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Ethylene and alkyl acrylate copolymers made-to-order using dynamic cation switching polymerization and evidence for improved polymer degradability with low polar group density

Tuhin Ganguly, Lorenzo C. Ruiz De Castilla, Rumela Adhikary and Loi H. Do *

The industrial synthesis of functional polyolefins relies on free radical polymerization, which requires high temperature and pressure and offers poor microstructure control. Herein, we report a cation-switching strategy to access ethylene and alkyl acrylate copolymers with made-to-order molecular weight, molecular weight distribution, and polar monomer density, tunable within a catalyst-dependent range. This precision was achieved by exploiting the cation exchange dynamics between M^+ and M'^+ (where M^+ , M'^+ = Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , or Cs^+ , and $M \neq M'$) with our nickel phenoxyphosphine-polyethylene glycol catalyst. Under non-switching conditions, copolymerization of ethylene and methyl acrylate (MA) using our nickel catalyst in the presence of M^+ and M'^+ salts afforded ethylene-MA copolymers (EMA) with adjustable molecular weight distributions based on the ratio of $M^+ : M'^+$ employed. Under dynamic cation switching conditions, this catalyst system yielded monomodal EMA with molecular weight and MA incorporation that can be varied independently. Studies of the EMA revealed that while they retain the thermal and mechanical properties of polyethylene having the same molecular weight, increasing the MA per chain by as few as 1–3 units leads to measurable increase in their wettability and susceptibility toward oxidative cleavage. This work adds to a growing body of evidence suggesting that ethylene-based materials can be designed for improved degradability without compromising their performance.

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Introduction

Research in polyolefin synthesis continues to thrive due to the high demand for durable, inexpensive, and high-performing plastic across many industrial sectors.^{1–3} Interest in functional polyolefins stems from their enhanced properties (*e.g.*, increased flexibility, blending compatibility, adhesiveness, *etc.*) relative to that of polyethylene (PE).^{4–6} A variety of ethylene-alkyl acrylate copolymers (EAA) have been used in applications such as food packaging, films, sporting goods, personal care products, and others (Chart 1A). Some examples of commercial EAA include ELVALOY AC from the Dow Chemical Company,⁷ Ebantix from Repsol,⁸ and Optema from ExxonMobil Chemical.⁹ These copolymers are synthesized using free radical polymerization (Chart 1B, option I), which must be performed at high pressure (~150–350 MPa) and temperature (>160 °C).¹⁰

Another approach to prepare EAA is through the coordination-insertion copolymerization of ethylene and alkyl acry-

late using transition metal catalysts (Chart 1B, option II).^{11–17} This method can provide EAA with narrow dispersity ($D < 2$), variable polar monomer content, and even ultra-high molecular weight ($M_n > 10^3$ kg mol⁻¹).¹⁸ However, obtaining EAA with user-defined specifications remains a significant challenge. For example, increasing the alkyl acrylate concentration in the copolymerization reaction can enhance the polar content in the resulting polymer but the molecular weight typically decreases and *vice versa*.^{19–22} Thus, independently varying a single parameter in copolymerization, such as MW, MW distribution (MWD), or polar group incorporation, without impacting another is difficult to achieve.

To overcome the limitations of a one catalyst-one polymer paradigm,²³ our group has focused on the development of cation-tunable polymerization catalysts.^{24–26} Unlike other strategies that rely on light,²⁷ redox agents,^{28–31} or boranes,^{32,33} the use of secondary metal cations with polymerization catalysts offers the potential to access more than two reactivity states.³⁴ For example, metal cations can differ in charge, Lewis acidity, and size, which can modulate a catalyst's steric and electronic properties to different extent. A variety of Ni/Pd catalyst plat-

Department of Chemistry, University of Houston, 4800 Calhoun Road, Houston, TX 77004, USA. E-mail: loido@uh.edu



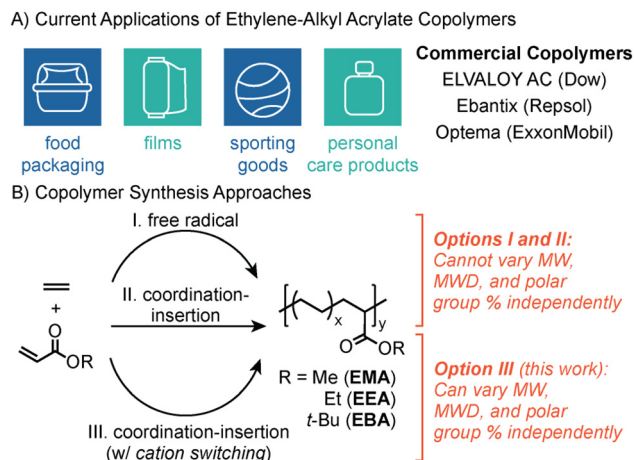


Chart 1 Current applications of ethylene-alkyl acrylate copolymers (A) and various options available to synthesize them (B). Our approach using dynamic cation switching polymerization enables the preparation of EAA with precisely controlled MW, MWD, and alkyl acrylate incorporation.

