

Control of Chain Walking by Weak Attractive Interactions in Unsymmetric Catalysts

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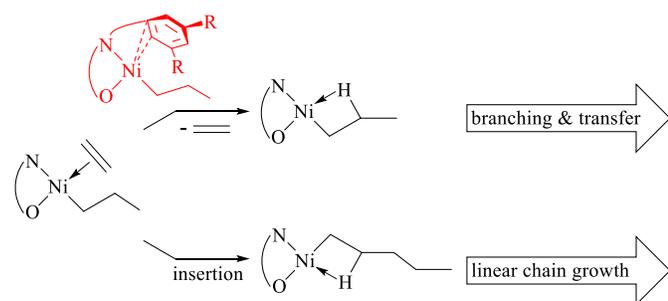
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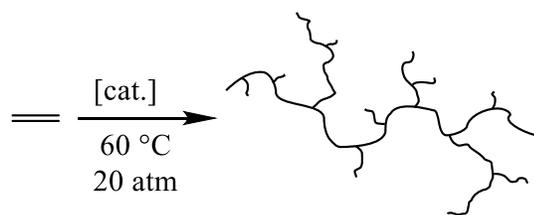
ABSTRACT: A combined theoretical and experimental study shows how weak attractive interactions can strongly promote chain walking and chain transfer. This accounts for the previously observed very different microstructures obtained in ethylene polymerization by $[\kappa^2\text{-}N,O\text{-}\{(2,6\text{-}(3',5'\text{-}R_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_3)_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_3\text{-}N=C(H)\text{-}(3,5\text{-}X,Y_2\text{-}2\text{-}O\text{-}C_6\text{H}_2)\})\text{NiCH}_3(\text{pyridine})]$, namely hyperbranched oligomers for remote substituents $R = \text{CH}_3$ vs. high molecular weight polyethylene for $R = \text{CF}_3$. From a full mechanistic consideration the alkyl olefin complex with the growing chain *cis* to the salicylaldiminato oxygen donor is identified as the key species. Alternative to ethylene chain growth by insertion in this species, decoordination of the monomer to form a *cis* β -agostic complex provides an entry into branching and chain transfer pathways. This release of monomer is promoted and made competitive by a weak η^2 -coordination of the distal aryl rings to the metal center, operative only for the case of sufficiently electron rich aryls. This concept for controlling chain walking is underlined by catalysts with other weakly coordinating furane and thiophene motifs, which afford highly branched oligomers with > 120 branches per 1000 carbon atoms.



INTRODUCTION

Catalytic insertion reactions promoted by late transition metal complexes are unique in their synthetic and practical scope. Other than established polyolefin processes,^{1,2} they are often tolerant towards heteroatom-containing functional groups and they provide unique branching structures. A fundamental ubiquitous issue is the occurrence of β -hydride elimination in these reactions. In a classical olefin chain growth polymerization, the ratio of insertion chain growth rate vs. rate of chain transfer via β -hydride elimination will determine the products' molecular mass. Moreover, β -hydride elimination is also a key step of 'chain walking', that is, migration of a metal center along a hydrocarbon chain via a series of β -H eliminations and reinsertions.^{3,4} This can result in the formation of highly branched polymers from ethylene as the sole monomer (Scheme 1). Such 'chain walking' processes are not restricted to olefin polymerizations, but also occur in various other instances. For example, they are essential to terminal functionalizations from internal double bonds, which are particularly attractive for the valorization of plant oils.⁵ The latter example illustrates a situation frequently encountered: an insertion reaction is strongly favored for the linear metal-alkyl even though branched alkyls are also accessible, resulting in a strong preference for the non-branched, linear product. In fact, even for cases of ethylene polymerization to a strictly linear polymer, extensive underlying chain walking occurs.⁶⁻⁸

Scheme 1. Synthetic relevance of chain walking processes: oligomerization of ethylene to hyperbranched oligomers.



Despite the relevance and utility of chain walking processes and the underlying step of β -H elimination, a concept is missing to rationally promote or suppress their occurrence and competition with other pathways.

Given this background, neutral nickel(II) salicylaldimino complexes provide a unique case example. These catalysts, introduced by Grubbs et al.⁹ and Johnson et al.,¹⁰ are outstanding in being highly active for ethylene polymerization, stable towards water, and compatible with the presence of certain vinyl monomers.¹¹⁻¹⁵ We have advanced these catalysts by introduction of *N*-terphenyl motifs (**1**) which allow for an essential tuning of their catalytic properties. This is based on the serendipitous observation that substituents in an actually rather remote position to the metal site alter the outcome of ethylene polymerization entirely.¹⁶ For example, for R = CF₃ a linear semicrystalline polymer is obtained vs. hyperbranched liquid low-molecular weight oligomers for R = CH₃ (Figure 1).

