# Diiodosamarium based polymerisations †

# Seema Agarwal\* and Andreas Greiner

Philipps-Universität Marburg, Fachbereich Chemie, Institut für Physikalische Chemie, Kernchemie und Makromolekulare Chemie und Wissenschaftliches Zentrum für Materialwissenschaften, Hans-Meerwein Strasse, Marburg, D-35032, Germany. E-mail: Seema@chemie.uni-marburg.de

# Received (in Cambridge, UK) 22nd April 2002 First published as an Advance Article on the web 14th August 2002

Covering: up to February 2002

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Reductive coupling polymerisations
- 2.1 Poly-α-diketones
- 2.2 Poly alcohols
- 2.2.1 OH-functionalised poly(p-xylylene)s
- 2.2.2 Aliphatic poly(alcohol)s
- 2.3 Poly(oxamide)s
- 2.4 Oligosilanes and germynes
- 3 SmI<sub>2</sub> catalysed polyreactions
- 3.1 Polyaddition of dialdehydes
- 3.2 Vinyl polymerisations
- 3.3 Ring-opening polymerisations
- 4 Polarity inversion reactions
- 5 Conclusion
- 6 References

#### 1 Introduction

In recent years the utilisation of organometallic lanthanide complexes, which contain metals in low oxidation states, for polymer synthesis has gained a lot of attention.<sup>1-4</sup> Out of all lanthanide metals, only Eu, Yb, and Sm have readily accessible divalent states under ambient reaction conditions. Sm(II) is the most reactive of these divalent lanthanides because of its reduction potential (Sm(III) +  $e \rightarrow$  Sm(II); -1.5 V vs. normal hydrogen electrode (NHE))<sup>5</sup> and its large size which makes it difficult to stabilise by steric saturation. One of the Sm(II) compounds, diiodosamarium (SmI<sub>2</sub>), has rapidly become one of the most popular reducing agents in organic synthesis due to its facile synthesis,<sup>6</sup> its good solubility in many organic solvents and its ability to reduce a wide range of functional groups. A 0.1 M solution (dark blue) of SmI<sub>2</sub> can be easily synthesised by the slow addition of diiodoalkanes to Sm metal in tetrahydrofuran (THF), as reported by Girard et al.<sup>6</sup> (Scheme 1). Previous

$$ICH_2CH_2I + Sm \xrightarrow{THF} SmI_2 + CH_2=CH_2$$
  
 $RT \xrightarrow{Scheme 1}$ 

methods for the preparation of  $\text{SmI}_2$  were tedious, requiring the reduction of trivalent lanthanide halides by hydrogen or by thermal dissociation.<sup>7</sup> The role of  $\text{SmI}_2$  as an excellent oneelectron reducing agent in organic synthesis is well reviewed in the literature.<sup>8-12</sup> Tailoring these reactions for high selectivity and efficiency is possible by simply changing the solvent or solvent system. Motivated by the versatility of  $\text{SmI}_2$  chemistry for low molecular weight compounds, polymer chemists have tried to expand its horizon by utilising its unique properties for the synthesis of high molecular weight polymers. The range of

<sup>†</sup> Dedicated to Professor Walter Heitz on the occasion of his 70<sup>th</sup> birthday.

polymer reactions involving SmI<sub>2</sub> is continuously increasing since its first use in polymer synthesis by Korshak et al.<sup>13</sup> SmI, can be used either as a catalyst or as a reagent in the synthesis of polymers, and these polymers cover a wide range of classes including functionalised poly(p-xylylene)s, polyamides, polyesters, vinyl polymers etc. Many polymer syntheses, which are inaccessible/difficult by conventional routes, can be easily carried out using SmI<sub>2</sub> under mild reaction conditions further emphasising the great potential of this reagent in providing unique methods of synthesis in polymer chemistry. In general, electron transfer reactions based on SmI2 require more than stoichiometric amounts of this reagent (except the Meerwein-Ponndorf reduction and the Tishchenko reaction) thus limiting, to some extent, the synthetic value of this reaction. But recently the establishment of a catalytic cycle involving SmI, has increased the prospects of its use in polymer synthesis and it is expected to make these reactions economically attractive as well. Based on the literature available till now, SmI2 based polymer reactions can be categorised as follows (Scheme 2):

REVIEW

- A)  $SmI_2$  as a reagent:
- 1) Reductive coupling polymerisations
- B)  $SmI_2$  as a catalyst:
- 1) Oxidative addition reactions
- 2) Vinyl polymerisations
- 3) Ring-opening polymerisation of cyclic esters and carbonates
- C) SmI<sub>2</sub> induced transformations

This article reviews the use of  $SmI_2$  both as a catalyst and as a reagent in polymer synthesis.

