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Lérys Granado, Romain Tavernier, Gabriel Foyer, Ghislain David, Sylvain Caillol. Comparative curing kinetics study of high char yield formaldehyde- and terephthalaldehyde-phenolic thermosets. Thermochimica Acta, 2018, 667, pp.42-49. 10.1016/j.tca.2018.06.013. hal-01854078

HAL Id: hal-01854078 https://hal.science/hal-01854078

Submitted on 15 May 2020

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Comparative curing kinetics study of high char yield formaldehyde- and terephthalaldehyde-phenolic thermosets

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8 Abstract

Phenol-Formaldehyde (PF) resoles exhibit excellent thermal properties, high temperature 9 10 degradation and high char yield. The formaldehyde can be replaced by terephthalaldehyde (TPA), a non-toxic aromatic dialdehyde. The thermal performances of phenol-TPA (PTPA) 11 12 resole are very interesting for further development and industrialization. The present 13 investigation presents for the first time a thermo-kinetics study of curing of PTPA, in 14 comparison with a commercial PF resole. Non-isothermal, at constant heating rates DSC 15 experiments are performed on both resoles. PF shows one single exothermic peak, whereas 16 PTPA exhibits two DSC peaks, suggesting a two-step curing mechanism which appears to be conversion-dependent. In addition, isoconversional analysis is used to elucidate the activation 17 18 energies as a function of the degree of curing. Differential Friedman and integral Vyazovkin 19 methods are considered for computations, giving equivalent results. Furthermore, the whole 20 kinetic triplets (E, A, f) is elucidated for both resoles with Sestak-Berggren model fitting. 21 Finally, isothermal isoconversional predictions are compared to experimental data.

22 Highlights

- The curing kinetics of a new formaldehyde-free resole is compared to PF resole
- Isoconversional analyses are employed to determine activation energy values
- Sestak-Berggren model is used to fit the data, elucidating the kinetic triplet
- Isothermal predictions are consistent with experimental data

27 Graphical Abstract

Insert Graphical Abstract

29 Key-words

30 Resoles; Phenol; Terephthalaldehyde; Curing kinetics; DSC; Isoconversional analysis.

31 Introduction

32 Phenolic thermosets are extensively used as binders in composites in many fields of 33 applications such as microelectronics, wood industry, aerospace etc. [1,2]. These phenolic 34 networks (PF) are crosslinked polymers obtained by reaction between phenol and 35 formaldehyde. The mechanisms of synthesis of those PF, which involves two successive 36 steps, are perfectly described in the literature [3–14]. The first reaction consists in the addition 37 of formaldehyde onto phenol (pre-polymerization). Then, during curing, the crosslinking is 38 achieved by condensation of methylol moieties, releasing water. Two main routes are used to 39 produce high crosslinking density (Fig. 1). Novolacs are synthesized in acidic catalytic 40 conditions, whereas resoles are obtained under alkaline conditions. Moreover, the resoles 41 could reach high crosslinking and aromatic density without adding further crosslinking agent. 42 Such high aromatic densities are required to achieve the excellent thermal resistance of 43 resoles (high char yields) [15–19].

44

Insert Fig 1 (see captions in the end of the manuscript)

45 However, phenol and formaldehyde are rather toxic and classified as carcinogenic, mutagenic and reprotoxic (CMR) substances. Especially formaldehyde is highly volatile and is classified 46 47 CMR 1B by the European Chemical Agency. Therefore there is sufficient evidence to 48 demonstrate its carcinogenicity on mammals and as a consequence, to presume 49 carcinogenicity for humans [20]. Thus, efforts have been focused on the substitution of the 50 formaldehyde in phenolic resins. Several challenging issues were reported, such as (i) poor 51 reactivity of higher molar mass aldehyde compounds [21], (ii) enolisable aldehydes are prone 52 to side-reactions [22] and (iii) aliphatic aldehydes significantly reduce aromatic density and 53 thus the thermal properties [23].