forms have been demonstrated to be cation-tunable, including those based on P,O -,^{25,26,35–37} N,O -,^{24,38} and C,O -donors.³⁹ Our recent discovery that cation exchange equilibria could be manipulated to influence the coordination-insertion of non-living polymerization catalysts affords another level of control.⁴⁰ Under non-switching conditions, the polymerization of ethylene using our nickel phenoxyphosphine polyethylene glycol (PEG) catalysts with M^+ and M^{r+} (where M^+ , $M^{r+} = Li^+$, Na^+ , K^+ , or Cs^+ ; and $M^+ \neq M^{r+}$) yielded bimodal PE with adjustable MWD depending on the $M^+ : M^{r+}$ ratio employed. In contrast, under dynamic cation switching conditions, the same catalyst system generated monomodal PE with tunable MW as a function of the $M^+ : M^{r+}$ ratio. However, these studies were performed in the presence of only ethylene so it was unclear whether polar monomers would be compatible with this polymerization strategy.

In this work, we successfully expanded the application of dynamic cation switching to ethylene and alkyl acrylate copolymerization, enabling for the production of functional polyolefins with high precision (Chart 1B, option III). We demonstrate that ethylene-methyl acrylate copolymers (EMA) can be made-to-order with specific MW, MWD, and polar group incorporation, tunable within a catalyst-dependent range. Having access to a series of systematically varied EMA allowed us to interrogate their structure–function relationships, offering new insights into the properties of this important class of polymers.

Results and discussion

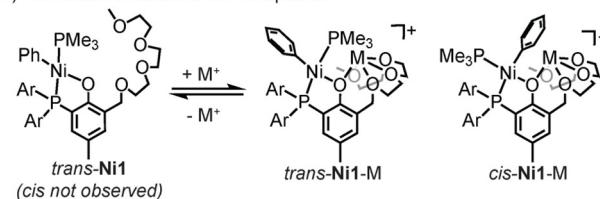
Catalyst selection and metal cation binding

Previously, we demonstrated that nickel phenoxyphosphine-PEG complexes readily formed adducts with alkali ions to generate highly active heterobimetallic species capable of polymerizing ethylene.^{26,40,41} The catalyst activity and polymer MW

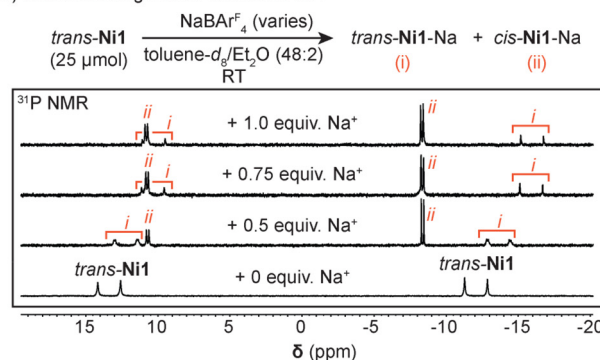
and branching were dependent on the identity of M^+ . The first-generation catalyst **Ni1** contained bis(2-methoxyphenyl)-phosphine moieties (Fig. 1A)^{26,41} whereas the second-generation catalyst **Ni2** contained bis(2,6-dimethoxyphenyl)-phosphine moieties (Scheme S1).⁴⁰ Although **Ni2** provided polymers with higher MW than **Ni1**, we chose the latter for this proof-of-concept study because it is less air-sensitive and can be obtained in greater yield. Complex **Ni1** was prepared as described in our earlier work²⁶ but with modifications to a few steps to improve the synthetic efficiency (see SI for details).

Although we have shown that the cation exchange rates between our Ni complexes and M^+ can be controlled by solvent polarity (*i.e.*, polar mixtures facilitate fast exchange whereas non-polar mixtures facilitate slow exchange),⁴⁰ we were unsure whether polar monomers would affect these rates. To interrogate this possibility, we conducted a series of cation binding studies. In these experiments, **Ni1** was dissolved in toluene- d_8 /Et₂O (48 : 2) and then various amounts of NaBARF₄ were added.