### 2 Reductive coupling polymerisations

#### 2.1 Poly-a-diketones

Sm(II) compounds have been established as useful reagents in organic synthesis for promoting reductive coupling reactions to generate C-C bonds because of their good selectivity, high yields, and mild reaction conditions.<sup>11,14-15</sup> Interestingly, these electron transfer reactions are radical-anionic in nature. The ability to produce high molecular weight poly- $\alpha$ -diketones, by reacting SmI2 with acid dihalides, was accomplished for the first time by Brandukova et al.<sup>16-17</sup> (Scheme 3). The resulting polymers were amorphous with high glass transition temperatures (250-290 °C). These polymerisation reactions were based on the formation of the corresponding α-diketones by reaction of SmI2 with acid monohalides. In these reactions, the intermediate radical anion, formed by the reaction of SmI2 with acid halides, decomposes to an acyl radical, which can either combine with another acvl radical to form  $\alpha$ -diketones (route 1. Scheme 4) or can undergo further reduction by SmI<sub>2</sub> to yield the corresponding anion. The anion can then, in turn, react with a second molecule of acid halide to produce the  $\alpha$ -diketone (route 2, Scheme 4). By detailed studies designed to probe the reaction

DOI: 10.1039/b203903f

J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1, 2002, 2033–2042 2033

This journal is © The Royal Society of Chemistry 2002



J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1, 2002, 2033–2042



mechanism, Souppe *et al.*<sup>15</sup> determined that the  $2^{nd}$  route (Scheme 4) is the major reaction pathway for low molecular weight compounds and therefore, it is assumed to be the means by which poly- $\alpha$ -diketones were produced by Brandukova *et al.* 

#### 2.2 Poly alcohols

#### 2.2.1 OH-functionalised poly(p-xylylene)s

Pinacol (1,2-dihydroxy compounds) formation is one of the synthetically important C-C bond formation reactions<sup>18a</sup> and is is receiving renewed attention because of the availability of mild and selective reducing agents.<sup>18b</sup> Among these, SmI<sub>2</sub> has been utilised successfully in the synthesis of several natural and nonnatural products. In polymer chemistry, this reaction has been utilised by the reductive coupling of dicarbonyl compounds for the synthesis of OH-functionalised poly-(p-xylylene)s (PPXs) 1. These telechelic PPXs are important because a large number of polymers with new and tailored properties can be produced via modifications to the hydroxy groups. A particular target for these polymers is the immobilisation of natural products such as enzymes, which can be used for various applications. Also, this coupling of natural products to the polymer support could lead to improvements in the biocompatibility of PPXs.

Since the preparation of 1,2-dihydroxy substituted PPXs by reductive coupling of terephthalaldehyde with the usual reducing systems,  $Cr_2(SO_4)_3$ -Zn or TiCl<sub>4</sub>-Zn, lead to materials with low molecular weights and undesirable properties (the coupling of terephthalaldehyde to produce 1,2-dihydroxy substituted PPXs using  $Cr_2(SO_4)_3$ -Zn led to a material with very low inherent viscosity <sup>19</sup> and the use of TiCl<sub>4</sub>-Zn gave M<sub>n</sub> values between 1000 and 2000 g mol<sup>-120</sup>), there was a need to develop a polymerisation reaction in which the reducing agent allows the synthesis of high molecular weight PPXs. The high reducing

power of Sm(II), using its stoichiometric amounts for the synthesis of 1,2-dihydroxy substituted PPXs has been demonstrated by our group<sup>21</sup> and by Brandukova et al.<sup>22</sup> to produce high molecular weight polymers. The key step is the reductive coupling of carbonyl compounds with Sm(II) forming Sm(III) alkoxy complexes. The reaction most likely proceeds by the formation of a Sm(III) alkoxy radical anion, subsequent coupling by radical combination then gives OH-functionalisation of the PPXs. The limitation of this synthetic approach for the synthesis of OH-PPXs is that precipitation of intermediate products in the initial stage of the reaction, presumably because of the formation of polymer-alkoxy-Sm(III) compounds, limits the final molecular weight of the polymers obtained to 12000.<sup>22</sup> This quasi crosslinking by a Sm(III) mediated macro-complex formation via alkoxy functionalities is attributed to the usage of large amounts of SmI<sub>2</sub> in this synthetic approach or to the stiff polymer backbone. In an attempt to prevent the formation of precipitates during the reaction, we have tried to structurally modify the starting monomer (dialdehydes) (Scheme 5) and to protect the OH groups (Scheme 6).<sup>23-24</sup> Polymers of high molecular weight ( $M_w = 30\,000$ ) were obtained by incorporation of flexible ether linkages in the backbone.23

In the second approach, we protected the OH groups with halotrimethylsilane (TMSiX; X = Cl, Br), which forms intermediate siloxy ethers (Scheme 6), to solve the problem of precipitation during polymerisation.<sup>23-24</sup> This approach was successful in giving high molecular weight polymers ( $M_w = 50000$ ), but at the expense of a moderate yield.

