

Modeling the Mechanism of CO₂/Cyclohexene Oxide Copolymerization Catalyzed by Chiral Zinc β -Diimimates: Factors Affecting Reactivity and Isotacticity

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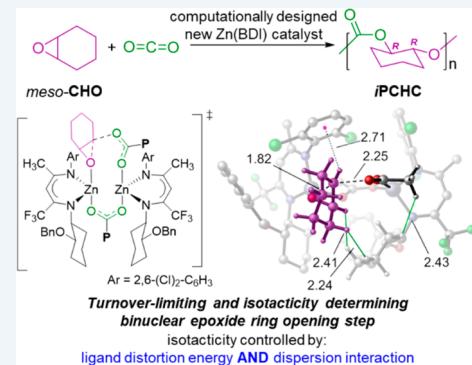
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ABSTRACT: Copolymerization of CO₂ and cyclohexene oxide (CHO) upcycles CO₂ into the value-added, chemically recyclable, thermoplastic poly(cyclohexene carbonate) (PCHC). Using density functional theory, the Zn-catalyzed copolymerization mechanism has been characterized with a particular focus on the effects of chiral β -diiminate (BDI) ligands as they influence the reactivity and enantioselectivity in the epoxide ring-opening step, where the latter is required for isotacticity. Theory indicates that both mono- and binuclear forms of the catalyst are involved along the reaction path, with the turnover-limiting step being ring-opening of the epoxide mediated by a binuclear catalyst. Subsequent CO₂ insertion is predicted to be kinetically facile and preferentially mediated by a mononuclear catalyst. The predicted preference for epoxide opening to give *R,R*-stereocenters in the copolymer when *N*-(4-(((1*S*,2*S*)-2-(benzyloxy)cyclohexyl)amino)-5,5,5-trifluoropent-3-en-2-ylidene)-2,6-dimethylaniline is used as the BDI ligand agrees with the experiment and is attributed to differential ligand distortions associated with key non-bonded interactions in the competing transition-state structures. Further analysis predicts that 2,6-dichloro and dibromo substitutions of the BDI ligand *N*-aryl group(s) should result in increased rates and enantioselectivities for copolymerization.

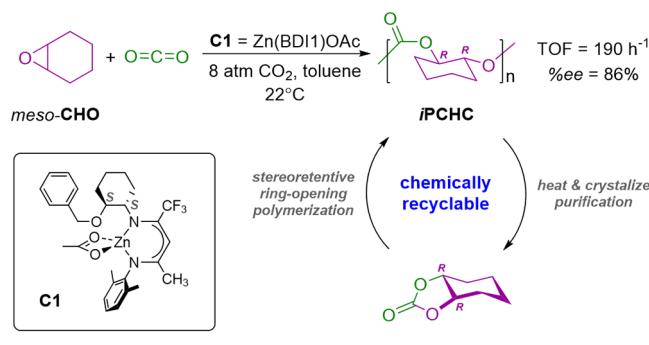
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INTRODUCTION

Cheap and effective polymer production is a key foundation of our convenient life nowadays, but traditional approaches pose environmental challenges.¹ Appealing sustainable alternatives include using renewable raw materials instead of fossil fuels, and especially so if the polymers produced are recyclable.² Within this category, alternating copolymerization of CO₂ and cyclohexene oxide (CHO) to produce thermoplastic poly(cyclohexene carbonate) (PCHC)³ is particularly interesting because it upcycles CO₂ into value-added polymer products.⁴ Despite the sustainability of the PCHC polymer, industrial applications of PCHC are limited because of its poor mechanical and thermal properties relative to traditional competitors.⁵ However, studies have demonstrated that isotactic poly(cyclohexene carbonate) (iPCHC), which derives from enantioselection in the epoxide ring-opening step, has an elevated melting temperature (T_m).⁶ In general, isotactic polymers are also expected to have better mechanical properties compared to their atactic analogues.⁷ Moreover, iPCHCs are chemically recyclable, as thermal decomposition of iPCHC produces optically pure cyclic cyclohexene carbonate (cCHC). Purification and repolymerization of the cCHC regenerates virgin-quality iPCHC (Scheme 1).⁸ Various homogeneous single-site catalysts have been reported, with a wide range of transition-metal centers and ligand systems, to

Scheme 1. Zn(BDI)(OAc)-Catalyzed CO₂/CHO Copolymerization Reaction To Produce Chemically Recyclable iPCHC with High Enantioselectivity



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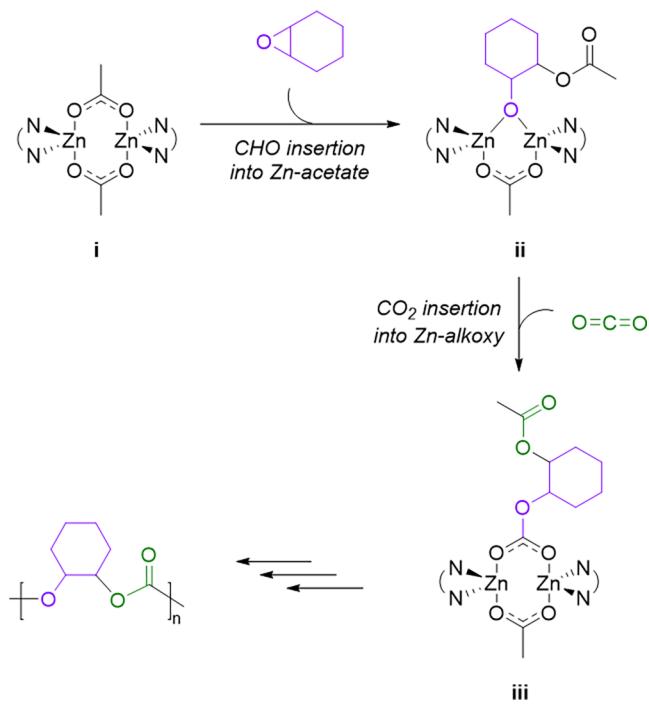
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produce iPCHC from CO_2/CHO copolymerization with varying levels of turnover frequency (TOF), carbonate percentage, dispersity, and isotacticity control.^{9–11} Among these, Zn- β -diiminate (BDI) catalysts are highly promising because they lead to essentially perfectly alternating polycarbonate from *meso*-CHO and CO_2 at low pressure. In 2014, Coates and co-workers reported a series of asymmetric BDI ligands that are effective for iPCHC production, and in particular catalyst **C1** was reported to copolymerize *meso*-CHO and CO_2 to produce iPCHC with >99% carbonate linkages, 86% ee (isotacticity), and a TOF of 190 h^{-1} at room temperature and low CO_2 pressure in toluene (Scheme 1).¹²