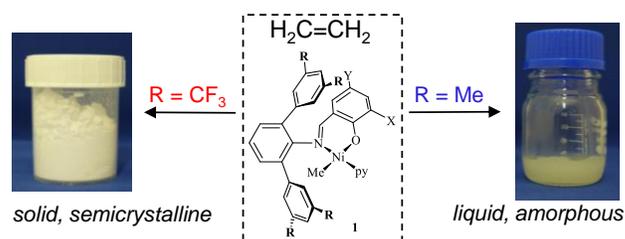
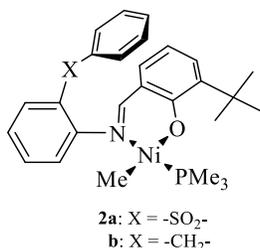


Figure 1. Products of ethylene polymerization depending on the nature of the catalysts' remote substituents R (reaction conditions: 60 °C, 20 atm ethylene pressure).

Due to its practical utility¹⁷⁻¹⁹ and possibly conceptually instructive nature, the origin of this peculiar effect of the remote substituents is being sought.²⁰⁻²⁴ Marks and coworkers suggest an attractive F...H interaction of a remote -CF₃ group with the growing chain to disfavor β -H elimination,²⁰ but a fluorine-free electron withdrawing group yields virtually identical product microstructures.²⁵ In a related study, the two complexes **2a** and **2b** were both found to form highly branched ethylene oligomers, with a higher observed activity, three-fold increased molecular mass and slightly higher degree of branching for X = SO₂. This is suggested to result from a hemilabile interaction²⁶⁻²⁹ of the sulfonyl group.²¹ However, the question for a conclusive mechanistic scenario that accounts for increased molecular masses (favored by suppressed β -H elimination) and similar or slightly increased branching (favored by increased β -H elimination) remains open.



Our interpretation from studies of a range of substitution patterns²⁵⁻³¹ is that the electron withdrawing or donating nature of the remote substituent (R) is the decisive feature in **1**. However, this is a purely phenomenological account to date.

Overall the underlying mechanisms are not understood.

We now develop a conclusive picture from a comprehensive combined theoretical and experimental study, which shows how weak interactions can direct the competition between chain growth and β -hydride elimination.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Phenomenologically, electron rich substituents in the 3,5-positions of the *N*-terphenyl moiety of **1** make the nickel center more prone for β -hydride elimination. This increases chain walking and chain transfer reactions explaining the lower molecular mass oligomers with high degrees of branching produced by these complexes. Regarding the open question how the electronic character of the substituents translates to the nickel center, one possibility is a transfer of electron density via increasing the overall electron density of the conjugated system of the salicylaldiminato ligand. A second scenario comprises discrete interactions of the salicylaldiminato ligand with the nickel center additional to its chelating N,O-coordination, e.g. by direct π -interaction between the ligand aryl moieties and the metal center.

Catalyst precursors and pressure reactor experiments. With regard to the aforementioned issues, molecular structures of the catalyst precursors can be instructive. These neutral Ni(II) salicylaldiminato complexes are stabilized by a P-, N- or other donor like e.g. trimethylphosphine or pyridine. These often bind relatively strongly, and compared with ethylene complexes as an example of species that occur during catalysis they are more stable (note that concerning activation of the precursors for catalysis, this is overcome by the large excess of olefin and the high dilution under pressure reactor conditions). This will alter the role of any additional weak interactions in the catalyst precursor, and likely reduce their relevance. For related anilinetropone complexes Jenkins and Brookhart were able to observe β -agostic complexes at low temperatures.³² These are devoid of such additional strongly coordinating ligands. Applying analogous synthetic methodology to salicylaldiminato complexes to date did not yield clean well-characterized products.³³

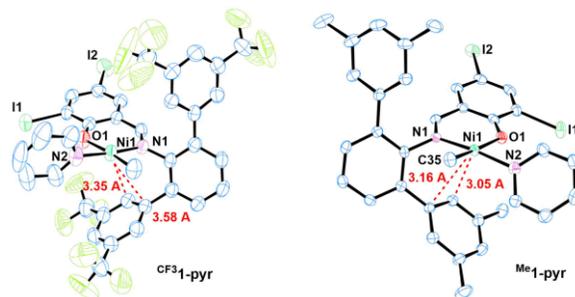


Figure 2. Comparison of X-ray crystal structures (50 % probability ellipsoids, H atoms omitted for clarity) of **CF₃-1-pyr** and **Me-1-pyr**.

