

# Commercial Group III–V Metal Alkoxide Catalysts for Selective Epoxide and Anhydride Ring Opening Copolymerization Delivering Poly(ester-*alt*-ethers)

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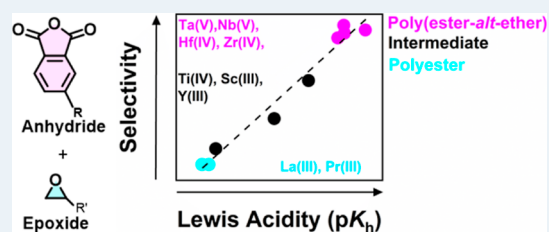
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**ABSTRACT:** The ring-opening copolymerization (ROCOP) of cyclic anhydrides (*A*) and epoxides (*B*) is a controlled route to alternating polyesters, with the best catalysts delivering high ester sequence (*AB*) selectivity. In contrast, very few catalysts can selectively enchain the same monomers to produce ester-*alt*-ether (*ABB*) sequences. Here, simple, commercial, homoleptic Zr(IV) catalysts (alkoxides and chloride) show faster rates, controlled polymerization and high selectivity in epoxide/anhydride ROCOP to selectively produce poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) (>95%); they outperform the best prior Zr(IV) coordination catalyst. Comparing the copolymerization rates and selectivity using a systematic series of homoleptic Groups III–V metal alkoxide complexes, all  $d^0$  configurations, reveals a metal structure-polymer linkage selectivity correlation. Plots of the polymer sequence selectivity (*ABB*) against the metal center Lewis acidity, as assessed by its hydrolysis constant ( $pK_h$ ), show a linear correlation, identifying the most selective catalysts for both poly(ester-*alt*-ether) and polyester production. High Lewis acidity catalysts ( $1 < pK_h < 0.6$ ) are best for poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) (*ABB*), while those with lower relative Lewis acidities ( $8.1 < pK_h < 8.5$ ) are selective for polyesters (*AB*) and intermediate acidity metal catalysts form polymers with mixed linkages. The discovery of simple, commercial selective catalysts for epoxide and anhydride copolymerization is an important advance relevant to future production of elastomers, surfactants and adhesives.



## INTRODUCTION

Polyesters are high priority sustainable materials due to the biosourcing of many monomers, ability to tune structures to deliver in many applications, facility to undergo efficient, low-energy mechanical and chemical recycling and, in some cases, (bio)degradation.<sup>1–9</sup> Conventionally, polyesters are prepared by step-growth polymerization methods, but catalyzed chain-growth routes are desirable for the high atom economy, low temperatures, ability to control monomer sequences and compatibility with block polymer formation.<sup>10,11</sup>

The catalyzed ring opening copolymerization (ROCOP) of cyclic anhydrides (*A*) and epoxides (*B*) is such a controlled chain growth polymerization, useful to make aliphatic, semi-aromatic and functionalized polyesters featuring *AB* repeat units (Figure 1).<sup>11–14</sup> The best catalysts show high sequence selectivity, good control over molecular weights ( $M_n$ ) and successfully enchain a wide range of epoxides and cyclic anhydrides.<sup>11,14</sup> Many epoxides and anhydrides are commercial products already used in industrial polymer manufacturing; some are already biosourced and others could become biosourced in future, which is important to help reduce embedded carbon dioxide emissions.<sup>4</sup> Another benefit of controlled *AB* (anhydride/epoxide) ROCOP is its use to make block polymers which show promise as thermoplastics and elastomers.<sup>2,5,6</sup> Current leading *AB* ROCOP metal-catalysts

include multifunctional Cr(III), Co(III) or Al(III) complexes, incorporating ionic cocatalysts, or heterodinuclear Co(III)K(I), Fe(III)K(I), Al(III)K(I) or Zn(II)Mg(II) complexes.<sup>11,14–25</sup> Phosphazene bases, thio-ureas, amines and boranes, used in combination with each other and/or with ionic cocatalysts like phosphonium chlorides, are also effective catalysts.<sup>26–31</sup> These prior catalysts have been optimized for the formation of highly alternating *AB* polyesters, with >99% selectivity for ester repeat units now commonly observed.<sup>11,14–25</sup> Some of these catalysts are also effective in epoxide ring-opening polymerization (ROP), forming poly(ester-*b*-ethers) when using excess epoxide (vs anhydride) in the ROCOP.<sup>10,11,14</sup>

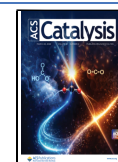
In 2022, we reported a Zr(IV) coordination complex,  $[ZrL_2(O^iPr)_2]$ , which exhibited a highly unusual selectivity in cyclic anhydride (*A*) and epoxide (*B*) ring-opening copolymerization (Figure 1).<sup>32</sup> It delivered poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) with very high (>95%) selectivity for *ABB* repeat units. In the