Early mechanistic studies suggested that Zn(BDI)-catalyzed CHO/CO_2 copolymerization involves a binuclear catalyst.¹³ A loosely bound binuclear complex derived from **C1** has been characterized by single-crystal X-ray crystallography.¹² A plausible reaction mechanism for Zn(BDI)-catalyzed CHO/CO_2 copolymerization is shown in Scheme 2, with the

Scheme 2. Hypothesized Mechanism of Zn(BDI)-Catalyzed Copolymerization of CO_2 and Cyclohexene Oxide



precatalyst likely to be the Zn-acetate dimer complex **i**. The insertion of CHO into the Zn-acetate bond forms the Zn-acetate/Zn-alkoxy binuclear complex **ii**. From intermediate **ii**, insertion of CO_2 into a Zn-alkoxy bond leads to the Zn-carbonate/Zn-acetate binuclear complex **iii**, which mimics the structure of the original Zn-acetate precatalyst and can continue the cycle, with possibly either one or two growing chains per binuclear complex.

Few computational studies have addressed the Zn(II)-catalyzed alternating copolymerization of epoxides and CO_2 ,¹⁴ and none have considered the effects of asymmetric BDI ligands on enantioselectivity. Noting the flexibility of the dimeric Zn(BDI) catalyst, we surmise that noncovalent interactions are likely to be important in controlling enantioselectivity, and modern density functional theory (DFT) has proven useful for modeling such effects,¹⁵ including

in the context of computational catalysis. Here, we use such DFT calculations to characterize the reaction mechanism for the catalyzed CO_2/CHO copolymerization, to identify the basis of enantioselectivity, and finally to design a new generation of asymmetric β -diiminate Zn-catalysts predicted to provide both higher reactivity and enantioselectivity.¹⁶

COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

All geometry optimizations were performed using the B3LYP-D3^{17,18} functional with a mixed basis set of LANL2DZ¹⁹ for Zn and 6-31G(d) for other atoms. Single-point energies were calculated with ω B97XD²⁰ and a mixed basis set of SDD²¹ for Zn and 6-311+G(d,p) for other atoms. We have also studied the potential energy surface (PES) of the cycle of initiation at other levels of theory to assess sensitivity to choice of functional (see Supporting Information section 1 for details). Solvation effects were considered in the single-point energy calculations using the SMD²² model in toluene ($\epsilon = 2.37$).²³ Reported Gibbs free energies and enthalpies include thermal contributions computed at 298 K and employ a standard-state concentration in solution of 1 M. All calculations were performed with the Gaussian 16 program.²⁴ Because the harmonic-oscillator approximation may lead to spurious results for the computed entropies in molecules with low-frequency vibrational modes, the quasi-harmonic approximation of Grimme was applied to compute the thermal corrections with a cutoff frequency of 50 cm^{-1} ,²⁵ the GoodVibes package was used for this purpose.²⁶ Stand-alone dispersion energies were calculated using the DFTD3 program.¹⁸

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 presents the computed Gibbs free energy reaction coordinate at the SMD_(toluene)/ ω B97XD/6-311+G(d,p),SDD-(Zn)/B3LYP-D3/6-31G(d),LANL2DZ(Zn) level of theory for the initiation step of the **C1**-catalyzed copolymerization of CHO and CO_2 . For clarity, only the (*R,R*)-selective pathway, which leads to the experimentally observed product, is illustrated. Optimized geometries of key intermediates are provided in Figure 2. The basis of enantioselectivity will be discussed further later. The Gibbs free energies of all stationary points on the potential energy surface are reported with respect to the most stable Zn-acetate dimer complex **IM1** (see Supporting Information section 2 for discussion of the catalyst resting state). In the resting state of the initiation cycle, in which the Zn–Zn separation is relatively short (3.61 Å), the *N*-Ar groups and the *N*-cyclohexyl groups on the opposing BDI ligands are oriented to different sides, one to another, to minimize steric repulsion (Figure 2).

