THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

MOLECULAR ELECTROSTATIC EFFECTS FROM ANIONIC BORATE LIGANDS IN OXIDATIVE REACTIVITY

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Abstract

Metal oxygen multiply bonded intermediates mediate challenging C−H functionalization and O−O coupling reactions in enzymatic systems with impressive rates and selectivity. The preparation of synthetic metal complexes with comparable reactivity is appealing for the functionalization of fine chemicals and catalysis of the water oxidation half reaction in alternative energy schemes. Numerous model complexes featuring metal-oxo moieties have provided insight into the reactivity of these species in biological systems. However, these model systems show significantly attenuated reactivity compared to natural systems, mediating H-atom and O-atom transfer at much slower rates and infrequently resulting in O−O coupling reactivity. One notable distinction between natural systems and the model complexes are the ligand environments of the metal-oxo moieties. While model complexes typically employ strongly donating amide and carbene ligands, enzymes coordinate metal ions using weakly donating pyrrole, imidazole, and carboxylate ligands. In lieu of the wide variety of ligands available to synthetic systems, enzyme active sites are known to exert large electric fields on substrates, altering the energy of transition states and the properties of metalloenzymes. The involvement of electric field catalysis in enzymatic reactivity has motivated the study of electrostatic effects in molecular complexes featuring non-interacting charged functional groups. Inspired by these examples, this thesis details the use of weakly donating and charged ligands to target metal-oxo model complexes with unusual electronic structures. En route to these targeted complexes, the fundamental effects of charged groups on molecular properties, specifically donor strength, were also explored to provide additional context for the design of charged ligands.

In Chapter 2, an unusual series of discrete iodosyl- and iodoxyarene adducts of Co are isolated from the reaction between cobalt metalated tris-pyrazolyl borate complexes and the respective O-

atom transfer reagents. The formation of these adducts was confirmed by a suite of techniques including single crystal X-ray diffraction. These complexes represent the first crystallographically characterized examples of Co iodosylbenzene adducts and the first example of a crystallographically characterized transition metal iodoxybenzene adduct. The reactivity of these adducts with O-atom acceptors and an H-atom donor was investigated with particular focus on elucidating mechanistic details. Reactivity data are consistent with the involvement of a transient oxo complex in one case, while the two other systems appear to react with substrates directly as iodosyl- or iodoxyarene adducts. These results support that reactivity typically ascribed to metaloxo complexes, such as O-atom transfer and C–H activation, can also be mediated by discrete transition metal iodosyl- or iodoxyarene adducts that are frequent intermediates in the generation of oxo complexes. The observation of adduct complexes suggest that the monoanionic trispyrazolyl borate ligand is not sufficiently donating to support high valent intermediates, although transient formation of an oxo may be possible in one case. These results motivated a deeper investigation of the effects of charged moieties on ligand donor strength in an effort to find systems that may better stabilize high-valent intermediates with weak donor ligands.

In Chapter 3, the synthesis of a novel anionic phosphine, PPh2CH2BF3K, the corresponding tetraphenyl phosphonium and tetraethyl ammonium selenides [PPh4][SePPh2CH2BF3] and $[TEA][SePPh₂CH₂BF₃],$ and the Rh carbonyl complex $[PPh₄][Rh(acac)(CO)(PPh₂(CH₂BF₃))]$ are reported. Solvent-dependent changes in the phosphorus selenium coupling constants (*J*_{P–Se}) of the selenides were fit using Coulomb's law. These data support that up to 80% of the increase in donor strength of [PPh4][SePPh2CH2BF3] relative to SePPh2Et is a result of electrostatic contributions from the anionic moiety. This *J*_{P–Se} method was extended to [PPh₄][SePPh₂(2-BF₃Ph)] and likewise estimates up to a 70% electrostatic contribution to the increase in donor strength relative

to SePPh₃ despite the presence of an aryl linker. The use of PPh₂CH₂BF₃K also accelerated C–F oxidative addition reactivity with Ni(COD)2 by an order of magnitude in comparison to the comparatively donating neutral phosphines PEt3 and PCy3. This enhanced reactivity prompted the investigation of catalytic fluoroarene C–F borylation, with improved yields observed for less fluorinated arenes. These results demonstrated that covalently bound charged functionalities can exert a significant electrostatic influence under common solution phase reaction conditions. This lends support to the idea that electrostatic effects in charged ligands can be leveraged to stabilize high oxidation states with traditionally weakly donating ligands.