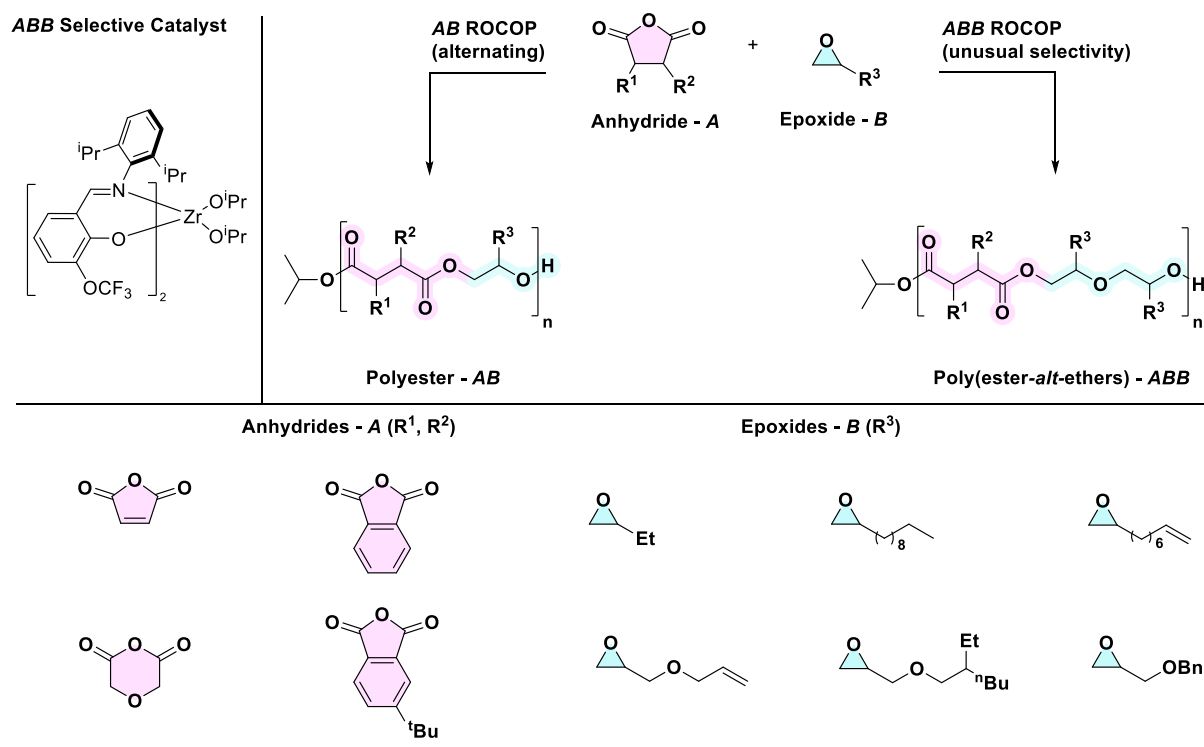
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**Figure 1.** Poly(ester-*alt*-ether) ROCOP (ABB) of cyclic anhydrides (A) and epoxides (B) using the previously reported coordination complex Zr(IV) catalyst,  $[\text{ZrL}_2(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_2]$ .<sup>32</sup> The catalyst, anhydrides and epoxides reported to produce polymers with ABB sequences are shown.<sup>33,34</sup>

**Table 1. Ring-Opening Copolymerization (ROCOP) of Anhydride (tBuPA) and Epoxide (OO) Using Metal Alkoxides From Group III–V as Catalysts<sup>a</sup>**

entry	catalyst	anhydride: epoxide degrees of polymerization (DP)	anhydride: epoxide [tBPA]/[OO] <sup>b,c</sup>	poly(ester- <i>alt</i> -ether) selectivity (% ABB linkages) <sup>d</sup>	$M_n$ (D) [kg mol <sup>-1</sup> ] <sup>e</sup>	$M_n$ (theo) <sup>f</sup> (# initiators)	$k_{\text{obs}}$ ( $\times 10^{-4}$ M s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>g</sup>
1	ZrL <sub>2</sub> (O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>2</sub> <sup>32</sup>	25:55		97	7.7 (1.16)	12.2 (2)	24 ± 0.4
2	Zr(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>4</sub> (HO <sup>i</sup> Pr)	10:20		96	5.9 (1.25)	4.8 (5)	180 ± 10
3	Zr(OEt) <sub>4</sub>	13:25		97	6.3 (1.23)	6.3 (4)	160 ± 6
4	ZrCl <sub>4</sub>	13:27		95	5.3 (1.12)	5.9 (4)	200 ± 25
5	Sc(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>3</sub>	17:24		39	7.7 (1.29)	6.6 (3)	10 ± 0.2
6	Y(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>3</sub>	17:23		20	6.8 (1.45)	6.0 (3)	1 ± 0.3
7	La(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>3</sub>	17:18		9	8.0 (1.28)	5.8 (3)	2 ± 0.01
8	Pr(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>3</sub>	17:19		14	7.8 (1.29)	6.0 (3)	2 ± 0.01
9	Ti(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>4</sub>	13:22		63	4.9 (1.25)	5.4 (4)	2 ± 0.2
10	Zr(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>4</sub> (HO <sup>i</sup> Pr)	10:20		96	5.9 (1.25)	4.8 (5)	180 ± 10
11	Hf(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>4</sub> (HO <sup>i</sup> Pr)	10:21		98	6.2 (1.28)	4.8 (5)	170 ± 12
12	Nb(OEt) <sub>5</sub>	10:21		90	5.6 (1.23)	4.8 (5)	N.D.
13	Ta(OEt) <sub>5</sub>	10:21		95	7.1 (1.28)	4.8 (5)	0.4 ± 0.02
14	Zr(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>4</sub> (HO <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sup>h</sup>	10:19		82	4.1 (1.15)	4.0 (5)	N.D.
15	Hf(O <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sub>4</sub> (HO <sup>i</sup> Pr) <sup>h</sup>	10:20		86	3.9 (1.15)	4.1 (5)	N.D.

<sup>a</sup>ROCOP conditions: [Cat] = 10 mM, [tBPA] = 0.5 M, OO = 1 mL, 120 °C, 40–360 s. <sup>b</sup>DP(tBuPA) was determined from the relative ratios of the integrals for the aromatic tBPA (7.91–8.01 ppm) vs P(tBPA) (7.34–7.84 ppm) resonances in the crude <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra (Figures S8–S14). <sup>c</sup>DP(OO) was determined using the relative integrals for the aromatic (7.34–7.84 ppm) vs total ether and ester resonances (~3.2–5.5 ppm) in the crude polymer <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra (Figures S8–S21). <sup>d</sup>Determined using the relative integrals for AB ester linkages (5.35 ppm) vs ABB ester-*alt*-ether linkages (5.10 ppm) (Figure S21). <sup>e</sup>Determined by gel permeation chromatography (GPC), using THF as the eluent, and calibrated using narrow MW polystyrene standards (Figure S22 and S24). <sup>f</sup>Theoretical  $M_n$  are calculated using monomer conversion data assuming that all alkoxide (and any alcohol) ligands initiate. <sup>g</sup>The rate coefficient is determined from linear fits to plots of [P(tBPA)] vs time, the errors are determined from repeat runs (Figure 2 and S23). <sup>h</sup>These reactions were open to air before polymerization (Figures S25–s28).