Coordination of the CHO substrate to form **IM2** is computed to be endergonic by 7.7 kcal/mol with respect to the preceding **IM1** (Figure 1). Because the Zn–Zn separation is elongated to 4.82 Å in **IM2**, the lowest-energy conformation accommodates the two *N*-Ar groups of the two BDI ligands on the same side as one another, which permits favorable C–H/ π interactions with the CHO substrate (see Supporting Information section 3 for conformations of **IM2**). Subsequent CHO ring-opening by the Zn-coordinated acetate occurs with an activation free energy of 18.9 kcal/mol relative to **IM1**. The Zn-acetate/Zn-alkoxy binuclear complex **IM3** is 2.2 kcal/mol lower in free energy than **IM1**. Because of the asymmetric nature of the BDI ligand used, we systematically studied 16 conformations of **TS1** and **IM3** (see Supporting Information

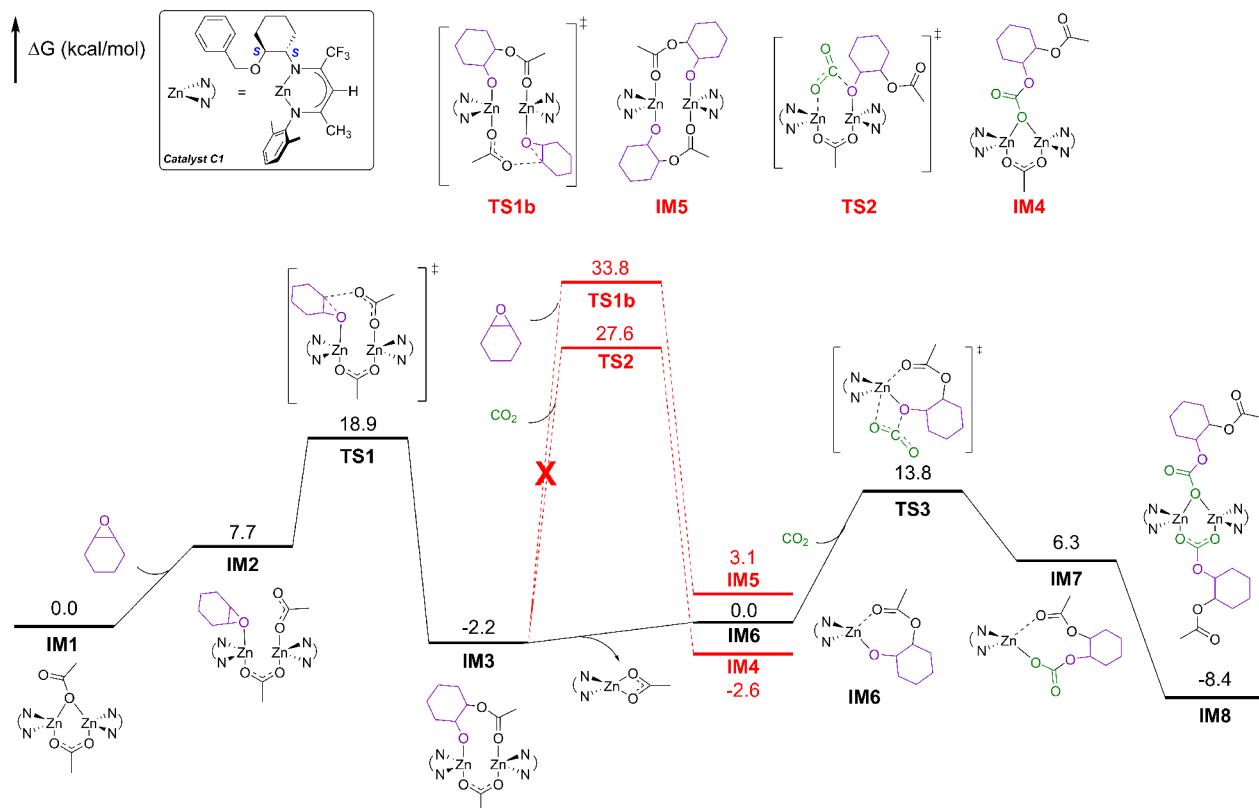


Figure 1. Computed potential energy surface for the initiation step of the Zn-catalyzed CO₂/CHO copolymerization reaction along the proposed dimer/monomeric mechanism.

