, 128.4, 129.7, 130.0, 107 133.0, 165.9, 166.4, 172.8, 173.3; MS-ESI m/z [M+Na]+ : 927.8, 941.8, 955.8. 969.8. 108 983.8, 997.8, 1011.8, 1025.8, 1039.8, 1049.8, 1053.8, 1063.8, 1067.9, 1077.8, 1081.8, 109 1091.8, 1095.8, 1105.8, 1119.8, 1133.8, 1147.8, 1161.8, 1171.8, 1175.8, 1185.8, 1189.8, 110 1199.8, 1203.8, 1213.8, 1217.8, 1227.8, 1241.8, 1255.8, 1283.8, 1297.8, 1311.8, 1325.8, 111 1339.8.

112

2.1.3. General Procedure for the reaction of EBO with diacid.

EBO (3.0 g, 3.0 mmol, 1 equiv.), diacid (6.0 mmol, 2 equiv.) and MeONa (16 mg, 0.3 mmol, 0.1 equiv.) were homogenised at 120°C or at the melting temperature of the diacid. The reaction mixture was poured into an aluminium mould. The aluminium mould was then kept at the same temperature into an oven for 16h. The sample was then characterised by ATR-FTIR and DMA.

- 118 **2.2. Characterisation of polymer materials**
- 119 2.2.1. **ATR-FTIR.**

For IR spectroscopy a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 100 system infrared spectrometer was used in attenuated total reflectance (ATR) mode using a DTGS detector (4 cm⁻¹ resolution) with the spectral range of 650–4000 cm⁻¹. In these measurements 15 scans were applied and the data were collected and analysed using the Spectrum ES 5.0 software. The sample is placed onto the surface of a diamond prism and the infrared radiation is collected after total reflection from the diamond–sample interface.

126 2.2.2. **DMA**.

127 The viscoelastic properties of the cured films were measured with a DMA 128 instrument (Q800, TA Instruments). Rectangular specimens, 18 mm in length, 13 mm in 129 width and 2 mm in thickness, were prepared. The measurements were taken in single 130 cantilever mode at a frequency of 1 Hz and at deformation amplitude of 20 μ m. The 131 temperature ranged from -100 to 100°C at scanning rate of 3°C.min⁻¹. The storage 132 modulus (E'), loss modulus (E'') and loss factor (tan δ) of the cured films were measured 133 as a function of the temperature.

134 **3. Results and discussion.**

135

3.1. Epoxidized broccoli seed oil (EBO)

136 The epoxidation of the broccoli seed oil (BO) has been described by our research 137 group in a previous paper. (Audic et al., 2014) It follows a classical procedure involving 138 the *in situ* formation of performic acid from formic acid and hydrogen peroxide that 139 carried out the epoxidation of the 3.9 double bonds of the triglyceride in toluene 140 (Scheme 1). We further optimised the oxidation process reducing the equivalencies of 141 hydrogen peroxide(6 equiv./BO) and catalytic formic acid (2 equiv./BO). The reaction 142 mixture is kept at 50°C for 24h to reach a complete epoxidation as demonstrated by MS 143 and NMR monitoring.

144 **3.2. Model reaction with a monoacid**

The so-formed epoxidised broccoli seed oil (EBO) was then ready to react with carboxylic acid functions through an epoxide-opening mechanism. This reaction was first evaluated with a monoacid model for establishing the best reaction conditions in terms of reactivity and reduction of side reactions. The EBO was put in reaction with benzoic acid in the presence of a catalyst at 100°C (Scheme 2). A bronsted acid (*p*toluene sulfonic acid, PTSA), a lewis acid (ZnCl₂) and a base (MeONa) were evaluated and the results are gathered in table 1. NMR analysis permitted to follow both theformation of the new ester bonds and the consumption of the epoxides.

153 When using 4 equivalents of benzoic acid, the bronsted acid gave in 4h (Entry 1) the best 154 conversion in ester derivative (0.40) compared to the lewis acid (Entry 2, 0.30) and the 155 MeONa (Entry 3, 0.20). Concerning the selectivity of the reaction, the sum of ester 156 functions formed and of the remaining epoxide should correspond to the original 157 number of epoxides (3.9) if the desired ester linkage formation is the sole reaction. 158 Otherwise all extra-consumed epoxides result from side reactions. This criterion in 159 mind, the ZnCl₂ is considered as the worst catalyst and MeONa as the best onepromoting 160 almost no side reaction. Increasing the reaction time to 24h (Entry 4, 5, 6) confirmed the 161 tendency of PTSA to perform side reactions instead of the formation of ester functions 162 both in the presence of 2 or 4 equivalents of benzoic acid. Finally MeONa was found to 163 favour the formation of ester linkages instead of other side reactions. The best results 164 were obtained with MeONa. The use of only 0.1 equiv. of catalyst in the presence of 2 165 equiv. of benzoic acid provided in 24h an average of ester functions of 1.35 (maximum of 166 2) and 2.58 remaining epoxides, corresponding to a conversion of 68%. It is noteworthy 167 that the catalytic amount of MeONa did not lead to methanolysis of the triglyceride as 168 observed on the ¹H NMR spectra (fig. 1). The acid-base reaction between MeONa and the 169 benzoic acid is in fact faster than the alcoholysis.

