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Sequence-controlled methacrylic multiblock copolymers via sulfur-free RAFT emulsion polymerization

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Translating the precise monomer sequence control achieved in nature over macromolecular structure (for example, DNA) to whole synthetic systems has been limited due to the lack of efficient synthetic methodologies. So far, chemists have only been able to synthesize monomer sequence-controlled macromolecules by means of complex, time-consuming and iterative chemical strategies such as solid-state Merrifield-type approaches or molecularly dissolved solution-phase systems. Here, we report a rapid and quantitative synthesis of sequence-controlled multiblock polymers in discrete stable nanoscale compartments via an emulsion polymerization approach in which a vinyl-terminated macromolecule is used as an efficient chain transfer agent. This approach is environmentally friendly, fully translatable to industry and thus represents a significant advance in the development of complex macromolecule synthesis, where a high level of molecular precision or monomer sequence control confers potential for molecular targeting, recognition and biocatalysis, as well as molecular information storage.

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The timeline of evolution has given rise to diversity at all levels of biological organization, enabling the synthesis of complex, diverse and functional sequence-ordered macromolecules such as DNA and proteins in discrete compartments (for example, cells, nuclei, cytoplasm and mitochondria). These sequence-controlled biomacromolecules play a vital role in the development, functioning and reproduction of all living organisms. Therefore, the ability to translate molecular precision, as demonstrated in nature, to highly organized sequence-controlled synthetic analogues would be a significant breakthrough with potential applications in many fields, including nanomedicine and nanotechnology. Arguably, solid-state peptide synthesis (Merrifield synthesis) revolutionized the field, providing access to precisely controlled macromolecules¹. However, the time-consuming and iterative attachment/deprotection of monomers in the solid state can be expensive, often results in poor yields, is difficult to scale up, and is often limited to the synthesis of relatively low-molecular-weight oligomers.

Synthetic chemical approaches in the homogeneous liquid phase have also been exploited in the last decade to allow access to a wider range of chemical functionalities as well as the synthesis of polymer-based sequence-controlled materials on a larger scale (g or kg rather than mg)^{2–5}. More recently, a range of methodologies have been investigated that aim to more precisely control the sequence of monomers, including single monomer insertion^{6–8}, tandem monomer addition and modification^{9,10}, kinetic control^{11,12}, solution^{1,13–15}, segregating templating¹⁶, selected reactivities and sequential growth on soluble polymer supports^{3,17–19}. Importantly, the majority of these strategies remain limited to the synthesis of low-molecular-weight oligomers. In contrast, the synthesis of multiblock copolymers is more scalable and allows for the production of higher-molecular-weight polymers, while the incorporation of a wide range of functionalities along the polymer backbone with controlled

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physico-chemical properties can lead to the formation of highly ordered materials exhibiting unique functions and properties.

As such, improving control over the synthesis of multiblock copolymers dissolved in the solution phase has received considerable interest. Contributions by Whittaker, Haddleton, Junkers, Perrier and their co-workers have reported the impressive synthesis of acrylic and acrylamide multiblock copolymers^{20–31}. However, because they made use of catalysts containing either transition metals (usually copper) or sulfur, multiple purification steps were required to isolate the final pure materials. In addition, the halide (as used in transition-metal-mediated approaches) and reversible addition fragmentation chain transfer (RAFT) agents are typically attached to the polymer backbone even after purification, and may be undesirable in certain applications. Further limitations of these approaches often include high dispersities (>1.70 for a decablock copolymer), non-quantitative final conversions (~80%)^{21,32}, extended reaction times per chain extension (up to 48 h)^{21–23}, and undesirable hydrolysis²⁴ of the chain ends leading to architectural heterogeneity. Importantly, these systems have so far proved either incompatible with monomers exhibiting relatively low rates of propagation, k_p , such as methacrylates, or exhibit undesirable termination or chain transfer events^{21,32}. This limitation has a detrimental effect on a wide range of applications that require higher glass transition temperatures (T_g), as methacrylic polymers exhibit significantly higher values than their acrylic counterparts.

To address these limitations, we were inspired by the segregation strategy commonly used in nature to synthesize structurally 'pure' complex biomolecules. Indeed, the well-established 'emulsion polymerization' (used industrially to make many coatings, adhesives and personal care products) is a widely used efficient synthetic application of this approach, where monomers and catalysts are isolated in nanoscale micelles dispersed in a continuous aqueous