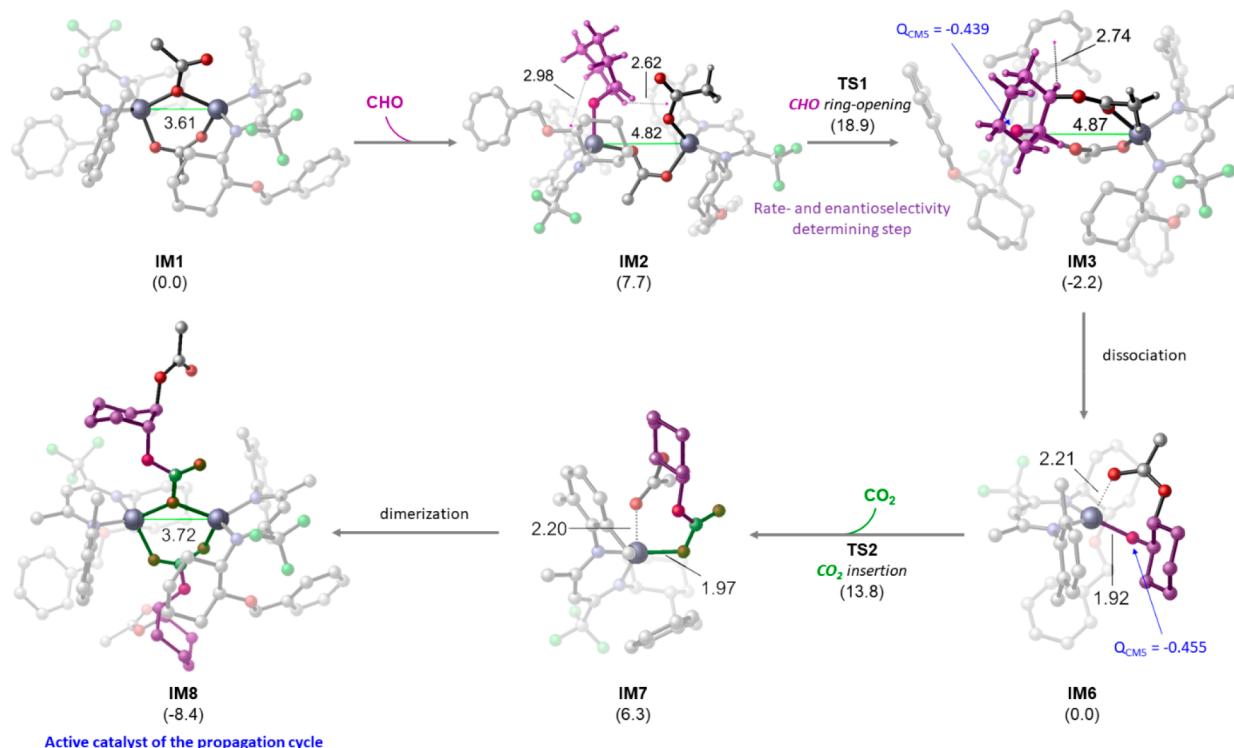


Figure 2. Selected geometric details for optimized intermediates along the mixed binuclear/mononuclear reaction path for initiation of CHO/CO₂ copolymerization (bond distances in Å; Gibbs free energies in kcal/mol relative to IM1).

section 4 for all other conformations). We have also considered a monomeric mechanism, along which CHO inserts into a $Zn(BDI)(OAc)$ monomer. The monomeric

ring-opening is computed to have a free energy of activation of 35.0 kcal/mol relative to a Zn(BDI)OAc monomer that is itself higher in energy than **IM1** (see *Supporting Information*).

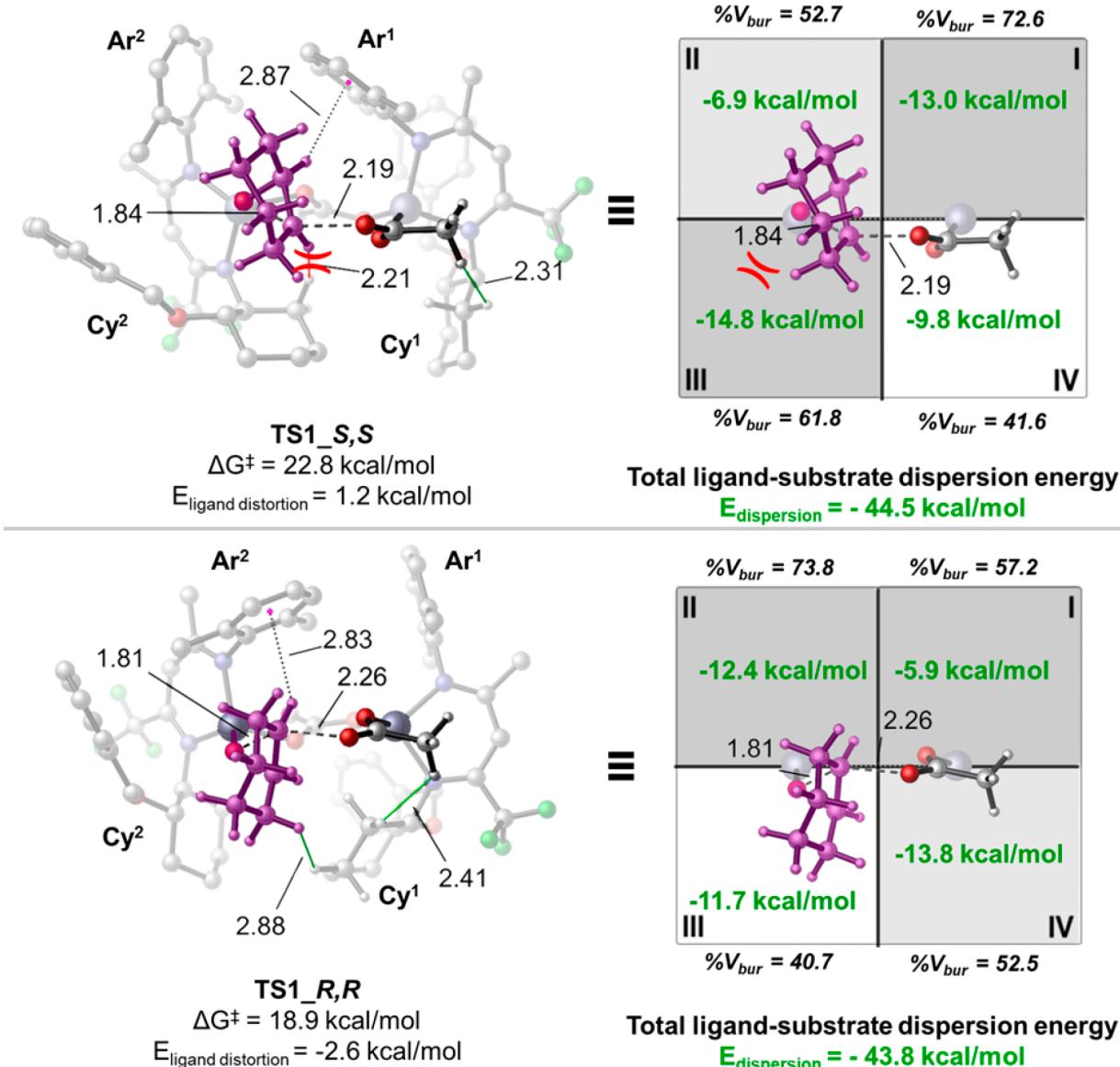


Figure 3. Optimized geometries determining enantioselection in CHO ring-opening transition states for the initiation of C1-catalyzed CHO/CO₂ copolymerization (selected bond distances are in Å).