In Chapter 4, the synthetic approaches to tri-anionic weakly donating tris-pyridyl ligands are outlines. The overall charge on the ligand is anticipated to provide additional stabilization for a high valent metal in comparison to the tris-pyrazolyl borate system. The multiple carbon positions on the pyridine ring offer the opportunity to vary the location of the charge across a series of ligands. Preliminary work on the preparation of these ligands using the trifluoroborate substituted pyridine result in low yields. The preparation of a novel $BF_2CF_3^-$ anion to increase the solubility is reported. Future studies with these new ligands will initially be directed at characterizing the donor strength through metalation with Ni-NO and measurement of the nitrosyl stretching frequency. The impact of charge location on the nitrosyl stretching frequency is expected to provide insight on the electric field environment at the metal center. Correlations between the location of a charge and the applied electric field will enable the rational synthesis of molecular systems incorporating electrostatic effects and inform the analysis of future studies with metal-oxo compounds using these ligands.

Appendix 1 details the synthesis of pentadentate anionic ligands based on the tetra-pyrazolyl lutidine ligand. The incorporation of trifluoroborate moiety into a distal methine position was ultimately inhibited by the instability of the carbanion with two adjacent pyrazoles, which are observed to undergo ring opening in one example. The substitution with sulfonate at the methine position is observed, however metalation of the ligand with first row transition metals displays competitive coordination to the sulfonate moiety.

Appendices 2-4 contain supporting data for Chapter 2-4.

Preface

All chapters have an independent compound numbering system. Characterization spectra are provided in the corresponding appendix for each chapter.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Externally Applied Electric Field Catalysis

1.1.1 Introduction to Electric Field Catalysis

The incorporation of electric fields into catalytic systems is a promising strategy to accelerate reactions and dictate selectivity across multiple fields of catalysis. In these systems, correctly oriented electric fields can lower transition state barriers as well as alter catalyst properties. Originally proposed as a primary contributor to enzymatic catalysis, electric field effects have since been incorporated into various heterogeneous and molecular systems. While the exact method of applying an electric field varies from enzymatic to heterogeneous and molecular systems, the general conceptual rationale for these effects remains relatively consistent. As described by Coulomb's law below, a test charge q_1 will experience a vector force \mathbf{F}_1 as a result of electric fields generated by nearby charges

$$
\boldsymbol{F}_1 = \sum_j \frac{1}{4\pi \varepsilon_0} \frac{q_j}{r_{1j}^2} \boldsymbol{e}_{1j}
$$

where $1/4\pi\epsilon_0$ is the electric force constant, q_j is the sum of nearby charges, r_{1j}^2 is the distance and e_{1j} e_{1j} e_{1j} is the unit vector between the points.^{1,[2](#page-57-2)} This force generates an electrostatic potential energy between the charges, which can be converted into kinetic energy and the movement of q₁ according to the respective charge signs. Analogous behavior is observed in the case of partial charges, such as dipoles (μ) and polar bonds. As the majority of reactions require the movement of electron density and have transition state charge distributions that are distinct from the reactant state, electric fields favoring the transition state dipole will lower the transition state energy and accelerate the reaction.^{[3](#page-57-3)} The transition state stabilization (TSS) effected by electric fields has also