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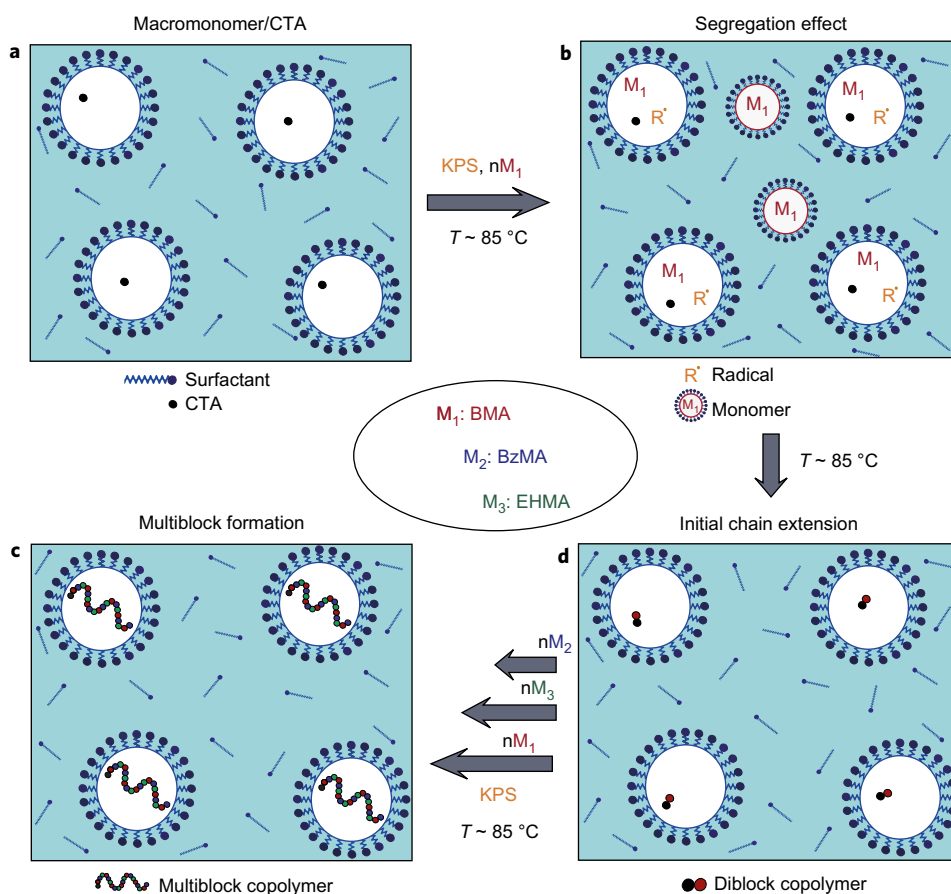


Figure 2 | Conceptual scheme for the synthesis of multiblock copolymers via sulfur-free RAFT emulsion polymerization. a, Macromonomer formation via catalytic chain transfer polymerization in emulsion. **b,** Segregation effect during particle formation. **c,** Diblock copolymer obtained after initial chain extension. **d,** Multiblock formation after 20 consecutive chain extensions.

1 repeated addition of monomer **B**. The propagating block copolymer
 2 chain can again react with the macromonomer, resulting in a
 3 addition fragmentation process not unlike RAFT, mediated by
 4 sulfur-containing chain transfer agents. The PMMA ‘macromonomer’
 5 is subsequently used as a chain transfer agent (CTA; without
 6 purification) to facilitate the synthesis of multiblock copolymers
 7 with an initial ratio of [CTA]:[monomer]:[initiator] = 1:10:0.03 via
 8 reversible addition fragmentation chain transfer emulsion polymerization.
 9 This approach is summarized in Fig. 1. BMA was used as the
 10 second monomer and each block was designed to be $DP_n = 10$
 11 (Fig. 2). Note that a targeted DP of 10 for each chain extension
 12 was selected to minimize the proportion of missing blocks
 13 (percent of defective chains) in the final multiblock material,
 14 which will be minimal according to a recently published paper by
 15 Harrison and co-workers⁴². Under the aforementioned conditions,
 16 degassed mixtures of (1) monomer and (2) initiator in water were
 17 fed into the reactor via a syringe pump (see Supplementary Fig. 4
 18 for the synthesis setup). It should be noted that an oxygen
 19 centred radical initiator (potassium persulfate) is used at this step
 20 to deactivate, *in situ*, the CoBF catalyst (used in the first step for
 21 the formation of the macromonomer) via radical addition to the
 22 unsaturated groups with ligand ‘bleaching’, thus precluding the need
 23 for purification of the CTA before subsequent block formation⁴³.
 24 This second stage of polymerization resembles a typical RAFT
 25 polymerization. The following components were included: (1) a
 26 free radical initiator (potassium persulfate in this case) to generate
 27 the radical source and at the same time deactivate CoBF, (2) a
 28 CTA (vinyl-terminated PMMA in this case) and (3) a monomer
 29 (BMA in this case). On completion of the addition, the reaction