section 5 for details), and we do not consider that process further. This prediction of preference for a bimetallic catalyst for this step is consistent with previous mechanistic studies by the Coates group.¹²

From **IM3**, we consider three alternative reactions (Figure 1). First, we consider CO₂ insertion into the bimetallic Zn-alkoxy (**TS2**),²⁷ which has a free energy of activation of 27.6 kcal/mol. Such a high activation energy is inconsistent with experimental rates at 0 °C, so we sought an alternative to this path. A second CHO insertion to generate another polymer chain through **TS1b** is predicted to have a still higher activation free energy (33.8 kcal/mol). As a third alternative, dissociation of the Zn-acetate/Zn-alkoxy binuclear complex **IM3** to form Zn-alkoxy monomer **IM6** (and Zn-acetate) is found to be thermal neutral with respect to **IM1** (0.0 kcal/mol), within the context of a 1 M standard state, which is considerably higher than the Zn concentration employed under experimental conditions. The Zn-alkoxy monomer **IM6** is stabilized by coordination of the backbone acetate group to

the Zn center. The calculated CMS charge²⁸ on the oxygen atom of the Zn-alkoxy bond suggests that the Zn-alkoxy group in **IM6** is only a very slightly better nucleophile ($Q_{\text{CMS}} = -0.455$) than the Zn-alkoxy group in **IM3** ($Q_{\text{CMS}} = -0.439$), but in any case CO₂ insertion through **TS3** (Figure 2) is predicted to have an activation free energy of only 13.8 kcal/mol (see Supporting Information sections 7 and 8 for higher-energy conformations of **IM6** and **TS3**, respectively) and leads to Zn-carbonate intermediate **IM7** at an energy 6.3 kcal/mol above **IM1**. Subsequent dimerization of **IM7** forms the Zn-carbonate dimer **IM8** and completes the cycle of initiation. Because **IM8** has a structure analogous to the precatalyst resting state **IM1**, it can be the initial intermediate employed for subsequent propagation cycles. Overall, then, the initiation of the Zn(BDI)-catalyzed CO₂/CHO copolymerization reaction takes place along a reaction path involving both mono- and binuclear catalysts, and the rate- and stereo-selectivity determining step is the epoxide ring-opening step on the binuclear catalyst.

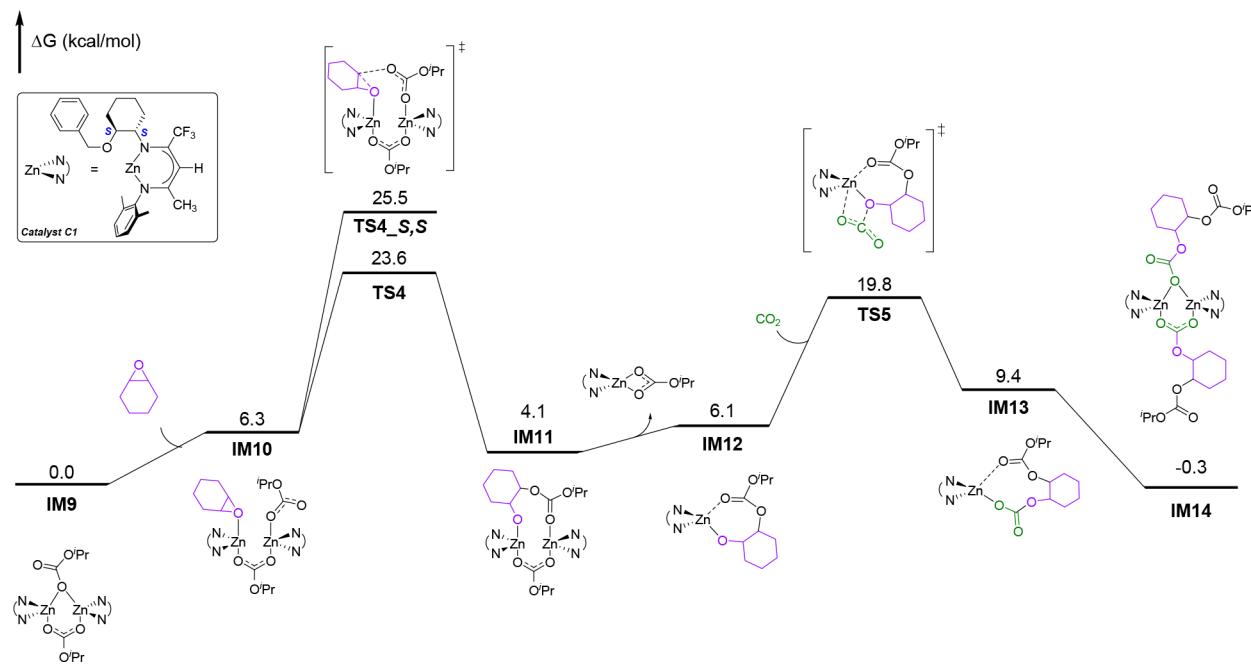


Figure 4. Computed potential energy surface of the 1st propagation cycle of the dimeric Zn-catalyzed CO_2/CHO copolymerization reaction.