Side reactionswere noticed when using acidic catalysts. EBO dimers and trimers were observed on SEC chromatograms(data not shown). Their formation was correlated to the formation of ether linkages between triglycerides as determined by ¹H NMR experiments. Other research groups dealing with other epoxidized vegetable oils have already described such oligomerisation side reactions.(Shogren, 1999) Note that this acid promoted etherification is also observed in the absence of carboxylic acid. 176 Compared to these previous works, the reaction conditions described herein the
177 presence of catalytic MeONa provide an advantageous esterification process without
178 side reaction.

179

3.3. Crosslinking with glutaric acid as model dicarboxylic acid

The best reaction conditions obtained with benzoic acid were adapted to the crosslinking step with dicarboxylic acids (Scheme 3). Bulk type polymerisation was selected removing any solvent, homogenisation of the dicarboxylic acid and the MeONa within the EBO being enough to promote a homogeneous crosslinking of the triglycerides.

185 As a starting polymerisation experiment glutaric acid and EBOwere engaged. 186 Impacts of the reaction temperature (Table 2, Entries 1-6) and the diacid/EBO ratio 187 (Table 2, Entries 7-12) after 4 or 16h of heating were evaluated. Reaction mixtures 188 incorporating an EBO/glutaric acid molar ratio 1:2 (i.e. COOH/epoxide ratio 1:1) were 189 placed at 60, 80, 100, 120, 140, 160 °C in the presence of 0.1 equiv. of MeONa. After 4h, each sample presented different appearanceranging from colourless liquid to brown 190 191 hard materials. This study at variable temperature led to the following conclusions:the 192 reaction needs to be performed at temperature over 80°C and а 193 suitablepolymerisationin 4his obtained at 120°C, leading to a yellowish translucent 194 polymer. It is noteworthy that this temperature permitted to fully melt the glutaric acid 195 (Mp = 98°C) facilitating its homogenisation within the EBO. Obviously, the EBO/glutaric 196 acid ratio has also a profound impact on the final appearance of the polymers. At that 197 stage the reaction time was increased to 16h to assure as far as possible a complete 198 polymerisation. Too small quantities (0.25, 0.5 equiv., entries 7-8) of glutaric acid did 199 not provide sufficient crosslinking leading to liquid or partly gel-type materials. One 200 equivalent of diacid (entry 9) provided poor crosslinking and offered a brittle polymer 201 material. Excess of diacid (4 or 6 equiv., entries 11, 12) promoted unsatisfactory 202 crosslinking, the reaction led to a sticky polymer material (4 equiv.) and to a sticky paste 203 (6 equiv.). The excess of carboxylic acid functions limited the crosslinking process to 204 oligomers, keeping most of the acid function untouched. Two equivalents of glutaric acid 205 were finally the best EBO/diacid ratio affording a translucent yellowish polymer (Entry 206 10).

207 At a molecular level, ¹H NMR analysis were carried out for samples obtained with 208 0.5 equiv. of glutaric acid (Table 2, entry 8) the other sample (1, 2, 4, 6 equiv., entries 9-209 12) being insoluble in any common solvent tried (CHCl₃, THF, toluene...). The NMR data 210 confirmed both the formation of new ester linkages and subsequent alcohol functions 211 (new signals at 4.9 ppm and 3.5 ppm). It also demonstrated that the integrity of the 212 triglyceride structure is preserved. Quantitatively with 0.5 equiv. of diacid (1 COOH for 213 3.9 epoxides) we observed the formation of 0.74 (maximum of 1) new ester linkages and 214 2.6 remaining epoxides. The other reacted epoxides correspond to side reactions 215 identified by NMR to the formation of ether linkages (ring opening polymerisation of the 216 epoxide). After 16h of heating this side reaction is limited to only 0.56. Not observed for 217 the reaction carried out in solution (scheme 2) the formation of ether linkages is present 218 in bulk conditions. However, these reactions still have a lower rate compared to the 219 preferred polyester formation.