A) Formation of *cis/trans* **Ni1**-M Species



B) Cation Binding in the Absence of MA



C) Cation Binding in the Presence of MA

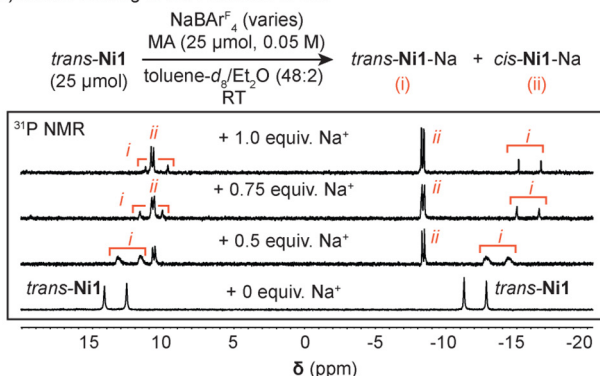


Fig. 1 Addition of M^+ to **Ni1** leads to the formation of *cis* and *trans* **Ni1**-M species in solution (A). ³¹P NMR spectra (202 MHz) of **Ni1** after the addition of up to 1.0 equiv. of NaBARF₄ in the absence (B) and presence (C) of MA. Ar = 2-methoxyphenyl.



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Table 1 Ethylene and alkyl acrylate copolymerization using **Ni1**/cations^a

Entry	M ⁺	Acrylate	Act. (kg mol ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Inc. ^b (mol%)	M _n ^c (kg mol ⁻¹)	D ^c	Acrylate/chain ^d	T _m (°C)
1	None	MA	0	—	—	—	—	—
2	Li ⁺	MA	1020	0.71	18.9	1.4	4.7	125
3	Na ⁺	MA	328	1.08	2.2	1.1	0.8	107
4	K ⁺	MA	340	1.12	3.1	1.4	1.2	115
5	Cs ⁺	MA	196	1.26	12.3	1.6	5.4	119
6	Li ⁺	BA	843	0.26	14.8	1.3	1.4	124
7	Na ⁺	BA	492	0.58	2.3	1.4	0.5	112
8	K ⁺	BA	467	0.76	3.7	1.8	1.0	121
9	Cs ⁺	BA	312	0.89	15.1	1.5	4.7	116
10	Li ⁺	EA	366	0.2	11.7	1.5	0.8	124

^a Polymerization conditions: **Ni1** catalyst (2 μmol), MBar^F₄ (4 μmol), Ni(COD)₂ (8 μmol), ethylene (400 psi), alkyl acrylate (2.5 mmol, 0.05 M), 48 mL toluene/2 mL Et₂O, 30 °C, 30 min. In the absence of cations, **Ni1** is not active for polymerization. Temperature was controlled by manual external cooling when necessary to ensure that the reaction temperature did not exceed 5 °C from the starting temperature. ^b Determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. See SI for the equations used. The standard deviations are typically less than 7%. ^c Determined by GPC in trichlorobenzene at 160 °C. The standard deviations are typically less than 10%. Abbreviations: MA = methyl acrylate, EA = ethyl acrylate, BA = *tert*-butyl acrylate. ^d See SI for calculations.

and olefin binding) are lowest in the presence of Li⁺ and highest in the presence of Cs⁺. Their density functional theory (DFT) results are consistent with our experimental observations that the catalyst activity follows the periodic trend from Li⁺ → Na⁺ → K⁺ → Cs⁺. Our results showing that the more active **Ni1**-M catalysts yielded copolymers with lower MA mol% indicate that ethylene insertion is faster relative to MA insertion. However, further mechanistic studies of the copolymerization process are necessary to identify the rate-determining steps and evaluate whether there are cooperative interactions between MA and the metal centers in **Ni1**-M.^{51,52} The **Ni1**-M catalysts were also capable of producing ethylene-ethyl acrylate (EEA) and ethylene-*tert*-butyl acrylate (EBA) copolymers from ethylene and the corresponding comonomer (Table 1, entries 6–10).

Because **Ni1**-Cs appeared to show greater thermal stability than the other **Ni1**-M catalysts, we also evaluated its activity at different temperatures (Fig. 2 and Table S4). Our results indicated that **Ni1**-Cs has maximum activity at 70 °C (512 kg mol⁻¹ h⁻¹) but still gave EMA with appreciable rates at 90 °C (485 kg mol⁻¹ h⁻¹). At 70 °C, the activity of **Ni1**-Cs was noticeably higher than at 30 °C, with up to 988 kg mol⁻¹ h⁻¹ for the copolymerization of ethylene and *tert*-butyl acrylate (Table S6).

