

Chain-Walking Polymerization of α -Olefins by α -Diimine Ni(II) Complexes: Effect of Reducing the Steric Hindrance of *Ortho*- and *Para*-Aryl Substituents on the Catalytic Behavior, Monomer Enchainment, and Polymer Properties

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With Brookhart type α -diimine Ni(II) based catalysts, it is highly challenging to tune polymers branching level and branch-type distribution, which in turn strongly affects thermal and mechanical properties, through the aryl *ortho*-positions modification, while maintaining high turnover frequencies (TOFs). Herein, we are interested in performing a systematic investigation on the polymerization of 1-octene, 1-decene, and 1-octadecene catalyzed by a series of α -diimine nickel(II) complexes with methyl ligand backbone and different substituents in aryl positions (Ni1–Ni6). In addition to bulky isopropyl and *tert*-butyl substituents described in the original

Brookhart's work, complexes with different aryl *ortho*- and *para*-substituted α -diimine ligands, including the less sterically demanding methyl and ethyl substituents, are investigated. The ¹³C NMR spectra of the polymers have been assigned in detail, and some unique features have been identified and related to the chain-walking coordination/insertion mechanism. Changes in the ligand structure and monomer size have important effects on the numerous combinations of insertion and chain-walking paths from which different branches are installed. We have also carried out a comprehensive investigation of the mechanical behavior of the polymers by means of uniaxial stretching until failure, step-cycle, and creep tensile tests. Overall, the resulting polymers exhibited a broad spectrum of tensile properties, depending on their microstructure and crystallinity which in turn are strongly affected by monomer length and type of α -diimine ligand. 1-Octene and 1-decene polymers behave as elastomers with excellent mechanical properties, i.e., high elongation at break (up to 2000%) and good strain recovery, while 1-octadecene polymers behave as plastomers.

INTRODUCTION

Long chain α -olefins are abundant, inexpensive, versatile monomers manufactured from the oligomerization of ethylene,¹ Fischer–Tropsch synthesis,² and catalytic processes from ethanol.³ These monomers are commonly used as comonomers for the production of HDPE and LLDPE.⁴ Polymer chemists in academia and industry have invested considerable attention and efforts in finding alternatives to thermoset elastomers from α -olefins. Polyolefin thermoplastic elastomers (TPEs) are an important class of materials with applications ranging from packaging to lightweight engineering plastics for automotive, textiles, rubbers, sporting goods, and electrical and thermal insulation.^{5–12} The global TPEs demand will grow in the coming years, and part of this growth comes from applications where TPEs have directly displaced more traditional thermoset, vulcanized rubbers. TPEs combine the processing advantages

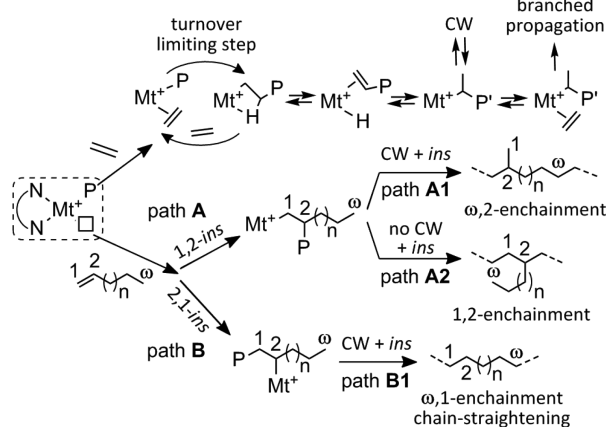
(i.e., they can be processed by injection molding, extrusion, and blow molding) and recycling potential of thermoplastics with the flexibility, low modulus, and soft touch of elastomers.^{13,14} A two-phase molecular structure usually gives TPEs their combination of strength and flexibility: amorphous domains in the polymer are soft and provide its elastomeric nature, while the hard crystalline segments, usually dispersed throughout the amorphous matrix, form physical cross-links that give tensile strength, resistance to chemicals, and produce recoverable elasticity after strain-induced deformation.¹⁵ Physical properties and elasticity of TPEs strongly depend on the distribution of

crystalline and amorphous regions and polymer micro-structure.^{16–18}

Polyolefin TPEs can be obtained through the copolymerization of ethylene with α -olefins catalyzed by a metallocene catalyst.¹⁹ Elsewhere, late-transition-metal catalysts have shown great potential in their ability to afford branched and hyperbranched polymer that are related in structure to TPEs. A milestone in this field was the discovery of α -diimine Ni(II) and Pd(II) complexes by Brookhart in the 1990s.²⁰ Indeed, the application of these complexes allowed the synthesis of branched polymers^{21–27} and block copolymers containing semicrystalline hard segments and amorphous soft blocks, which offer mechanical stability and flexibility, respectively, and may have interesting applications as TPEs.^{28–32}

The striking feature of α -diimine Ni(II) and Pd(II) complexes is the chain-walking mechanism, which involves β -H elimination followed by metal hydride reinsertion into the growing polymer chain with opposite regiochemistry. The active site “walks” on the growing polymer chain during the propagation step so that the new incoming monomer is assembled onto the polymer backbone rather than at the end, giving branched polymers (Scheme 1).^{20,33}

Scheme 1. Mechanism for Ethylene Polymerization and α -Olefin Enchainment (Mt = Ni, Pd; NN = Diimine Ligand; CW = Chain-Walking; *ins* = New Further Insertion)



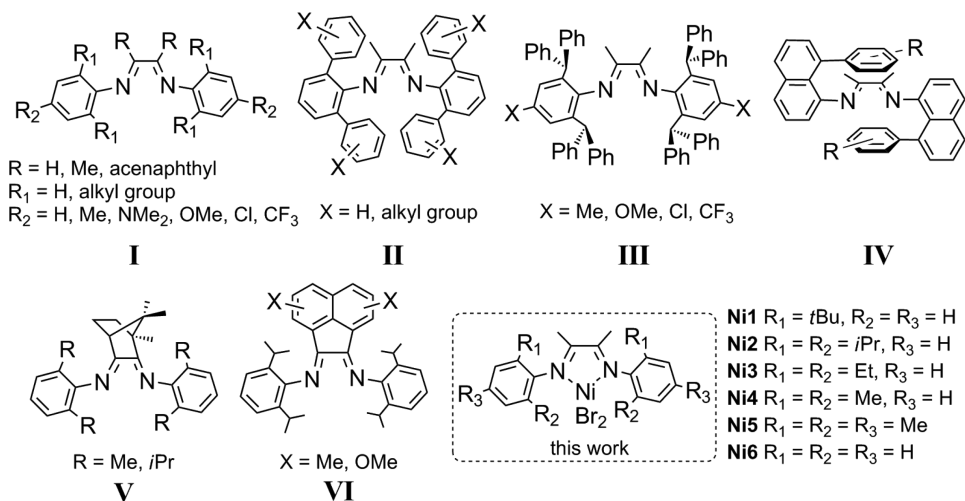
Moreover, when the polymerization involves α -olefins with high number of carbon atoms, a different enchainment becomes competitive: a significant fraction of monomer insertions occurs in a 2,1 manner, followed by chain-walking to the terminal ω carbon of the growing chain before successive monomer insertion. The result of this ω ,1-enchainment is the placement of longer linear methylene sequences (Scheme 1, path B).^{34–36} The competition between chain propagation and chain-walking, which are intrinsically associated with the regiochemistry of insertion, is the major factor determining the branching density and branch-type distribution, which in turn are key parameters that greatly dictate the polymer properties.

Since Brookhart’s initial work (Chart 1, I),³⁷ impressive efforts have been made to improve the overall understanding of these systems^{20,38,39} and to control the regiochemistry of olefin insertion, mainly through the aryl *ortho*-positions modification (Chart 1, I–III) including steric tuning and electronic perturbations^{40–42} and ligand backbone adjustments (Chart 1, V and VI).^{43,44} The *ortho*-aryl groups are prone to easy chemical modification and exert a significant influence on the polymerization activities as well as on the thermal stability.^{42,43,45} In addition, the alkyl substitution of N-aryl groups exerts a precise control over both the regiochemistry of olefin insertion and the location of the incoming monomer after chain-walking. By modifying the ligand structure, the various combinations of monomer insertion and chain-walking give rise to highly branched polymers with low melting temperature and crystallinity (Scheme 1, path A) or chain-straightened PE-like materials with high melting temperature and crystallinity (Scheme 1, path B).^{32,41}

A series of α -diimine Ni(II) complexes with a variety of electron-donating and electron-withdrawing substituents on the *para* positions of the bis-aryl ligand have been also synthesized and used for the polymerization of olefins.^{46–49} The presence of substituents on the *para* positions strongly perturbs the metal electronics and exerts a significant impact on the catalyst’s stability, lifetime, and polymer molecular weight and topology.