been described in terms of the re-ordering and mixing of molecular orbitals, as well as in terms of field-induced bond ionicity in valence bond theory and in thermodynamic free energy reaction coordinates[.1,](#page-33-3)[4,](#page-57-4)[5](#page-57-5),[6](#page-57-6) While different interpretations can be suited to particular systems or computational methods, a general conclusion of electric field catalysis is that an electric field aligned with the change in dipole moment over the course of a reaction will lower the energy of the transition state. [1,](#page-33-3)[7](#page-57-7),[8](#page-57-8)

$$
\Delta\Delta G^{\ddagger} = \bm{F}_1 \Delta \bm{\mu}
$$

Likewise, selectivity between different reaction pathways can be accessed using electric fields when the dipoles of each transition state are differentially stabilized in the electric field.⁸ In addition to TSS effects, electric fields can change fundamental properties of a catalyst itself, influencing both the thermodynamics and mechanisms of reactions. These properties include the electronic configuration i.e. orbital population and ordering, redox potential (E1/2) and bond dissociation free energy (BDFE), among other properties.^{[9](#page-57-9),[10](#page-57-10)} Given the generality of the explanation above, the first part of this introduction provides specific examples how externally applied electric fields affect catalysis. Following that, the second section provides examples of how the concept of electric field catalysis has been applied to molecular systems via the incorporation of charged moieties. The examples provided in the first and second section are meant to illustrate common themes in electric field catalysis and are not exhaustive. Additionally, multiple sign conventions exist to report electric field strengths.¹ In this introduction, electric fields will be reported as positive values by default unless, within an example, there is an electric field applied in the opposite direction as well, in which case both positive and negative signs will be included. Finally, the third section explores the motivation for studying molecular metal oxo

complexes and how the presence of negatively charged functional groups may alter their electronic structure and reactivity.

1.1.2 Electric Field Effects in Enzymatic Catalysis

Electrostatic TSS within enzyme active sites was first proposed as the dominant contributor to enzymatic catalysis in the 1970's by Warshel and coworkers.^{[11](#page-57-11),[12](#page-57-12)} Quantitative calculations compared the reaction barriers for hydrolysis reactions in the lysozyme enzyme and in water. The \sim 7 kcal/mol difference in transition state energies, accounting for a rate difference of 10⁶, was almost entirely accounted for by electrostatic stabilization of the carbocation intermediate by adjacent anionic Glu and Asp residues. The positioning of these charges within a hydrophobic enzyme superstructure was necessary to maximize the electrostatic stabilization, as the analogous configuration in water results in attenuation of the charges by the multiple solvation layers. The enzyme active site is electrostatically pre-organized to support the dipole of the transition state, thereby removing the solvent reorganization energy penalty present in bulk solution. Calculations comparing the free energy of a variety of reactions in water and within enzyme active sites demonstrate that electrostatic catalysis is a generally applicable concept in enzymatic catalysis.^{[4](#page-34-1)}

Experimental quantification of enzymatic electric fields was provided by Boxer and coworkers in the early 2000's using the vibrational Stark effect.⁷ IR and Raman spectroscopies probe the energy difference between the ground and first excited vibrational states of molecules. In the case of polar diatoms, the first excited state has a larger dipole moment than the ground state, resulting in a larger response to an applied field.^{[13](#page-57-13)} The change in the frequency of a specific vibration (cm⁻¹) with an applied electric field (MV/cm) relates linearly to the magnitude of the field, giving the Stark tuning rate for that vibration (cm[−]¹ /(MV/cm)). Vibrations which are predominantly decoupled from the rest of a molecule, such as CO or CN, report on the electric field in their
environment by comparison to their Stark tuning rates. This technique was used to measure the electric field within ketosteroid isomerase (KSI), one of the most rapid enzymes known with a k_{cat}/K_m for a C=C isomerization approaching the diffusion $limit.¹⁴$ $limit.¹⁴$ $limit.¹⁴$ The carbonyl stretch (*v*co) of a substrate-like inhibitor within the active site