The results of the crosslinking step performed with 0.25 to 6 equivalents of glutaric acid (Entry 7-12) were also analysed by ATR-FTIR spectroscopy. The stacked spectra are shown in fig.2. Globally these spectra confirmed the results discussed above. In more details two regions are interesting to discuss 1) the signals related to the epoxide functions around 820 cm⁻¹ and 2) the signals related to the carbonyl groups between 1680 and 1750 cm⁻¹. Within the epoxide region, the poorly polymerised

226 material (0.25 equiv.) demonstrated the presence of residual epoxide functions, the 227 spectra being very similar to the original epoxidized oil. Increasing the number of 228 equivalent of diacid, the epoxide band disappears progressively until total 229 disappearance in the presence of 4 or 6 equivalents of diacid. Within the carbonyl region 230 (i.e. 1700 cm⁻¹), several bands are visible corresponding either to acid or ester functions. 231 Again this region is very similar to the EBO spectra for the material prepared with 0.25 232 equivalent of diacid. This band corresponds mainly to the ester function of the 233 triglyceride itself. Excess of diacid (4/6 equiv.) led to the appearance of a band at lower 234 wave numbers corresponding to residual carboxylic acid groups. The polymer material 235 obtained with 2 equiv. of glutaric acid presents two ester bands distinguished by 236 different intensities, which originate from the triglyceride and from the new ester 237 functions formed during the crosslinking process. Thus these ATR-FTIR analyses 238 confirmed the degree of polymerisation obtained as a function of the quantity of diacid 239 involved in the reaction. It also confirmed that our polymers correspond mainly to 240 polyester-type materials.

241

3.4. Crosslinking with different dicarboxylic acids

The best conditions determined for glutaric acid (2 equiv., 120°C, 0.1 equiv of MeONa) were then applied to longer carboxylic diacids (C5, C6, C8, C10, C12, C14, C16) and to o-phenylene diacetic acid (Scheme 3). The temperature of homogenisation was adjusted for each sample as a function of the melting point of each diacid and all polymerisation were carried out at 120°C for 16h (Table 3). Whatever the diacid used the polymerisation led to a yellowish translucent material (Fig.3) except for the aromatic derivative, which led to a brown translucent material.

All polyester materials were then characterised by DMA. Fig.4 showsrepresentative
temperature dependence of the storage modulus (E') and loss factor (tan δ) obtained

251 from the dynamic mechanical analyses (DMA, at a frequency of 1Hz) of networks 252 prepared in this work (EBO/glutaric acid polyester shown). The tan δ curve shows two 253 distinct peaks for all polyesters. The lower temperature peak, located at about –75°C, can only be seen at a lower scale. It is associated with the secondary βrelaxation, which was 254 already described in epoxy resins cured with anhydride.(Boguillon and Fringant, 2000) 255 256 This particular secondary relaxationcorresponds to the first drop of the storage 257 modulus (fig.4) and can be more easily associated to the low temperature peak observed 258 on fig.5 representing the temperature dependence of loss modulus (E") of EBO/glutaric 259 acid polyester. Thissecondary β relaxation can be associated to the motion of the diester 260 segments created between two crosslinks.(Gerbase et al., 2002)

261 The second peak of tan δ obtained at higher temperature, between -5 and 5 °C(Fig.4), 262 corresponds to the second and biggest decrease of the storage modulus and to a 263 significant second peak of loss modulus just below 0°C. This major transition is 264 correlated to the α relaxation and associated to the glass transition temperature (Tg) of 265 the polymer. The α transition temperature is below 0°C (except for aromatic derivative), 266 indicating that polymers are in a rubbery state at room temperature. All data obtained by 267 DMA for all polyesters materials are gathered in Table 4. α and β relaxation temperatures 268 were recorded for each polyester sample from both tan δ peaks and loss modulus peaks. 269 It can be first noticed that increasing diacid length from five to eight carbons first caused 270 a decrease in the α relaxation temperature: determined from tan δ peak, this 271 temperature dropped from -1.4 to -4.4°C. From loss modulus data, this temperature also 272 noticeably dropped from -5.7 to -11,4°C. The decrease of the α transition temperature, which corresponds to the glass transition temperature of the polymer could be ascribed 273 274 to an increase in chain mobility and free volume in the polymer as the diacid length