More recently, complexes of type IV, in which 8-arylnaphthyl- α -diimine positions the aryl groups over the axial sites to form “sandwich” type complexes, have been

Chart 1. Some α -Diimine Ligand Structures Reported in the Literature and α -Diimine Ni(II) Complexes Used in This Work



reported.^{39,41,50} It has been demonstrated that these bulky substituents are more effective in shielding the axial sites than the *ortho*-isopropyl groups in complexes of type I (Chart 1). These sandwich catalysts produced highly branched ultrahigh molecular weight PEs⁵⁰ and chain-straightened poly(α -olefins) with the highest melting temperatures reported to date.^{39,41}

The evolution of α -diimine Ni(II) complexes has been accompanied by a progressive increase of steric bulk and number of *ortho*-substituents. This is because the *ortho*-substituents offer steric crowding both above and below the metal center and this steric hindrance at the axial sites is critical for suppressing the associative chain-transfer process.^{20,46} It has been demonstrated that by modifying the *ortho*-substituents from methyl to isopropyl, the complex bearing the bulkier isopropyl group affords much higher molecular weight polymers at significantly higher polymerization activity than the corresponding methyl-substituted complexes.^{20,24,51–53} Thus, it is generally accepted that a key feature for producing high polymers with high turnover frequencies lies in the suppression of chain transfer by the steric bulk of the *ortho*-aryl substituents. However, this is well demonstrated for the polymerization of ethylene, while no systematic investigation of the effect of *ortho* substitution in α -diimine Ni(II) complexes, especially including low sterically demanding *ortho*-aryl substituents, on the polymerization of α -olefins has ever been reported.

In this work, we performed a systematic investigation on the polymerization of 1-octene, 1-decene, and 1-octadecene catalyzed by traditional α -diimine Ni(II) complexes with methyl α -diimine backbone and different aryl *ortho*- (H, Me, Et, *i*Pr, *t*Bu) and *para*- (H, Me) substituents (Chart 1, Ni1–Ni6). We focused our attention on this class of complexes because in comparison with those having acenaphthyl α -diimine backbone, α -diimine Ni(II) complexes with methyl α -diimine backbone gave higher molecular weight polymers and enhanced activity.⁴⁶

The effect of ligand steric and electronic perturbation on the catalytic behavior, monomer enchainment, and polymer properties is discussed. The mechanical properties of the resulting polymers are thoroughly explored by uniaxial tension until failure, step-cycle, and creep tensile tests. In addition, the crystal structures of Ni3–Ni6 are reported.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials. Manipulations of air- and/or moisture-

sensitive materials were carried out under an inert atmosphere using a dual vacuum/nitrogen line and standard Schlenk-line techniques. Toluene (Aldrich, >99.5%) was refluxed over Na for 8 h and then distilled and stored over molecular sieves under nitrogen. Diethylaluminum chloride (Et₂AlCl, Aldrich) was used as received. 1-Octene (Aldrich, 98%) and 1-decene (Aldrich, ≥97%) were refluxed over CaH₂ for 4 h, then distilled via trap-to-trap, and finally stored under nitrogen and kept at –18 °C. 1-Octadecene (Aldrich, ≥95%) was degassed under vacuum then by bubbling nitrogen, kept over molecular sieves and used without any further purification. Deuterated solvent for NMR measurements (C₂D₂Cl₄) (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc.) was used as received. Ni1–Ni6 (Chart 1) were synthesized according to the literature.³⁷ Single crystal, suitable for X-ray structure determination, was obtained for Ni3–Ni6 from a cold CH₂Cl₂ solution.

General Polymerization Procedure. Polymerization was carried out in a 25 mL round-bottomed Schlenk flask. The reactor was first dried by heating at 110 °C, and then vacuum was applied for 1 h. Toluene, the monomer, Et₂AlCl (200 equiv to Ni), and a toluene solution of the nickel complex (2 mg/mL) were transferred into the reactor vessel in that order. Polymerization was quenched with methanol containing a small amount of hydrochloric acid. The

precipitated polymer was collected by filtration, repeatedly washed with fresh methanol, and then dried to constant weight. 1-Octadecene polymers were then extracted with acetone through the Soxhlet method for 12 h to remove the unreacted monomer.

Single Crystal X-ray Diffraction Data. The diffraction data were collected at room temperature for Ni3–Ni5 and at 100 K for Ni6 using a Bruker X8 Prospector APEX-II/CCD diffractometer equipped with a focusing mirror (Cu K α radiation, λ = 1.54178 Å). The structures were determined using direct methods and refined (based on F^2 using all independent data) by full-matrix least-squares methods (SHELXTL 97).^{54,55} All non-hydrogen atoms were located from different Fourier maps and refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Hydrogen atoms were added in riding positions.

Polymer Characterization. For ¹³C NMR, about 100 mg of polymer was dissolved in C₂D₂Cl₄ in a 10 mm tube. HDMS (hexamethyldisiloxane) was used as internal chemical shift reference. The spectra were recorded on a Bruker NMR AVANCE 400 spectrometer operating at 100.58 MHz (¹³C) in the PFT mode working at 103 °C. The applied conditions were the following: 10 mm probe, 90° pulse angle; 64K data points; acquisition time 5.56 s; relaxation delay 20 s; 3–4K transient. Proton broad-band decoupling was achieved with a 1D sequence using bi_waltz_16_32 power-gated decoupling.⁴⁰ ¹H NMR spectroscopy was used to determine overall branching. The fraction of ω ,1-insertions was calculated from the equation reported by Brookhart.³⁴ ¹³C NMR spectroscopy was used to examine the types of branches. The quantitative analysis was based on the equations reported by Galland.⁵⁶ The molecular weight-average (M_w) and the molecular weight distribution (M_w/M_n) were obtained by a high temperature Waters GPCV2000 size exclusion chromatography (SEC) system using an online refractometer detector. The experimental conditions consisted of three PL Gel Olexis columns, *o*-dichlorobenzene as the mobile phase, 0.8 mL/min flow rate, and 145 °C. The calibration of the SEC system was constructed using 18 narrow M_w/M_n poly(styrene) standards with molar weights ranging from 162 to 5.6×10^6 g/mol. For SEC analysis, about 12 mg of polymer was dissolved in 5 mL of *o*-DCB with 0.05% of BHT as antioxidant. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements were performed on a PerkinElmer DSC 8000 instrument equipped with a liquid nitrogen device. The scans were carried out from –100 to 130 °C under a nitrogen atmosphere using heating and cooling rates of 20 °C/min. Crystallinity (X_{DSC}) was calculated from the DSC scans as follows: $X_{DSC} = (\Delta H_f/\Delta H_0) \times 100$, where ΔH_f is the enthalpy associated with the melting of the sample and ΔH_0 is the melting enthalpy of a 100% crystalline poly(ethylene) taken equal to 290 J/g.³⁷ Wide-angle X-ray diffraction (WAXD) data were obtained at 18 °C using a Siemens D-500 diffractometer equipped with a Siemens FK 60-10 2000 W tube (Cu K α radiation, λ = 0.154 nm). The operating voltage and current were 40 kV and 40 mA, respectively. The data were collected from 5 to 35 2 θ ° 0.02 2 θ ° intervals. Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) measurements were conducted at 18 °C with a Kratky compact camera. Monochromatized Cu K α radiation (λ = 0.154 nm) was supplied by a stabilized Siemens Krystalloflex 710 generator and a Siemens FK 60-10 2200 W Cu target tube operated at 40 kV and 40 mA. The scattered intensity was counted in different ranges of 2 θ ° by using a step scanning proportional counter with pulse height discrimination, the abscissa variable was $h = \sin(\theta) 4\pi/\lambda$, and the data were successively corrected for blank scattering and desmeared. The materials for structural and mechanical characterization were molded in a press at 90 °C (1-octene and 1-decene polymers) or 110 °C (1-octadecene polymers) and 50 bar for 5 min; then the press plates were cooled at 20 °C/min to room temperature. Films with a thickness of about 150 μ m were produced. Tensile dog-bone-shaped specimens (length overall 75 mm, gauge length 25 mm, and width of narrow section 4 mm) were analyzed at 20 °C using a Zwick Roell ProLine Z010 mechanical tester equipped with a XforceP (50 N) load cell at a constant crosshead rate of 15 mm/min. In the hysteresis experiments performed at the fixed strain of 300% or a gradually increased strain between 30 and 1750%, the specimens were cyclically loaded and unloaded in uniaxial tension. The strain recovery (SR) was calculated as $SR = 100(\epsilon_a - \epsilon_r)/\epsilon_a$, where ϵ_a is the applied