Compared to other metal catalysts that have been reported for ethylene and alkyl acrylate copolymerization, the **Ni1**-M complexes are among the top-performers (Fig. 3; see Table S20 for more examples).^{53,54} The most active nickel catalysts are all based on the phenoxyphosphine ligand platform.^{22,43–45} This catalyst family includes **Ni3** with 2,6-diisopropoxyphenyl phosphine substituents¹⁸ and **Ni4** that is immobilized on magnesium oxide support.⁵⁵ For comparison purposes we will use **Ni1**-Li as a representative example of our cation-tunable catalysts. Based on the copolymerization data, the rankings are as follows: **Ni3** > **Ni1**-Li > **Ni4**/MgO for activity and **Ni3** > **Ni4**/MgO > **Ni1**-Li for polymer molecular weight. All three nickel catalysts gave EMA with <1.0 mol% of MA incorporation. One of the most active palladium catalysts reported for ethylene and MA copolymerization is **Pd1**,⁵⁶ which features a phos-

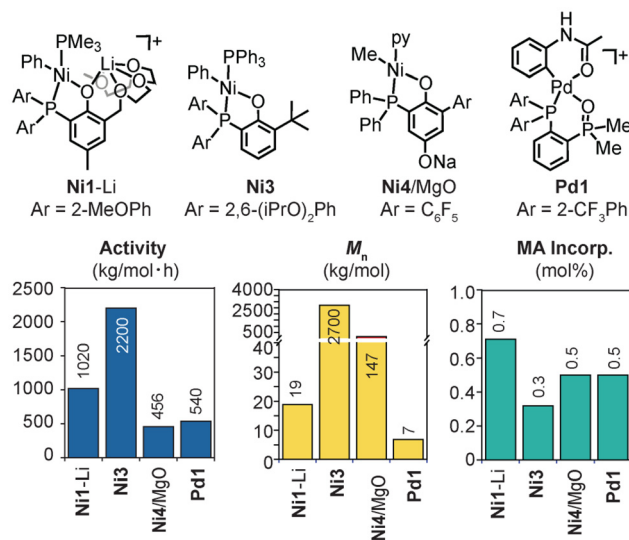


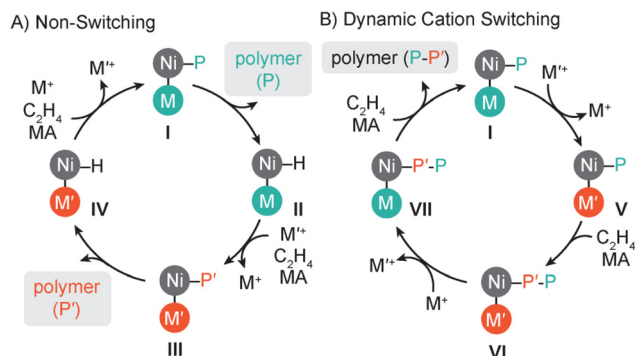
Fig. 3 Representative examples of the most active catalysts for ethylene and methyl acrylate copolymerization reported to date. See Fig. S28 and Table S20 for more examples.

phine-phosphine oxide ligand. This palladium catalyst compares favorably with the nickel catalysts but it provided EMA with a molecular weight of only 7 kg mol⁻¹.

Dynamic cation switching polymerization

Non-living polymerization catalysts yield a specific polymer independent of the reaction time.^{57,58} However, the polymer microstructure can still be tuned by varying the experimental conditions.³⁴ Our method using dynamic cation switching allows regulation of non-living polymerizations without reaction engineering.⁴⁰ This strategy is distinct from those that rely on static switching^{28–31} or oscillating catalysis.^{59–62} Based on our success using this method for ethylene homopolymerization, we propose that dynamic cation switching can also be applied to ethylene and polar monomer copolymerization. In





Scheme 1 Simplified catalytic cycles for non-switching (A) and dynamic cation switching (B) copolymerization of ethylene and methyl acrylate using Ni/M⁺/M⁺. P = polymer segment controlled by Ni-M⁺, P' = polymer segment controlled by Ni-M⁺, MA = methyl acrylate.

non-polar solvents, we expect that combining our nickel catalyst with M^+ and M^{+*} would generate $Ni(P)-M$ and $Ni(P')-M'$ species that do not undergo cation exchange (where P and $P' =$ growing polymer chains, Scheme 1), which means that two different active species will copolymerize ethylene and MA independently to yield bimodal polymers. In the simplified catalytic cycle shown in Scheme 1A, the heterobimetallic $Ni(P)-M$ (**I**) with a growing polymer chain can undergo β -hydride elimination to yield intermediate $Ni(H)-M$ (**II**) and polymer P . Species **II** can convert to $Ni(P')-M'$ (**III**) due to cation swapping of M^+ for M^{+*} and subsequent copolymerization. Chain termination from this intermediate would generate $Ni(H)-M'$ (**IV**) and polymer P' . Under a non-switching regime, the polymer produced will comprise P and P' with different relative distributions depending on the $M^+:M^{+*}$ ratio used in the reaction.