275 increased. Nevertheless, when the diacid length further increased from eight carbons to 276 sixteen carbons, the α relaxation temperature gradually increased from -4.4°C to +4.4°C (tan δ) or from -11.4°C to -2.6°C (loss modulus). It is well known that the crosslinks 277 278 length influences glass transition temperature. In the present study, for small diacids 279 with less than 8 carbons, the free volume of the material increased as the crosslinks 280 length increased and the glass transition temperature decreased correspondingly (fig.6). 281 For diacids with more than 8 carbons, the further increase in diacid length caused an 282 increase in glass transition temperature. This could be ascribed to the longer methylene 283 sequences in the diacids, leading to enhanced cristallinity and enhanced London 284 dispersion interactions, resulting in stronger restriction in mobility.(Stempfle et al., 285 2014)This phenomenon is less clearly observed on the β relaxation temperature, but a 286 minimum was also recorded for suberic (C8) based polyester at -73°C (tan δ peak) and -287 77°C (loss modulus peak). When the polyester is synthetized from *o*-phenylene diacetic 288 acid, its α and β transitions temperature, +16.2 and -66°C respectively (from tan δ) are 289 significantly higher than those observed for previous linear diacids. This could be 290 correlated to the presence of aromatic crosslinks organising themselves into more rigid 291 segments.

4. Conclusion

This research work demonstrates that the polymerisation of vegetable oil can be achieved following a two-step process from an extracted oil and aliphatic diacids. The epoxidation/ring opening sequence was first optimised with benzoic acid and then the best conditions (basic media) were applied to several diacids leading to the crosslinking of the triglycerides. It provides an access to original polyester materials not acquirablewith other polymerisation strategies (anhydride curing for instance). The conversion of the useless broccoli seed oil to polymer material constitutes therefore a 300 valuable use of such non-food triglycerides. All polyesters synthesised here were in 301 rubbery state at room temperature because of their relatively low glass transition 302 temperature and they present interesting mechanical properties for numerous 303 applications. It was thus demonstrated that glass transition temperatures (Tg) and also, 304 to a lesser extend, secondary (β) relaxations in the cured polyesters were closely related 305 to the nature and the length of the diacid used in the crosslinking reaction.

306 Such new kind of green polymers could find numerous applications in the 307 manufacture of environmentally friendly soft and flexible materials. For example, they 308 can be blended with some other polymers in order to decrease their Tg through 309 "permanent" plasticization. On the basis of epoxide ring opening reaction descried in 310 this paper, it will be possible to prepare new cured polymers involving other bi-311 functional (or more) crosslinking agents. Some new additives could also be prepared 312 from epoxidised broccoli oil functionalization. Also it must be noticed that all the 313 chemical modifications and polymerisation processes described in this paper can be 314 applied to other type of oil.

315 Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge the financial support of the Region Bretagne and Sojasun
Technologies. The authors thank Estelle Guyonvarch for the substantial experimental
work done on this project.

319 **References.**

Altuna, F.I., Espósito, L.H., Ruseckaite, R.A., Stefani, P.M., 2011. Thermal and mechanical
properties of anhydride-cured epoxy resins with different contents of biobased
epoxidized soybean oil. J. Appl. Polym. Sci. 120, 789-798.

- Audic, J.-L., Lemiègre, L., Corre, Y.-M., 2014. Thermal and mechanical properties of a
 polyhydroxyalkanoate plasticized with biobased epoxidized broccoli oil. J. Appl.
 Polym. Sci. 131, 10.1002/app.39983.
- Belgacem, M.N., Gandini, A., 2008. Monomers, Polymers and Composites from
 Renewable Resources. Elsevier Limited, Amsterdam.
- Biermann, U., Bornscheuer, U., Meier, M.A.R., Metzger, J.O., Schäfer, H.J., 2011. Oils and
 Fats as Renewable Raw Materials in Chemistry. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 50, 3854330 3871.
- Boquillon, N., Fringant, C., 2000. Polymer networks derived from curing of epoxidized
 lineseed oil: influence of different catalysts and anhydride hardeners. Polymer 41,
 8603-8613.
- Chernykh, A., Alam, S., Jayasooriya, A., Bahr, J., Chisholm, B.J., 2013. Living carbocationic
 polymerization of a vinyl ether monomer derived from soybean oil, 2(vinyloxy)ethyl soyate. Green Chem. 15, 1834-1838.
- España, J.M., Sánchez-Nacher, L., Boronat, T., Fombuena, V., Balart, R., 2012. Properties of
 Biobased Epoxy Resins from Epoxidized Soybean Oil (ESBO) Cured with Maleic
 Anhydride (MA). J Amer Oil Chem Soc 89, 2067-2075.
- 340 Espinoza-Perez, J.D., Nerenz, B.A., Haagenson, D.M., Chen, Z., Ulven, C.A., Wiesenborn,
- D.P., 2011. Comparison of curing agents for epoxidized vegetable oils applied to
 composites. Polymer Composites 32, 1806-1816.
- Gerbase, A.E., Petzhold, C.L., Costa, A.P., 2002. Dynamic Mechanical and Thermal
 Behavior of Epoxy Resins Based on Soybean Oil. J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc. 79, 797-802.
- Ma, Q., Liu, X., Zhang, R., Zhu, J., Jiang, Y., 2013. Synthesis and properties of full bio-based
 thermosetting resins from rosin acid and soybean oil: the role of rosin acid
 derivatives. Green Chem. 15, 1300-1310.