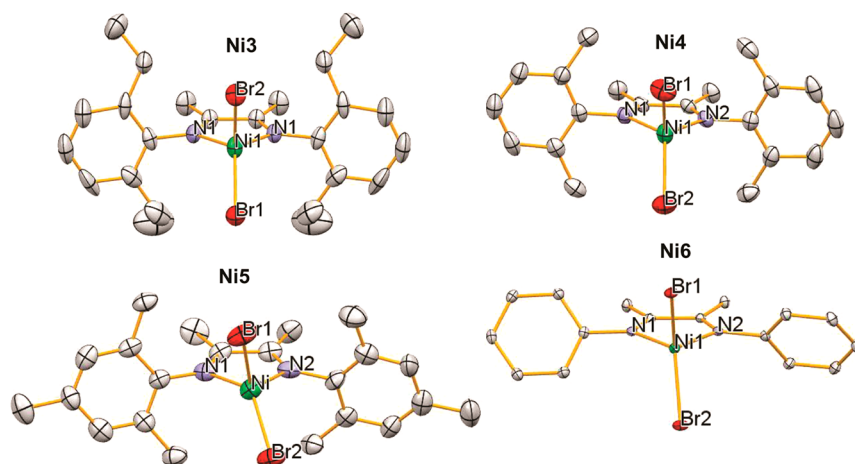


Figure 1. X-ray crystal structure for Ni3–Ni6. Hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity. Atoms are drawn at the 30% probability level.

strain and ϵ_r is the strain in the cycle at zero load after the applied strain. For each material, at least five samples were tested for extension experiments and two samples for strain recovery tests.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis and X-ray Crystallography of Nickel

Complexes. Nickel complexes were synthesized using a known procedure.³⁹ The reaction of ligands with 1 equiv of (DME)NiBr₂ (DME = 1,2-dimethoxyethane) in CH₂Cl₂ afforded the desired Ni1–Ni6 complexes as mustard and brown solids at 80–93% yields. Crystallization of Ni3–Ni6 from CH₂Cl₂ at low temperature afforded crystals suitable for single crystal X-ray diffraction. ORTEP diagrams for these four compounds are depicted in Figure 1, while crystal data, data collection, and refinement parameters are listed in the Supporting Information. Numerous attempts to obtain single crystals of Ni1 suitable for X-ray diffraction analysis failed, while the molecular structure of Ni2 is published in ref 58.

Complex Ni3 crystallized in the orthorhombic space group *Pnma*, as that reported in the literature for Ni2,⁵⁸ while Ni4 crystallized in the monoclinic space group *C2/c*, Ni5 in the monoclinic space group *P2₁/c*, and Ni6 in the orthorhombic space group *P2₁2₁2₁*. As shown in Figure 1, all the complexes have similar structure; that is, the distorted tetrahedral geometry at the nickel center is composed of the two nitrogen atoms and two bromine atoms. The observed bond lengths are typical for α -diimine Ni(II) complexes.^{24,42,58} The C=N imine (1.27(1)Å for Ni3, 1.30(1)Å for Ni4, 1.25(2) and 1.28(2)Å for Ni5, 1.290(5) and 1.291(5)Å for Ni6) and the N–C_{aryl} bonds (1.43(1)Å for Ni3, 1.454(9) and 1.441(9)Å for Ni4, 1.46(3) and 1.42(2)Å for Ni5, 1.425(5) and 1.435(5) Å for Ni6) are in agreement with the expected lengths for this type of bond.⁵⁹

For disubstituted complexes, the dihedral angle formed by the planes containing the atoms N1–Ni–N2 and Br1–Ni–Br2 is 90° for Ni3, 86.67° for Ni4, and 86.62° for Ni6. Thus, the plane of the aryl ring becomes more rigidly locked perpendicular to the coordination plane with increasing the steric bulk of the *ortho* substituents.⁶⁰ In addition, the X-ray structure analysis of Ni5 shows that the presence of a methyl in the *para* position has a significant influence on the coordination geometry, changing the dihedral angle formed by the planes containing the atoms N1–Ni–N2 and Br1–Ni–Br2 to 78.76°, thus suggesting that the introduction of groups in the *para* position causes repulsive interactions between substituents. Similar characteristics were observed in similar Ni(II)

complexes bearing 4,5-bis(arylimino)pyrenylidene.⁴⁷ The dihedral angle formed by the two imino-phenyl rings is 20.61° for Ni3, 11.66° for Ni4, 22.23° for Ni5, and 65.38° for Ni6. This confirms that the absence of *ortho* substituents has a strong influence on the steric environment, allowing a higher degree of freedom for the rotation of the aniline moieties, and hence no steric hindrance at the axial sites of the nickel center. As it will be discussed later, this is the reason why Ni6 is not active in the polymerization.

Polymerization of α -Olefins. All the complexes were used, in combination with Et₂AlCl, in the polymerization of 1-octene, 1-decene, and 1-octadecene. A short polymerization time was chosen for the initial screening because of the ease in maintaining homogeneous conditions, avoiding mass transfer limitation due to the formation of insoluble polymer, and insufficient mixing. In this way, the observed differences in turnover frequencies (TOFs) can only be ascribed to the ligand alkyl substituent effects. The results are summarized in Table 1.

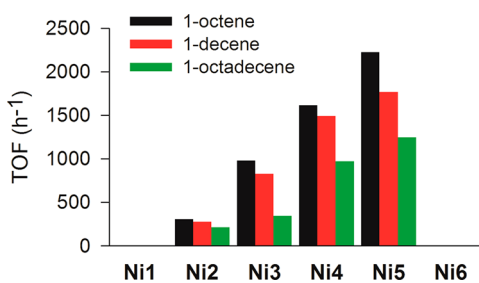
Ni2–Ni5 were highly active in the polymerization of higher α -olefins, TOF being in the range of 200–2200 h⁻¹. On the contrary, the mono-*tert*-butyl-substituted Ni1 and the unsubstituted Ni6 were not active under the same conditions, confirming that the absence of *ortho*-aryl substituents or monosubstitution in *ortho*-aryl positions is not efficient in protecting active centers from chain-transfer.^{20,46} Under these conditions, a correlation exists between the activity, the ligand sterics, and the monomer length (Figure 2). Specifically, the TOF increases with decreasing the bulk of the *ortho*-substituents (Figure 2). For disubstituted complexes, TOF increases in the following order Ni2 < Ni3 < Ni4. A similar trend in TOF was observed by Chen and co-workers for the polymerization of 1-hexene with α -diimine Pd(II) complexes.⁶¹

Consistent with the trend of TOF, the molecular weight of the resulting polymers increase with decreasing the bulk of the *ortho*-substituents. Additionally, we found that Ni5, with a methyl group on the *para*-aryl position, was considerably more active than its *para*-hydrogen Ni4 counterpart. This suggests that the presence of an electron-donating methyl group in the *para*-position has a positive effect on the activity.⁴⁶ Likewise, the introduction of methyl group in *para*-position led to an increase in polymer molecular weight. These effects can be ascribed to the perturbation of the metal electronics and steric environment on the nickel center, as also revealed by the molecular structure of Ni5 (Figure 1). In other words, the

Table 1. Polymerization of 1-Octene, 1-Decene, and 1-Octadecene Using Ni1–Ni6 and a Reaction Time of 10 min^a

entry	complex	yield (mg)	conv (%)	TOF ^b (h ⁻¹)	M _n ^c (×10 ³)	M _w /M _n ^c	N ^d
1-octene							
1	Ni1	–	–	–	–	–	–
2	Ni2	58	3	304	14.9	1.5	0.39
3	Ni3	187	10	980	37.4	1.2	0.50
4	Ni4	308	17	1614	52.8	1.3	0.58
5	Ni5	424	24	2220	57.9	1.2	0.73
6	Ni6	–	–	–	–	–	–
1-decene							
7	Ni1	–	–	–	–	–	–
8	Ni2	66	3	277	26.7	1.2	0.25
9	Ni3	197	9	826	50.5	1.2	0.39
10	Ni4	356	16	1493	56.0	1.3	0.64
11	Ni5	421	19	1766	59.0	1.4	0.71
12	Ni6	–	–	–	–	–	–
1-octadecene							
13	Ni1	–	–	–	–	–	–
14	Ni2	50	1	213	31.8	1.4	0.16
15	Ni3	80	2	342	55.8	1.4	0.14
16	Ni4	417	10	972	66.4	1.3	0.63
17	Ni5	534	13	1244	73.8	1.3	0.72
18	Ni6	–	–	–	–	–	–

^aPolymerization conditions: toluene, total volume, 16 mL; Ni, 10 μmol; Al/Ni molar ratio, 200; temperature, 22 °C; monomer concentration, 1.0 mol/L; time, 10 min. ^bTurnover frequency (TOF), calculated by the equation $\text{mol}_{\text{pol}}/(\text{mol}_{\text{Ni}} \times \text{h})$. ^cMolecular weight (M_n) and molecular weight distribution (M_w/M_n) from SEC. ^d $N = \text{polymer yield}/(\text{mol}_{\text{Ni}} \times M_n)$.