Figure 1.1 Simplified depiction of the active site in ketosteroid isomerase and the electric field effects determined by Boxer and coworkers in reference [13](#page-35-0) (left). Simplified depiction of the active oxidant in cytochrome p450 enzymes and the electric fields predicted computationally by Alexandrova and coworkers in reference [10](#page-34-0) and the predicted O centered spin density (right).

indicated that KSI applied an extremely large field of 144 MV/cm (Figure 1.1). Mutagenesis experiments demonstrated that reductions in the applied electric field linearly correlate with changes in k_{cat} and the free energy barrier.^{14,[15](#page-58-1)} The electric field contribution to the TSS was estimated at 7.3 kcal/mol, consistent with a rate enhancement of $10⁵$ and accounting for 70% of the total enhancement relative to the reaction in water. Notably, the *v*_{CO} was much narrower than the same stretch observed in water, and nitrile stretches in the areas surrounding the active site indicated a significantly weaker electric field. Together, these highlight the extremely precise nature of the fields applied within enzyme active sites. Analogous Stark effect studies have identified electric fields within enzyme active sites ranging from 20 to 144 MV/cm.¹³

Although less commonly explored, electric field effects have likewise been predicted in metalloenzymes.[10,](#page-34-0)[16](#page-58-2) Recent computational work by the Alexandrova group estimates electric fields ranging from 55.8 MV/cm to −36.6 MV/cm within iron-heme active sites across 200 distinct

cytochrome p450 enzymes (Figure 1.1).^{[10](#page-34-0)} These enzymes are responsible for a variety of oxidation reactions involved in metabolism, most notably the hydroxylation of challenging C−H bonds, and proceed through the formation of a high valent Fe^{IV}-oxo intermediates which mediate hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) reactions. The electric fields in the active site were found to be greatest along the Fe−O bond axis (Fz), and the magnitude correlated with protein function. Rather than calculating the dipole of the transition state, the report focused on the changes effected by the electric field on the active oxidant. The largest average electric fields ($F_{z \text{ avg}} = 28.5 \text{ MV/cm}$) were observed in the Cys ligated heme centers responsible for the most challenging C−H oxidations. The average electric fields in the less reactive Tyr and His ligated heme centers were 3.0 MV/cm and -8.7 MV/cm, respectively. Larger positive electric fields are proposed to increase spin density on the oxygen atom, resulting in a more electrophilic oxidant. Additionally, the O−H BDFE of the resulting Fe^{IV}–OH is likewise sensitive to the electric field, ranging from 97 kcal/mol in Cys ligated hemes to 94 kcal/mol and 88 kcal/mol for His and Tyr ligated heme centers, respectively. The rate of HAT in metal oxo systems is frequently determined by the difference in BDFE of the initial C−H bond and the resulting O−H bond, indicating that the electric fields in cytochrome p450 enzymes alter the rate of HAT reactivity.^{[17](#page-58-3)} This work demonstrates how catalyst properties such as E1/2, p*K*a, and spin density are sensitive to externally applied electric fields and can alter the rate and selectivity of enzymatic reactions.

Finally, a key consideration is the origin of electric fields within enzyme active sites. Generally, the electric field can be separated into contributions from the immediate coordination sphere of the active site and contributions from the remaining protein structure.^{[18,](#page-58-4)[19](#page-58-5)} Originally, Warshel and Boxer both considered the sum of a wide range of interactions to be electrostatic in origin, including carboxylate anions directly adjacent to the substrate and H-bonding interactions.^{4[,13](#page-35-0)}

Typical contributors also include charged and polar residues and occasionally charged ions such as Ca^{2+} or $Zn^{2+4,9}$ $Zn^{2+4,9}$ $Zn^{2+4,9}$ $Zn^{2+4,9}$ The relative contributions of the immediate coordination sphere in comparison to the overall protein structure is challenging to quantify. Stark effect studies with KSI demonstrated that up to 60 MV/cm of applied field remained even upon mutation of prominent residues in the active site.^{[14](#page-36-0)} Likewise, calculations from the Head-Gordon group predict a 28% contribution from the protein scaffold to the total electric field within the KSI active site.^{[19,](#page-37-0)[20](#page-58-6)} In modeling cytochrome p450 enzymes, Alexandrova and coworkers only considered contributions to the electric field from the overall protein structure, excluding any active site conitrbutions.¹⁰ While synthetic chemists may hesitate to consider H-bonding interactions in the active site as electrostatic in nature, the contributions to the electric field from the overall protein structure unequivocally highlight that electric fields contribute to rate acceleration within active sites and warrant further exploration in synthetic systems.