was allowed to proceed for 1 h (giving a total of two and a half
 hours, including the feeding time), after which a sample was
 taken for further analysis. ¹H NMR spectroscopy confirmed high
 monomer conversion (>99%) while SEC showed the molecular
 weight distributions (MWDs) shifting to higher molecular
 weights, with an observed decrease in dispersity ($D \sim 1.3$) and excellent
 agreement between the theoretical and experimental molecular
 weights (Fig. 3). This confirmed the potential of this technique to
 support the synthesis of low-dispersity multiblock copolymers
 from methacrylates. When a second aliquot of BMA was
 subsequently added, a further reduction in dispersity was evident
 ($D \sim 1.25$), which decreased further upon addition of each
 subsequent monomer aliquot, reaching a quasi hexablock multiblock
 copolymer with $M_n \sim 10,400 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ and a final dispersity of 1.10
 (see Supplementary Tables 1 and 2 for details of synthesis). This
 sequential addition was performed with success 20 times, resulting
 in a heneicos (21) quasi multiblock copolymer (including the CTA,
 as the CTA itself is also a polymer with $M_n = 2,000 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) with a
 relatively narrow molecular weight distribution ($D \sim 1.20$) and high
 degree of control, as demonstrated both by the good control over the
 MWDs and the satisfactory correlation between theoretical and
 experimental values, despite 20 cycles of sequential monomer
 addition. Throughout all the monomer additions, SEC showed
 monomodal distributions that shifted to higher molecular weights,
 while ¹H NMR confirmed >99% monomer conversion in each
 step (Fig. 3a,b and Table 1, entry 1). Following additional chain
 extensions, no compromise over control of the molecular weight
 distributions was observed, and the dispersity of the resultant tetra-
 cosa (24) multiblock remained as low as 1.21 (Supplementary Figs 5

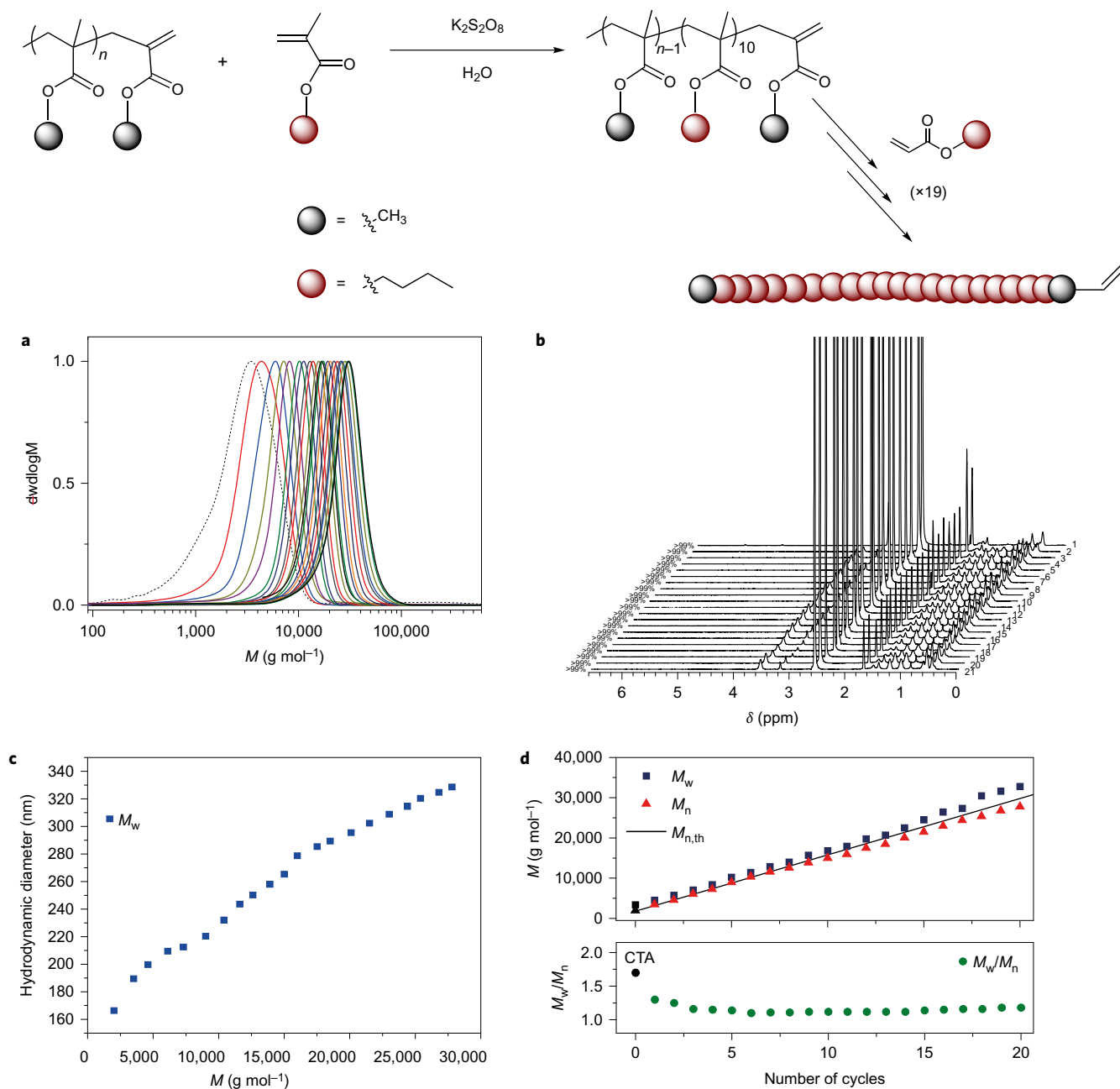


Figure 3 | Synthesis and characterization of model heneicasoblock BMA homopolymer via sulfur-free RAFT emulsion polymerization. **a**, SEC traces of molecular weight distributions for consecutive cycles during synthesis of the heneicasoblock homopolymer. **b**, ^1H NMR spectra for consecutive cycles. **c**, Hydrodynamic diameter evolution of the heneicasoblock homopolymer, as obtained by Z-average measurements versus M_n as measured by DLS. **d**, Evolution of theoretical (black straight line) and experimental molecular weight M_n (red triangles) and M_w (blue squares) determined by SEC and M_w/M_n (green circles) versus the number of cycles during synthesis of the heneicasoblock homopolymer.