In a previous study, the reactivity of several bio-based, non-toxic and non-CMR dialdehydes with phenol was evaluated [24]. Among them, terephthalaldehyde showed the best reactivity, which could be explained by the presence of the second aldehyde in para-position. Indeed, the second aldehyde acts as an electron-withdrawing group and thus enhances the reactivity with phenol. 59 Terephthalaldehyde can be synthesized by the oxidation in vapor phase of para-xylene [25] 60 which is also the key intermediate to obtain terephthalic acid, mainly used for the production 61 of polyethylene terephthalate (PET). Bio-based routes to para-xylene have been developed in 62 order to access to fully bio-based PET, as a consequence, terephthalaldehyde is being 63 considered as a potentially bio-based building block [26].

In addition, the synthesized phenol-terephthalaldehyde (PTPA) resole showed a better thermal resistance and char yield compared to conventional PF (Table 1). The PTPA thermosets show highly crosslinked networks (networks totally insoluble in organic solvents with a low swelling index). Furthermore, the rheological behavior of both PF and PTPA pre-polymers are comparable. Such preliminary results are very promising for further development of formaldehyde-free networks and composites, with an excellent thermal resistance and a high char yield.

71 The manufacturing process of phenolic thermosets and composites is typically performed in 72 three steps: (i) synthesis of the pre-polymer (corresponding to the addition reaction in PF), (ii) 73 shaping (i.e. impregnation for composites) and pre-curing stage, within which partial 74 hardening of the matrix is achieved (e.g. pre-pregs) and (iii) post-curing stage which allows 75 complete crosslinking of the matrix. Noteworthy, the degree of curing drives all chemical and physical parameters (e.g. rheological behavior, chemical resistance...). It is therefore of prime 76 77 importance to accurately control the curing kinetics all along the manufacturing process of 78 final piece.

The curing of phenolic thermosets is a thermally-activated process. Previous studies report on the study of PF curing kinetics based on differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) experimental data. In addition, several computation approaches have been studied to provide maximum information on the kinetic parameters of PF curing such as model-free [27–32] and model fitting kinetics [33]. Among them, the model-free kinetics approach, isoconversional analysis, is known to offer accurate description of the kinetics from a short experimental dataset, with a systematic and rather simple calculation process [34].

In the present paper, we suggest studying the curing kinetics of an innovative formaldehydefree and potentially bio-based phenolic thermoset with high char yield, *i.e.* phenolterephthalaldehyde resole, in comparison with a commercially available PF resole. Hence, the curing kinetics data are provided from non-isothermal DSC experiments, at different linear heating rates, following the recommendations found in literature [35]. In addition, kinetic 91 modellings are performed using isoconversional analysis. Hence, quantitative kinetic data of 92 phenol-terephthalaldehyde curing are presented. Finally, the predictability performances of 93 the kinetics parameters are evaluated.

94

Insert Fig 2

95

Insert Table 1

96 **Experimental Section**

97 **1. Materials**

98 The phenol was purchased from Alfa-Aeasar. The terephthalaldehyde and the sodium 99 hydroxide were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. PF resole was a commercially available pre-100 polymer. The reactants and the solvent were 98-99% pure and used without further 101 purification. Pre-polymers were stored at -18 °C to avoid unwanted crosslinking.

102 **2. Pre-polymerization synthesis**

103 Phenol (1 eq.), sodium hydroxide (0.04 eq.) aqueous solution (50 wt.%) and ethanol 104 (14 wt.%) were introduced into a two-necked flask. A condenser, a magnetic stirrer and a 105 silicon oil bath were used. The temperature was set at 100 °C. When the mixture was on 106 temperature and homogeneous, terephthalaldehyde (0.4 eq.) was added (t_0). The reaction was performed for 4 hours and monitored by ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. The 107 108 color changed from orange to black between 1 and 2 h of reaction. It is important to stress 109 than after the pre-polymerization, only the first aldehyde functionality of TPA has reacted, 110 whereas the second aldehyde groups mostly remain unreacted.