Also, the intermediate Sm(III) polyalkoxides **1a** were used as polymeric initiators for further ring opening polymerisation of caprolactone (CL) and L-lactide (LA), generating a new class of biodegradable graft copolymers poly(PPX-*graft*-PCL/PLA) (PCL = polycaprolactone; PLA = polylactide) with graft efficiency of 14% and 28% for CL and LA, respectively.<sup>25</sup>



Scheme 7

Another drawback of this synthetic strategy, of making OH-functionalised PPXs by reductive coupling polymerisation of dialdehydes, requires for complete conversion the use of stoichiometric amounts of SmI<sub>2</sub> relative to carbonyl groups. The use of less than 1 equiv. of SmI<sub>2</sub> leads to the formation of defect structures like benzoin, benzyl benzoate, (4-formylphenyl)phenylmethanol etc., and is therefore economically also not very attractive. The feasibility of a catalytic cycle for regeneration of Sm(II) in reductive coupling polymerisation reaction of dialdehydes was the focus of our recent work.<sup>26</sup> A catalytic cycle for the reductive coupling polymerisation of aromatic dialdehydes is established with 12 mol% of SmI, and excess of Mg or Mg/Hg in the presence of TMSiCl in THF. The plausible reaction pathway involves the reduction of a carbonyl compound by SmI<sub>2</sub> to give Sm(III) alcoholate, which is followed by silvlation of the alkoxide by TMSiCl (trimethylchlorosilane) providing the corresponding silvl ether and liberating SmI<sub>2</sub>Cl. From this, Sm(II) can be regenerated in situ by electron transfer from another electropositive metal like Mg, which acts as coreductant (Scheme 7). Yields and molecular weights of polymers produced under these catalytic conditions were in the range of yields and molecular weights when SmI<sub>2</sub> was used in stoichiometric conditions. This can be considered a promising and significant step towards an easy and economically viable synthetic approach for the synthesis of functionalised polymers.

This reductive coupling of dicarbonyl compounds using  $SmI_2$  has been utilised by Forster *et al.* for the synthesis of highly fluorescent ethylene-bridged poly(*p*-phenylene) ladder polymers.<sup>27</sup> These polymers were synthesised in two steps: 1) synthesis of single-stranded, 2,5-benzoyl-substituted poly-(*p*-phenylene) precursors, and 2) their polymer-analogous cyclisation (pinacolisation) with  $SmI_2$ . This is the first application of Sm reagents in the synthesis of ladder polymers.

### 2.2.2 Aliphatic poly(alcohol)s

Aliphatic poly(alcohol)s are important as coatings, adhesives and polymeric reagents. Inspite of their useful applications, general synthetic methods for the preparation of polymers having hydroxy groups attached to the main chain are limited. For low molecular weight compounds, the reductive crosscoupling of ketones with various olefins in the presence of SmI<sub>2</sub> has been reported to give aliphatic alcohols in excellent yield and mild reaction conditions.<sup>28</sup> This reaction is initiated by electron transfer from SmI<sub>2</sub> to ketones forming ketyl radicals. The radical attacks double bonds to afford anion-radical species which are further reduced by SmI<sub>2</sub> and protonated by a coexisting alcohol (Scheme 8). As an application of these reactions, reductive cross coupling of diketones with diolefins (distyryls or diacetylenes), accomplished by the addition of 4 equiv. of SmI<sub>2</sub>, HMPA and a proton source, was reported by Endo *et al.*<sup>29,30</sup> (Scheme 9) to proceed quantitatively under mild reaction condi-



tions to generate low molecular weight poly(alcohol)s 2 and 3. The molecular weights of the obtained polymers were relatively low ( $M_{\rm p} = 2800-9000$ ), which indicates the existence of termination reactions. The possible termination reaction could be simple reduction of the carbonyl group resulting from hydrogen abstraction of the ketyl radical and/or further reduction of the ketyl radical to the corresponding anion. The pinacol coupling, the most probable side reaction, was found to be absent in this polymerisation. This step-polymerisation was applied to various distyryl compounds (2b-2e) having various functional groups like ether, ester and internal double bonds. The polymerisation proceeded without attack of the ketvl radical on the internal double bond or hydrolysis and/or reduction (by SmI<sub>2</sub>) of ester groups. Therefore, this polymerisation method, via an electron transfer process, proposes a new synthetic strategy for multifunctional poly(alcohol)s with various functional groups like esters, ethers and alkenes in the main chain.