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1 to 8). These data confirm the capacity of the segregation approach of
2 emulsion polymerization to successfully synthesize well-defined
3 sequence-controlled multiblock copolymers from the challenging
4 methacrylic monomers.

5 It is noted that in the ^1H NMR results, the remaining vinyl peaks
6 observed between 5.5 and 6.6 ppm correspond to the terminal
7 double bond from the CTA, as the monomer vinyl peaks appear
8 at a slightly different chemical shift (see Supplementary Fig. 9 for
9 further details). This allows for calculation of the monomer conversion
10 and also shows that the residual vinyl peaks in the spectrum of
11 the final product correspond to the CTA rather than any remaining
12 unreacted monomer. An important consideration for successful
13 synthesis of this quasi multiblock copolymer is to maintain the

solid content of the emulsion in relatively low/moderate levels to
14 stabilize it and avoid coagulation, which would limit the final
15 yield and increase the structural heterogeneity of the final
16 product. To circumvent this, the system was further diluted before
17 the addition of each monomer batch (Supplementary Table 1). It
18 is remarkable that when comparing the first ten methacrylate block
19 homopolymers ($\bar{D} \sim 1.12$) with the fully optimized acrylamide deca-
20 block homopolymer reported in the literature ($\bar{D} \sim 1.15$), not only do
21 they exhibit a similar level of control ($\bar{D} \sim 1.12$ versus 1.15), but the
22 overall polymerization rates are also similar (~ 2 h per block),
23 despite the methacrylates having such a low k_p (between 1,000 and
24 $1,500 \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^{-3}$; acrylates: $40,000\text{--}60,000 \text{ l mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^{-3}$)^{28,44–46}.
25 Of course, this is only possible due to the compartmentalization
26

Table 1 | Summary of the analysis of the multiblock copolymers obtained in this study including final conversions, molecular weights and dispersities.

Block composition	No of blocks	Conversion* (%)	$M_{n,th}^{\dagger}$ (g mol ⁻¹)	$M_{n,SEC}^{\ddagger}$ (g mol ⁻¹)	\mathcal{D}_{SEC}^{\S}	Diameter (nm)	PSD [¶]
$DP_n = 10$ 	21	>99	29,800	27,800	1.20	330	0.117
$DP_n = 10$ 	21	>99	36,400	29,500	1.35	360	0.112
$DP_n = 45$ 	7	98	48,200	41,300	1.24	400	0.125
$DP_n = \sum_{i=1}^{10} (5i)$ 	11	>99	44,100	42,000	1.25	450	0.250

*Overall monomer conversion for all additions characterized by ¹H NMR. CDCl₃/acetone-*d*₆ (3:2 vol/vol). Conversions for each iteration are tabulated in the Supplementary Information; [†] $M_{n,th} = [M]_0 \times p \times M_w / [CTA]_0 + M_{CTA}$; [‡]Number-averaged molecular weight as measured by SEC ($M_{n,SEC}$); [§]Dispersity of molecular weight as measured by SEC (\mathcal{D}_{SEC}); ^{||}Diameter of polymer particles as measured by DLS; [¶]Polydispersity of particle diameters as measured by DLS (PSD). Each coloured sphere represents one block, with the black sphere representing the CTA, and red, blue and green representing BMA, BzMA and EHMA blocks, respectively.

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1 effects of emulsion polymerization, which result in an acceleration
2 of the polymerization rate while maintaining low termination
3 levels due to the low concentrations of the radical^{47,48}. Further
4 evidence for the high control of the system can be seen from the
5 plot of the evolution of the number-averaged molecular weight
6 with each monomer addition, where both M_n and weight-averaged
7 molecular weight (M_w) increase linearly with time, with very little
8 deviation from theoretical values (Fig. 3d). In addition, dynamic
9 light scattering (DLS) was used to characterize this multiblock
10 homopolymer, demonstrating an increase in the hydrodynamic
11 diameter with increasing M_n , which supports the gradual growth
12 of the material (Fig. 3c)⁴⁷.