1.1.3 Externally Applied Electric Field Catalysis

In addition to the substantial work identifying electric fields in enzymatic systems, electric field catalysis has also been observed in a wide range of synthetic systems.^{[6](#page-34-3)} Heterogeneous reaction set-ups involving capacitors are conducive to exploring electric field effects as a potential can be applied at the surface without competing electron transfer reactivity.^{[21](#page-58-7)} The Kanan group has explored the influence of electric fields on selectivity in epoxide rearrangement^{[8](#page-34-4)} and cyclopropanation reactions in parallel plate capacitors.^{[22](#page-58-8)} In the former, Al₂O₃ deposited on silica electrodes catalyzed the rearrangement of *cis*-stilbene oxide to a mixture of two products (Figure 1.2). Application of an electric field altered the selectivity from a 1:3.7 product ratio in CH2Cl2 with no applied field to a ratio of 16.9:1 at 5 V and a ratio of 11.3:1 at −4.5 V. The selectivity difference between 0 V and 5 V corresponds to a 2.5 kcal/mol change in the transition state energies, likely favoring the transition state with a larger dipole. Notably, the selectivity change was approximately the same with both positive and negative applied fields, as the substrate in

solution was free to reorient within the field. This experiment highlights the utility of electric fields in altering selectivity between different reaction pathways. However, it also demonstrates how control over selectivity will be limited unless the orientation of the electric field is fixed relative to the substrates.

Figure 1.2 Simplified diagram of the parallel plate capacitor and product selectivity changes with applied field reported by the Kanan group.

Another elegant approach to demonstrating electric field effects on molecular reactivity is the use of scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) techniques to apply precise fields. $3,23-25$ $3,23-25$ $3,23-25$ $3,23-25$ In experiments by Coote and coworkers, a Diels-Alder reaction was accelerated in the presence of an

Figure 1.3 Simplified diagram of the Diels-Alder reaction within an STM set-up reported by the Coote group.

electric field applied using the STM set up (Figure 1.[3](#page-33-0)).³ To carry out these break-junction experiments, the diene was first attached to the gold tip via sulfur linkages and the dienophile was attached to the gold surface. The gold tip was moved across the gold surface at a distance allowing for reactivity but inhibiting electron transfer $(\sim]$ nm). When a Diels-Alder reaction occurred between the two substrates, a temporary increase in conductance was observed between the tip and surface due to the molecular linkage. When the tip continued across the surface, the junction was broken and the current returned to zero, with the overall change in current referred to as a blinking event. Changing the applied field from −0.05 V to −0.75

V resulted in a 5x increase in the blinking frequency, consistent with acceleration of the Diels-Alder reaction. Notably, minimal change in the blinking frequency was observed when a field was applied in the opposite direction, reiterating the determining role of orientation in electric field catalysis.