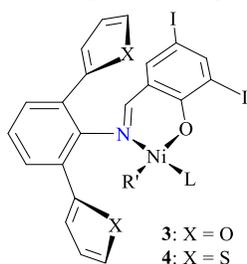
Notwithstanding, X-ray diffraction analyses of *N*-terphenyl salicylaldiminato nickel pyridine complexes show that in the solid state structures, one of the distal aryl rings of the terphenyl moiety is located close to an axial position of the nickel center with typical nickel-aryl distances in the range of 3.05 to 3.47 Å (Figure 2), the shorter distances being found for **Me-1-pyr**.^{16,30,31} These values suggest the possibility of a π -interaction of an aromatic ring with the metal center in this class of complexes.³⁴

Table 1. Polymerization results with complexes bearing potential coordinating motifs in the ligand backbone.^a

entry	catalyst precursor	T [°C]	yield [g]	TOF ^a	M _n (NMR) [g mol ⁻¹] ^b	M _n (GPC) [g mol ⁻¹] ^c	M _w /M _n (GPC) ^c	branches /1,000 C ^d
1 ^e	CF ₃ - pyr	40	23.4	41,800	-	19,000	5.1	10
2	Me- pyr	40	10.9	19,500	1,300	3,500	1.7	77
3	3-pyr	40	9.9	17,700	4,800	5,900	1.9	109
4	3-pyr	60	6.2	11,100	2,600	5,100	2.0	115
5	3-pyr	80	1.8	3,200	1,200	1,800	2.5	112
6	4-pyr	40	2.2	3,900	4,100	8,600	1.7	127
7	4-pyr	60	0.3	550	2,200	3,500	1.7	123
8	2a-pyr	40	2.1	3,800	1,500	2,200	1.9	124
9 ^f	2a-PMe₃	40	2.8	10,000	1,600	2,800	1.9	145 ^f

^areaction conditions: 20 μmol of catalyst in 100 mL of toluene for 1 h at 20 bar of ethylene. ^a TOF x mol [C₂H₄] x mol⁻¹ [Ni] h⁻¹. ^bmolecular weights calculated from ¹H NMR intensity ratio of unsaturated end groups vs. overall integral. ^c in THF vs. polystyrene standards. ^ddegree of branching calculated from ¹H NMR intensity ratio of methyl groups (corrected for saturated end groups) vs. overall integral. ^edata from ref. 16: 40 μmol of catalyst for 30 min at 40 bar. ^fdata from ref. 21: 10 μmol of catalyst, [Ni(cod)₂] as cocatalyst at 8 bar for 40 min. ^fnot corrected for endgroups

To further probe for the role of such possible π-interactions, we prepared complexes **3** and **4** with other electron-rich furanyl- and thiophenyl distal aryl motifs.



In pressure reactor experiments, they yield ethylene oligomers with very high degrees of branching (Table 1). Like for Me-**1**, the oligomers possess a hyperbranched microstructure as concluded from observable *sec*-Bu branches (cf. Supporting Information). In detail, degrees of branching exceed those of the terphenyl system (Me-**1**) while molecular weights are slightly higher. Concerning the branching patterns, **3** and **4** produce a higher proportion of methyl branches and less higher branches compared to Me-**1** (Table S1 in the Supporting Information).

Cyclic voltammetry on the catalyst precursors showed distinct effects of the nature of the distal aryl rings on the electronic properties of the nickel center. All complexes showed oxidation and reduction transitions during cyclic voltammetry measurements in the potential range expected for a four coordinate square planar Ni(II)/Ni(III) pair. Measurements were carried out using different scan rates from 25 to 2,000 mV s⁻¹ and the half-wave potential was found to be independent of the scan rate. The oxidation of all complexes is only partially reversible which is attributed to a relatively fast decomposition of the Ni(III)-species. Cyclic voltammograms (cf. Figure S1 in the Supporting Information) of the corresponding salicylaldehydes did not show any redox transitions at the potentials observed for the complex. Therefore, the oxidation and reduction processes during cyclic voltammetry measurements are assumed to be metal centered. The considerably higher half wave potential of CF₃-**pyr** compared to Me-**pyr** shows that the nature of the remote substituents clearly affects the electron density at the Ni center, as reflected by the easier oxidation of the more electron rich

$\text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$ (Table 2). The $E_{1/2}$ values of **3** and **4** are in line with a relatively electron rich nature.

Table 2: Half-wave potentials of catalyst precursors according to cyclic voltammetry measurements.

entry	complex	$E_{1/2}$ [mV] ^a
1	$\text{CF}_3\text{1-pyr}$	306
2	$\text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$	-33
3	3-pyr	84
4	4-pyr	76

^a determined from referenced cyclic voltammograms

An increased electron density at the metal center is expected to result in an increased propensity for β -hydride elimination and resulting chain transfer. Indeed, molecular masses of the oligomers obtained with the different catalyst precursors and their half wave potentials decrease from $\text{CF}_3\text{1-pyr} > \mathbf{3} \approx \mathbf{4} > \text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$. Regarding degrees of branching of the polymers and oligomers, $\text{CF}_3\text{1-pyr}$ stands out with its low degree of branching and low electron density as reflected by its high $E_{1/2}$ value. For the more electron rich catalysts $\text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$, **3-pyr** and **4-pyr**, which all yield highly branched oligomers, there is no clear correlation. Degrees of branching are not only governed by the propensity of the catalyst for β -hydride elimination, but also its relative ability for insertion into a linear alkyl vs. different branched alkyls (vide infra). Thus, it appears reasonable that sterics might have a different (higher) impact than on chain transfer, and add to the effect of electron density at the metal.