13 Having optimized the conditions for the synthesis of a quasi
14 multiblock homopolymer, we were interested in applying them
15 for the fabrication of more complex multiblock materials with the
16 inclusion of different monomers to impart a wide range of
17 physico-chemical properties to the final materials. Apart from the
18 PMMA macro CTA, which was used as the first (or the last)
19 block, a family of three additional methacrylic monomers was
20 used, including benzyl methacrylate (BzMA), 2-ethyl hexyl meth-
21 acrylate (EHMA) and BMA. The inclusion of different monomers
22 (see Supplementary Tables 3 and 4 for details) resulted in a henei-
23 cosablock (21) multiblock copolymer that exhibited relatively
24 narrow molecular weight distributions ($\mathcal{D} \sim 1.35$) for such a
25 complex structure (Fig. 2b). Note that when an icosablock (20) multi-
26 block copolymer was synthesized by Perrier and co-workers using a
27 much more quickly propagating monomer family (acrylamides), a
28 similar level of control was attained ($\mathcal{D} \sim 1.35$ for both systems)²⁸.
29 SEC again confirmed complete shifts to higher molecular weight
30 following each monomer addition (Fig. 4a), while DLS showed an
31 increase in the hydrodynamic diameter of the particles with increas-
32 ing M_n (Supplementary Fig. 10), and ¹H NMR revealed very high
33 conversions (>99%) throughout the block copolymerization cycles
34 (Supplementary Fig. 11), demonstrating the quantitative synthesis
35 of highly ordered sequence-controlled multiblock copolymers.
36 Additional chain extensions could also be achieved, although the dis-
37 persities increased further. Nevertheless, a tetracosablock (24) multiblock
38 copolymer could be attained (Supplementary Figs 10 to 13). The
39 final product contained no contaminating halide or sulfur moieties,

in contrast with both classical ATRP and RAFT polymerization
where typical purification methods such as precipitation or dialysis
cannot remove the covalently attached halogen or RAFT agent^{49,50}.

As high-molecular-weight block copolymers are of interest
because of their ability to self-assemble and/or phase separate to
form higher ordered structures in both solution and the solid
state, we were interested in probing the potential of the technique
for the synthesis of higher-molecular-weight multiblock copoly-
mers. Under the previously optimized conditions, each block was
designed to have $DP_n = 45$, resulting in a well-defined heptablock
multiblock copolymer) consisting of MMA, BMA, BzMA and
EHMA (Fig. 2e). Other important considerations when synthesizing
complex materials such as sequence-controlled multiblock copoly-
mers are potential issues associated with scaling up of the polymer-
ization process. To bridge the gap between small-scale synthesis in
research laboratories and commercialization, and explore the
robustness of our technique, we synthesized the high-molecular-
weight multiblock copolymers on a high multigram scale (~80 g)
in a 0.5 l double-jacketed reactor (Fig. 4b). This contrasts with
solid peptide syntheses or even with iterative exponential growth
approaches, which are typically limited to milligrams of product¹⁹.
Despite this process scale-up, quantitative or near-quantitative con-
versions (>99%) were achieved throughout the monomer addition
cycles (Supplementary Fig. 14). DLS showed a gradual evolution
of the hydrodynamic diameter, and the final polymer had a disper-
sity value of 1.24 ($M_n \sim 41,300$ g mol⁻¹, Table 1, entry 3). The ease
of scale-up and maintenance of polymer architectural control high-
lights the versatility and robustness of this system in facilitating
the synthesis of higher-molecular-weight materials (Fig. 4c; see
Supplementary Figs 14 and 15 and Supplementary Tables 5 and 6
for further details). As such, the diblock and triblock copolymers
that are typically used at this molecular weight ($M_n \sim 10,000$ –
40,000 g mol⁻¹) can be easily prepared quantitatively within a few
hours. Post-synthesis, the multiblock was isolated via dialysis, yield-
ing 80 g of a white solid material (Fig. 4d). It should be highlighted
that, because the macromonomer has the dual role of simultane-
ously being the CTA and the last (or first) building block, the
final material is a clear white solid, in contrast to copper- or
sulfur-catalysed polymerizations, where brown/green and pink/