catalytic cycle, an anhydride insertion is followed by two sequential epoxide insertions (Figure 1).<sup>32</sup> The polymerization kinetics, investigated using phthalic anhydride, PA (A), and butylene oxide, BO (B), showed a rate law that is first order in each of epoxide (B) and catalyst concentrations, but zero order in anhydride (A) concentration (Figure S1).<sup>32</sup> The poly(ester-

*alt*-ethers) were fully characterized, with the sequence selectivity confirmed by 1 and 2-D NMR spectroscopy, GPC, MALDI-ToF mass spectrometry and by complete ester linkage hydrolysis followed by HPLC-mass spectrometry analysis of the small-molecule products.<sup>32,33</sup> In 2024, the Zr(IV) catalyst showed very high ABB selectivity using other

cyclic anhydrides and epoxides. The resulting poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) are amorphous elastomers with glass transition temperatures from  $-50$  to  $48$  °C (Figure 1).<sup>33</sup> The Zr(IV) catalyst was also active in L-lactide ring opening polymerization.<sup>34</sup> Using a one-reactor process, it was used to make poly(ester-*alt*-ether)-*b*-(L-lactides) which were effective as fully recyclable, enzymatically degradable tougheners for commercial poly(L-lactide) (Figure 1).<sup>34</sup> Our group and others have previously shown that some Sn(II) catalysts produced poly(ester-*ran*-ethers), but these catalysts lack the very high *ABB* linkage selectivity.<sup>35–38</sup> Poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) can also be produced by other controlled polymerizations, such as cyclic ester and epoxide terpolymerization or specialist lactone ring opening polymerizations; these reactions generally require rather specialist catalysts and/or custom synthesized monomers which prohibit widespread use.<sup>39–43</sup>

To apply the *ABB* selective catalysis, it is important to establish whether other metal complexes could behave equivalently to the Zr(IV) coordination complex. One limitation of the current Zr(IV) catalyst is that it needs to be synthesised and its isolated yield is rather low ( $\sim 20$ – $25\%$ ). This arises because, although its ligand syntheses are straightforward, the complex is isolated by crystallization.<sup>32,33</sup> To investigate alternative catalysts, a series of commercial, homoleptic Zr(IV) complexes, featuring alkoxide or halide ligands (initiating groups), are selected. To understand whether other similar size and electronic configuration ( $d^0$ ) metals would also be effective, a series of other commercial Group III–V metal alkoxide complexes are targeted,  $M(\text{OR})_n \cdot (\text{ROH})_m$ , where  $M = \text{Sc(III)}, \text{Y(III)}, \text{La(III)}, \text{Pr(III)}, \text{Ti(IV)}, \text{Zr(IV)}, \text{Hf(IV)}, \text{Nb(V)}$  or  $\text{Ta(V)}$  and  $R = \text{Et}$  or  $i\text{Pr}$ . The alkoxide ligands ( $\text{OEt}$  or  $\text{O}^i\text{Pr}$ ) are likely to be effective polymerization initiators since they model one of the putative propagation intermediates, i.e. the metal alkoxide formed by epoxide ring-opening. The objective is to understand how these metals behave in catalysis, particularly in terms of poly(ester-*alt*-ether) (*ABB*) selectivity, polymerization rates ( $k_{\text{obs}}$ ) and polymerization control.

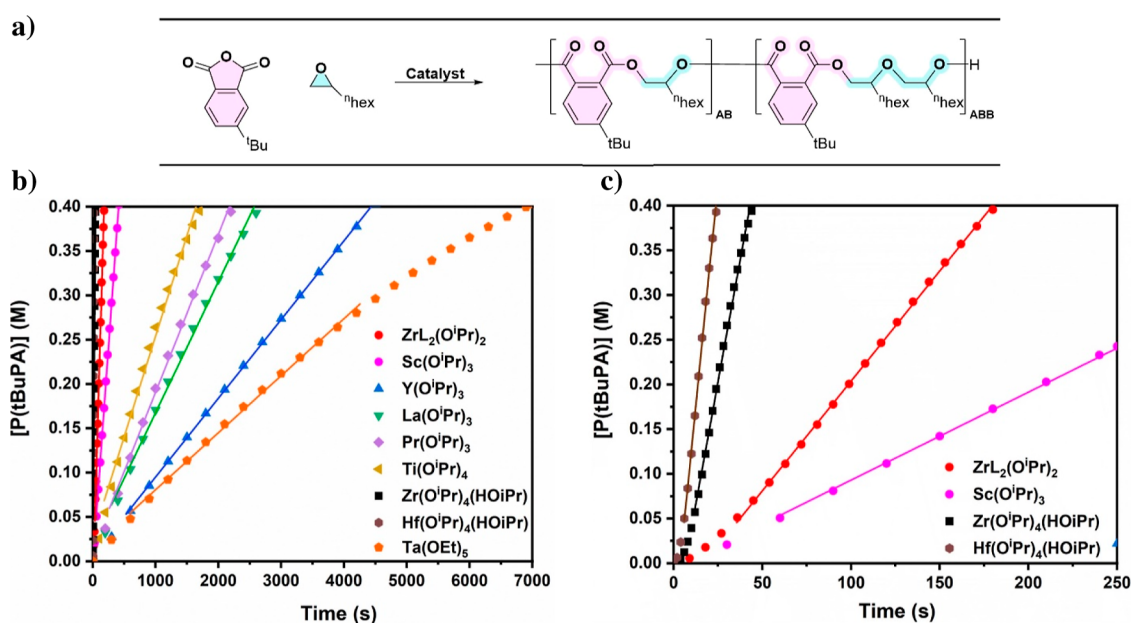
## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The homoleptic, Zr(IV) alkoxide and halide complexes were tested as catalysts with performances benchmarked against the previously reported catalyst,  $[\text{ZrL}_2(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_2]$ . For these copolymerizations, *tert*-butyl phthalic anhydride (tBuPA) and octene oxide (OO) were used as monomers, due to the high solubility of all catalysts in them and their high boiling points, enabling higher reaction temperatures. All copolymerizations were conducted under common conditions, where  $[\text{Zr}]/[\text{tBuPA}]/[\text{OO}] = 1:50:660$  at  $120$  °C (Table 1). The polymerization kinetics were assessed using a recently reported methodology, whereby rates are directly measured using a differential scanning calorimeter (DSC).<sup>44</sup> As an example of how this method was used under an inert atmosphere,  $[\text{Zr}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_4(\text{HO}^i\text{Pr})]$  catalyst and monomers were added in the appropriate molar ratios to a DSC pan, which was heated rapidly to  $120$  °C and the copolymerization rates were analyzed from heat flow (W/g) vs time data, until complete anhydride consumption (Table 1 and Figure S2). The normalized heat flow (W/g) vs time (s) output was transformed into normalized anhydride (tBuPA) or P(tBuPA) concentration vs time data, using  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy to calibrate conversion (Figures S2 and S3).<sup>44</sup> In all cases, the normalized concentration of polymerized and initial anhydride