111 **3. DSC**

112 The DSC-3 F200 (Netzsch) equipped with an intra-cooler module is used to carry out the 113 calorimetric study, with nitrogen atmosphere (at 50 mL/min). The temperature and sensibility 114 are calibrated with biphenyl, indium, bismuth and CsCl highly pure standards, at 10 °C/min. 115 To avoid interfering endothermic signal of solvent and water evaporations, high pressure 116 stainless steel pans and lids (Netzsch) are used (maximum pressure of 100 MPa). They are sealed with golden seal at 3 N \cdot cm. The samples are weighted on a 10⁻⁵ g precise analytical 117 balance (between 12.00 and 20.00 mg). The sample mass demonstrates no influence on the 118 119 total enthalpy of the reaction. Each pan + sample is weighed before and after analysis to be

sure that no evaporation has disturbed the measurement. In any case, the temperature considered is the sample temperature. The curing reaction is monitored by DSC at the heating rates: $\beta = 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5$ and 15 °C/min, for both PF and PTPA networks.

123 **4. Implementation of computations**

124 The Vyazovkin method code is implemented using Python software, using the modules Scipy 125 and Numpy. Integral functions are calculated using *scipy.integral.quad* built-in function, with an increment of $\Delta \alpha = 0.01$. The Friedman method ($\Delta \alpha = 0.02$ as increment) and non-linear 126 127 model-fitting ($\Delta \alpha = 0.01$) are used with the help of Origin software, using damped leastsquares algorithm (Levenberg-Marquardt), with a convergence criterion of $\chi^2 < 10^{-9}$ and a 128 maximum iteration number of 400, without any weighing of the data. For the model-fitting 129 130 approach, multivariate (α, T) non-linear fitting is performed on reaction rate vs. degree of 131 curing curves. All heating rate curves associated to one reaction are simultaneously fitted providing a maximum consistency (for this reason fitted curved may deviate from 132 133 experimental data at some points). All the presented computations are tested with simulated 134 data, giving consistent results.

135 Theoretical background

136 **1. Conversion calculation**

137 The degree of curing (α) is assumed to be directly proportional to the released heat, measured 138 in DSC:

$$\alpha(t,T) = \frac{\Delta H_{t,T}}{\Delta H_{TOTAL}} \tag{1}$$

140 where $\Delta H_{t,T} = \int_0^t \dot{q}(t,T) dt$ is the cumulative released heat of reaction at the time *t* and 141 curing temperature *T*, as time integral of the instantaneous heat flow ($\dot{q}(t,T)$), and ΔH_{TOTAL} is 142 the total enthalpy of the reaction determined non-isothermally (average of 5 measurements). 143 The zero degree of curing ($\alpha = 0$) corresponds to the pre-polymer.

144 **2.** Principles of isoconversional analyses

The isoconversional analysis is focused in the determination of the activation energy of a chemical conversion (i.e. crosslinking). Isoconversional analysis is a powerful tool to determine the activation energy of a thermally activated reaction. This analysis does not

148 require identifying the reaction model and is therefore usually called model-free kinetic

149 method. This analysis relies on the isoconversional principle: "the reaction rate at constant

- 150 extent of conversion is only a function of temperature" [34]. In other word, the reaction
- 151 mechanisms are not affected by the temperature program.

152 It is based on the variable separation (conversion, α , and temperature, *T*), leading to the 153 general equation of the kinetics:

154
$$\frac{d\alpha}{dt} = k(T) \cdot f(\alpha) \tag{2}$$

where $d\alpha/dt$ is the reaction rate, k is the rate constant and f is a function of the conversion (representing of the reaction mechanisms). The rate constant is assumed to be described by the Arrhenius equation:

158 $k(T) = A \cdot e^{-\frac{E}{RT}}$ (3)

159 where *A* is the pre-exponential factor, *E* the activation energy, *R* the gas constant and *T* the 160 temperature.