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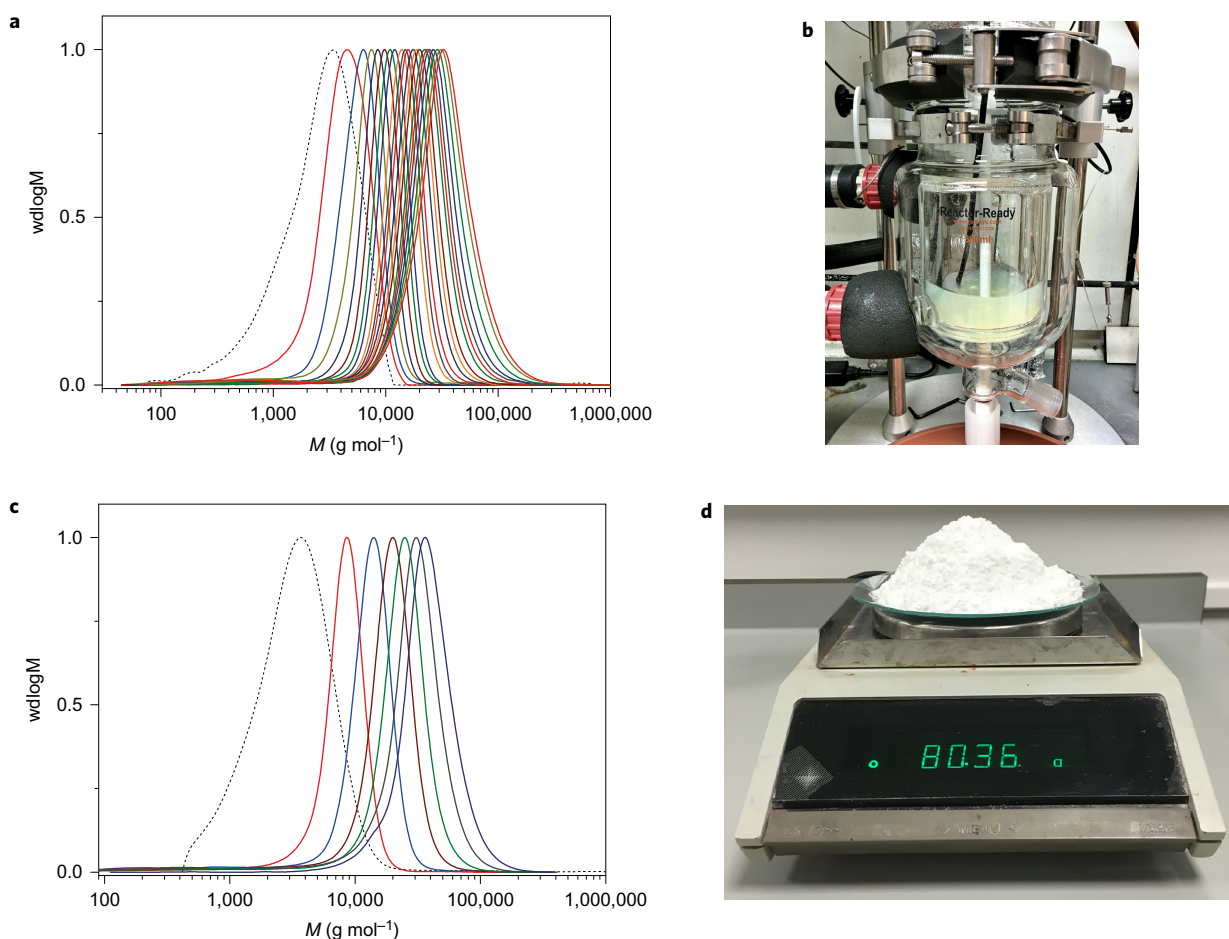


Figure 4 | Scalable synthesis of the high-molecular-weight hexablock copolymer. The copolymer consists of BMA, BzMA, EHMA and MMA at 85 °C (in a 0.5 l reactor with monomer-starved conditions) via a segregation approach of emulsion polymerization using KPS as initiator and PMMA ($\sim 2,000 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) as the initial CTA. **a**, Molecular weight distributions of heneicosablock multiblock copolymer by SEC. **b**, Image of the double-jacketed 0.5 l reactor used for the high-scale synthesis. **c**, Molecular weight distributions of heptablock copolymer by SEC. **d**, Total amount of material/product obtained after six successive additions.

1 yellow products are typically obtained at the end of the polymerizations and, even after several purification processes (for example, 2 dialysis, precipitation and so on), the RAFT agent and the 3 halogen will still be present at the termini of the macromolecules.

4 The vast majority of the studies associated with multiblock copolymers maintain the same DP (or chain length) for each block. For 5 example, the synthesis of a decablock with $DP_n \sim 10$ per block or a 6 hexablock with $DP_n \sim 45$ per block does not necessarily mean that 7 any combination of chain length can be incorporated into the 8 same multiblock copolymer. At the same time, the multiblocks 9 reported typically follow a specific pattern (for example, 10 ABCDABCD) and thus a question arises about whether each 11 monomer can equally support the propagation (for example, will 12 ABCD work as well as ACBD and so on). To explore this, a gradually 13 increasing DP undecablock gradient multiblock copolymer was 14 targeted, poly(BMA₅-*b*-BzMA₁₀-*b*-EHMA₁₅-*b*-BMA₂₀-*b*-EHMA₂₅-*b*-EHMA₃₀-*b*-BzMA₃₅-*b*-BzMA₄₀-*b*-BMA₄₅-*b*-BMA₅₀-*b*-MMA₁₀), 15 where the propagation of each monomer was investigated (Fig. 2d, 16 and Supplementary Tables 7 and 8). Indeed, all of the methacrylate 17 monomers examined here were found to efficiently support the 18 propagation, allowing the desired manipulation of the monomer 19 sequence to yield a well-defined undecablock multiblock copolymer 20 of $M_n \sim 42,000 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$, with good agreement between theoretical 21 and experimental molecular weights and narrow MWDs ($\mathcal{D} \sim 1.25$, 22 Fig. 5a,b and Supplementary Fig. 16). Note that relatively hydrophobic 23 monomers have been used in these studies, as a certain degree of 24 hydrophobicity is required to perform a successful emulsion 25 polymerization; that is, an appropriate equilibrium of monomer is 26 required in both the oil and water phases. However, for applications 27 where hydrophilic monomers are required we envisage an inverse 28 emulsion polymerization might alternatively be used, as well as a 29 combination of protected and unprotected monomers for amphiphilic 30 structures. Finally, we would like to acknowledge that although the 31 targeted materials have been successfully obtained, as characterized 32 by DLS, SEC and NMR, finding solid proof of the complex structure 33 of these multiblock copolymers remains a challenge. 34