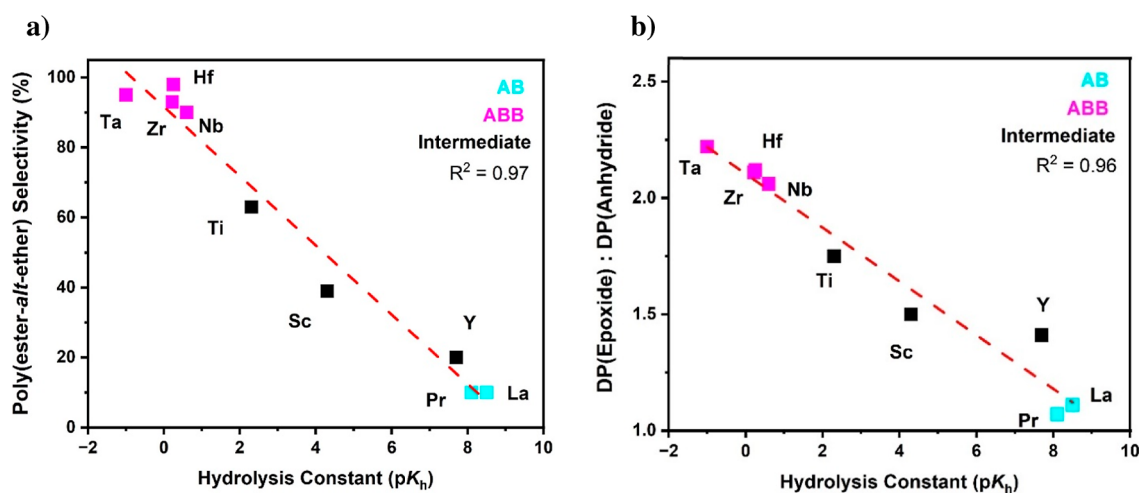
concentrations are related by  $[\text{P}(\text{tBuPA})] = 1 - [\text{tBuPA}]$ . In the kinetic plots, the concentration of polymerized anhydride  $[\text{P}(\text{tBuPA})]$  is used to measure the polymerization progress since regardless of the specific polymer sequence (which can vary), one anhydride is enchainned in every repeat unit, i.e. sequences are either *AB* or *ABB*. In this work, the P(tBuPA) abbreviation is used to refer to the formation and concentration of polymer repeat units, regardless of the specific sequence, which is labeled *ABB* or *AB* selectivity. The P(tBuPA) should not be confused to mean that only anhydride is enchainned in a repeat unit. The use of the label is important since it enables comparisons of activity to be drawn between all catalysts, regardless of their sequence selectivity. The kinetic plots show linear fits, over  $10$ – $80\%$  P(tBuPA) conversions, with the rate coefficient ( $k_{\text{obs}}$ ) as the gradient (Figure S3).<sup>44</sup> For all catalysts, the kinetic experiments were conducted in triplicate, with typical errors in rate coefficient values being  $<10\%$ . To establish the accuracy of the DSC methodology, the same copolymerization ( $[\text{Zr}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_4(\text{HO}^i\text{Pr})]$  as catalyst) was conducted with conventional aliquot analysis (Figures S2–S7).

Identical conditions were used, with the aliquots quenched at regular time intervals and the crude reaction products analyzed by  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy to determine the anhydride conversion (Figure S4). The polymerization rate coefficients are the same, within experimental errors, with  $k_{\text{obs}}(\text{DSC}) = 180 \pm 10 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  and  $k_{\text{obs}}(\text{vial}) = 163 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  (Figures S3 and S4). Both the resulting polymers showed equivalent, very high *ABB* linkage selectivity:  $96\%$  for both DSC and aliquots (Figure S5). Both poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) show the same molar masses, as determined by GPC, with the DSC methodology yielding poly(ester-*alt*-ether) with  $M_n = 4.6 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$  ( $\mathcal{D} = 1.18$ ) and the reaction aliquot method having  $M_n = 4.4 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$  ( $\mathcal{D} = 1.15$ ) (Table 1 and Figure S6). Plots of molar mass ( $M_n$ ) and dispersity ( $\mathcal{D}$ ) vs anhydride conversion show a linear increase in  $M_n$  and low dispersity values with increasing monomer conversion, consistent with the reaction being a well-controlled polymerization (Figure S7). Subsequently, all the new catalysts were investigated using the DSC method to measure rates, since it is fast, reliable and operates on a small-scale.