These findings show that the nature or substitution pattern, respectively, of the distal aryl rings clearly affects the electronic situation at the metal site as reflected by its redox properties, without implications on how this effect originates.

Active species and intermediates during catalysis.

The role of the distal aryl substituents in catalysis was accessed by a comprehensive theoretical DFT study.

To have a better understanding of the impact of fluorines on the electronic structure of the catalysts, first we analyzed the potential π -interaction between one of the aryl rings of the terphenyl moiety and the nickel center, suggested on the base of the short nickel-aryl distances in the X-ray structure of $\text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$. To this end we performed a non-covalent interaction (NCI) analysis using the approach developed by W. Yang and coworkers.^{35,36} The gradient isosurface of the reduced density gradient ($s = 0.5$

a.u.) for $\text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$ (Figure 3) indicates weak attractive interactions (blue) along the axis connecting the Ni atom and the vicinal C atoms of the aryl ring, confirming an attractive interaction between the Ni center and the aryl ring of the terphenyl ligand.

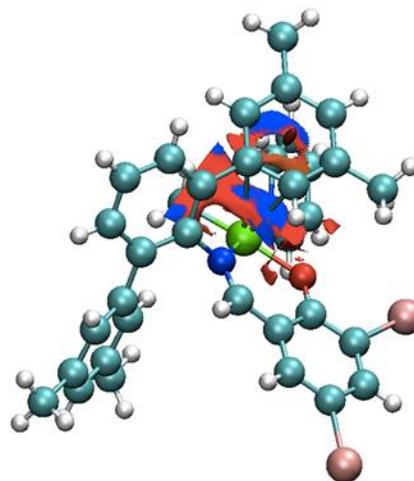
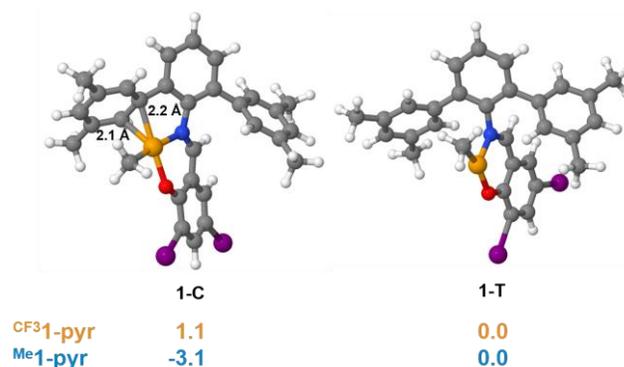


Figure 3. NCI analysis of the electron density of $\text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$. The isosurface corresponds to a reduced density gradient isosurface of $s = 0.5$ a.u. The surface is colored on a blue-to-red scale according to the sign of $(\lambda_2)\rho$, ranging from -0.3 to 0.3 a.u. (see the SI for details). Within this scale blue indicates weak attractive interactions, and red indicates weak repulsive interaction.

To explore whether this interaction can be more relevant during catalysis, when a vacant coordination site can be present on the nickel, we analyzed the coordinatively unsaturated Ni-methyl fragment Me_1 and $\text{CF}_3\mathbf{1}$ (that is the product of pyridine dissociation from $\text{Me}_1\text{-pyr}$ and $\text{CF}_3\mathbf{1-pyr}$). For both systems two different isomers were located (Figure 4), one of them showing a clear η^2 -interaction of one of the distal aromatic rings of the terphenyl moiety of the ligand to the metal center (Figure 4 left).



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Figure 4. Two possible isomers of the dissociated three coordinate nickel-methyl species Me_1 and their relative G_{Tol} in kcal mol $^{-1}$ (G_{Tol} for CF_3_1 isomers are also given).

Notably, for Me_1 the isomer featuring the η^2 -interaction of the aryl ring of the terphenyl moiety (Figure 4 left) is preferred by 3.1 kcal mol $^{-1}$, whereas for CF_3_1 the isomer having no nickel-aryl η^2 -interaction, and having the methyl group trans to oxygen atom is favored by 1.1 kcal mol $^{-1}$ (Figure 4 right). This difference is of course related to the different coordinating ability of the aryl group in Me_1 -pyr and CF_3_1 -pyr and provides a first indication of a non covalent interaction possibly relevant during catalysis,³⁷ which could account for the different catalytic behavior observed for Me_1 -pyr and CF_3_1 -pyr.

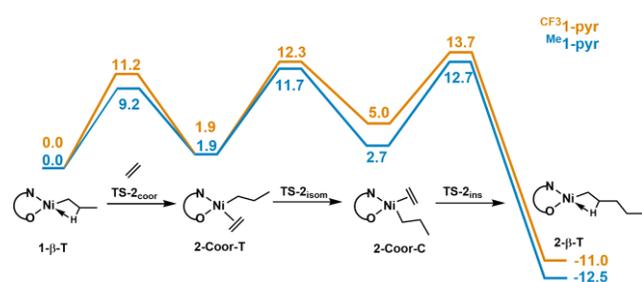


Figure 5. Energy profile (ΔG_{Tol} in kcal mol $^{-1}$) for the ethylene insertion with complexes Me_1 -pyr (blue) and CF_3_1 -pyr (orange). Energies are relative to the β -agostic *trans*-polymeryl nickel complex $1\text{-}\beta\text{-T}$.