In slightly polar solvents, we anticipate that combining our nickel catalyst with M^+ and M^{r+} would generate active nickel species that continuously cycle between Ni/M^+ and Ni/M^{r+} states during chain propagation (*i.e.*, if cation switching is faster than the termination) (Scheme 1B). For example, starting from species **I**, exchange of M^+ with M^{r+} will afford $Ni(P)-M^r$ (**V**), which is capable of promoting further ethylene and MA insertions to **VI**. This propagating species can undergo cation exchange to **VII** as the reaction continues. Because each polymer chain is derived from a single active species that switches between two states, adjusting the $M^+ : M^{r+}$ ratio determines the extent in which Ni/M^+ and Ni/M^{r+} controls the growth of individual polymer chains. This strategy would enable precise fine-tuning of the polymer microstructure, achieving a level of control beyond what is feasible through reaction engineering.

To determine if cation switching can occur in the presence of polar monomers, we performed ethylene and MA copolymerizations in different solvent mixtures (Fig. 4). When **Ni1** was combined with CsBAR₄^F/NaBAR₄^F (1 : 1 ratio, 1 equiv. each relative to Ni), Ni(COD)₂, ethylene, and MA under standard conditions, we obtained EMA with different MWD depending

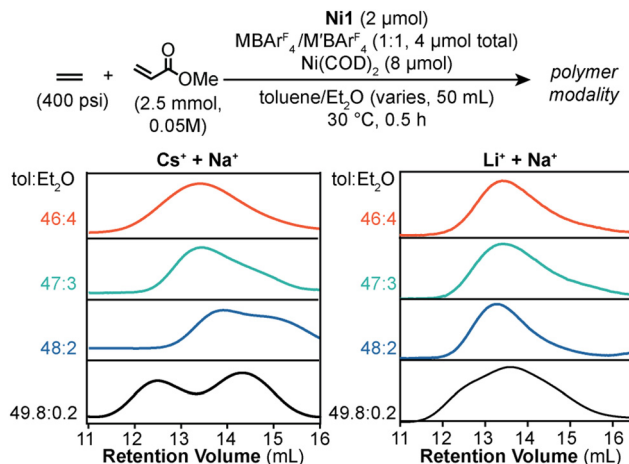
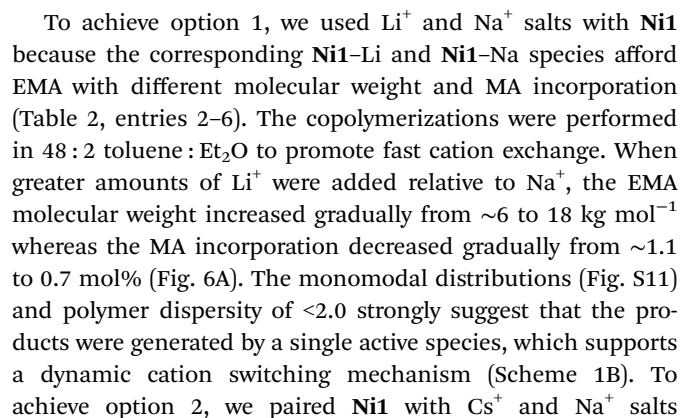


Fig. 4 Study of solvent polarity on the modality of polymers obtained from the copolymerization of ethylene and MA with $\text{NiI}^+/ \text{M}^+ / \text{M}^{++}$. The traces show the gel permeation chromatograms of the products obtained when different toluene/ Et_2O mixtures were used. The GPC traces show signals from the refractive index detector.