161 The isoconversional principle leads to the following equation:

162
$$\left[\frac{\partial \ln \left(\frac{d\alpha}{dt}\right)}{\partial T^{-1}}\right]_{\alpha} = \left[\frac{\partial \ln \left(k(T)\right)}{\partial T^{-1}}\right]_{\alpha} + \left[\frac{\partial \ln \left(f(\alpha)\right)}{\partial T^{-1}}\right]_{\alpha}.$$
 (4)

163 Because $f(\alpha)$ is constant (α = constant), this equation leads to the fundamental expression of 164 isoconversional analysis:

165 $\left[\frac{\partial \ln \left(d\alpha/dt\right)}{\partial T^{-1}}\right]_{\alpha} = -\frac{E_{\alpha}}{R}$ (5)

166 where E_{α} is the isoconversional value of the activation energy, *i.e.* the activation energy for a 167 given value of conversion degree, α . Hence, the activation energy is considered as a variable 168 along the transformation process [36].

169 **3. Friedman method**

The method of Friedman is the most common differential isoconversional method and is applicable with its both differential and integral forms. The Friedman's equations arise from the previous analytical equations (2) and (3) without any approximation. Thus, this method is

therefore known as the reference [37].

174 The differential equation of Friedman is expressed as follows [37][37][37]:

$$ln\left(\frac{d\alpha}{dt}\right)_{\alpha,i} = ln[A_{\alpha}f(\alpha)] - \frac{E_{\alpha}}{RT_{\alpha,i}(t)}$$
(6)

175 where *i* represents the ith temperature program and $T_{\alpha,i}$ is the temperature where the degree of 176 curing, α , is reached under the ith temperature program (depending on *T* in the case of non-177 isothermal conditions). The *i* index corresponds to an individual temperature for isothermal 178 programs and to an individual heating rate for linear non-isothermal programs.

179 4. Vyazovkin method

180 Vyazovkin method (VA) is a numerical integral method [38,39]. It presents several 181 advantages: it is applicable to both thermogravimetric and integrated DSC data, it takes into 182 account the self-heating/cooling occurring during DSC (deviation of the sample temperature 183 from the imposed $T = t \times \beta$, with β the heating rate value), it is applicable to any programs 184 (cooling and multi-step programs) [34]. Moreover, integral method allows avoiding 185 inaccuracies coming from noisy data, which are generally magnified with differential method.

186 To reach the best accuracy in determining the activation energy, small ranges of conversion 187 degree, $\Delta \alpha$, are considered for the numerical integration. Introducing $g(\alpha)$, the integral form of 188 $f(\alpha)$, we have:

189
$$g(x) - g(\alpha - \Delta \alpha) = \int_{\alpha - \Delta \alpha}^{\alpha} \frac{d\alpha}{f(\alpha)} = A_{\alpha} \int_{t_{\alpha - \Delta \alpha}}^{t_{\alpha}} e^{-\frac{E_{\alpha}}{RT_{\alpha}(t)}} \cdot dt.$$
(7)

190 Considering the principle of isoconversional analysis, it follows:

191
$$g(\alpha) - g(\alpha - \Delta \alpha) = A_{\alpha} \cdot J_1(E_{\alpha}, T_{\alpha, 1}) = \dots = A_{\alpha} \cdot J_n(E_{\alpha}, T_{\alpha, n})$$
(8)

192 where $J_i(E_{\alpha}, T_{\alpha,i})$ is the time integral of the ith-temperature program $T_i(t)$:

193
$$J_i(E_{\alpha}, T_{\alpha,i}) = \int_{t_{\alpha-\Delta\alpha}}^{t_{\alpha}} e^{-\frac{E_{\alpha}}{RT_{\alpha,i}(t)}} \cdot dt.$$
(9)

In order to get free from the pre-exponential factor, the terms in equation (8) are normalized
between each other, leading to a double-sum function to be minimized using the Vyazovkin
method [39]:

197
$$\Phi(E_{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{J_i(E_{\alpha}, T_{\alpha, i})}{J_j(E_{\alpha}, T_{\alpha, j})} = n^2 - n$$
(10)

198 with an iterative process, E_{α} values are found being the solution of the minimum of Φ , the 199 function for each isoconversion, α .