All the poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) were characterized using  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy to evaluate the polymer composition (*ABB* linkage selectivity), monomer conversion and relative degrees of polymerization (Figures S8–S21). In all cases, even though reactions occur in excess epoxide, there is no epoxide ROP or polyether formation after complete anhydride consumption, rather the excess epoxide remains unreacted once the anhydride is consumed (Figure S9). The conversion and degree of polymerization (DP) of the anhydride were determined using  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy by analysis of the relative integrals of the resonances assigned to tBuPA and P(tBuPA) ( $\sim 7.9$  vs  $\sim 7.5$  ppm, respectively, Figures S8 and S20). The epoxide (OO) conversion, and hence degree of polymerization, was determined by comparing the relative P(tBuPA) resonances, against the sum of all the ring-opened epoxide linkages adjacent to ester and ether groups ( $\sim 3.2$ – $5.5$  ppm) (Figures S8 and S21). The poly(ester-*alt*-ether) selectivity ( $[\text{AB}]/[\text{ABB}]$ ) was determined by comparing the integrals of the methine ester resonances, since these signals occur at different chemical shifts for *AB* polyesters ( $5.35$  ppm) compared with *ABB* poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) ( $5.10$  ppm, Figures S21).



**Figure 2.** Kinetic data for the metal alkoxide catalysts, using metals from groups III–V. Plots of  $[P(\text{tBuPA})]$  vs time for the series of  $M(\text{OR})_n \cdot (\text{HOR})_m$  catalysts. (a) Anhydride and epoxide ROCOP; conditions:  $[M(\text{OR})_n \cdot (\text{HOR})_m]/[\text{tBuPA}]/[\text{OO}] = 1:50:654$ , 1 mL OO, 120 °C (Table 1). (b) Plot of  $[P(\text{tBuPA})]$  vs time for all catalysts, with linear fits included (Figures S2 and S3). The pseudo rate coefficients,  $k_{\text{obs}}$  ( $\text{M s}^{-1}$ ) are the gradients of the linear fits (from 10 to 80% conversion, except  $\text{Ta}(\text{OEt})_5$  which was fit between 10 and 60%). (c) Plot for the fastest catalysts:  $(\text{Zr}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_4(\text{HO}^i\text{Pr}))$ ,  $\text{Hf}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_4(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})$ ,  $\text{Sc}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_3$  and  $\text{ZrL}_2(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_2$ . All kinetic data show  $R^2 > 0.99$ .



**Figure 3.** Relationship between the hydrolysis constant ( $\text{pK}_h$ )<sup>45,47</sup> and (a) the selectivity for poly(ester-*alt*-ether) and (b) the epoxide equivalents enchainment per anhydride ( $\text{DP}(\text{epoxide})/\text{DP}(\text{anhydride})$ ) by  $d^0$  alkoxides ( $M(\text{OR})_n(\text{HOR})_m$ ). Note that  $\text{DP}(\text{epoxide})/\text{DP}(\text{anhydride}) \sim 2$  for selective poly(ester-*alt*-ether) linkage incorporation ( $\text{Zr}(\text{IV})$ ,  $\text{Hf}(\text{IV})$ ,  $\text{Ta}(\text{V})$ ,  $\text{Nb}(\text{V})$ ), and, = 1 for polyester ( $\text{La}(\text{III})$ ,  $\text{Pr}(\text{III})$ ). See Table S1 for further details on  $\text{pK}_h$  values.

The  $\text{Zr}(\text{IV})\text{X}_4$  catalysts, where  $\text{X} = (\text{O}^i\text{Pr})(\text{HO}^i\text{Pr})$ ,  $\text{OEt}$ ,  $\text{Cl}$ , were compared against the known *ABB* selective catalyst  $[\text{ZrL}_2(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_2]$  (Table 1). The homoleptic  $\text{Zr}(\text{IV})$  catalysts all showed high rates, with  $160 \pm 6 \times 10^{-4} < k_{\text{obs}} < 200 \pm 25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  and  $\geq 95\%$  poly(ester-*alt*-ether) selectivity (Table 1). The resulting poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) have  $M_n = 4.6\text{--}6.3 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$  with monomodal molar mass distributions and narrow dispersity,  $1.12 < D < 1.23$  (Table 1 and Figure S22). Comparing the experimental and theoretical molar mass values suggests that all ligands, and, any free alcohol, function as initiators. The catalysts are fast, highly selective, and well controlled: their rates, at equivalent  $\text{Zr}(\text{IV})$  concentrations, are  $\sim 8\times$  faster than the  $[\text{ZrL}_2(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_2]$  catalyst (Table 1 and

Figures S23). The key finding is that the ancillary ligand (*L*) is not necessary for fast poly(ester-*alt*-ether) catalysis.

Next, metal alkoxide complexes with the same  $d^0$  electronic configuration were applied using metals from groups III–V (and praseodymium):  $\text{Sc}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_3$ ,  $\text{Y}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_3$ ,  $\text{La}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_3$ ,  $\text{Pr}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_3$ ,  $\text{Ti}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_4$ ,  $\text{Zr}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_4(\text{HO}^i\text{Pr})$ ,  $\text{Hf}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_4(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})$ ,  $\text{Nb}(\text{OEt})_5$  and  $\text{Ta}(\text{OEt})_5$ . All the complexes were active but showed variable rates, with  $k_{\text{obs}}$  values from  $0.4 \pm 0.02$  to  $180 \pm 10 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M s}^{-1}$  and *ABB* sequence selectivity values from  $\sim 10$  to  $>95\%$  (Table 1, Figures 2 and S21). The polymers'  $M_{n,\text{GPC}}$  values suggest that all the alkoxide (and alcohol) ligands initiate the polymerizations (Table 1 and Figure S24). The fastest and most selective catalysts are the  $\text{Zr}(\text{IV})$  and

Hf(IV) alkoxides, with all the other metals showing slower polymerizations (Table 1 and Figure 2).