# 2.3 Poly(oxamide)s

Aromatic polyamides are high performance polymers with high thermal stability, mechanical strength and chemical resistance but have low solubility and poor processability. N-Substitution of the amide groups in the polymer chain leads to improved solubility and processability. However deprotonation to generate the anions necessary for the substitution reaction often results in cleavage of the polymer backbone. In contrast to this conventional method, reductive coupling polymerisation of diisocyanates, via the SmI2 promoted single electron transfer, provides a new synthetic strategy for the synthesis of N-substituted poly(oxamide), in an one pot synthesis. Reductive coupling of different aromatic diisocyanates using SmI<sub>2</sub>-HMPA for the synthesis of aromatic poly(oxamide)s and its derivatives 4a-4c was carried out successfully and details are given by Wang et al.<sup>31</sup> (Scheme 10). The different diisocyanates used in this study are shown in Scheme 11. The selective homocoupling polymerisation of these aromatic diisocvanates via one electron transfer promoted by SmI<sub>2</sub> in the presence of hexamethylphosphoramide (HMPA) produced the corresponding poly(oxamide)s 4a nearly quantitatively. HMPA was found to be an important factor for these reactions, and both the yield







E = MeOTf, CH<sub>3</sub>COCI, R'NCO (R' = Bu, Octyl), (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHO, Bul, R''Br

$$R'' = --CH_2C_6H_5CH_2(OCH_2CH_2)_nOCH_3 (n = 3,7)$$
$$--CH_2C_6H_5SO_2Na$$

### Scheme 10

and molecular weight of the poly(oxamide)s were highest (92% and  $M_n = 9900$ ;  $M_w/M_n = 1.7$ ) when the molar ratio of HMPA to SmI<sub>2</sub> was about 12–14.

The *in situ* generated polyanion **4** (Scheme 10), from the reductive coupling polymerisation of diisocyanates, was used as polymeric initiator for the synthesis of functionalised polyoxamides (N-substituted poly(oxamide)s) by reaction with

electrophiles<sup>32</sup> **4b** (Scheme 10) or *N*-grafted poly(oxamide)s<sup>33</sup> **4c** (Scheme 10). The graft polymerisation of CL with several polyanions **4** (derived from tolylene 2,6-diisocyanate, *o*-tolidinyl diisocyanate, ‡ diphenylmethyl diisocyanate), provided the corresponding high molecular weight graft copolymers

<sup>‡</sup> The IUPAC name for *o*-tolidine is 2,2'-dimethylbenzidine.



Scheme 11

 $(M_n = 44500; M_w/M_n = 1.47)$  in one-pot. The graft copolymer of poly(oxamide) from tolylene 2,6-diisocyanate (TDI) and methyl methacrylate (MMA) was reported to have  $M_n$  of 137 200 and a polydispersity index of 1.07.<sup>33</sup>

*N*-Substituted poly(oxamide)s have improved solubility as compared to unsubstituted poly(oxamide)s in common organic solvents. The extent of substitution by low molecular weight electrophiles was 6–81% depending on the nature of the electrophile and on the reaction conditions. In general, the poor solubility of polyanion **4** and the large excess of HMPA, which occupies the available coordination sites of Sm(III), sterically hinder the access of electrophiles to the anionic reactive sites, possibly contributing to the low molecular weights and the low degree of substitution of the poly(oxamide)s that were obtained. These pendant groups (although in low degree of substitution) can provide the opportunity for further modification of the polymer by subsequent polymer analogous reactions.

In an another attempt, the *in situ* generated polyanion 4 (Scheme 12) was used for the synthesis of poly(oxamide) based water soluble polymers<sup>34</sup> having rigid skeletons and moderate molecular weights ( $M_n = 6500-10\,900$ ). Two kinds of water-soluble polymers were made by introducing the designed hydrophilic substituents onto the poly(oxamide) polyanion. The nonionic poly(oxamide) bearing oligo(ethylene oxide) pendants 5a and 5b (Scheme 12), exhibited high solubilities in both common organic solvents and aqueous system. The poly(oxamide) based polyelectrolyte containing either alkyl or arenesulfonate side chain 5c showed high solubilities in acidic and basic water.

### 2.4 Oligosilanes and germynes

SmI<sub>2</sub> has been also utilised in reductive coupling of metals like Si and Ge. Reaction of diorganodichlorosilanes with SmI<sub>2</sub> gives oligosilanes according to the reaction Scheme 13.<sup>35</sup> Branched oligogermynes are also reported by Mochida *et al.* by the reaction of alkyltrichlorogermanes with SmI<sub>2</sub>.<sup>36</sup> SmI<sub>2</sub> has the obvious advantage of mild reaction conditions over the traditional reaction (Wurtz–Fittig reaction) for their synthesis.