Linear chain growth. Starting from $1\text{-}\beta\text{-T}$ (referenced as the zero energy point, Figure 5), ethylene coordination occurring by opening of the β -agostic interaction requires overcoming a free energy barrier of 11.2 (CF_3_1) and 9.2 (Me_1) kcal mol $^{-1}$. For both complexes the resulting 2-Coor-T intermediate is slightly higher in energy relative to $1\text{-}\beta\text{-T}$ + C_2H_4 ($\Delta G = 1.9$ kcal mol $^{-1}$). Due to the higher energy for the direct ethylene insertion from the 2-Coor-T intermediate (almost +4 kcal mol $^{-1}$ respect to the insertion from 2-Coor-C), we investigated the systems' isomerization to the slightly more energetic 2-Coor-C intermediate via the tetrahedral four-coordinated transition state $\text{TS-2}_{\text{isom}}$. Migratory insertion via TS-2_{ins} yields the stable β -agostic complex, $2\text{-}\beta\text{-T}$. The overall free energy barrier from $1\text{-}\beta\text{-T}$ to TS-2_{ins} amounts to 12.7 and 13.7 kcal mol $^{-1}$ for Me_1 and CF_3_1 , respectively.

The two systems behave similarly in the linear chain growth step, with CF_3_1 showing only a slightly higher energy profile, probably due to a slightly higher steric hindrance in CF_3_1 , as evidenced by topographic steric maps (Figure 6). The main steric hindrance is located in the eastern hemisphere,³⁸ hosting the monomer in the insertion transition state TS-2_{ins} . Slightly higher steric hindrance in CF_3_1 can also be observed near the north and south poles, with the CF_3 groups generating steric hindrance in the western hemisphere.

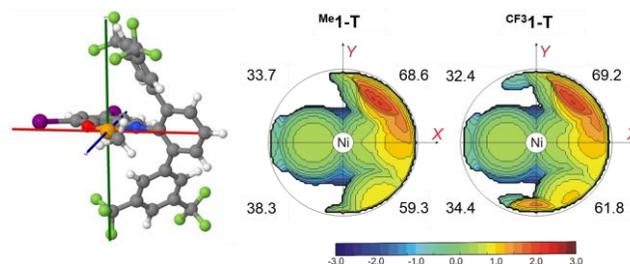


Figure 6. Topographic steric maps of the fragments $\text{Me}_1\text{-T}$ and $\text{CF}_3_1\text{-T}$. The complexes are oriented as shown for $\text{CF}_3_1\text{-T}$ on the left.

Branch Formation and Chain Transfer Reactions.

Both branch formation via chain walking and chain transfer proceed via β -hydride elimination (BHE) as the initial step.³⁹ Starting from $1\text{-}\beta\text{-T}$, BHE leads to the nickel hydride species 1-BHE-T with a propene molecule coordinated *trans* to the oxygen atom. Due to the unfavorable kinetics and thermodynamics (see Figure 9 in the last section) this possibility was ruled out for both complexes. Hence, BHE has to occur from the *cis* isomer $1\text{-}\beta\text{-C}$, leading to the sterically less crowded and energetically favored isomer 1-BHE-C . However, all potential pathways for a direct *cis/trans* isomerization of the β -agostic complex were calculated to involve transition states with extremely high free energies and therefore can be ruled out (See SI).

An alternative pathway to reach $1\text{-}\beta\text{-C}$ is through coordination of ethylene to $1\text{-}\beta\text{-T}$ followed by isomerization of the ethylene complex 2-Coor-T to 2-Coor-C – steps already considered in the linear chain growth reaction of Figure 5 – followed by ethylene dissociation from 2-Coor-C , leading to the β -agostic intermediate $1\text{-}\beta\text{-C}$.

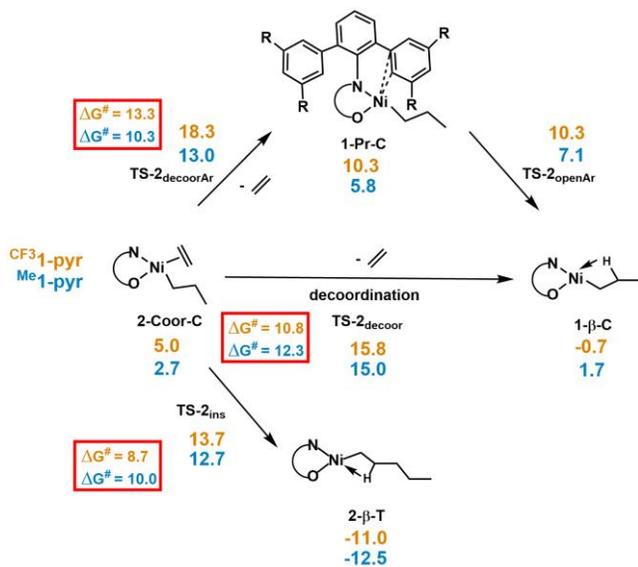


Figure 7. Two potential pathways for the decoordination of ethylene to form **1-β-C**. Free energies (ΔG_{Tol} in kcal mol⁻¹) of all intermediates for Me₁ (blue) and CF₃₁ (orange).