We next focused on the binuclear CHO ring-opening transition-state (TS) structure **TS1** to explore the origin of its enantioselectivity. A thorough conformational search of possible CHO ring-opening TS structures found a total of 32 conformations (16 for each enantiomer), including both possible positionings of the *N*-aryl and *N*-cyclohexyl substitutions of the two BDI ligands relative to one another (see *Supporting Information* section 4 for details). For the lowest-energy conformations of **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S**, both the *N*-aryl substituents and the *N*-cyclohexyl groups of the two BDI ligands are oriented equivalently relative to one another (Figure 3). The calculated free energies of activation for **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S** are 18.9 and 22.8 kcal/mol, respectively. The predicted *R,R*-stereoselectivity ($\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger = 3.9$ kcal/mol) agrees well with the experiment.¹² Corresponding quadrant diagrams of **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S** were generated to quantify the percentage buried volume ($\%V_{\text{bur}}$) associated with the steric environments created by each *N*-substituent, as well as to aid in understanding possible dispersion interactions between the BDI ligands and the substrates (CHO and both acetate groups) (Figure 3).²⁹ *Supporting Information* sections 9 and 10 detail the calculations of $\%V_{\text{bur}}$ and the ligand–substrate dispersion energies, respectively. In both quadrant diagrams, Ar^1 and Ar^2 locate in quadrants QI and QII, while Cy^2 and Cy^1 locate in quadrants QIII and QIV; we have partitioned calculated dispersion interaction energies between the CHO and acetate groups over the *N*-substituents in each quadrant.¹⁸

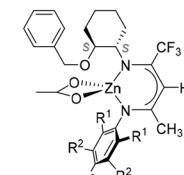
The calculated total ligand–substrate dispersion energies in **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S** are -43.8 and -44.5 kcal/mol, respectively. Because of the small differences observed, we surmise that the ligand–substrate dispersion energy does little to differentiate **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S** in the **C1**-catalyzed CHO/CO_2 copolymerization reaction. We also considered the effects of ligand distortion energy, arising in response to ligand–substrate steric interactions, on $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger$ for **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S**. The calculated ligand distortion energies of **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S** are -2.6 and 1.2 kcal/mol,

correspondingly. The difference in ligand distortion energy favors **TS1_R,R** by 3.8 kcal/mol over **TS1_S,S**, which suggests that this is the major factor contributing to **TS1_R,R** being lowest in energy.

Dispersion does play a significant role in affecting the geometries of the two TS structures, even if it does not lead to energetic differentiation between them. In **TS1_R,R**, because of the stabilizing C–H/π interaction with Ar^2 in QII, the $\text{N}-\text{Ar}^2$ tilts toward the CHO substrate and makes QII a sterically occupied quadrant ($\%V_{\text{bur}} = 73.8$). Because both of the four-coordinated Zn(II) centers have near-tetrahedral geometries, if the $\text{N}-\text{Ar}^2$ group tilts toward the substrates, the Cy^2 group must tilt away, and this makes QIII a sterically less-occupied quadrant ($\%V_{\text{bur}} = 40.7$). By contrast, in **TS1_S,S**, because of the stabilizing C–H/π interaction with Ar^1 in QI, the $\text{N}-\text{Ar}^1$ group tilts toward the CHO substrate and makes QI a sterically occupied quadrant ($\%V_{\text{bur}} = 72.6$). To avoid steric repulsion between the two $\text{N}-\text{Ar}$ groups, Ar^2 tilts away from the substrate, making QII in **TS1_S,S** a relatively less-occupied quadrant ($\%V_{\text{bur}} = 52.7$), and the Cy^2 group tilts toward the substrates and makes QIII in **TS1_S,S** a sterically occupied quadrant ($\%V_{\text{bur}} = 61.8$). These various interactions in **TS1_R,R** and **TS1_S,S** are predicted to stabilize both transition states equally when only dispersion energies are computed, but importantly, they lead ultimately to quite different steric environments. Thus, the sterically most demanding CHO group locates in the less-occupied QIII ($\%V_{\text{bur}} = 40.7$) in **TS1_R,R** but locates instead in the more-occupied QIII ($\%V_{\text{bur}} = 61.8$) in **TS1_S,S**. This is the ligand distortion that favors **TS1_R,R**.

Following this analysis of the initiation cycle, we next modeled propagation of the **C1**-catalyzed copolymerization of CHO and CO_2 at the $\text{SMD}_{(\text{toluene})}/\omega\text{B97XD}/6-311+\text{G}-(\text{d},\text{p}),\text{SDD}(\text{Zn})/\text{B3LYP-D3}/6-31G(\text{d}),\text{LANL2DZ}(\text{Zn})$ level of theory with an $\text{O}'\text{Pr}$ substituent to model the growing carbonate-terminated polymer. Gibbs free energies for all stationary points on the potential energy surface are reported

Table 1. Effects of Different N-Ar Substitutions on the Rate and Enantioselectivity of the Initiation Cycle of the CHO/CO₂ Copolymerization Reaction (Free Energies in kcal/mol)

 Catalyst #	catalyst	R ¹ =	R ² =	R ³ =	ΔG [‡] _{R,R}	ΔG [‡] _{S,S}	ΔΔG [‡]
	C1	Me	H	H	18.9	22.8	3.9
	C2	H	Me	H	21.4	20.9	-0.5
	C3	H	H	H	21.6	21.4	-0.2
	C4	CF ₃	H	H	21.0	24.8	3.8
	C5	Et	H	H	19.5	24.8	5.3
	C6	iPr	H	H	24.0	29.9	5.9
	C7	F	H	H	16.7	19.3	2.7
	C8	F	H	F	16.2	19.1	3.0
	C9	F	F	F	17.8	19.4	1.5
	C10	Cl	H	H	17.0	22.4	5.4
	C11	Br	H	H	17.8	23.4	5.6