Scheme 13

# 3 SmI<sub>2</sub> catalysed polyreactions

# 3.1 Polyaddition of dialdehydes

One of the recent developments in polymer synthesis is the application of lanthanide compounds as initiators/catalysts.<sup>37</sup> A major characteristic of lanthanide based catalysts is their high ability to initiate and control the polymerisation of a wide range of monomers in polyaddition reactions. Polyaddition of dialdehydes utilising a SmI2 catalysed Tishchenko reaction38 is a new preparation method of polyesters, which have conventionally been obtained from polycondensation or ringopening polymerisation reactions (ROP) (Scheme 14). The Tishchenko-type polymerisation seems to have many advantages over the conventional condensation or ring opening polymerisation methods, for the synthesis of polyesters. For example, this method is applicable to the synthesis of polyesters with long alkyl chains that are difficult to obtain by the ROP method. Also, the use of a single substrate (dialdehydes) in the polymerisation seems to be another advantage, because optimisation of the ratio between dicarboxylic acid derivatives and diols (in condensation polymerisation) is not required. Yamaguchi et al.<sup>38</sup> have reported the polyaddition of dodecane-1,12-diol in the presence of 10 mol% of SmI<sub>2</sub> (followed by addition of benzaldehyde) giving polyester 6a (Scheme 14) containing three structural units, [-OCH2-(CH2)10-CH2O-],



 $[-OCH_2-(CH_2)_{10}-C(O)-]$  and  $[-C(O)-(CH_2)_{10}-C(O)-]$  in the main chain and an  $-OCH_2Ph$  group capping the end. Only low molecular weight polyesters were obtained by this method  $(M_n = 5500)$ . SmI<sub>2</sub> also catalyses the polyaddition of terephthal-aldehyde to give the corresponding polyester with  $M_n = 1.7 \times 10^3$  and  $M_w = 3.7 \times 10^3$ . It is worth noting that, SmI<sub>2</sub> promotes the reduction of stoichiometric amounts of dialdehyde into polypinacol as reported,<sup>23-24</sup> however the polyesters obtained by using a catalytic amount of SmI<sub>2</sub> with respect to carbonyl groups do not show the formation of polypinacol as side product.

#### 3.2 Vinyl polymerisations

Although lanthanide based catalysts have the ability to initiate and control the polymerisation of a number of monomers, the precise polymerisation of styrene and its derivatives could not be achieved for long. The first example for the living polymerisation of tert-butyl 4-vinylbenzoate 7, a styrene derivative, was accomplished by Gosho et al.<sup>39a</sup> using SmI<sub>2</sub> in catalytic amounts as an electron transfer agent in the presence of HMPA and SmI<sub>3</sub> (Scheme 15). SmI<sub>2</sub>-SmI<sub>3</sub> acted as bisinitiator for the vinyl polymerisation of 7. The addition of a common salt, SmI<sub>3</sub>, remarkably enhanced the living nature of the polymerisation to provide living poly(tert-butyl 4-vinylbenzoate) 8 with narrow molecular weight distribution  $(M_w/M_n = 1.05)$ . This may be due to the reduced reactivity of the propagation centers, depressing the nucleophilic attack of the growing center on the carbonyl carbon and hence making the system living. This ability to induce living polymerisation also provided later on the opportunity to make high molecular weight block copolymers 9 (Scheme 15)  $(M_n = 196,000; M_w/M_n = 1.12)$  with tert-butyl methacrylate (TBMA).

 $\rm SmI_2$ -SmI<sub>3</sub> also provided the living homo-polymerisation of MMA and TBMA under optimised reaction conditions (Scheme 16).<sup>396</sup> The number average molecular weight ( $M_n$ ) of poly(MMA) was very close to the calculated value ( $M_{n,GPC}$  = 2160;  $M_{n,calc}$  = 2200). Also, the addition of MMA to the solution of living poly(TBMA) provided a defined triblock copolymer with narrow molecular weight distribution ( $M_n$  = 7300,  $M_w/M_n$  = 1.13).

The samarium enolate, formed *in situ* by the reduction of 2-bromoisobutyric esters with  $SmI_2$  could initiate the polymerisation of MMA in quantitative initiation efficiency to give polymers with narrow molecular weight distribution (Scheme 17).<sup>40a</sup> This method provides the initiation species without isolation and an easy method of making star shaped polymers just by proper designing of the starting 2-bromoisobutyric esters. For example, the samarium enolate, prepared *in situ* by the reduction of 1,3,5-tris(2-bromoisobutyryloxymethyl)benzene **10** with SmI<sub>2</sub>, was used to synthesise star shaped poly(MMA) by Narita *et al.*<sup>40b</sup> (Scheme 18).