**Figure 2.** TOF vs the nickel complex employed.

positive effect of the presence of the electron-donating methyl groups in the *para*-position is due to the stabilization of the electron-deficient and coordinatively unsaturated active intermediate.^{47,62–64} In agreement with the above results, the efficiency of each catalyst expressed by the number of polymer molecules produced per molecule of complex (N in Table 1) increases in the same order of TOF. The N values are lower than one, suggesting an incomplete activation for all the catalysts; however, increased initiation efficiency was found for Ni4 and Ni5.

On the other hand, the TOF decreases with increasing the monomer length likely due to steric reasons (Figure 2). By increasing the monomer size, the steric hindrance of the growing polymer chain increases, thus retarding the new monomer insertion and limiting the chain propagation rate.

We also carried out the same experiments at longer polymerization times in order to collect enough material to make a thorough characterization. However, shorter polymerization times were chosen for less bulky and more active

complexes (i.e., Ni3–Ni5) and 1-octadecene to limit changes in mixing of the solution when running polymerization at this scale.⁶⁵ The results are summarized in Table 2.

The polymers have molecular weights in the range from 68.5 to 159.6×10^3 g/mol. The molecular weight distributions increase slightly with respect to the experiments at short reaction time (Table 1) but still remain below 2. The fact that M_w/M_n s remain below 2 implies that M_n data are not yet limited by chain termination, and longer polymerization time would afford higher molecular weight polymers.⁵³ Under these conditions, the polymers molecular weight increases moving from Ni1 to Ni3 and then decreases for Ni4 and Ni5. This result could be partly explained by the difference of the initiation efficiency for individual complexes. Moreover, the large amount of polymer formed with Ni4 and Ni5 (which exhibit the higher initiation efficiency) with consequent increase of the solution viscosity, and hence embedment of the active nickel species, may also contribute to the observed data limiting monomer diffusion and chain propagation.

The total branching level was calculated by ¹H NMR (Table 2). All the obtained polymers are less branched than would correspond to a regular and exclusive 1,2-enchainment, i.e., 125 branches/1000C for poly(1-octene), 100 branches/1000C for poly(1-decene), and 56 branches/1000C for poly(1-octadecene). This is because nickel walks along the growing polymer chain, rendering branches of various lengths (Scheme 1, path A) and long methylene units through the ω ,1-enchainment (Scheme 1, path B1). The overall trend is that the fraction of ω ,1-enchainment ranges from 46 to 62%, thus confirming that this class of complexes exhibits regiorandom insertion of α -olefins; i.e., they do not have a significant selectivity for 1,2- vs 2,1-insertion (Table 2).^{21,29} Generally, Ni1 gives less branched polymers with the highest degree of ω ,1-rearrangement (lowest % of 1,2-insertion). Energetically less favorable, 2,1-insertion is more favored for Ni1. This is because before a 2,1-insertion the alignment between the C=C double bond of the monomer and the Ni–alkyl bond results in an interaction of the monomer chain with an *ortho* hydrogen atom, thus giving transition states that are less sterically congested than in the case in which both the *ortho* positions are substituted.^{34,52} For the disubstituted complexes Ni2–Ni4, reducing the steric bulk of the ligand from the *ortho*-isopropyl to *ortho*-methyl groups resulted in a more branched polymer, although the differences became less pronounced with increasing the monomer size (Table 2). In the case of 1-octadecene, the branching level of the resulting polymers ranged from 23 to 32/1000C, narrower than that usually found for the polymers obtained using ethylene as the feedstock.^{20,37} Chen and co-workers found the same trend in the case of 1-hexene and attributed this results to the low coordination capability of 1-hexene and, in general, to the difficulty for α -olefins to trap the secondary metal–alkyl species.⁶¹

The polymers were further characterized by ¹³C NMR for quantification of individual branch levels.⁵⁶ The results are summarized in Table 3. The polymers made with Ni2–Ni5 show two major branch lengths. The most abundant branches are methyl and longer than butyl branches (Lg): typical signals of methyl (1B₁ at 17.86 ppm) and longer branches (1B_n at 12.01 ppm and 2B_n at 20.68 ppm) are safely identified in the ¹³C NMR spectra (Figure 3C–E). Only very weak signals of carbons of ethyl, propyl, and butyl branches are detected.

Conversely, 1-octene and 1-decene polymers generated with Ni1 result in more rearranged structures. The ¹³C NMR spectra

Table 2. Polymerization of 1-Octene, 1-Decene, and 1-Octadecene Using Ni1–Ni5^a

entry	complex	time (h)	yield (g)	conv (%)	M_n^b ($\times 10^3$)	M_w/M_n^b	branches/1000C ^c	$\omega,1^c$ (%)
1-octene								
19	Ni1	5	0.2	12	79.3	1.5	53	62
20	Ni2	3	1.1	62	105.6	1.3	66	53
21	Ni3	3	1.5	82	124.4	1.6	70	51
22	Ni4	3	1.7	94	118.3	1.7	75	48
23	Ni5	3	1.8	100	101.1	1.8	73	49
1-decene								
24	Ni1	22	0.2	8	68.5	1.7	49	55
25	Ni2	3	1.0	43	115.3	1.4	55	53
26	Ni3	3	1.8	80	159.6	1.7	58	48
27	Ni4	3	2.2	98	128.1	1.7	61	46
28	Ni5	2	2.2	99	120.1	1.7	61	46
1-octadecene								
29	Ni1	485	0.2	5	105.5	1.8	23	60
30	Ni2	3	0.5	13	134.7	1.5	25	57
31	Ni3	1	1.1	27	152.5	1.3	31	47
32	Ni4	1	1.7	43	146.2	1.6	32	49
33	Ni5	1	2.5	62	117.9	1.8	31	47

^aPolymerization conditions: toluene, total volume, 16 mL; Ni, 10 μ mol; Al/Ni molar ratio, 200; temperature, 22 $^{\circ}$ C; monomer concentration, 1.0 mol/L. ^bMolecular weight (M_n) and molecular weight distribution (M_w/M_n) from SEC. ^cFrom 1 H NMR. The term $\omega,1$ implies that an olefin has inserted and then chain-walked to give an insertion that is through the ω and 1 carbon atoms. Ni6 is not active.

Table 3. Microstructural Data and Thermal Properties

entry	total ^a CH ₃	CH ₃ /1000C ^b					T_g^c ($^{\circ}$ C)	T_m^c ($^{\circ}$ C)	ΔH_m^c (J/g)	X_{DSC}^c (%)
		Me (%)	Et (%)	Pr (%)	Bu (%)	Lg (%)				
1-octene										
19	53	26 (49)	2 (3)	1 (2)	0.4 (1)	24 (45)	-41	63	60	21
20	60	27 (45)				32 (53)	-47	49	34	12
21	68	30 (44)				37 (55)	-49	37	23	8
22	68	31 (45)				36 (53)	-50	36	22	8
23	69	33 (48)				35 (51)	-49	38	23	8
1-decene										
24	51	20 (39)	4 (8)	2 (4)	1 (2)	24 (47)	-43	72	55	19
25	52	21 (40)				30 (58)	-46	54	40	14
26	59	22 (37)				36 (61)	-46	48	31	10
27	62	27 (43)				34 (55)	-46	47	31	10
28	60	24 (40)				35 (58)	-47	47	30	10
1-octadecene										
29	26	11 (42)				15 (58)		96	113	39
30	30	11 (37)				19 (63)		85	97	33
31	35	9 (26)				26 (74)		65	78	27
32	36	10 (28)				26 (72)		63	73	25
33	34	9 (26)				25 (74)		64	74	25

^aTotal methyls by 13 C NMR. ^bDistribution of the main branch levels by 13 C NMR. ^cFrom DSC (second heating, T_m at peak maximum).