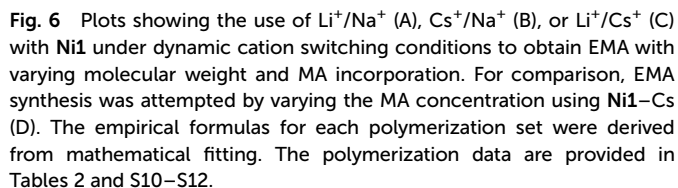
on the polarity of the solvent used. The gel permeation chromatograms (GPC) showed that the EMA obtained from reactions in 49.8:0.2 and 48:2 toluene/Et₂O mixtures were bimodal whereas those obtained from reactions in 47:3 and 46:4 toluene/Et₂O mixtures were monomodal or nearly so ($\bar{D} < 2.0$; Fig. 4, bottom left). These results suggest that in less polar solvents, cation exchange between **Ni1**-Cs and **Ni1**-Na is slow so polymer chain growth occurs from two distinct active species. As the solvent polarity is increased, each nickel catalyst switches continuously between two different states (**Ni1**/Cs⁺ and **Ni1**/Na⁺) during chain propagation so only a single polymer population is produced. When this study was conducted using **Ni1** with LiBAR^F₄/NaBAR^F₄, similar results were obtained except that monomodal EMA was observed in the 48:2 toluene/Et₂O mixture (Fig. 4, bottom right). Because the minimum solvent polarity needed to achieve dynamic cation switching is dependent on the binding affinity of the specific cations to **Ni1**, different salt combinations will require different toluene/Et₂O mixtures. Increasing the amount of Et₂O used in the reactions decreased the catalyst activity, most likely due to the solvent serving as a competing ligand for the nickel active sites (Tables S7 and S8).

Molecular weight distribution tuning

To manipulate the copolymer MWD, we varied the $\text{Li}^+:\text{Na}^+$ ratio while keeping the **Ni1**, $\text{Ni}(\text{COD})_2$, ethylene, and MA amounts constant in a 49.8 : 0.2 mixture of toluene/ Et_2O (Fig. 5 and Table S9). Analysis of the resulting EMA revealed that in all cases, bimodal polymers were obtained, in which their MWD is skewed toward the higher molecular weight end if the ratio of $\text{Li}^+:\text{Na}^+$ was higher and *vice versa*. Deconvolution of the GPC traces obtained from the 3 : 1 $\text{Li}^+:\text{Na}^+$ reaction showed a higher molecular weight peak A and a lower molecular weight peak B with an integrated ratio A/B of 0.86. When



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The data above were fit to mathematical functions, providing empirically derived formulas for calculating the amount of M^+ and M^{r+} salts needed to obtain copolymers with a specific set of characteristics (Fig. 6A–C).⁴⁰ Equations correlating “z”

To compare the effectiveness of our strategy *vs.* that of a typical approach to customize EMA, we carried out ethylene and MA copolymerization using **Ni1**-Cs under standard conditions but with varying concentrations of the polar monomer (Fig. 6D and Table S14). We observed that increasing the MA concentration from 0.01 to 0.10 M afforded EMA with decreasing molecular weight (21 to 6 kg mol⁻¹) but increasing MA incorporation (0.42 to 1.77 mol%). The inverse relationship between polymer MW and MA incorporation is expected because the presence of acrylates can induces faster chain termination.⁴⁴ At higher MA concentration, the **Ni1**-Cs activity dropped significantly, from 532 to 46 kg mol⁻¹ h⁻¹. When 0.25 M methyl acrylate was used, the catalyst was completely inactive. These results are consistent with previous studies showing that polar monomers can inhibit polymerization through engaging in σ interactions with the metal catalyst.⁶³ Because our strategy does not require changing the MA concentration to adjust the polymer composition, moderate to high activities (>100 kg mol⁻¹ h⁻¹) were obtained in our copolymerizations (Table 2).

To determine the microstructures of the copolymers, we relied on characterization using ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy. We observed that in most cases, the MA units in EMA are located primarily in-chain,^{43,64,65} as revealed by the ^1H NMR signal at 3.71 ppm and the ^{13}C NMR signal at 176 ppm corresponding to the methyl and carbonyl groups of MA, respectively (Fig. S39–S49). Similarly, the ethylene/*tert*-butyl acrylate copolymers were found to also contain in-chain BA groups (Fig. S56 and S57). The exception to this trend is copolymers synthesized using more polar solvent mixtures (*e.g.*, 45:5 toluene:Et₂O, Fig. S65–S68), which featured both in-chain and chain-end polar moieties. Given that under our standard polymerization conditions we obtained copolymers with mostly in-chain polar groups, insertion of alkyl acrylate into the Ni-polymeryl species does not appear to induce chain termination.⁴⁴

Although the “tunable range” in these experiments is somewhat narrow (*e.g.*, M_n between ~ 3 to 8 kg mol^{-1} using Cs^+/Na^+ and MA incorporation between 1.0 to 1.4 mol% using Li^+/Cs^+), this restriction is due to limitations of the **Ni1** catalyst rather than the tuning method. We expect that **Ni2** (Scheme S1),⁴⁰ which can give polyethylene with M_n of $>1000 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ in the presence of Cs^+ , will likely afford access to EMA with a wider range of molecular weights.