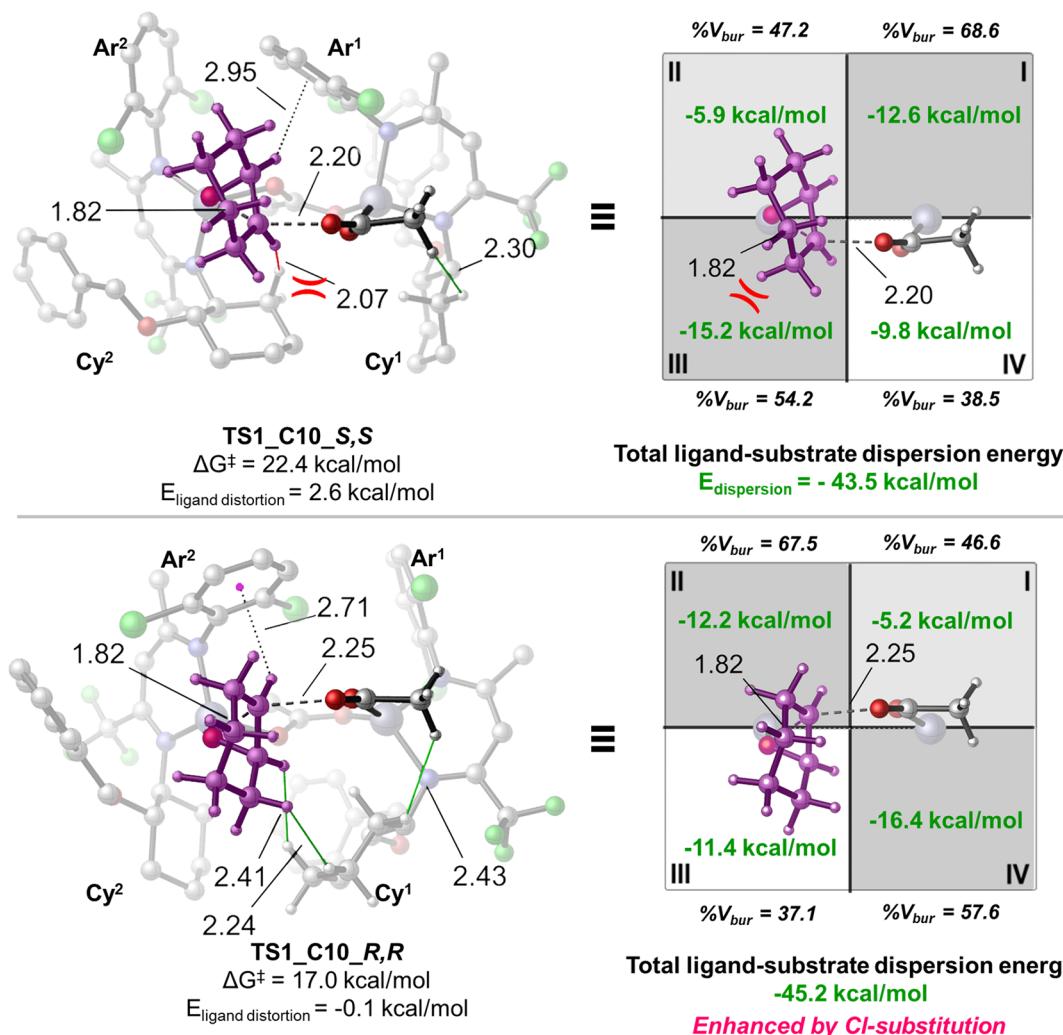


Figure 5. Optimized geometries determining enantioselection in CHO ring-opening transition states for the initiation of C10-catalyzed CHO/CO₂ copolymerization (selected bond distances are in Å).

with respect to the initial Zn-carbonate dimer complex **IM9** (Figure 4).

Propagation proceeds via a mixed binuclear/mononuclear reaction mechanism analogous to that for initiation (Figure 1).

The dimeric epoxide ring-opening step (TS4) to generate *R,R* stereochemistry has a free energy of activation of 23.6 kcal/mol. The subsequent mononuclear CO_2 insertion (TS5) has a lower free energy of activation relative to IM9, 19.8 kcal/mol (for the 1 M standard state; it will be lower for smaller concentrations of total Zn). Thus, TS4 is the rate- and stereodetermining step for propagation (see *Supporting Information* section 11 for less-favorable pathways). The calculated difference in free energy of activation between TS4_ *R,R* and TS4_ *S,S* is 1.9 kcal/mol, consistent with the *R,R* enantioselectivity in the polymer reported by the Coates group.¹² The addition of 2 CHO monomers (one to each growing chain) is slightly exergonic by 0.3 kcal/mol at the chosen level of theory. Predictions of overall polymerization free energies do tend to underestimate experimental values, in part owing to quantum chemical calculations failing to sample the full conformational phase space available to growing polymer chains and thus underestimating their entropies. There may also be favorable nonbonded interactions that stabilize secondary structure in growing polymer chains, and these cannot be captured when modeling only the first propagation step.

Having assessed those factors responsible for enantioselectivity in the copolymerization, we next assessed how the choice of substituents on the BDI ligand might affect reactivity and stereoselection. We considered modification of the BDI ligand on both the *N*-aryl group (C2–C11) and the ligand backbone substitutions (C12–C17, in *Supporting Information* section 12). Noting that the binuclear-catalyzed CHO ring-opening step is the rate- and stereoselectivity determining step, we computed differential free energies of activation for TS1_ *R,R* vs TS1_ *S,S* for all of the C2–C17 catalysts. The BDI *N*-aryl substitutions (C2–C11, Table 1) are computed to influence calculated free energies of activation for TS1_ *R,R* and TS1_ *S,S* much more significantly than substitution of the BDI ligand backbone (C12–C17), so our remaining discussion will focus only on the former (see *Supporting Information* section 12 for details on the latter).