200 Results and Discussions

201 **1.** DSC thermograms

202 An exothermic signal is recovered during the curing reaction in all cases, as shown in DSC 203 thermograms after linear baseline correction (Fig. 3). As expected, the intensity of the 204 exothermic peak is higher at higher heating rates (as the energy amount released by the reaction per unit of time is larger). Notably, we observed one single peak for PF (Fig.3PF) 205 206 whereas two peaks are observed for PTPA (Fig.3PTPA). In the latter case, the second peak 207 (towards higher temperature) is always a quarter less intense than the first one. The presence 208 of the two peaks in PTPA networks witnesses two successive steps during the crosslinking 209 mechanism, whereas one single step is observed in PF curing.

The maximum of first peak of PTPA is sensibly similar to the PF one (Table 2). The first peak of PTPA crosslinking corresponds to the peak observed with PF. This suggests the same reactivity and kinetics for the PF crosslinking and the reaction occurring during the 1st exothermic peak of PTPA. Furthermore, the maximum of second peak of PTPA is systematically 46 ± 3 °C above the first one.

215 The total enthalpy of the reaction is not dependent on heating rates for both formulations 216 (Table 2), suggesting that in both thermosets the temperature profile does not influence the 217 reaction mechanism. The total enthalpy values are respectively 349 J/g for PF and 204 J/g for 218 PTPA. The low relative standard deviation ($\leq 2-3\%$) over 5 measurements shows the good 219 reproducibility of the measurement method. The total enthalpy per gram is lower with PTPA, 220 but compared to molecular weight of typical entities, the total enthalpy gives rather similar 221 values: 68 kJ/mol for PF (with 200 g/mol, for two phenols and one methylene hinge) and 66 222 kJ/mol for PTPA (with 322 g/mol, for two phenols linked to one TPA).

223 Mechanistic information is readily provided from the thermograms. Hence, different 224 crosslinking mechanisms between PF and PTPA are observed, looking at the shape of the 225 exothermic signal. For PF, the single exothermic peak is assigned to the polycondensation of 226 the methylol groups. These moieties, which have been formed during the addition of 227 formaldehyde on phenolic rings (pre-polymerization stage), mostly condense on unreacted 228 phenolic groups. On the other hand, PTPA curing exhibits a two-step mechanism. The first 229 exothermic peak can be assigned to the condensation reaction of the secondary alcohol (which 230 has been formed during the pre-polymerization stage) onto phenol free positions (mainly

- ortho and para, see reaction I in Fig. 2). The second peak is assigned to the addition of thesecond aldehyde moiety onto phenol (see reaction II in Fig. 2).
- 233
- 234

Insert Fig 3 PF (upper plot) and PTPA (lower plot)

Insert Table 2

235 2. Non-isothermal curing kinetic profiles

The curing kinetic profiles of PF and PTPA are shown in Fig. 4. The degree of curing (α) is plotted as a function of temperature, at different heating rates. Typical sigmoidal-shaped curves are observed. The curves are shifted towards higher temperatures with higher heating rates. Remarkably, the curing kinetics of PF and PTPA are quite similar for $\alpha < 0.55$. At $\alpha \sim$ 0.55, break-in-slopes are observed for PTPA and the curing kinetics start slower than PF. For $\alpha > 0.55$, the curing kinetics of PTPA are slower than PF (*i.e.* toward higher temperatures). This is explained by the two-step mechanism of PTPA curing observed by DSC.

The curing reaction rates are calculated as the ratio between the heat flow values and the total reaction heat (ΔH_{TOTAL}). Reaction rates are plotted as a function of the curing degree (insets in Fig. 4). As expected, the higher is the heating rates, the faster is the reaction, for both formulations. However, the reaction curves of PTPA strongly differ from common PF. One step is observed for PF curing, while two steps are obtained for PTPA.

Notably, the first step of PTPA curing is centered near a conversion of $\alpha \sim 0.3$, whereas the second one is centered near $\alpha \sim 0.75$, independently of the temperature program. The twosteps mechanism of PTPA curing is thus conversion-dependent. Because the temperature program does not influence the reaction mechanism, the isoconversional principle is expected to be valid.