We found that release of ethylene from **2-Coor-C** can occur via two pathways, see Figure 7. The most straightforward pathway is direct dissociation of ethylene via **TS-2_{decoor}**, and an energy barrier of 12.3 and 10.8 kcal mol⁻¹ for Me₁ and CF₃₁, respectively. The other ethylene dissociation pathway proceeds in two steps: first ethylene is displaced by a η²-interaction of the distal aryl ring of the terphenyl moiety with the Ni center (formation of **1-Pr-C**), then the interaction of Ni with the aryl ring is replaced by a β-agostic interaction of Ni with the chain. As shown in Figure 7, for CF₃₁ the direct pathway is favored by 2.5 kcal mol⁻¹ over the two steps pathway (compare barriers of 10.8 and 13.3 kcal mol⁻¹ in Figure 7). In contrast, for Me₁, the two steps pathway, is 2.0 kcal mol⁻¹ lower in energy than the direct pathway (compare barriers of 12.3 and 10.3 kcal mol⁻¹ in Figure 7), due to aforementioned stronger interaction between Ni and the electron rich aryl rings of Me₁.

As result, for Me₁ formation of **1-β-C** from **2-Coor-C**, with a barrier of 10.3 kcal mol⁻¹, becomes competitive with chain growth from **2-Coor-C**, with a barrier of 10.0 kcal mol⁻¹, by only 0.3 kcal mol⁻¹ (Figure 7). Conversely, for CF₃₁, ethylene insertion from **2-Coor-C**, with a barrier of 8.7 kcal mol⁻¹, is favored by 2.1 kcal mol⁻¹ over ethylene dissociation, with a barrier of 10.8 kcal mol⁻¹. The small energy difference between ethylene dissociation and ethylene insertion allows Me₁ to enter easily into the chain branching and termination pathways (Figure 8).

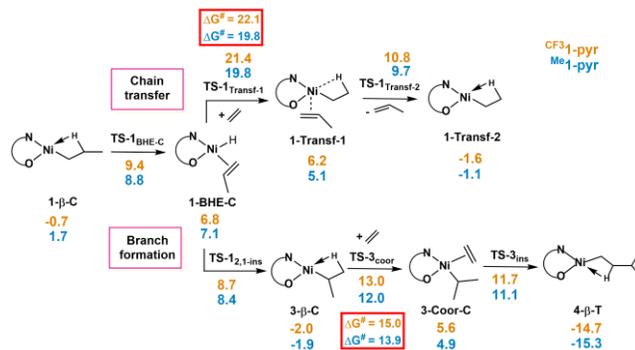


Figure 8. Free energies (ΔG_{Tol} in kcal mol⁻¹) of all important intermediates for chain transfer and branch formation with Me₁ (blue) and CF₃₁ (orange).

Focusing on Me₁ energetics, **1-β-C** can undergo BHE with the relatively small barrier of 8.8 kcal mol⁻¹ to form the stable **1-BHE-C** intermediate with propene coordinated in the less sterically crowded position. Intermediate **1-BHE-C** can evolve either to chain transfer or chain branching. Chain transfer occurs via coordination and direct insertion of an incoming ethylene molecule via the five coordinated intermediate **1-Transf-1** and an overall barrier of 19.8 kcal mol⁻¹ (Figure 8, top). The following facile release of propene leads to the β-agostic complex **1-Transf-2**, which can start the growth of a new polymer chain.

Moving to the branch formation pathway (Figure 8, bottom), the coordinated propene in **1-BHE-C** can reinsert in a 2,1-fashion via **TS-1_{2,1-ins}**, leading to the β-agostic resting state **3-β-C**. Coordination of a new ethylene molecule displaces the agostic interaction, leading to intermediate **3-Coor-C**. Finally, monomer insertion into the Ni-isopropyl bond via **TS-3_{ins}** leads to the methyl branched product **4-β-T**. The rate determining step along the branch formation pathway is the opening of the agostic interaction by ethylene coordination. According to the numbers reported in Figure 8, for Me₁-pyr chain branching is favored over chain termination by 5.9 kcal mol⁻¹ (compare barriers of 13.9 and 19.8 kcal mol⁻¹ in Figure 8). The overall barrier for branching is only 1.2 kcal mol⁻¹ higher than the overall barrier for chain growth (compare barriers of 13.9 and 12.7 kcal mol⁻¹ in Figures 8 and 5), which explains the high amount of branching obtained by Me₁-pyr.