The Zr(IV), Hf(IV), Nb(V) and Ta(V) alkoxides all produced polymers with almost quantitative *ABB* linkage selectivity, i.e. poly(ester-*alt*-ethers). On the other hand, the Y(III), La(III) and Pr(III) complexes produced polyesters with high or very high selectivity for *AB* linkages, i.e. polyesters. The Ti(IV) and Sc(III) alkoxides produced polymers showing an approximately even distribution of *AB* (ester) and *ABB* (ester-*alt*-ether) linkages. In the latter case, DOSY NMR spectroscopy showed that all resonances have the same diffusion rate, which suggests a random ester and ester-*alt*-ether linkage selectivity in each polymer chain, rather than formation of mixtures of polymers (Figures S29–S31).

The relationship between the metal centers and monomer selectivity was explored by plotting *ABB* selectivity vs known metal center physical parameters, including M(III–V) ionic radius, M-OR bond lengths or metal Lewis acidity (metal ion hydrolysis constant  $pK_h$ , Figures 3a, S32–S35 and Table S1).<sup>45,46</sup>

The plot of *ABB* selectivity vs metal ionic radii, assuming hexacoordinate geometries, is very scattered and could not be effectively fit ( $r^2 = 0.68$ , Figure S32 and Table S1).<sup>46</sup> The lack of any obvious correlation between catalytic selectivity and metal ionic radius is apparent when comparing the most effective catalysts Zr(IV) and Hf(IV) ( $r = 0.71 \text{ \AA}$ ) which have >95% *ABB* selectivity, with the similar ionic radius Sc(III) catalyst ( $r = 0.75 \text{ \AA}$ ) which shows just 40% selectivity (Tables 1, S1 and Figure S32). Also, the Ta(V) catalyst ( $r = 0.61 \text{ \AA}$ ) is 95% *ABB* selective, while the similarly sized Ti(IV) catalyst ( $r = 0.6 \text{ \AA}$ ) shows an *ABB* selectivity of just 63% (Tables 1, S1 and Figure S32). One advantage of using these known, simple homoleptic metal alkoxide catalysts is that many of their solid-state structures are characterized using single crystal X-ray diffraction. In the solid state, these complexes often form dimers and multinuclear clusters (Table S1 and Figure S33). Plots comparing the *ABB* selectivity vs M-OR bond lengths, using data for both bridging and terminal alkoxide bonds, did not show any obvious linear fits (Figures S34, S35 and Table S1). The only generalization is that most selective catalysts tend to show intermediate ionic radii and M-OR bond lengths, i.e.  $0.64 \leq \text{metal ionic radii} \leq 0.72 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $1.90 \leq \text{terminal M-OR} \leq 1.94 \text{ \AA}$  (Table S1 and Figures S33–S35). In contrast, plotting the *ABB* linkage selectivity against the metal Lewis acidity, as assessed by its hydrolysis constant,  $pK_h$ , shows a clear linear fit (Figure 3,  $r^2 = 0.97$ ).<sup>45</sup> In the plot, high selectivity (>90%) values correlate with poly(ester-*alt*-ether) production, while very low values (0–10%) correlate with alternating polyester production (Figure 3). The linear fit shows that the metal Lewis acidity relates directly to the type of product formed: metals with low  $pK_h$  values, i.e.  $-1 < pK_h < 0.6$ , select for *ABB* linkages, e.g. Zr(IV), Hf(IV), Nb(V) or Ta(V). Metals showing higher  $pK_h$  values, i.e.  $8.1 < pK_h < 8.5$ , select for *AB* linkages, e.g. La(III) or Pr(III). Metals with intermediate  $pK_h$  values, i.e.  $2.3 < pK_h < 4.3$ , produce random sequence enchainment and mixtures of ester and ester-ether linkages, e.g. Sc(III) or Ti(IV) (Figure 3a). Plotting the DP(anhydride)/DP(epoxide) vs metal  $pK_h$  values shows exactly the same trends and linear fit (Figure 3b).

The use of hydrolysis constant values as a measure for metal Lewis acidity warrants discussion, particularly since the polymerizations are all conducted anhydrously.<sup>48</sup> Metal hydrolysis constants are known to correlate directly to the

metal Lewis acidity values and it is the latter which are appropriate to understand catalytic performances for these reactions.<sup>48</sup> The hydrolysis constant data are useful since they are all measured on a common scale, applicable to many metals.<sup>48</sup> In contrast there is no such common scale for Lewis acidity and its measurement tends to be indirect, relying on insensitive NMR titrations.<sup>48</sup> Other researchers in fields spanning electrocatalysis, organic asymmetric catalysis and polymerizations have all reported upon the utility of Bronsted acidity values ( $pK_a$  or  $pK_h$ ) to inform upon the metal Lewis acidity.<sup>48–54</sup> In these areas of catalysis, metal ion  $pK_h$  values have proven effective to understand linear free energy relationships for reactions conducted under anhydrous conditions.<sup>48–56</sup> For example, Shibasaki and co-workers applied metal ion hydrolysis constants to rationalize performances of Lewis acidic metal catalysts for aziridine ring-opening reactions.<sup>48,57–60</sup> Mashima, Okuda, Nozaki and co-workers investigated lanthanide/Zn(II) heterotetranuclear catalysts for carbon dioxide/epoxide ROCOP showing a weak correlation between catalytic activity and lanthanide Lewis acidity (as assessed by metal ion  $pK_h$ ).<sup>48,55,56</sup> In our work developing heterodinuclear M(III)M'(I) catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>/epoxide and epoxide/anhydride ROCOP (*AB*-selective), we showed linear free energy (exponential) relationships between rate and s-block metal (M')  $pK_a$  values.<sup>22,51,52</sup> In prior work, metal ion hydrolysis constants were correlated to catalytic activity;<sup>48</sup> here, in contrast, the correlation is with the polymerization selectivity and, therefore, the resulting polymer sequence. This means the relative metal-alkoxide Lewis acidity controls the monomer selectivity either by reaction with an epoxide or anhydride: such selectivity is very unusual and the insights provided by the Lewis acidity correlation should help to understand both how and why poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) form.<sup>32</sup> Qualitatively, the metal active site Lewis acidity is implicated in both epoxide activation and insertion processes. The structure–selectivity relationships suggest that the transition state energy differences between the metal-alkoxide intermediate reacting with another epoxide or with an anhydride correlate with the metal Lewis acidity values; future in depth mechanistic investigations are, of course, necessary and ongoing.