253

Insert Fig 4 PF (upper plot) and PTPA (lower plot)

254 **3**.

3. Activation energy of curing

255 The activation energy calculated by isoconversional analysis for PF and PTPA resins is given 256 as a function of the curing degree in Fig. 5. The activation energy, E_{α} , for PF and PTPA is 257 ranged between 70 and 80 kJ/mol. The PF curve of activation energy does not exhibit strong 258 variations with the degree of curing. E_{α} increases from *ca*. 70 kJ/mol to reach a maximum of 259 80 kJ/mol near $\alpha \sim 0.75$, prior to slightly decrease in the later stage of curing. The PTPA 260 curve shows more variations. The activation energy is relatively constant at low degrees of curing (78 kJ/mol for $\alpha < 0.3$), then linearly decreases down to 70 kJ/mol, for $0.3 < \alpha < 0.75$. Finally, the activation energy starts increasing slightly for $\alpha > 0.75$, which is assigned to increasing uncertainties (such errors probably arise from integration).

264 Two isoconversional methods are tested in parallel: the Vyazovkin (VA) and the Friedman 265 (FR). VA is an integral method -i.e. the activation energy is from integral kinetics profiles (eq. 9-10, Fig. 4), whereas FR is a differential method -i.e. calculations are made from 266 267 differential curves (Fig. 4 insets). FR method provides elucidation of activation energy with 268 an analytical algebraic formula without any approximation. Arrhenius plots and linear 269 regressions of FR method are shown in Fig. 6. The coefficients of determination (inset in Fig. 270 6) are satisfying (R² > 0.97) in the complete range of curing degrees for PF and PTPA (for $\alpha <$ 271 0.8). For the later, the coefficients of determination decrease down to 0.90 for $\alpha > 0.8$, which 272 results in higher uncertainties in activation energy values (represented by broader error-bars in 273 Fig. 5). Remarkably, VA and FR methods give consistent results. The excellent agreement 274 for both VA and FR allows concluding on the accuracy of the obtained results.

275 The evolution of the activation energy with the degree of curing is informative about the 276 crosslinking process. A rather monotonic shape of E_{α} for PF is observed due to the one-step 277 mechanism of crosslinking, *i.e.* the condensation of methylol group. The slight increase of E_a 278 is assigned to an increase of molecular motion restrictions due to the forming of a three-279 dimensional crosslinked network. Hence, the apparent activation energy increases with the 280 degree of curing due to more intense diffusional potential barrier to overcome. Yet, because 281 this increase remains slight, diffusion phenomena are not expected to drastically slow down 282 the kinetics such as epoxy curing [40,41], for instance. During PF crosslinking, reactive 283 species (*i.e.* methylol group) are surrounded by free-position in phenol rings at any time, 284 unlike epoxy curing where reactive moieties are carried by dangling chains. In this latter case 285 such reactive moieties may be trapped into the polymer network, which drastically slows 286 down the curing kinetics (diffusion-controlled regime) [45].

287 On the other hand, the activation energy evolution with α of PTPA is more complex. The 288 experimentally observed two-steps curing can be observed on E_{α} curve, as well. The 289 activation energy plateau value, $E_{\alpha} = 78$ kJ/mol for $\alpha < 0.3$, is assigned to the condensation of 290 the secondary alcohol onto phenols (first reaction corresponding to first exothermic peak 291 observed in DSC thermograms). Then during the transient regime, the decrease of E_{α} for 0.3 < 292 $\alpha < 0.75$ is associated to the shift in the curing process mechanism, from the first reaction to 293 the addition onto phenol of the second aldehyde function for the one-fold reacted TPA

(second reaction consistent with the second exothermic peak). The activation energy value associated to the second reaction is determined at 70 kJ/mol, at $\alpha = 0.75$. The slight increase of E_{α} during the later stage of curing is assigned to diffusional restrictions. In overall, the activation energy values of PTPA are similar to the studied PF and other resole [27,28,31,33,42].