clearly show signals due to carbons of ethyl (1B₂ at 9.0 ppm), propyl (1B₃ at 12.51, 2B₃ at 18.08 ppm and 3B₃ at 34.66 ppm), and butyl branches (2B₄ at 21.1 ppm) (Figure 3B).⁵⁴ Although these signals are small in comparison to the others, their presence indicates that insertion paths, different from those shown in Scheme 1, become more competitive. The presence of these branches reflects a significant extent of chain-walking and the high propensity of Ni1 to promote 2,1-insertion. Indeed, ethyl, propyl, and butyl branches are the result of 2,1-insertion followed by repetitive and sequential β -hydride elimination, alkene rotation, and readditions (with opposite regiochemistry) that relocates the active nickel center along the growing polymer chain (Scheme 2, path B2).⁶⁶ We found that 1-octene polymer includes a 3% of ethyl branch, 2% of propyl

branch, and 1% of butyl branch, while the 1-decene polymer includes a 8% of ethyl branch, 4% of propyl branch, and 2% of butyl branch (Table 3). These results indicate that the intermediate B2/6 in Scheme 2, formed when the metal is at C6 position (C8 for 1-decene), which installs an ethyl branch in the polymer chain, is stable enough (and most favored) to allow further monomer insertion, followed by the intermediate B2/5 formed when the metal is at C5 (which installs a propyl branch; C7 for 1-decene) and B2/4 formed when the metal is at C4 (which installs a butyl branch; C6 for 1-decene). Also of note, the presence of ethyl, propyl, and butyl branches indicates that a part of methyl branches in these polymers from Ni1 could be formed also through a 2,1-enchainment followed by successive β -H elimination and reinsertions (path B2) that

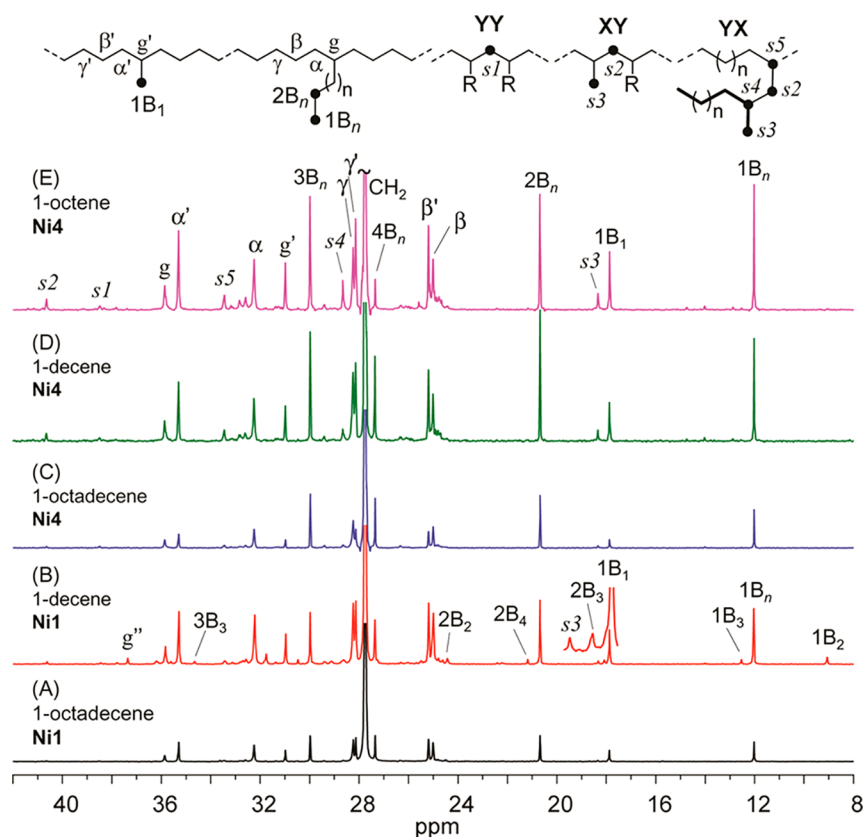
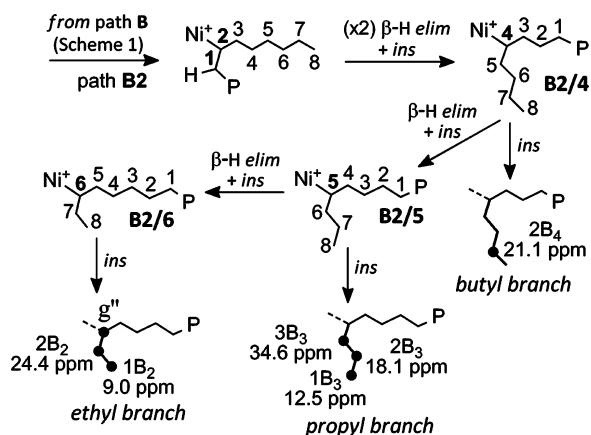


Figure 3. ^{13}C NMR spectra of (A) entry 29, (B) entry 24, (C) entry 32, (D) entry 27, and (E) entry 22. R is a branch longer than butyl. Refer to Scheme 2 for signals ascribed to butyl (2B_4), propyl (1B_3 , 2B_3 and 3B_3), and ethyl isolated branches (1B_2 , 2B_2 , and g'' , see Scheme 2).

Scheme 2. Mechanism for the Formation of Butyl, Propyl, and Ethyl Branch ($\beta\text{-H elim} + \text{ins} = \beta\text{-H Elimination and Insertion; ins} = \text{Monomer Insertion}$) for 1-Octene Polymerization (g'' at 37.4 ppm)



relocates the nickel at C7 position (C9 for 1-decene). However, it is impossible to distinguish a methyl branch generated from paths B2 and A1 since they both result in the same branching defect.

On the other hand, the 1-octadecene sample generated with Ni1 show only methyl and long branches (Figure 3a). This suggests that insertion of 1-octadecene into a secondary Ni-alkyl bond do not occur with Ni1 and that the metal prefers to migrate to ω carbon: the 2,1-insertion of 1-octadecene preferentially evolves into a 18,1-enchainment to give long methylene sequences (Scheme 1, path B1).

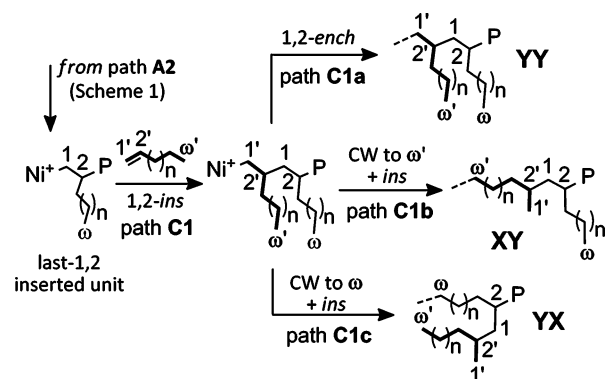
The length of the monomer significantly affects the branch-type distribution, long branches being increasingly predominant as the α -olefin size increases (Table 3). The higher percentage of longer than butyl branches with respect to methyl branches indicates that after a 1,2-insertion a further 1,2 insertion without chain-walking is favored (Scheme 1, path A2). The amount of ω ,2-enchainment, that is 1,2-insertion followed by chain-walking, which installs a methyl in the polymer chain (Scheme 1, path A1) decreases in favor of 1,2-enchainment (which installs a long branch) with increasing the monomer size. This is likely due to the fact that the probability of migration up to the terminal ω carbon of the last-inserted monomer unit (which is much more space demanding than 1,2-enchainment) decreases for longer α -olefins.²⁵

On the whole, chain-walking occurs more frequently in the polymerization of α -olefins catalyzed by Ni1 and the formation of ethyl, propyl, and butyl branches also indicates that insertion into a secondary Ni-alkyl bond, particularly for 1-octene and 1-decene, occurs. Therefore, the fact that Ni1 spends more time walking along the polymer chain, rendering linear PE-like units (much more favorable ω ,1-enchainment) and alkyl branching of different lengths may contribute also to its low turnover rate, which in turn limits the molecular weight of the polymers that can be achieved (Table 2).⁴⁰