Polymer properties

Because we were able to synthesize EMA with controlled MW and MA incorporation, it allowed us to systematically study their structure–function relationships. To measure the melting (T_m) and 5% mass loss (T_5) temperatures, differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) were used, respectively. Our data revealed that the polymers' thermal properties were more dependent on its chain length than polar group density when the MA incorporation is low. For example, lowering the EMA molecular weight from 8 to 3 kg mol⁻¹ while keeping MA density constant led to a maximum reduction in T_m by 6 °C and T_5 by 48 °C (Table S11). In contrast, increasing the MA incorporation from 1.0 to 1.4 mol% while maintaining a similar MW, resulted in only small changes to the EMA's thermal parameters (max ΔT_m = ~5 °C and ΔT_5 = ~9 °C) (Table S12). It should be noted that while most copolymers produced DSC and TGA traces with sharp features, samples obtained from reactions using NiI/NaBAr^F₄ (e.g., Fig. S88B and S90B) showed broad curves. Given the narrow polymer dispersity of these samples ($\bar{D}$ < 2.0), it is possible that the irregular features may stem from having multiple crystalline domains within the polymer structure^{66,67} or non-uniform distribution of the MA units.

Next, we investigated the physical properties of the copolymers as a function of MA. All measurements were performed on polymers with an average molecular weight of ~20 kg mol⁻¹ and average MA incorporation of 0 (PE-1), 0.8 (EMA-1), 1.1 (EMA-2), and 1.4 mol% (EMA-3) (Table 3). The polymer specimens were molded into a T-bone shape and then subjected to tensile testing. The stress vs. strain curves (Fig. S24 and S25) showed that all of the materials evaluated have similar mechanical properties, with elongation at break ranging from 8–10% and tensile strength between 19–23 MPa (Table 3). These values are typical for high-density polyethylene, which can range from 3–1900% and 3–60 MPa for elongation-at-break and tensile strength, respectively.⁶⁸ Our results suggest that the presence of small amounts of MA in the polymer chain has negligible impact on its mechanical properties.

To determine the wettability of the polymer samples, their water contact angles were measured using a static drop method at 25 °C (Fig. S26).^{69,70} We found that PE-1 had an average contact angle of 107.8°, which is within the range expected for polyethylene.^{71,72} When the methyl acrylate content increased to 7 (EMA-1), 8 (EMA-2), and 10 (EMA-3)

units per chain, the water contact angle decreased to 99.6, 97.8, and 94.0°, respectively (Table 3), indicating that the EMA-coated surface became increasingly more polar.^{4,73–75}

Polymer degradability

It has been shown that functional polyolefins can be degraded under oxidative conditions⁶⁵ but quantitative correlations between the polar group density and polymer degradability have not yet been clearly established. Studying such relationships requires access to copolymers with the same MW that vary only in their polar group content to prevent conflating other factors that may contribute to degradability. With our newly synthesized polymers in hand, we had the opportunity to investigate how functional groups within the polyolefin chain influence its susceptibility toward oxidative degradation.^{76–78} Although a variety of methods are available to cleave the inert C–C bonds in polyolefins, such as thermal cracking,^{79–81} dehydrogenation/metathesis,⁸² or dehydrogenation/isomerization/ethenolysis,^{83,84} they typically require high temperatures (>150 °C) and/or precious metal catalysts.

Inspired by reports on the reactions of peroxides with polyethylene,^{85–87} we focused on developing polymer degradation methods that can be performed under mild oxidizing conditions. We found that stirring PE-1, EMA-1, EMA-2, or EMA-3 in the presence of *tert*-butylperoxy-2-ethylhexyl carbonate (TBEC) in H₂O at 75 °C for 24 h was sufficient to promote polymer degradation (Fig. 7A). The solid products were isolated by filtration, washed with water and acetone, and then dried overnight. The recovered mass was up to ~90% of the starting mass (Table S17), suggesting that the material isolated represents the bulk of the TBEC-treated products. To determine the extent of degradation, we analyzed the products by GPC and calculated the reduction in molecular weight percentage (ΔM_n) using the formula: $(MW_i - MW_f)/MW_i \times 100\%$, in which MW_i is the initial molecular weight and MW_f is the final molecular weight (Table S17). In the absence of peroxide, the ΔM_n did not exceed ~15% regardless of whether the polymer contained MA (Fig. 7A). In contrast, the addition of TBEC to the reactions led to significant changes in polymer molecular weight. For example, PE-1 had an average ΔM_n value of 74% and EMA-1, EMA-2, and EMA-3 had average ΔM_n values of 88, 92, and 97%, respectively. The peroxide indices (PI), defined as ΔM_n in the presence of peroxide divided by ΔM_n in the absence of peroxide, were 5.0, 7.9, 7.6, and 12.9, respectively (Table 3). These results indicated that: (1) appreciable polymer