#### 3.3 Ring-opening polymerisations

The ring-opening polymerisation of lactones is a convenient method for the synthesis of biodegradable polyesters, which have great potential for applications in biomaterials. These polymerisation reactions can be achieved using a variety of metal catalysts, among which the lanthanide catalysts are currently receiving the most interest due to their high reactivity and capability to produce narrow polydispersity polymers. The large size of metallic Sm and its high electropositive character allows (with Sm-X, Sm-O, Sm-N, Sm-R) rapid ligand exchange and insertion reactions thus making it a suitable initiator for ROP reactions.<sup>41</sup> A mixture of SmI<sub>2</sub>-Sm<sup>42</sup> allowed room temperature ROP of caprolactone (CL) and valerolactone (VL), an enhanced reactivity as compared to the ROP initiation ability of SmI<sub>2</sub> by itself, which requires refluxing.<sup>43</sup> The mechanism of polymerisation was found to be initiation by alkyl-O cleavage resulting in product 11 (Scheme 19), which then reacts in a chain propagation step with another molecule of lactone via acyl-O cleavage. The polymerisation further proceeds by rapid chain growth through acyl-O cleavage. The observed side reactions are: C-C bond formation and the reduction of terminal CH<sub>2</sub>I groups. Under reflux conditions,

Evans *et al.* reported the SmI<sub>2</sub> catalysed copolymerisation of ethylene carbonate (EC) and caprolactone (CL) (EC : CL : Sm = 100 : 100 : 1 mole ratio).<sup>44</sup> Very low molecular weight ( $M_n = 6000$ ) copolymers with 6 mol% of EC are obtained by this method.







(DEPA = N,N-diethylpivalamide) R = (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHCH<sub>2</sub>



Initiation



A combination of Sm–SmI<sub>2</sub> facilitates ROP of L-lactide at 50 °C, leading to the synthesis of a semicrystalline, optically active poly(L-lactide) (PLA) retaining about 95% of its optical activity.<sup>45</sup>

#### 4 Polarity inversion reactions

One of the major advances in polymer synthesis has been the development of new polymerisation methods and techniques for the synthesis of various architectures like block, graft, hyperbranched structures *etc.* One of the most convenient methods for the synthesis of block copolymers is sequential addition of the monomers using anionic, cationic or living radical polymerisation methods but this limits the number of monomers which can be copolymerised. This restriction can be reduced by the transformation of the mechanism after polymerisation of the first monomer. For example, the transformation of the growing center of cationic polymerisation into an anionic one or anionic terminal chain ends into cationic ones (polarity inversion) is expected to increase the choice of monomers for the formation of block copolymers for any desired



Scheme 19

application. The transformation of active centers, requires two-electron oxidation or reduction to take place during the transformations. The general scheme for polarity inversion in a growing polymer chain is given in Scheme 20. This quantitative double electron reduction of the cationic propagation end of poly(tetrahydrofuran) poly(THF) into a terminal nucleophile was achieved by Nomura *et al.* for the first time by using SmI<sub>2</sub> in the presence of HMPA<sup>46a</sup> without any side reactions like dimerisation or termination. This method provides a new venue for polymer architecture and has led to the synthesis of well defined AB and ABA type block copolymers of THF with *tert*-butyl methacrylate<sup>46b,46c</sup> (poly(THF)-*block*-poly(TBMA)), MMA<sup>46d,47</sup> (poly(THF)-*block*-PMMA), CL<sup>48</sup> (poly(THF)*block*-PCL), and VL<sup>49</sup> (poly(THF)-*block*-PVL).



As mentioned before, samarium enolates, obtained by reduction of 2-bromoisobutyric esters with SmI<sub>2</sub> work as useful initiators for the living polymerisation of MMA (Scheme 17).<sup>40</sup> This polymerisation system is also applied to the transformation from cationic to anionic polymerisation.<sup>50</sup> The cationic growing center of the living poly(THF) can be quantitatively transformed into a terminal samarium enolate by the end-capping of the living end with sodium 2-bromoisobutyrate followed by reduction with SmI<sub>2</sub>. The sequential polymerisation of MMA with the terminal samarium enolate gives block copolymers of THF and MMA with controlled structures. Star shaped block copolymers can also be easily made by starting from star shaped living poly(THF) using this method.