1.2 Electrostatics in Coordination Chemistry

1.2.1 Introduction and Motivation

The examples surveyed above demonstrate how electric fields can significantly influence catalytic rates and selectivity through stabilization of the transition state dipole and modification of the catalyst electronic properties. As the majority of chemical reactions include a change in dipole, electric field catalysis should in principle be widely applicable. Despite the versatility of this technique, there remain significant challenges to rationally incorporating these effects into catalytic systems. A primary challenge is synthetic, as methods for rationally controlling the orientation and magnitude of electric fields are limited. The scalability of the STM and parallel plate systems in the previous section likewise presents an obstacle. Finally, predicting the effects of electric fields is challenging, particularly in reactions with multiple steps or unknown/complicated mechanisms. Given these considerations, the exploration of electric field effects in molecular systems is an area of current interest, as molecular catalysts are both scalable and tunable. Regarding control over the electric field, charged functional groups within a rigid molecular catalyst should exert an electric field on their surroundings, ensuring that every catalytic center experiences a similar electric field within the limit of molecular motions. Repositioning the functional group(s) should also afford the opportunity to invert selectivity, unlike the Kanan example, or effect opposite changes on catalyst structure, such as the oxyl intermediates in p450 detailed by Alexandrova.^{8,[10](#page-34-0)} In addition, significant work over the past few decades on the synthesis of zwitterionic complexes has provided the groundwork for the synthesis of charged complexes.^{[26,](#page-58-11)[27](#page-58-12)}

While there are many potential advantages to applying the concepts of electric field catalysis to molecular systems, there remains much to be determined regarding the exact implementation and interpretation of these effects. For example, the accuracy of interpreting electrostatic effects from *intramolecular* charges analogously to an *externally applied* electric fields such as those in a parallel plate capacitor has not been clearly established. Accordingly, the stabilization of transition states via a stable oriented intramolecular electric field has not been clearly demonstrated in molecular systems, although transition state stabilization by an adjacent charge has been proposed in a few examples.^{[28](#page-59-0),[29](#page-59-1)} Assuming an orientation dependence can be observed in synthetic systems, the synthesis of molecules with correctly aligned electric fields resulting from correctly positioned charges will likely require the development of new synthetic design principles. Additionally, assigning changes in electronic structure and reactivity in charged molecular systems to electrostatic rather than inductive contributions is challenging as the charges are covalently bound to the complex of interest. The terminology in this field is fairly ambiguous as the differences, if any, between electric field, electrostatic, and charge effects have not been defined. Likewise, the units of applied electric field tend to vary between different applications, with MV/cm favored in enzymatic systems and mV or mV/ \AA favored in molecular systems. While there remain open questions and certain concepts in the field remain ill-defined, many recent examples of complexes incorporating distally charged functional groups have begun to address these gaps in knowledge.

In the following sections, progress towards characterizing the contribution of electrostatic effects on reactivity and catalyst properties in molecular complexes will be summarized. While there are multiple insightful reports of electrostatic effects in organic reactions and compounds, this introduction will focus on studies carried out with inorganic complexes of greater relevance to this thesis.^{[30](#page-59-2),[31,](#page-59-3)[32](#page-59-4)} Electrostatic interactions between a charged catalyst and an oppositely charged substrate have also been used to direct selectivity through positioning enforced by ion pairing.^{[33,](#page-59-5)[34](#page-59-6)} These examples have not been included below as the influence of the charges on the electronic

aspects of the reaction coordinate and catalyst are not described, and instead the selectivity determination is more akin to steric arguments. Additionally, while there are multiple studies on the redox potentials, basicity and reactivity of charged porphyrins in been included due to the anticipated quenching of

aqueous media, they have not **Figure 1.4** Complexes described in the "electrostatics in coordination chemistry" section with the charged moieties depicted in blue, and the research groups investigating each compound listed underneath.

electrostatic effects in aqueous solution.^{[35](#page-59-7),[36](#page-59-8)} The examples described below describe systems in which the electrostatic effects of distally charged moieties in the ligand on the electronic structure and reactivity of a metal center were explicitly analyzed. Examples of metal complexes with charged ligands in which electrostatic effects were not addressed have not been included for simplicity, although they may still offer insight. Finally, the included examples are all experimental, and exclusively computational work has not been described although it is relevant to the field.^{[37,](#page-59-9)[38](#page-59-10)}