The ability to use commercial catalysts and rationalize their selectivity using the Lewis acidity correlation should facilitate uptake of the catalysis by polymer chemists seeking to make and investigate new materials. The correlation data also helps understand why *ABB* selective reactions were not previously discovered. Prior research into epoxide/anhydride ROCOP catalysts focused in quite a different region of relative metal Lewis acidity, e.g. Cr(III) ( $pK_h = 4.0$ ), Co(III) ( $pK_h = 3$ ), Zn(II) ( $pK_h = 9.0$ ), Na(I) ( $pK_h = 14.2$ ), K(I) ( $pK_h = 14.5$ ) or Al(III) ( $pK_h = 3–5$ ).<sup>11,14–25,45,47</sup> Most of these metals have considerably lower Lewis acidity (higher  $pK_h$ ) than the Group III–V metals that select for ester-*alt*-ether enchainment. The most selective *ABB* catalysts are strong Lewis acids, with  $-1 < pK_h < 0.6$ .

Another aspect is that prior investigations of Group III–V catalysts always applied ionic cocatalysts, such as bis-(triphenylphosphine)iminium chloride PPNCI.<sup>61–66</sup> In these catalyst systems, metal-ate complexes are likely to form, which are substantially less Lewis acidic, and the ROCOP selectivity reverts to the more common *AB* polyester production.<sup>61–65</sup> For example, Fieser and co-workers developed a YCl<sub>3</sub>/PPNCI catalyst system showing high *AB* linkage selectivity for different

anhydride and epoxide combinations.<sup>61,62,66</sup> Kozak and co-workers used Schiff base Zr(IV) alkoxide/PPNCl catalysts which showed high-selectivity for AB-polyesters.<sup>63</sup> Other Schiff base Ti(IV)/PPNCl and Zr(IV)/PPNCl catalysts also showed highly selective AB polyester formation.<sup>64</sup> Future catalyst development for poly(ester-*alt*-ether), ABB selectivity, should avoid ionic cocatalysts and rather fine-tune metal Lewis acidity by using ancillary ligands.

Overall, the homoleptic Zr(IV), Hf(IV) and Ta(V) alkoxide complexes are very selective catalysts for poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) (ABB polymers). These catalysts are attractive as they are commercial and simple to use. For the two lead catalysts, we investigated the need for anaerobic handling. Polymerizations applying Zr(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>4</sub>(HO<sup>*i*</sup>Pr) or Hf(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>4</sub>(HO<sup>*i*</sup>Pr) as catalysts ([Cat] = 10 mM, [tBPA] = 0.5 M, OO = 1 mL, 120 °C) were conducted after the starting catalyst solution was left open to air (Table 1). In the resulting epoxide/anhydride copolymerizations, there was some reduction in poly(ester-*alt*-ether) selectivity, to 82 and 86% for Zr(IV) and Hf(IV) catalysts, respectively (Figures S25–S28). Nonetheless, the polymerizations remained well-controlled, with the molar mass values, by GPC, matching theoretical values quite closely (Figures S26 and S28).

The linkage selectivity also provides a means to tune the polymer physical properties, such as the glass transition temperature. Catalysts spanning the selectivity range were used to prepare polymers with the same overall degree of polymerization of the anhydride (DP = 20, Table S2 and Figures S29–S31). As such, the La(III) catalyst formed an alternating polyester (AB = 91%, ABB = 9%), the Sc(III) catalyst formed a polymer with mixtures of ester and ester-ether linkages (AB = 51%, ABB = 49%), the Ti(IV) catalyst also formed mixtures of linkages but with a bias of 77% ABB (ester-*alt*-ether) and the Hf(IV) catalyst formed only poly(ester-*alt*-ethers) with >99% ABB linkage selectivity (Table S2). All the polymers are amorphous and show only glass transition temperatures. Further, as the proportion of ether linkages increases, from AB to ABB sequences, so the polymers' glass transition temperatures decrease, consistent with enhanced segmental motion afforded by the ether linkages (Figure S36a and Table S2).<sup>32,33</sup> For example, the alternating AB polyester (La(III) catalyst) shows a  $T_g$  value of 4 °C while the ABB poly(ester-*alt*-ether) (Hf(IV) catalyst) shows a lower  $T_g$  value of -17 °C, with intermediary values for those with mixed linkages (Figure S36a). For all the polymers, the on-set of thermal decomposition temperature ( $T_{d,5\%}$ ) remained relatively high at 294–309 °C, providing the materials with a wide processing temperature window (Table S2 and Figure S36b).