35
36

Conclusions

37 We have demonstrated that a segregation approach of emulsion 38 polymerization is able to produce well-defined sequence-controlled 39 macromolecules. Despite altering the sequence of the monomer 40 composition, narrow molecular weight distributions were obtained 41 while achieving a heneicosablock copolymer, with quantitative 42 conversions attained throughout all the iterative monomer additions. 43 Higher-molecular-weight multiblock copolymers could also be syn- 44 thesized in a quantitative manner, which were subsequently scaled 45 up to $\sim 80 \text{ g}$, further highlighting the robustness of the technique. 46 The absence of any transition metal or sulfur catalysts, the scalability 47 of the process, the quantitative yields ($>99\%$) and the high polymer- 48 ization rates despite such a low activated monomer pave the way for 49 the synthesis of a new class of macromolecular sequence-controlled 50 materials for a wide range of applications including nanostructured 51

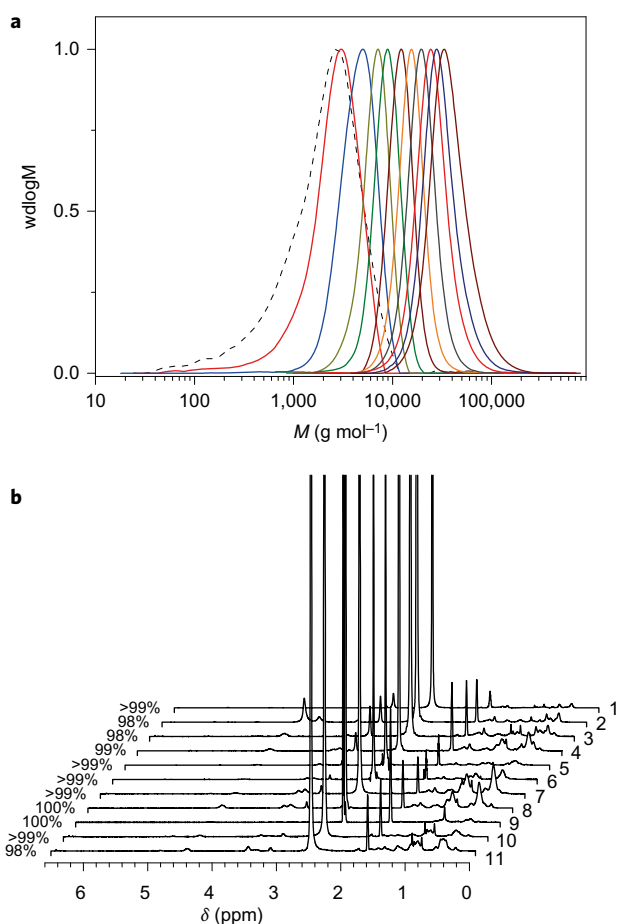


Figure 5 | Synthesis and characterization of the undecablock copolymer following various patterns obtained via consecutively switching between different monomers. a, SEC traces of the undecablock copolymer showing a clear shift towards higher molecular weights. **b**, ^1H NMR traces for synthesis of the undecablock copolymer following various patterns showing no remaining monomer throughout the sequential chain extensions. The copolymer consists of BMA, BzMA, EHMA and MMA at 85 °C (in a 0.5 l reactor with monomer-starved conditions) via a segregation approach of emulsion polymerization using KPS as initiator and PMMA ($\sim 2,000 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) as the initial CTA.

1 materials, polymeric phase separation, single chain folding and drug
2 delivery, among others.

3 Methods

4 **Process for the synthesis of a PMMA macromonomer by CCTP in emulsion.** In a
5 typical CCTP in emulsion process, CoBF (7.5 mg) was placed in a 100 ml round-
6 bottomed flask together with a stirring bar. The flask was purged with nitrogen for at
7 least 1 h. Subsequently, MMA (20 ml, 18.72 g, 186.98 mmol), previously degassed
8 for 30 min, was added to the flask via a degassed syringe. The mixture was vigorously
9 stirred under an inert atmosphere until total dissolution of the catalyst. Meanwhile,
10 4,4'-azobis(4-cyanovaleric acid) (CVA) (0.5 g, 1.78 mmol), SDS (0.3 g, 1.04 mmol)
11 and 130 ml water were charged into a three-neck, 500 ml double-jacketed reactor,
12 equipped with an RTD temperature probe and an overhead stirrer. The mixture was
13 purged with nitrogen and stirred at 325 r.p.m. for at least 30 min. Subsequently, the
14 mixture was heated under an inert atmosphere. When the temperature in the reactor
15 reached 70 °C, the MMA-CoBF solution was added using a degassed syringe and a
16 syringe pump (feeding rate = $0.666 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$, feeding time = 30 min). When this
17 addition was over, stirring continued for another 30 min under the same conditions.
18 Subsequently, the heat pump settings were adjusted to 107 °C to maintain the
19 reaction temperature at 80–82 °C and stirring continued for 60 min. M_n of the
20 macromonomer was calculated from ^1H NMR spectra.