Further information comes from ^{13}C NMR spectrum (Figure 3). All the polymers show weak signals at 38.4 and 40.6 ppm ascribed to α,α -methylene carbons ($s1$ and $s2$, respectively) and at 18.3 ppm ascribed to a methyl carbon ($s3$ of structure YX, Figure 3).⁶⁷ According to previous assignment,³⁴ $s1$ at 38.4 ppm corresponds to the α,α -methylene carbon of the structure $\text{YY}-\text{CH}(\text{R})\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{R})-$ ($\text{R} > \text{butyl}$), while $s2$ at 40.6 ppm to

the α,α -methylene carbon of the structure $XY-CH(R)CH_2CH(Me)-$ ($R >$ butyl). We can relate these signals to the mechanistic pathways. Indeed, on the basis of the chain-walking coordination/insertion mechanism model, the structure YY comes from two successive 1,2-insertions without chain-walking (Scheme 3, path C1a), while structures XY and

Scheme 3. Modes of Monomer Enchainment before the Last 1,2-Inserted Unit (CW = Chain-Walking; ins = New Further Insertion; 1,2-ench = 1,2-Enchainment)



YX come from a 1,2-insertion on the last 1,2-enchained unit followed by chain-walking: XY if nickel gives chain-walking to ω' (Scheme 3, path C1b), YX if nickel gives chain-walking to ω (Scheme 3, path C1c). As a result, ^{13}C NMR can be used to calculate the relative amount of structure YY and $XY+YX$ (by ^{13}C NMR it is not possible to differentiate between XY and YX structures³⁴). The results are summarized in Table 4. As mentioned above, the regiochemistry of monomer insertion is

Table 4. Ligand Effect on the Insertion Paths after the Last 1,2-Inserted Unit

entry	complex	2,1-ins ^a	1,2-ins ^b		YY/(XY + YX)
		(%)	YY ^c (%)	XY + YX ^d (%)	
1-octene					
19	Ni1	89.8	4.1	6.1	0.67
20	Ni2	81.1	8.0	12.0	0.67
21	Ni3	81.9	8.6	9.5	0.90
22	Ni4	79.2	10.1	10.7	0.94
23	Ni5	79.9	10.1	10.0	1.02
1-decene					
24	Ni1	94.6	2.4	2.9	0.83
25	Ni2	81.9	8.4	9.7	0.87
26	Ni3	78.9	10.3	10.8	0.95
27	Ni4	78.7	10.4	10.8	0.96
28	Ni5	80.9	9.6	9.5	1.01
1-octadecene					
29	Ni1	94.7	2.6	2.7	0.98
30	Ni2	82.1	9.0	8.9	1.01
31	Ni3	83.1	11.0	5.9	1.86
32	Ni4	83.0	11.1	5.9	1.90
33	Ni5	85.2	10.2	4.6	2.22

^aA 2,1-insertion, after that a 1,2-enchained unit is installed in the polymer backbone. ^bA 1,2-insertion, after that a 1,2-enchained unit is installed in the polymer backbone. ^cStructure YY generated from path C1a (Scheme 3). ^dStructures XY and YX , generated from paths C1b and C1c, respectively (Scheme 3). XY and YX are not distinguishable from ^{13}C NMR.

mostly random: after the last 1,2-inserted unit, there is a large amount of 2,1-insertion (associated with path B in Scheme 1 and Table 4).

For Ni1, 2,1-insertion on the last 1,2-inserted unit account for 90% and more, while for Ni2–Ni5 path B slightly decreases in favor of more competing path C1 associated with two consecutive 1,2-insertions (Scheme 3). The type of ligand as well as the length of the monomer has a great effect on path C1. In the case of 1-octene, the formation of $XY + YX$ structures, associated with path C1b/c, is favorable with Ni1 and Ni2, while for Ni3–Ni5 the frequency of paths C1a and C1b/c is the same. The ligand substitution does not play a key role in the shift of insertion mode for 1-decene, the formation of structure YY and $XY + YX$ being equally probable for all the investigated complexes. Finally, unlike with 1-octene, in the case of 1-octadecene, the two paths have almost the same chance of happening with Ni1 and Ni2, while structure YY , associated with path C1a, seems to be sound for Ni3–Ni5. The highest $YY/(XY + YX)$ ratio was found for Ni5, for which the probability that 1,2-insertion on the last 1,2-enchained unit undergoes a successive insertion (1,2-enchainment, path C1a) is more than twice the probability that 1,2-insertion on the last 1,2-enchained unit undergoes chain-walking before the new insertion (Table 4, entry 33).

Changes in the branching density and distribution affect the thermal properties of the polymers. The thermal behavior of the polymers was investigated by DSC, and the results are reported in Table 3. Figure 4A shows the thermograms of the polymers synthesized with Ni2. Glass transition events at low temperature and broad melting endotherms can be observed. Generally, the glass transition temperature (T_g), the melting peak temperature (T_m), and the melting enthalpy (ΔH_m) of the polymers increase with increasing the monomer length. Despite comparable $\omega,1$ fraction (Table 2), the length of linear segments increases with the monomer chain length, resulting in higher melting points.

Figure 4B compares the thermograms of all the 1-decene polymers. The polymer from Ni1 (Table 3, entry 24) exhibits the highest T_m (72 °C) and crystallinity (19%). Among the other investigated complexes, Ni2 bearing bulky isopropyl groups gives the polymer with the highest T_m (54 °C) and crystallinity (14%). DSC analysis of 1-decene polymers by less bulky complexes, i.e., Ni3–Ni5, shows comparable broad endotherms with similar melting point and enthalpy.

A similar trend of melting behavior as a function of nickel complex was observed for 1-octene and 1-octadecene polymers. The thermal data are strictly related to the polymer microstructure, T_m and ΔH_m increasing with the increase of crystallizable methylene sequences generated from the $\omega,1$ -enchainment. Figure 4C plots ΔH_m versus the number of branches longer than methyl. A relationship between the two data was found and enhancing the content of longer than methyl side groups the melting enthalpy decreases. An analogous trend was observed for T_m .

The synthesized polymers were structurally characterized by X-ray techniques. WAXD patterns of 1-octene and 1-decene polymers obtained with Ni2–Ni5 show a diffuse peak centered at about 20 $2\theta^\circ$, while the patterns of the polymers from Ni1 show a weak peak at about 21.5 $2\theta^\circ$ followed by a broad shoulder, thus confirming an increase in the crystalline content (Figure 5A). The WAXD data together with the low T_m s and broad melting range suggest the existence of a fringed-micellar

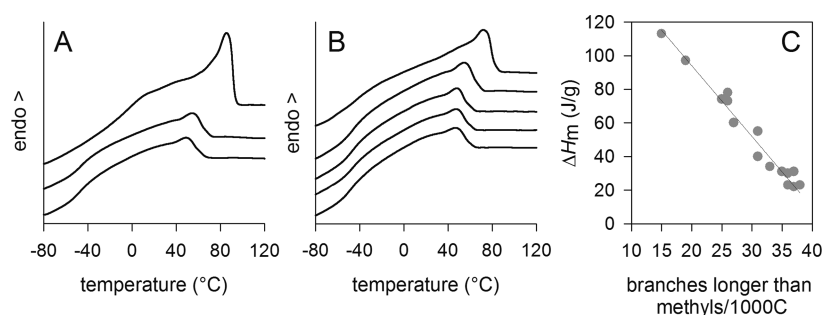


Figure 4. DSC traces of (A) 1-octene, 1-decene, and 1-octadecene polymer from Ni2 (entries 20, 25, and 30, from top to bottom) and (B) 1-decene polymers obtained from Ni1–Ni5 (entries 24–28 from top to bottom). (C) Plot of melting enthalpy (ΔH_m) as a function of the total branching longer than methyl. The line is a guide to the eye and illustrates the overall trend.

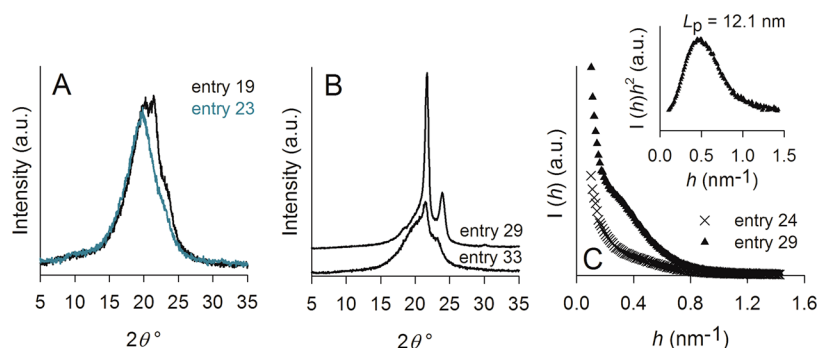


Figure 5. WAXD profiles of (A) 1-octene polymers from Ni1 and Ni5 (entries 19 and 23) and (B) 1-octadecene polymers from Ni1 and Ni5 (entries 29 and 33). (C) SAXS profile of 1-decene and 1-octadecene polymers from Ni1 (entries 24 and 29). In the inset, the Lorentz correct scattering intensity of entry 29 is shown.