299

300

Insert Fig 5

Insert Fig 6 PF (upper plot) and PTPA (lower plot)

301 4. Determination of the kinetic triplet using a model-fitting approach

In order to provide a full description of the curing kinetics of both resoles (elucidation of the kinetic triplet: *A*, *E*, $f(\alpha)$), we used the previous results of activation energy to reduce the number of unknown in the model-fitting approach. To model the curing reaction of phenolic resin [33], the truncated Sestak-Breggren (SB) model is used with the following expression [43]:

307
$$f(\alpha) = (1 - \alpha)^n \cdot \alpha^m \tag{11}$$

308 where n and m are the partial reaction orders. For PF resins, which presents one single step 309 mechanism, following fitting function was employed:

310
$$\frac{d\alpha}{dt} = A \ e^{-\frac{E}{RT(t)}} \cdot (1-\alpha)^n \alpha^m \tag{12}$$

with a fixed value of E = 78 kJ/mol, being the average activation energy value found with previous isoconversional analysis. The fitted curves are displayed in the upper plot of Fig. 7. Small deviations are observed due to simultaneous fitting. Nevertheless, the accordance between fits and experimental data is good ($R^2 > 0.99$), leading to a good accuracy on the fitting parameters (Table 3).

316 On the other hand, the PTPA curing must be analytically described by two successive steps 317 $(\frac{d\alpha}{dt} = \sum_i k_i f_i(\alpha), \text{ with } i = 1, 2)$ [34]. Thus, reaction rate vs. degree of curing curves are first 318 deconvoluted with two Gaussian peak functions ($\mathbb{R}^2 > 0.97$, global fits are shown in Fig. 7). 319 Then, the deconvoluted peaks are consecutively fitted with equation (12). The activation 320 energies are fixed at E = 78 and 72 kJ/mol, for the 1st and 2nd reaction, respectively. SB fits of 321 the deconvoluted curves are rather satisfying ($\mathbb{R}^2 > 0.97$), as shown in the lower plot of Fig. 7. The pre-exponential factor values vary significantly for PF and both reaction of PTPA (Table 323 3). Such large variations from resin to resin or along the curing process are noticed when 324 comparing literature values [30,44,45].

325 The partial reaction order m of PF is close to 0 (Table 3), concluding in a very low 326 autocatalytic behavior during the curing process. The reaction could therefore be described by a simpler nth order model (with a reaction order close to n = 1.1, which is in line with [33]). In 327 328 contrast, the *m* values of PTPA are higher. For the first reaction, the value m = 0.87 suggests a higher autocatalytic behavior than PF. *n* of the second PTPA reaction is quite high due to the 329 shift in curing process from 1^{st} to 2^{nd} reaction. By symmetry, *m* order of second PTPA 330 reaction is also high (due to delayed starting of the 2^{nd} reaction). It is important to stress that 331 these results must be taken carefully because of difficulties in mechanisms elucidation from 332 333 non-isothermal DSC data, and especially in multi-step mechanism reactions.

334

Insert Fig 7 PF (upper plot) and PTPA (lower plot)

335

Insert Table 3

336 5. Isothermal predictions using isoconversional analysis

337 One of the most industrially relevant applications of one kinetic analysis is the predictions at 338 both any time and temperature. Hence, one can easily tailor the curing stages (pre- and post-339 curing) of the thermoset. Furthermore, predictions allow either confirming or infirming the 340 validity of the kinetics description when compared to experimental data.

341 The time needed to reach a certain α at the isothermal temperature T_{0} , $t_{\alpha, T}$, is calculated with 342 the following equation [46]:

343
$$t_{\alpha,T0} = \sum_{\alpha} \frac{\hat{f}(E_{\alpha},T)}{exp\left(-\frac{E_{\alpha}}{RT_{0}}\right)}$$
(13)

where $\hat{J}(E_{\alpha}, T_{\alpha})$ denotes the average of the *J* functions from all heating rates dataset (rather than an arbitrary single one). Predictions are computed at each isoconversion ($\Delta \alpha = 0.01$ increments). Note that only the elucidation of *J* functions and E_{α} are necessary to compute predictions. To evaluate the predictions accuracy, the simulated curves are compared to experimental results. The isothermal temperature is selected at $T_0 = 160$ °C, being the working temperature for curing the commercial PF.