21 **General process for the synthesis of multiblock copolymers by free-radical**
22 **polymerization in emulsion.** The amount of monomer to be added to the PMMA

macromonomer latex was calculated according to the desired DP_n . For each addition, 23
the volume of aqueous potassium persulfate (KPS) solution added was equal to the 24
monomer volume. The additions were stopped and dilutions were made with 25
water when the solid content reached values above which coagulation was very 26
likely to occur. After every dilution, the solid content of the latex was measured 27
(in g ml^{-1}) and the value was taken into account to calculate the amounts of reagents 28
for the next addition cycle. 29

Process for chain extension of the PMMA macromonomer with BMA ($DP_n = 10$) 30
by free-radical polymerization in emulsion. PMMA macromonomer latex (125 ml; 31
 0.129 g ml^{-1}) was diluted by adding 37 ml of water to achieve 10% solid content. 32
The resulting latex was charged in the reactor and purged with nitrogen for 30 min 33
while stirring. The emulsion was then heated. When the temperature in the reactor 34
reached 85–86 °C and was stable, BMA (15.9 ml, 14.22 g, 0.1 mol) and potassium 35
persulfate aqueous solution (79.5 mg potassium persulfate in 15.9 ml of water) 36
were added simultaneously (both having been degassed previously for 30 min) 37
using degassed syringes and a syringe pump (feeding rate = 0.16 ml min^{-1} , feeding 38
time = 100 min). When the addition was over, stirring was continued for another 39
60 min under the same conditions. 40

SEC. SEC analyses were performed on an Agilent 1260 SEC-MDS fitted with 41
differential refractive index (DRI), light scattering (LS) and viscometry (VS) 42
detectors equipped with 2 \times PLgel 5 mm mixed-D columns ($300 \times 7.5 \text{ mm}$), 1 \times 43
PLgel 5 mm guard column ($50 \times 7.5 \text{ mm}$) and autosampler. Narrow linear PMMA 44
standards in the range of 200 to $1.0 \times 10^6 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ were used to calibrate the system. 45
All samples were passed through a $0.45 \mu\text{m}$ PTFE filter before analysis. The mobile 46
phase was chloroform with 2% triethylamine (flow rate of 1.0 ml min^{-1}). SEC data 47
were analysed using Cirrus v3.3. 48

MALDI-TOF-MS. MALDI-TOF-MS was conducted using a Bruker Daltonics 49
Ultra flex II MALDI-TOF-MS mass spectrometer, equipped with a nitrogen laser 50
delivering 2 ns laser pulses at 337 nm with positive-ion TOF detection performed 51
using an accelerating voltage of 25 kV. Solutions in tetrahydrofuran (50 μl) of 52
2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (DHB) as matrix (saturated solution), sodium iodide as 53
cationization agent (1.0 mg ml^{-1}) and sample (1.0 mg ml^{-1}) were mixed and 0.7 μl 54
of the mixture was applied to the target plate. Spectra were recorded in reflector 55
mode calibrating PEG-Me 1,100 kDa. 56

^1H NMR. ^1H NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker DPX-300 and HD-400 57
spectrometers using a mixture of deuterated chloroform and deuterated acetone 58
(vol/vol = 3/2), both obtained from Aldrich. Chemical shifts are given in ppm 59
downfield from the internal standard tetramethylsilane. 60

DLS. DLS measurements were performed on a Malvern Instruments Zetasizer Nano 61
Series instrument with a detection angle of 173°, and the Z-average mean 62
hydrodynamic diameter and the width of the particle size distribution (PSD) were 63
obtained from analysis of the autocorrelation function. Latex (1 μl) was diluted with 64
1 ml of deionized water that had been filtered previously with a $0.20 \mu\text{m}$ membrane 65
to ensure the minimization of dust and other particulates. At least three 66
measurements were made at 25 °C for each sample, with an equilibrium time of 67
2 min before starting measurements. 68

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Author contributions

A.A., D.M.H. and T.P.D. conceived and designed the experiments. N.G.E. and A.A. performed the experiments. N.G.E., A.A. and V.N. analysed the data. A.A. and N.G.E. co-wrote the paper. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript. A.A. and N.G.E. contributed equally to this work.

Additional information

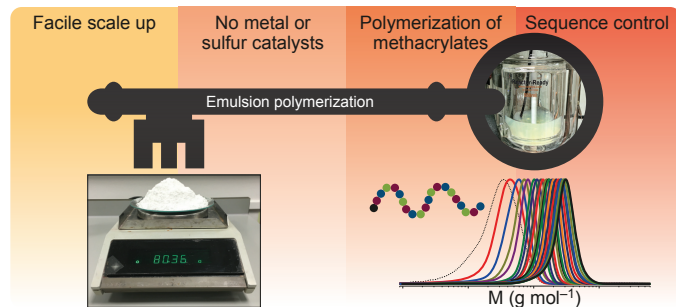
Supplementary information is available in the online version of the paper. Reprints and permissions information is available online at www.nature.com/reprints. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to A.A., T.P.D. and D.M.H.

Competing financial interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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2 Achieving sequence control in a synthetic polymer is more challen-
3 ging and time consuming than it is for biopolymers. Now, it has
4 been shown that the synthesis of sequence-controlled multiblock
5 copolymers can be carried out via emulsion polymerization. This
6 approach is environmentally friendly and yields complex multiblock
7 materials with low dispersity and high yields.



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