Table 5. Mechanical Properties

entry	E^a (MPa)	σ^a (MPa)	ϵ^a (%)	SR ₁ ^b	SR _x ^c	SR _{550%} ^d	SR _{1200%} ^e
1-octene							
20	5.8 ± 0.7	10.6 ± 1.0	1420 ± 90	65	54	63	59
21	2.1 ± 0.4	5.4 ± 0.6 ^f	>1900 ^g	79	67	76	71
22	1.9 ± 0.4	3.6 ± 0.5 ^f	>1900 ^g	80	66	75	68
23	2.1 ± 0.3	2.8 ± 0.3 ^f	>1900 ^g	75	61	71	63
1-decene							
25	7.5 ± 0.3	15.5 ± 0.4	1388 ± 29	59	47	56	53
26	4.1 ± 0.5	10.6 ± 1.6	1397 ± 87	67	54	65	63
27	3.8 ± 0.9	9.6 ± 1.0	1503 ± 65	64	50	61	59
28	3.6 ± 0.4	9.0 ± 1.2	1476 ± 77	62	48	60	57
1-octadecene							
30	48.7 ± 1.5	22.9 ± 1.0	670 ± 48	27	16	16	n.d. ^h
31	38.4 ± 1.9	17.4 ± 1.4	638 ± 72	20	12	14	n.d. ^h
32	32.1 ± 2.0	20.7 ± 1.3	774 ± 69	23	13	15	n.d. ^h
33	30.5 ± 2.2	20.4 ± 1.6	799 ± 50	22	13	16	n.d. ^h

^aYoung's modulus (E), ultimate tensile strength (σ), and elongation at break (ϵ). ^bStrain recovery measured after the first step in a step cycle test type at 300% strain. ^cStrain recovery measured after the last step in a step cycle test type at 300% strain. ^dStrain recovery measured after the strain at 550% in a step cycle test type at increasing strains. ^eStrain recovery measured after the strain at 1200% in a step cycle test type at increasing strains. ^fStress at 1900% ^gInstrument detection limit. ^hThe specimens break before the strain at 1200% in a step cycle test type at increasing strains.

crystal structure with a broad size distribution that comes from the statistical distribution of crystallizable chain lengths.^{68,69}

WAXD diffractograms of 1-octadecene polymers show the typical diffractions of poly(ethylene) orthorhombic crystalline structure: sharp patterns were collected for entries 29 and 30 (from Ni1–Ni2) while the profiles result less definite for entries 31, 32, and 33 (from Ni3–Ni5) characterized by lower crystallinity degree (Figure 5B).

The polymers supermolecular structure was further investigated by SAXS. The 1-octene and 1-decene polymers showed low-intensity scattering profiles, similar to those of 1-octene copolymers with low crystallinity previously reported.²² The scattering profile of 1-octadecene polymers shows a discrete peak which is associated with the long period (L_p) that results from the electron density difference between crystalline and amorphous phases (Figure 5C). The structural data together with the crystallinity and the melting temperature of the 1-

octadecene polymers are consistent with a mixed morphology containing both bundled crystals and lamellar structures.^{70,71}

Mechanical Properties. First investigation on the mechanical behavior of 1-octene, 1-decene, and 1-octadecene polymers obtained with Ni2–Ni5 was carried out at 20 °C by uniaxial stretching until failure. The tensile properties are summarized in Table 5, and selected stress–strain curves are shown in Figure 6. Figure 6A shows the tensile strength curves

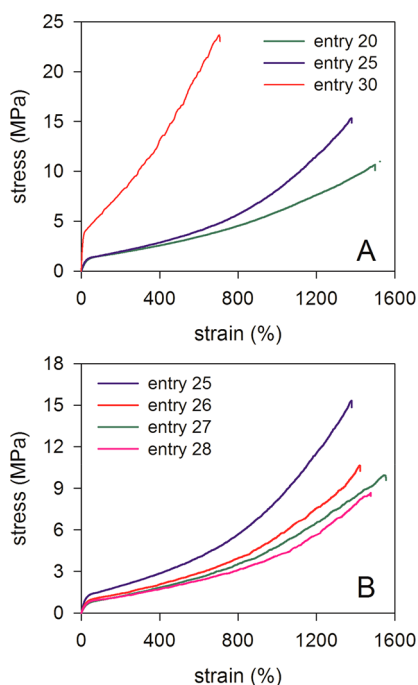


Figure 6. Stress–strain curves of (A) 1-octene, 1-decene, and 1-octadecene from Ni2 (entries 20, 25, and 30) during monotonic tensile deformation and (B) 1-decene polymers from Ni2–Ni5 (entries 25–28) during monotonic tensile deformation.

of the polymers obtained with Ni2. 1-Octene and 1-decene polymers show stress–strain curves with typical features of elastomers, i.e., low modulus and high elongation at break. Compared to these polymers, 1-octadecene polymer exhibits different tensile behavior due to longer crystallizable methylene sequences in the polymer backbone, with higher modulus and ultimate strength, but lower elongation at break. The stress–strain curve of 1-octadecene polymer exhibits more evident yielding phenomena and a steady increase of the stress (Figure 6A).

Figure 6B compares the tensile strength curves of 1-decene polymers generated using Ni2–Ni5. The strain deformation of the more crystalline polymer from Ni2 (Table 5, entry 25) proceeds with the highest Young’s modulus (7.5 MPa) and stress at break (15 MPa). 1-Decene polymers from Ni3–Ni5, which have similar crystallinity, exhibit comparable tensile behavior with a Young’s modulus of about 4 MPa and ultimate tensile strength, in the range from 9.0 to 10.5 MPa.

All the 1-decene polymers showed high and similar ultimate strain (about $1450 \pm 50\%$), regardless of crystallinity. A similar trend of Young’s modulus as a function of the crystallinity was found for 1-octene polymers. However, it is worth emphasizing that the low crystallinity 1-octene polymers, i.e., entries 21–23, display impressive strain at break values approaching 2000%. The 1-octadecene polymers differ mainly in Young’s modulus,

which ranges from 49 to 30 MPa with decreasing the polymer crystallinity (from 33 to 25%, Table 3).

The elasticity of the polymers, i.e., the capability to return to the initial state once the force is removed, was evaluated from step cycle tensile tests. In the first set of experiments, the samples were subjected to ten repetitive stress–strain cycles with a maximum of 300% strain, and the elastic recovery in specimen length was measured after removal of the strain for each cycle. The first cycle results in the most significant amount of permanent deformation, followed by minimal increase in the unrecovered strain on subsequent cycles (Figure 7).

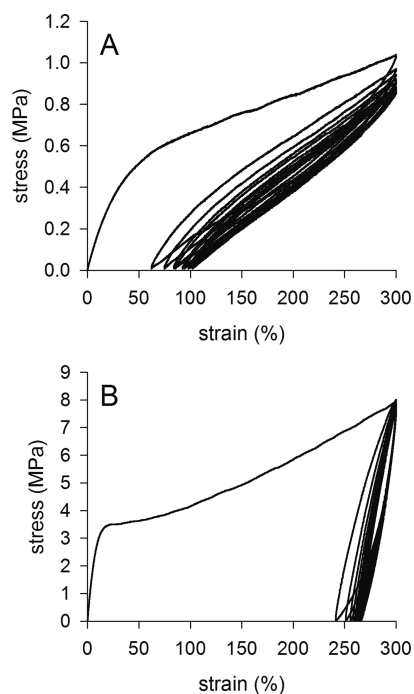


Figure 7. Stress–strain curve of (A) 1-octene polymer from Ni3 (entry 21) and (B) 1-octadecene polymer from Ni3 (entry 31) in the hysteresis experiment for ten cycles at 300% strain.

The main difference between the cyclic deformation behavior of the investigated polymers is in the amount of unrecovered strain after the first cycle. For 1-octene and 1-decene polymers the strain recovery after the first load cycle ranges from 59 to 80% and increases with decreasing the polymer crystallinity (SR_1 in Table 5). The more amorphous poly(1-octene)s (Table 5, entries 21–23) display similar recovery over the whole cycle tensile test and the highest elastic recovery of about 67% after the last load cycle (SR_x in Table 5 and Figure 7A). In contrast, 1-octadecene polymers exhibit high amount of permanent deformation after the first cycle with SR_1 values ranging from 20 to 27% and very low strain recovery (ca. 15%) after the last cycle (Figure 7B). These data indicate that the 1-octadecene polymers are not elastomers and permanently deform upon stretching.