Compared to C1 (2,6-(CH₃)₂-C₆H₃), the calculated $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger$ values for catalysts C2 (3,5-(CH₃)₂-C₆H₃) and C3 (C₆H₅) are very small in magnitude, i.e., their enantioselectivity is predicted to be minimal. Considering the set of fluorosubstituted catalysts C7, C8, and C9, both 2,6-difluorosubstitution of the *N*-aryl group (C7) and 2,4,6-trifluorosubstitution (C8) are predicted to accelerate the rate of ring-opening. Interestingly, for perfluoro-substituted C9, the acceleration relative to C1 is computed to be slightly smaller than those with C7 and C8. Moreover, the enantioselectivity is predicted to be lower than those for C1, C7, and C8. Noting that the electronic effect of 4-substitution of the *N*-aryl group (para) is expected to be no different than 2- or 6-substitution (ortho), and noting the substantially greater propensity for 2,6-substitution to influence the aryl ring rotations and steric interactions with substrates, we focused further analysis on variations in reactivity as a function of 2,6-substitution. Considering C4 (2,6-(CF₃)₂-C₆H₃), trifluoromethyl-substitution slows reactivity relative to C1 and slightly reduces selectivity. Considering aliphatic groups larger than methyl (C5 and C6), bulkier ortho-substituents increase the predicted enantioselectivity, but they do so at the cost of the predicted rate, with C5 and C6 having free energies of activation through TS1_ *R,R* greater than those for C1 by 0.6 and 5.1 kcal/mol, respectively. This prediction is consistent with our analysis

earlier that bulkier *N*-Ar groups should promote enantioselectivity by greater steric destabilization of TS1_ *S,S*. With hopes of maintaining lower overall free energies of activation, we next considered 2,6-dichloro- and 2,6-dibromo-substitutions (C10 and C11), and in both instances, calculations predict lower ΔG^\ddagger values and higher $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger$ values, i.e., we predict these catalysts to be both faster and more enantioselective relative to C1.

Noting the optimal performance computed for C10, we explored the details of TS1_ *C10_R,R* and TS1_ *C10_S,S* to better understand the origin of the high predicted enantioselectivity (Figure 5; the complete potential energy surface for initiation with C10 is in *Supporting Information* section 13). The favorable ligand–substrate dispersion energy is greater in TS1_ *C10_R,R* (−45.2 kcal/mol) than in TS1_ *C10_S,S* (−43.5 kcal/mol). This derives primarily from the van der Waals interaction between the CHO substrate and the Cy¹ group in QIV (−16.4 kcal/mol), with QIV of TS1_ *C10_R,R* being sterically more occupied (%V_{bur} = 52.5) than QIV of TS1_ *C10_S,S* (%V_{bur} = 38.5); key H–H distances between CHO and Cy¹ in TS1_ *C10_R,R* are 2.24 and 2.41 Å. In addition, as described earlier for the case for C1, in TS1_ *C10_R,R* the sterically demanding CHO substrate locates in the sterically less-occupied QIII (%V_{bur} = 37.1), which leads to a small ligand distortion energy (0.0 kcal/mol). In TS1_ *C10_S,S*, by contrast, the CHO substrate locates in the sterically more occupied QIII (%V_{bur} = 54.2), which leads to a larger ligand distortion energy (2.6 kcal/mol). The combination of these two effects, both of which stabilize TS1_ *C10_R,R* relative to TS1_ *C10_S,S*, contribute to the large predicted enantioselectivity ($\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger$ = 5.4 kcal/mol, >99% ee).³⁰

While the analysis just presented focuses on the initiation step, we also computed the influence of 2,6-dichlorosubstitution of the *N*-aryl group on the full propagation cycle. The predicted free energies of activation associated with TS4_ *C10_R,R* and TS4_ *C10_S,S* are 20.6 and 24.1 kcal/mol, respectively. The predicted $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger$ of 3.5 kcal/mol is smaller than the 5.4 kcal/mol predicted for initiation but still larger than the corresponding propagation value predicted for C1 (1.9 kcal/mol; *vide supra*). Thus, catalyst C10 is a promising candidate as a next-generation catalyst for CHO/CO₂ copolymerization.

CONCLUSION

Computed reaction coordinates indicate that CHO/CO₂ copolymerization catalyzed by Zn(BDI) proceeds via a mechanism that involves both dimeric and monomeric catalysts. Ring-opening of CHO by acetate (initiation) or carbonate (propagation) is catalyzed by dimeric Zn(BDI), while CO₂ insertion into a Zn-alkoxy preferentially occurs for Zn(BDI) monomer. The CHO ring-opening step is predicted both to be turnover-limiting and to determine enantioselection (which equates to polymer isotacticity). The computed enantioselectivity, which has a magnitude consistent with the experiment for known catalyst C1, is found to be associated with differential ligand distortion energies imparted through accommodation of substrates in competing transition-state structures. When methyl substituents at the 2- and 6-positions of the *N*-aryl groups of the BDI ligand, as found in C1, are replaced with chloro and bromo atoms, theory predicts that both the rate and the enantioselection for CHO/CO₂ copolymerization should increase, with chloro being the

optimum choice. The rate acceleration and increased enantioselectivity are found to derive from improved dispersion interactions that further stabilize the turnover-limiting transition-state structures relative to **C1** and further discriminate between structures, leading to *R,R* vs *S,S* ring-opened products. These results suggest that the use of halogen-substituted catalysts should be tested and further provide a rational basis for ongoing catalyst improvement.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.0c02299>.

Additional computational results (PDF)

Cartesian coordinates (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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$$\text{ee} = \frac{1 - e^{-\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger/RT}}{1 + e^{-\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger/RT}} \times 100$$
, which leads to a calculated %ee > 99%
with $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger = 5.4$ kcal/mol at 298.15 K.