As for CF₃₁, both the chain termination and branching pathways are of higher energy compared to the Me₁ pathways, see Figure 8. Combined with the more difficult access to **1-β-C** calculated for CF₃₁ (Figure 7), this explains the much higher degree of branching of products obtained by Me₁-pyr compared to those by CF₃₁-pyr, and the low molecular weight oligomers obtained with Me₁-pyr in pressure reactor experiments in contrast to the high molecular weight polyethylene produced by CF₃₁-pyr.

The overall picture emerging (see Figure 9) from DFT calculations indicates that the ethylene complex (**2-Coor-**

C), is the key intermediate of the catalytic cycle. It gives access to branch formation and chain transfer reactions that compete with linear chain growth. This competition affects the product molecular weight and microstructure, i.e. branched or linear products. In line with its decisive role in the catalytic cycle, the largest differences between the two catalytic systems studied are found here. Starting from **2-Coor-C**, for both catalysts linear chain growth has the lowest energy barrier, in agreement with the formation of long chain products including linear sequences (rather than short chain oligomers like e.g. butene or hexene). However, for ^{Me}**1-pyr**, branch formation and chain transfer pathways are accessible with a $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger$ of only 0.3 kcal mol⁻¹ relative to the chain growth. This is the result of an energetically favorable pathway involving a weak interaction of the distal aryl ring of the ligand with the metal, which facilitates the releasing of ethylene to form the *cis* β -agostic complex key to chain transfer and branch formation. This pathway is only viable for distal rings with a sufficient coordination ability. Electron donating substituents promote and enable this pathway, whereas for the case of electron withdrawing trifluoromethyl groups this pathway is blocked. This results in a distinctively different outcome of the overall catalytic reaction, namely linear polymer vs. highly branched oligomers.

As further evidence that energy differences between chain growth vs. release of ethylene from **2-Coor-C** to **1- β -C** ($\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger_{\text{prop-elim}}$ in kcal mol⁻¹) define the polyethylene mi-

crostructure, calculations performed on catalysts analogous to **1** with other remote substituents on the terphenyl distal rings qualitatively agree with their previously found propensity to form highly branched, low molecular weight polymers (^{Me}**1**) or low-branched linear polymers (^{NO₂}**1**) under pressure reactor conditions (See Table 3).

Table 3. $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger$ as a measure for the relative propensity for chain growth vs. access to chain transfer and branching pathways.

entry	catalyst	$\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger_{\text{prop-elim}}$
1	^{CF₃} 1	-2.1 kcal mol ⁻¹
2	^{Me} 1	-0.3 kcal mol ⁻¹
3	^{MeO} 1	-0.2 kcal mol ⁻¹
4	^{NO₂} 1	-1.6 kcal mol ⁻¹
5	3	-0.4 kcal mol ⁻¹

Finally, for a structurally different catalyst **3** with terphenyl distal rings replaced by 2-furanyl substituents, the calculated $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger_{\text{prop-elim}} = -0.4$ kcal mol⁻¹ for system **3** agrees with its experimentally observed ability to form low molecular weight highly branched oligomers compared to ^{CF₃}**1** (for complete DFT data cf. SI). Interestingly, the key interaction of the ligand with the metal occurs also in this case through a η^2 -coordination of the ring rather than via the lone pair of the furanyl-oxygen, as reported in Figure 10 for **1-T**.