In the second set of cyclic experiments, the samples were extended step by step up to different strains until fracture. As typical examples, the stress–strain curve during cyclic tensile deformation of 1-decene polymer (entry 26) and 1-octadecene polymer (entry 31) are shown in Figures 8A and 8B, respectively. Based on the curves, the strain recovery values were obtained (Table 5). Generally, the strain recovery decreases rapidly at lower applied strains and then tends to

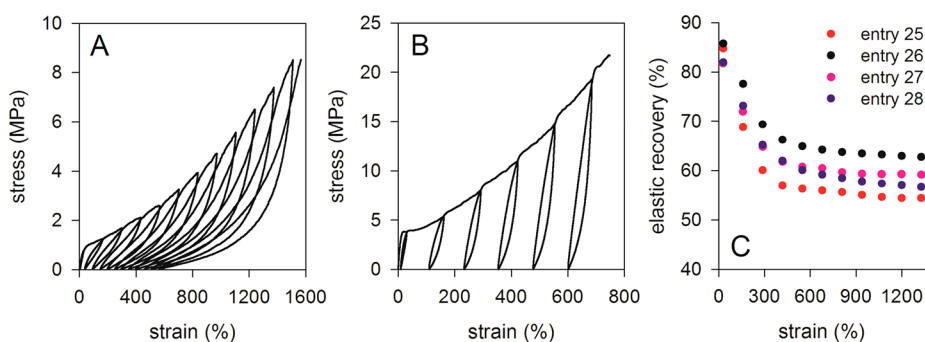


Figure 8. Stress–strain curve of (A) 1-decene polymer from Ni3 (entry 26) and (B) 1-octadecene polymer from Ni3 (entry 31) during step cycle tensile deformation at different strain. (C) strain recovery as a function of the applied strain for 1-decene polymers from Ni2–Ni5 (entries 25–28).

level off at higher applied strains. As a typical example, the strain recovery as a function of the applied strain for 1-decene polymers is reported in Figure 8C. 1-Octene and 1-decene polymers exhibit similar behavior with comparable and high SR values for the whole range of applied strains ($SR_{550\%}$ and $SR_{1200\%}$ in Table 4), whereas the 1-octadecene polymers present very low recovery of 15% when the strain was equal to 550%.

As a further experiment, the 1-octene and 1-decene thermoplastic elastomers were subjected to creep test in order to evaluate their resistance to permanent deformation. Samples were elongated to 300% strain and held at a constant stress for 3 h. It is worth pointing out that every sample required typical stress value in order to achieve 300% strain (from 1.2 MPa for the low crystallinity 1-octene polymers to 2.8 MPa for the highest crystallinity 1-decene polymer). Selected strain–time curves are shown in Figure 9. The low crystallinity 1-octene and 1-decene polymers exhibited great deformation over time, particularly those generated with Ni3–Ni5.

Overall, the obtained polymers exhibited a broad spectrum of tensile properties, strongly depending on the crystallinity, that is, the monomer length and the type of α -diimine ligand. The tensile tests show that 1-octene and 1-decene polymers behaved as elastomers with properties close to those reported for TPEs of random ethylene/ α -olefin copolymers.^{32,72,73} These materials retain excellent mechanical properties, i.e., high elongation at break and good strain recovery, even after being melted and reprocessed several times (Figure S14). Conversely, 1-octadecene polymers behaved as plastomers, exhibiting properties intermediate between those of an elastomer and a LLDPE-like material.^{70,74}

CONCLUSIONS

We report for the first time a systematic investigation on the polymerization of 1-octene, 1-decene, and 1-octadecene catalyzed by a series of α -diimine Ni(II) complexes with methyl ligand backbone and different substituents in *ortho*- and *para*-aryl positions. In addition to the bulky isopropyl and *tert*-butyl substituents described in the Brookhart's works,^{37,53} complexes with different aryl *ortho*- and *para*-substituted α -diimine ligands, including the less sterically demanding methyl and ethyl substituents are investigated (Ni1–Ni6). The crystal structures of Ni3–Ni6 are reported. Interestingly, despite their relative structural similarity, all species crystallized in different space groups, suggesting that beside their different catalytic properties, which is the focus of this work, their differential

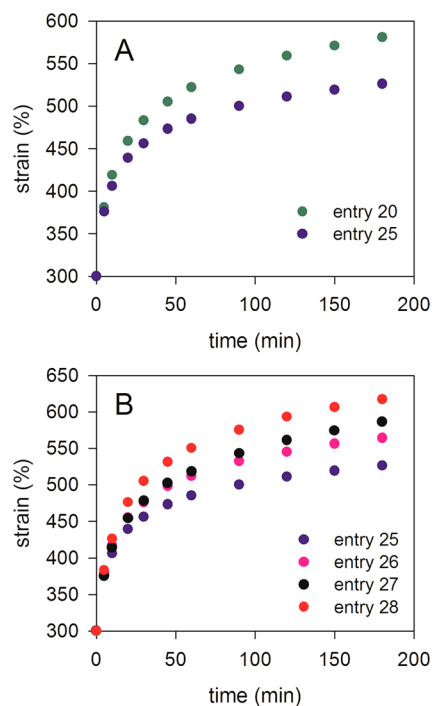


Figure 9. Creep experiments of (A) 1-octene and 1-decene from Ni2 (entries 20 and 25) and (B) 1-decene polymers from Ni2–Ni5 (entries 25–28).

substitution is also likely to guide and affect the packing arrangement of these species in the solid state.

We demonstrate that for the polymerization of higher α -olefins two methyl substituents on the *ortho*-positions of the α -diimine ligand are bulky enough to exhibit a certain steric effect, retarding the free rotation of aniline moieties and hence decreasing the β -H elimination and subsequent chain transfer. This feature allows the synthesis of high molecular weight polymers and more branched than those obtained with bulky isopropyl and *tert*-butyl substituents, while maintaining high turnover frequencies. In addition, Ni5, with two methyl groups on the *ortho*-positions and a methyl on the *para*-position, was more active than its *para*-H Ni4 complex, suggesting that the presence of the methyl in the *para* position has a further positive effect on the turnovers/h due to the stabilization of the reactive, electron-deficient, and coordinatively unsaturated alkyl agostic intermediate. Moreover, it is pointed out that at short polymerization time, i.e., assuming no complications due to mass transfer limitations and insufficient mixing, modifying the *ortho* substituents from methyl to isopropyl groups, the

complexes bearing less bulky methyl groups afford higher molecular weight polymers at significantly higher turnovers/h.

The polymers were characterized by ^{13}C NMR for quantification of the total branching level and branch-type distribution. Subtle changes in the α -diimine ligand structure and monomer size have important effects on the numerous combinations of monomer insertion and chain-walking paths from which different branches are installed. The thermal properties and crystallinity of the polymers vary depending on the extent of branching and the branch-type distribution. Generally, polymers from 1-octene and 1-decene exhibit low melting temperatures and a broad melting range likely due to the fringed-micellar crystal structure with a broad size distribution, while the structural data and melting behavior of 1-octadecene polymers suggest the presence of a mixed morphology containing both bundled crystals and lamellar structures. Accordingly, the tensile tests show that the 1-octene and 1-decene polymers behave as elastomers exhibiting low modulus, high elongation at break, and good elastic recovery, while 1-octadecene polymers show evident yielding phenomena and plastic deformation.

To conclude, this work provides new insights into the polymerization of long chain α -olefins catalyzed by α -diimine Ni(II) complexes with methyl ligand backbone and different alkyl substituents in *ortho*- and *para*-aryl positions. These systems prove great prospect due to the low cost and accessibility of starting reagents and monomer feedstocks and the high turnovers/h together with the reusability of the resulting polymers that retain excellent mechanical properties even after being melted and reprocessed several times.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.macromol.7b02242.

Experimental procedures, sample data, including ^{13}C NMR spectra, DSC traces, WAXD and SAXS patterns, and mechanical properties of all the polymers (PDF)

Single-crystal X-ray crystallographic data and spectral data for compound Ni3 (PDF)

Single-crystal X-ray crystallographic data and spectral data for compound Ni4 (PDF)

Single-crystal X-ray crystallographic data and spectral data for compound Ni5 (PDF)

Single-crystal X-ray crystallographic data and spectral data for compound Ni6 (PDF)

Accession Codes

CCDC 1566127–1566130 contain the crystallographic coordinates of the four structures described in this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif.

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