Both predicted and experimental isothermal kinetic profiles of PF and PTPA are shown inFig. 6. Both PF and PTPA isothermal kinetic profiles exhibit a deceleratory shape, typical of

thermoset crosslinking. Notably the slopes at $\alpha = 0$ are similar for PF and PTPA. Then the PF shows a faster isothermal kinetics that of PTPA. The completion is reached within 1 h for PF, whereas the profile level off near $\alpha \sim 0.9$ for PTPA.

The accordance between experimental and predicted curves is excellent for both PF and PTPA. Isoconversional analysis (VA method) provides accurate description of the curing kinetics. Notably, the two-step mechanism of PTPA is well characterized by the variable apparent activation energy along the curing process.

359

Insert Fig 8

360 **Conclusions**

361 The present investigation gave insights for the curing behavior of phenol-terephthalaldehyde 362 (PTPA) resoles, which was totally unknown. The curing kinetics of PTPA was compared to a 363 commercial PF resole. The thermosets were probed with non-isothermally DSC, at constant 364 heating rates. Furthermore, computational approaches were performed to get maximum 365 benefits from experimental data. Isoconversional analysis was computed using the differential 366 Friedman (FR) and integral Vyazovkin (VA) methods. The values of activation energy found 367 with both methods were in excellent accordance, allowing concluding on the high accuracy of 368 the presented kinetics data. Then, model-fitting approach was taken using Sestak-Berggren 369 model, to elucidate the kinetic triplet of each reaction.

Different curing behaviors were recorded between PF and PTPA. One single step was observed for PF, which corresponded to the polycondensation of methylol moieties releasing water. On the other hand, a two-step mechanism was observed for PTPA. The first was assigned to the polycondensation of secondary alcohols (formed during the first addition of TPA on phenol), whereas the second peak was assigned to the addition of the second aldehyde moiety of TPA onto phenol. Further investigations are ongoing and will be reported elsewhere.

In conclusion, despite different crosslinking mechanisms were observed for PF and PTPA, the curing kinetic parameters showed rather similar values. Finally, isoconversional analysis provided sufficient accurate description of the kinetics, as attested with the good correlation between isothermal predictions and experimental data. The generated kinetics data will be of a precious help for both future development and engineering of PTPA resins or completing mechanistic elucidations of innovative resoles.

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514 Fig. captions

- 515 **Fig. 1** The two main routes to synthetize PF thermosets: Novolac and Resole.
- 516 Fig. 2 Probable reactions of pre-polymerization and curing between phenol and
- 517 terephthalaldehyde.
- 518 **Fig. 3** DSC thermograms after baseline corrections PF and PTPA.
- 519 **Fig. 4** Non-isothermal kinetics profiles, inset: reaction rate as function of degree of curing.
- 520 **Fig. 5** Activation energy of phenol-formaldehyde (PF) and phenol-terephthalaldehyde
- 521 (PTPA) as a function of the degree of curing as calculated with Vyazovkin (VA) and
- 522 Friedman (FR) isoconversional methods.
- 523 Fig. 6 Arrhenius plots of the Friedman method for PF and PTPA curing systems. Insets
- 524 display the determination coefficients of linear regressions, as a function of the degree of
- 525 curing.
- Fig. 7 Model-fitting with SB model for PF and PTPA resins. For PTPA, SB model is fitted
 on the deconvoluted peaks.
- 528 Fig. 8 Comparison of predicted and measured isothermal kinetic profiles, at 160 °C, of PF 529 ($R^2 > 0.99$) and PTPA ($R^2 > 0.98$) resin.

530 **Table captions**

- 531 **Table 1** Comparison of properties between PF and PTPA networks [24].
- 532 **Table 2** Total enthalpy and peak maximum as measured by DSC for PF and PTPA.
- 533 **Table 3** Kinetic parameters of PF and PTPA as determined with the model-fitting approach
- 534 (with associated uncertainties of the fits).