Hyperbranched polymers are highly branched macromolecules in a three-dimensional architecture. They have large potential utility as advanced functional materials. The combination of the self-condensable monomer method and SmI2induced transformation (polarity inversion) can provide a hyperbranched block copolymer consisting of many types of polymer segments in the dendritic part. This would allow the formation of a variety of new hyperbranched polymers that can not be prepared by conventional techniques. The approach includes 1) the preparation of a macromonomer having α-vinyl groups. By the cationic polymerisation, 2) the transformation of the cationic growing center into a terminating nucleophile which is active for the polymerisation of  $\alpha$ -vinyl group and 3) the copolymerisation of the corresponding vinyl monomers with the  $\alpha$ -vinyl group by the generated nucleophile (Scheme 21).51

#### 5 Conclusion

Although the use of  $\text{SmI}_2$  in polymer chemistry is still limited, there is a steady increase in its use since its first application in polymer science in 1987. The strong single electron donor capability, ease of synthesis and facile ligand exchange makes  $\text{SmI}_2$ a powerful tool in the synthesis of different polymer architectures and in carrying out many unique polymer reactions. Unfortunately, most of the electron transfer reactions require more than stoichiometric amounts of  $\text{SmI}_2$ , which limits the synthetic value when considering large or industrial scale reactions. With the development of a catalytic cycle, this problem is solved to some extent and one can now envision economically



viable reactions that utilise the reductive ability of  $\text{SmI}_2$ . The available literature till now clearly highlights  $\text{SmI}_2$  as an important and versatile reagent/catalyst in polymer synthesis. However, the field is still wide open for the full exploration of its properties and for the utilisation of these properties in the synthesis of new polymeric structures.

#### 6 References

- 1 Y. Zhang, Z. Hou and Y. Wakatsuki, Macromolecules, 1999, 32, 939.
- 2 J. Wang, R. Nomura and T. Endo, Chem. Lett., 1996, 10, 909.
- 3 W. J. Evans and H. Katsumata, Macromolecules, 1994, 27(14), 4011.
- 4 F. G. Yuan and Q. Shen, Chem. Lett., 1997, 8(7), 639.
- 5 L. R. Morss, Chem. Rev., 1976, 76, 827.
- 6 P. Girard, J. L. Namy and H. B. Kagan, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 1980, 10, 2693.
- 7 G. Jantsh, N. Skalla and H. Jawurek, Z. Anorg. Allg. Chem., 1931, 201, 207.
- 8 N. E. Brandukova, Ya. S. Vygodskii and S. V. Vinogradova, *Russ. Chem. Rev.*, 1994, **63(4)**, 345.
- 9 G. R. Molander and C. R. Harris, Chem. Rev., 1996, 96, 307.
- 10 H. B. Kagan and J. L. Namy, *Handbook on the physics and chemistry of rare earths*, ed. K. A. Gschneider Jr. and L. Eyring, Elsevier Science, Amsterdam, 1984, vol. 6, 525–565.
- 11 H. B. Kagan and J. L. Namy, *Tetrahedron*, 1996, **42**, 6573.
- 12 N. Akane, Y. Kanagawa, Y. Nishiyama and Y. Ishii, Chem. Lett., 1994, 2431.
- 13 V. V. Korshak, S. V. Vinogradova, Y. S. Vygodski, N. A. Churochkina and N. E. Brandukova, *Vysokomol. Soedin. Ser. A*, 1987, **29**, 1480.
- 14 G. R. Molander and C. R. Harris, Chem. Rev., 1992, 92, 29.
- 15 J. Souppe, J. L. Nammy and H. B. Kagan, Tetrahedron Lett., 1984,
- 25, 2869.
  16 N. E. Brandukova, Ya. S. Vygodskii, S. V. Vinogradova and H. Raubach, *Acta Polym.*, 1991, 42, 82.
- 17 N. E. Brandukova and Ya. S. Vygodskii, *Macromol. Rep.*, 1995, A32, 941
- 18 (a) J. L. Namy, J. Souppe and H. B. Kagan, *Tetrahedron Lett.*, 1983, 24, 765; (b) G. M. Robertson, *Comprehensive Organic Synthesis*, ed. B. M. Trost and I. Fleming, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1991, vol. 3, 563.
- 19 J. M. Hoyt and K. Koch, US Pat. 3 509 097, National Distillers and Chemical Corporation, USA, 1970.
- 20 A. W. Cooke and K. B. Wagener, Macromolecules, 1991, 24, 1404.
- 21 V. U. Wege and A. Greiner, Acta Polym., 1995, 46, 391.