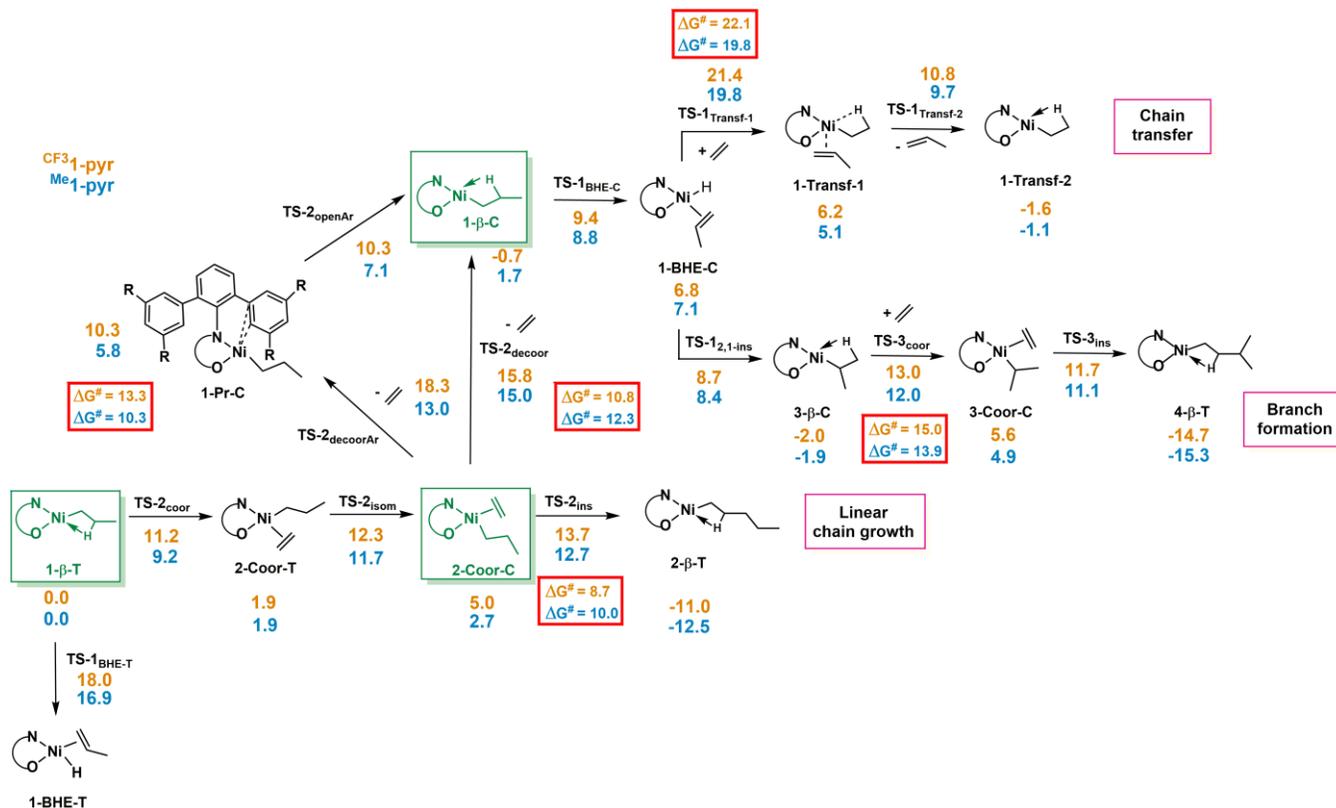


Figure 9. Gibbs free energies (ΔG_{Tot} in kcal mol⁻¹) of all important intermediates for linear chain growth, chain transfer and branch formation with Me₁ (blue) and CF₃ (orange).

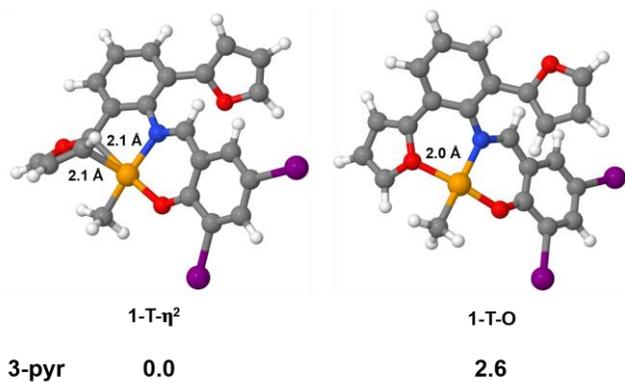


Figure 10. Two possible isomers **1-T** of the dissociated three coordinate nickel-methyl starting species of catalyst **3** and their relative G_{Tot} in kcal mol⁻¹.

CONCLUSIVE SUMMARY

From the combined theoretical and experimental study of reaction pathways during catalysis and complementing experimental properties of the catalyst precursors a conclusive mechanistic account evolves. This reveals an additional weak interaction as the source of the peculiar effect of the rather remote substituents.

A key underlying element is the unsymmetric nature of the catalysts, with an N,O-coordinating chelating ligand. Chain growth occurs from the alkyl olefin species with the

growing chain *cis* to the oxygen donor. Alternative to this chain growth, release of the olefin to the corresponding *cis* β -agostic alkyl can occur. This can undergo facile β -H elimination, which by further reaction steps results in chain transfer or branch formation. It is important to note that the *trans* β -agostic alkyl – which is the product of the aforementioned migratory chain growth event – does not undergo β -H elimination which is associated with a high barrier for this isomer. The olefin release step, which is decisive for the microstructure obtained, can be facilitated by additional weak binding interactions of the chelating N,O-ligand: coordination of the distal aryl rings stabilizes an ethylene-free intermediate, from which the *cis* β -agostic alkyl forms. This pathway is only viable for sufficiently strongly binding motifs, and in the system studied it is not accessible for aromatics that are electron deficient as a result of electron withdrawing substituents.

These findings explain the formation of very different, useful products in preparative polymerization experiments with these robust and very active catalysts as controlled by the choice of substituents. More generally, they provide a concept for addressing the competition between β -H elimination and chain growth via weak attractive interactions. As β -H elimination is the decisive step for chain walking as well as release of substrate from the catalyst, this applies to polymerization as well as isomerization catalytic reac-

tions.^{5,40} Isomerizing functionalization schemes are increasingly developed for the selective generation of complex molecules with biochemical activity. The concept revealed here can contribute to also advancing such synthetic schemes, in addition to controlling polymer materials' properties.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information.

Synthetic procedures for preparation of new ligands and complexes. ¹H, ¹³C and ¹⁹F NMR spectra for new compounds. Procedures for ethylene polymerisation. Polymer analytical data. Computational details, absolute energies (in Hartrees) of all molecules whose geometries were optimized. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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