## METHODS

### Materials

The synthesis of the previously reported catalyst [ZrL<sub>2</sub>(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>2</sub>], monomer purifications, and polymerizations were carried out under inert conditions, using standard Schlenk techniques and in a N<sub>2</sub>-filled glovebox. The catalyst [ZrL<sub>2</sub>(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>2</sub>] was synthesized using literature procedures.<sup>32</sup> Octene oxide (OO) was dried by stirring over CaH<sub>2</sub>, followed by fractional distillation. It was then dried (over BuLi), followed by two further fractional distillations. 3-*tert*-Butyl-phthalic anhydride (tBPA) was purified by sublimation (three times). All monomers were stored under an inert (N<sub>2</sub>) atmosphere. Zr(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>4</sub>(HO<sup>*i*</sup>Pr), Hf(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>4</sub>(HO<sup>*i*</sup>Pr), Y(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>3</sub>, Ta(OEt)<sub>5</sub>, Pr(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>3</sub> and Zr(OEt)<sub>4</sub> were purchased from STREM chemicals. Ta(OEt)<sub>5</sub> was

purchased from Thermo Scientific Chemicals. Sc(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>3</sub> was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. Ti(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>4</sub>, La(O<sup>*i*</sup>Pr)<sub>3</sub>, Zr(Cl)<sub>4</sub> and Nb(OEt)<sub>5</sub> purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Catalysts were used as purchased.

### NMR Spectroscopy

<sup>1</sup>H and COSY NMR spectra were obtained using Bruker AV 400 MHz, 500 and 600 MHz instruments. <sup>1</sup>H DOSY spectra were obtained using a Bruker NEO600 NMR spectrometer. NMR spectra are shown in the Supporting Information (Figures S5, S8–21, S25, S27, S29–S31).

### Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC)

Polymer analysis was carried out using a Shimadzu LC-20AD instrument, equipped with PSS SDV 5 μm precolumn and two PSS SDV 5 μm linear M columns and a Refractive Index (RI) detector. Samples were dissolved in HPLC grade THF, filtered through 0.2 μm PTFE filters (VWR) and measurements were determined at 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup> flow rate, at 30 °C. Monodisperse polystyrene standards were used to calibrate the instrument. GPC data are presented in Figures S6, S22, S24, S26 and S28.

### Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)

Thermal analyses were conducted using the DSC25 instrument (TA Instruments). A sealed, empty crucible was used as a reference, and the instrument was calibrated using zinc and indium samples. Polymer samples were heated from -80 to 150 °C, at a rate of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup> and under a N<sub>2</sub> flow (80 mL min<sup>-1</sup>). Samples were subsequently cooled to -80 °C, at a rate of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup>, and kept at -80 °C for a further 5 min, followed by a heating-cooling cycle from -80 to 150 °C, at a rate of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup>. Each sample was analyzed over two heating-cooling cycles. Glass transition temperatures ( $T_g$ ) are reported as the midpoint of the transition taken from the second heating cycle. Data are presented in Figure S36.

### Thermal Gravimetric Analysis (TGA)

Sample high temperature stability was measured using a TGA5500 system (TA Instruments) equipped with the TRIOS software package. Polymer samples were heated from 40 to 700 °C, at a rate of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup>, under N<sub>2</sub> flow (12 mL min<sup>-1</sup>). Data are presented in Figure S36.

### Polymerization Kinetics

Generally, kinetics experiments were conducted using a DSC instrument using methods which were previously described for epoxide/anhydride ROCOP and, to calibrate the method, some vial kinetics were also conducted (Figures S2–S4).<sup>44</sup> In the DSC method, the catalyst (0.01 mol) was weighed into a vial, then dissolved in octene oxide (1 mL, such that [cat]/[tBPA]/[OO] = 1:50:654). 3-*tert*-Butyl phthalic anhydride (0.5 mmol) was added to the reaction mixture until fully dissolved. Next, a ~10 mg sample was transferred to a preweighed DSC pan which was sealed and weighed. Samples were analyzed at 120 °C using a methodology where the DSC instrument was rapidly heated to 120 °C and then the reference and sample pans were automatically loaded into the instrument. All measurements were carried out using sealed pans (unless otherwise stated), under N<sub>2</sub> flow (50 mL min<sup>-1</sup>). The normalized heat flow (W/g) vs time (s) data was integrated, using the Trios software (v5.7.1.74) with the kinetics add-on package (Figure S2). Once the reaction was complete, the crude sample was also analyzed by NMR spectroscopy and GPC. The <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum was used to determine the anhydride conversion for subsequent use in the kinetic plots (concentration vs time, Figures S2–S4, S8–S21). It was also used to determine the polymerization selectivity, using methods which were previously reported (Figures S5).<sup>32,33</sup> GPC data were used to determine the polymer molar mass and dispersity (Figures S6, S22, S24, S26 and S28). The DSC kinetics experiments were conducted in triplicate for error analysis.

## CONCLUSIONS

Overall, commercial Zr(IV), Hf(IV) and Ta(V) alkoxide catalysts combine high rates, good polymerization control and very high ester-*alt*-ether linkage selectivity in the copolymerizations of cyclic anhydride and epoxide. Comparing the catalytic selectivity across a systematic series of metal alkoxides, where metals are from groups III–V, catalysts shows a clear linear correlation between the linkage selectivity and the metal Lewis acidity, as assessed through its hydrolysis constant ( $pK_h$ ). Metals showing high Lewis acidity ( $-1 < pK_h < 0.6$ ) are very selective for ester-*alt*-ether linkages, while those with lower Lewis acidity ( $8.1 < pK_h < 8.5$ ) favor ester linkages and catalysts with intermediate acidity ( $2.3 < pK_h < 4.3$ ) produce polymers with mixtures of both linkages. The use of commercial metal alkoxide catalysts provides a straightforward future route to make and study these new types of sustainable polymers and should accelerate application development as degradable surfactants, debondable adhesives and ion conducting polyelectrolytes, as well as for recyclable plastics and elastomers.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The open-access experimental data-sets which support this publication can be found via the DOI [10.5287/ora-avbnbdz7y](https://doi.org/10.5287/ora-avbnbdz7y). The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.5c08568>.

Supporting information experimental materials and methods, catalysis protocols, proposed catalytic cycle, DSC polymerization kinetics data, polymerization selectivity data, polymer GPC data, catalysis and polymer characterization data for all polymers, data for quantified structure–selectivity relationships ionic radii, M-OR bond lengths, hydrolysis constant data, polymer  $T_g$  and TGA data (PDF)

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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