- 22 N. E. Brandukova, Ya. S. Vygodskii and T. V. Strelkova, *Vysokomol. Soedin. Ser. A*, 1996, **38**, 1803.
- 23 N. E. Brandukova, S. Agarwal and A. Greiner, *Acta Polym.*, 1999, 50, 35.
- 24 N. E. Brandukova, S. Agarwal and A. Greiner, *Polym. Prep.* (Am. Chem. Soc. Div. Polym. Chem.), 1998, **39(2)**, 394.
- 25 (a) S. Agarwal, N. E. Brandukova and A. Greiner, *Polym. Adv. Technol.*, 1999, **10**, 528; (b) A. Greiner, S. Agarwal and N. E. Brandukova, *Polym. Prep. (Am. Chem. Soc. Div. Polym. Chem.)*, 1999, **40(2)**, 163.
- 26 N. E. Brandukova and A. Greiner, Acta Polym., 1999, 50, 141.
- 27 M. Forster and U. Scherf, Macromol. Rapid Commun., 2000, 21, 810.
- 28 O. Ujikawa, J. Inanaga and M. Yamaguchi, *Tetrahedron Lett.*, 1989, 30, 2837.
- 29 R. Nomura and T. Endo, Macromolecules, 1994, 27, 617.
- 30 R. Nomura and T. Endo, Macromolecules, 1994, 27, 1286.
- 31 J. Wang, R. Nomura and T. Endo, J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Chem. Ed., 1995, **33**, 869; J. Wang, R. Nomura and T. Endo, J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Chem. Ed., 1995, **33**, 2901.
- 32 J. Wang, R. Nomura and T. Endo, Polym. Bull., 1996, 37, 281.
- 33 (a) J. Wang, R. Nomura and T. Endo, J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Chem. Ed., 1995, 35, 1381; (b) J. Wang, R. Nomura and T. Endo, Macromolecules, 1995, 29, 2707.
- 34 J. Wang, R. Nomura and T. Endo, Polym. Bull., 1997, 38, 125.
- 35 B. G. Zavin, A. I. Chernyavskii, Y. S. Vygodskii and N. E. Brandukova, *Dokl. Chem. (Transl. of Dokl. Akad. Nauk.)*, 1994, **336**, 97.
- 36 K. Mochida, T. Ohkawa, H. Kawata, A. Watanabe, O. Ito and M. Matsuda, Bull. Chem. Soc. Jpn., 1996, 69, 2993.
- 37 H. Yasuda, *Catalysis in precision polymerisation*, ed. S. Kobayashi, John Wiley & Sons: Chichester, England, 1997 vol. 6, ch. 4, 189; and the references cited therein.

- 38 (a) I. Yamaguchi, T. Kimishima, K. Osakada and T. Yamamoto, J. Polym. Sci., Part A: Polym. Chem., 1997, 35, 2821; (b) I. Yamaguchi, T. Kimishima, K. Osakada and T. Yamamoto, J. Polym. Sci.: Part A: Polym. Chem., 1997, 35, 1265.
- 39 (a) A. Gosho, R. Nomura, I. Tomita and T. Endo, *Macromolecules*, 1998, **31(10)**, 3388; (b) A. Gosho, R. Nomura, I. Tomita and T. Endo, *Macromol. Chem. Phys.*, 2001, **202**, 1614.
- 40 (a) M. Narita, R. Nomura, I. Tomita and T. Endo, *Macromolecules*, 1998, **31**, 2774; (b) M. Narita, R. Nomura, I. Tomita and T. Endo, *Polym. Bull.*, 2000, **45**, 231.
- 41 S. Agarwal, C. Mast, K. Dehnicke and A. Greiner, *Macromol. Rapid Commun.*, 2000, 21(5), 195.
- 42 S. Agarwal, N. E. Brandukova-Szmikowski and A. Greiner, Macromol. Rapid Commun., 1999, 20, 274.
- 43 W. J. Evans and H. Katsumata, *Macromolecules*, 1994, 27, 2330.
- 44 W. J. Evans and H. Katsumata, *Macromolecules*, 1994, 27, 4011.
- 45 S. Agarwal, M. Karl, K. Dehnicke and A. Greiner, *e–Polym.*, 2001, 12.
- 46 (a) R. Nomura and T. Endo, *Macromolecules*, 1994, 27(20), 5523;
  (b) R. Nomura, M. Narita and T. Endo, *Macromolecules*, 1994, 27(24), 7011;
  (c) R. Nomura, M. Narita and T. Endo, *Macromolecules*, 1995, 28(1), 86;
  (d) M. Narita, R. Nomura and T. Endo, *Macromolecules*, 1995, 31(9), 2774.
- 47 R. Nomura and T. Endo, *The Polymeric Materials Encyclopedia: Synthesis, properties and applications*, ed. S. Kodayashi, CRC, Florida, 1996, vol. 3, 2016.
- 48 R. Nomura and T. Endo, Macromolecules, 1995, 28, 5372.
- 49 R. Nomura, Y. Shibasaki and T. Endo, Polym. Bull., 1996, 37, 597.
- 50 M. Narita, R. Nomura, K. Tomita and T. Endo, *Macromolecules*, 2000, **33**, 4979.
- 51 R. Nomura, T. Matsuno and T. Endo, Polym. Bull., 1999, 42, 251.