- Maisonneuve, L., Lebarbe, T., Grau, E., Cramail, H., 2013. Structure-properties
 relationship of fatty acid-based thermoplastics as synthetic polymer mimics.
 Polymer Chemistry 4, 5472-5517.
- 351 Meier, M.A.R., 2014. Sustainable polymers: reduced environmental impact, renewable 352 raw materials and catalysis. Green Chem. 16, 1672-1672.
- Meier, M.A.R., Metzger, J.O., Schubert, U.S., 2007. Plant oil renewable resources as green
 alternatives in polymer science. Chem. Soc. Rev. 36, 1788-1802.
- 355 Montero de Espinosa, L., Gevers, A., Woldt, B., Gra, Meier, M.A.R., 2014. Sulfur-containing
- fatty acid-based plasticizers via thiol-ene addition and oxidation: synthesis and
 evaluation in PVC formulations. Green Chem. 16, 1883-1896.
- Montero de Espinosa, L., Meier, M.A.R., 2011. Plant oils: The perfect renewable resource
 for polymer science?! Eur. Polym. J. 47, 837-852.
- Mutlu, H., Meier, M.A.R., 2010. Castor oil as a renewable resource for the chemical
 industry. Eur. J. Lipid Sci. Technol. 112, 10-30.
- Ručigaj, A., Alič, B., Krajnc, M., Šebenik, U., 2014. Investigation of cure kinetics in a
 system with reactant evaporation: Epoxidized soybean oil and maleic anhydride
 case study. Eur. Polym. J. 52, 105-116.
- 365 Samper, M.D., Fombuena, V., Boronat, T., García-Sanoguera, D., Balart, R., 2012. Thermal
- and Mechanical Characterization of Epoxy Resins (ELO and ESO) Cured with
 Anhydrides. J Amer Oil Chem Soc 89, 1521-1528.
- Shogren, R., Petrovic, Z., Liu, Z., Erhan, S., 2004. Biodegradation Behavior of Some
 Vegetable Oil-Based Polymers. J. Polym. Environ. 12, 173-178.
- 370 Shogren, R.L., 1999. Preparation and characterization of a biodegradable mulch: Paper
- 371 coated with polymerized vegetable oils. J. Appl. Polym. Sci. 73, 2159-2167.

- Stemmelen, M., Pessel, F., Lapinte, V., Caillol, S., Habas, J.P., Robin, J.J., 2011. A fully
 biobased epoxy resin from vegetable oils: From the synthesis of the precursors by
 thiol-ene reaction to the study of the final material. Journal of Polymer Science Part
- 375 A: Polymer Chemistry 49, 2434-2444.
- 376 Stempfle, F., Ritter, B.S., Mulhaupt, R., Mecking, S., 2014. Long-chain aliphatic polyesters
- from plant oils for injection molding, film extrusion and electrospinning. GreenChem. 16, 2008-2014.
- Tan, S.G., Chow, W.S., 2010. Biobased Epoxidized Vegetable Oils and Its Greener Epoxy
 Blends: A Review. Polym.-Plast. Technol. Eng. 49, 1581-1590.
- Winkler, M., Meier, M.A.R., 2014. Highly efficient oxyfunctionalization of unsaturated
 fatty acid esters: an attractive route for the synthesis of polyamides from renewable
 resources. Green Chem. 16, 1784-1788.
- Xia, Y., Quirino, R.L., Larock, R.C., 2013. Bio-based Thermosetting Polymers from
 Vegetable Oils. J. Renew. Mater. 1, 3-27.
- 386 Yang, D., Peng, X., Zhong, L., Cao, X., Chen, W., Zhang, X., Liu, S., Sun, R., 2014. "Green"
- 387 films from renewable resources: Properties of epoxidized soybean oil plasticized
- 388 ethyl cellulose films. Carbohydr. Polym. 103, 198-206.