Table 3 Polymer characterization data (averaged)^a

Polymer	Inc. (%)	MA per chain	M_n (kg mol ⁻¹)	Elong. at break (%)	Tensile strength (MPa)	Contact angle (°)	PI
PE-1	0	0	19	9.2	19.7	107.8	5
EMA-1	0.8	6.6	23	10.4	23.2	99.6	7.9
EMA-2	1.1	7.8	20	10.5	21.2	97.8	7.6
EMA-3	1.4	10.5	21	8.4	20.1	94.0	16.4

^a Values shown are the average from two independently prepared samples with similar MA incorporation and M_n . The maximum standard deviations is ±0.1 mol% for MA incorporation and ±2 kg mol⁻¹ for MW. See Table S18 for more details. PI = peroxide index.



Conclusions

In summary, we have developed a method using dynamic cation switching polymerization to obtain ethylene and alkyl acrylate copolymers with exceptional control. Our studies showed that the presence of up to 0.05 M methyl acrylate did not negatively impact cation exchange between alkali ions and **Ni1**, suggesting that this catalyst system is compatible with polar monomers. We demonstrated that the **Ni1**-M complexes are active for ethylene and alkyl acrylate (MA, EA, or BA) copolymerization, with **Ni1**-Li exhibiting activity comparable to that of the best-performing catalysts reported in the literature. Using **Ni1** and a mixture of M^+ and M^{r+} salts, we synthesized EMA with different MWD depending on the solvent polarity (e.g., 49.8:0.2 toluene/Et₂O gave bimodal EMA whereas 47:3 toluene/Et₂O gave monomodal EMA) and $M^+ : M^{r+}$ ratio. To demonstrate the utility of our method, we successfully prepared three sets of copolymers: (1) EMA with different MW and MA incorporation; (2) EMA with different MW but similar MA incorporation; and (3) EMA with different MA incorporation but similar MW. When we attempted to tune the polar group density by increasing the MA concentration, the resulting copolymers had higher MA incorporation but reduced MW. Using larger amounts of MA had detrimental effects on the catalyst activity because MA can inhibit the catalyst *via* σ -coordination. These results suggest that dynamic cation switching polymerization affords a much higher level of control over the polymerization outcome compared to other approaches that rely on reaction optimization or engineering, which can be particularly useful in situations where the reaction conditions needed are impractical to achieve (e.g., in industrial reactors that are designed to operate within certain temperatures or pressures). Free radical and coordination-insertion polymerization are complementary methods, as the former enables the synthesis of copolymers with high polar group content (e.g., >50 mol%) whereas the latter is better suited for generating copolymers with lower polar group content (e.g., <5 mol%).

Although low-polarity polyethylene has not traditionally been regarded as a valuable material, our research indicates that they exhibit unique and useful properties worthy of further investigations. For example, studies of **PE-1**, **EMA-1**, **EMA-2**, and **EMA-3** demonstrated that the copolymers had similar thermal and mechanical properties as those in the ethylene homopolymer but exhibit greater wettability, which could enhance their adhesiveness and compatibility with other materials. Our finding that only minor quantities of MA per chain are sufficient to increase their susceptibility toward oxidative chain scission is significant, suggesting that polymers could be engineered to be both polyethylene-like and degradable on demand, offering a possible solution to the polymer pollution problem associated with PE.^{98,99} Finally, this work illustrates how advances in polymer synthesis enable the preparation of previously inaccessible materials for fundamental studies and discovery of unexpected polymer properties.

Author contributions

T. G. and L. C. R. D. C.: contributed to investigation, data analysis, visualization, and writing; R. A.: contributed to data analysis; L. H. D.: contributed to conceptualization, data analysis, writing, visualization, and supervision.

Conflicts of interest

T. G., L. C. R. D. C., and L. H. D. have a provisional patent application related to this work that is pending (U.S. Pat. Appl. No. 19/238,788).

Data availability

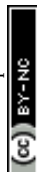
The data supporting this article have been included as part of the supplementary information (SI). Supplementary information: experimental procedures, synthesis and characterization, polymerization results, rheological data, and degradation studies. See DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1039/d5py00819k>.

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