1.2.2 Charged Crown Ether Complexes

Metal complexes containing alkali metal encapsulating crown ether moieties have been studied by multiple groups over the past 4 decades.^{[39](#page-59-11)} Recently, the Yang group has developed a series of complexes with a crown ether substituted salen ligand and investigated how the alkali metal charge affects the reactivity and electronic structure from an electrostatic perspective (Figure 1.4). The salen has been metalated with Fe^{III} , Mn^V , Co^{II} and Ni^{II} with a varying series of alkali metals in the crown ether, including Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Ba²⁺, Sr²⁺, La³⁺ and Eu³⁺ ions.^{[40-](#page-59-12)[44](#page-60-0)} Coulomb's law predicts electric fields in the Co series from the adjacent cations of 110 and 120 mV for K^+ and Na⁺, and twice that with the dications Ba^{2+} , Sr^{2+} , and Ca^{2+} (210, 220 and 230 mV).⁴⁰ With all transition metals a large dependence is found between the redox potential and the charge of the adjacent cation, with typical changes on the order of 100-200 of mV/change in unit charge $(Co^{III}$, Mn^{VIV}, $Ni^{III/I}$). The observed change is slightly larger for the Fe^{II/III} couple, which increases by 440 mV with K⁺ and 640 with Ba²⁺ relative to the neutral salen.⁴¹ Surprisingly, a related compound with a methylene linker between the $Na⁺$ crown ether and a pyridine di-imine core results in a much smaller influence on the redox potential (-50 mV) .^{[45](#page-60-1)} The incorporation of alkali metal cations into the crown ethers appears to minimally alter the electronic absorption spectra across the series of transition metal compounds. In the case of Ni^{II} , DFT calculations predicted that the adjacent cation uniformly lowers the valence orbitals without prompting any reordering.⁴³

The reactivity of the Mn^V nitride (Mn^V) and the Fe^{III}Cl crown ether substituted salen compounds is of particular interest as the trends are distinct from those observed with inductive

ligand modification.^{41,[42](#page-43-2)} In the case of Fe^{III}Cl, both the K⁺ and Ba⁺ compounds catalyze the oxidation of cyclohexene to cyclohexanol and cyclohexanone with turnover numbers of \sim 17 and 46, respectively[.41](#page-43-1) Previously reported studies with neutral salen ligands demonstrated a strong correlation between the $Fe^{III/II}$ redox potential with catalytic activity. However, in the crown ether examples oxidation reactivity is observed even though the redox potentials are 300-400 mV lower than those needed in neutral salen systems. Additionally, the repulsion between the cations inhibits the formation of a μ -oxo decomposition product. In the case of the Mn^VN with Na⁺, K⁺, Ba²⁺ and Sr^{2+} in the crown ether, the rate of bimolecular coupling upon oxidation to form N₂ was found to vary inversely with redox potential.^{[42](#page-43-2)} Specifically, the more oxidizing nitrides (Ba²⁺ and Sr²⁺) reacted more slowly, counter to the expected linear free energy relationship, as a result of electrostatic repulsion between the complexes. These observed reactivity trends demonstrate how charged moieties can enhance reactivity in comparison to traditional electron withdrawing and donating functional groups.

Recently, the influence of alkali metals on HAT reactivity was explored with the $Mn^{V1}N$ complex by examining the range in the $E_{1/2}$ and pK_a , which can be used to determine the N-H BDFE of the resulting Mn^VNH complex.^{[44](#page-43-2)} The redox potentials for the Mn^{V/VI}N couple with the neutral salen and with Na⁺, K⁺, Ba²⁺, Sr²⁺, La³⁺, and Eu³⁺ in the crown ether varied across ~700 mV, with higher potentials required to oxidize the complexes with greater positive charge. The pK_a of the corresponding protonated $[Mn^VNH]^+$ nitride was estimated to range by 9 units across the series, with higher alkali metal charges leading to less basic amides. Despite the dramatic changes in redox potential and p*K*a, relatively similar BDFE values for the resulting HAT product were determined, suggesting the changes approximately balance out. Although the spread in BDFE spans \sim 8 kcal/mol, the error on the values is \sim 3 kcal/mol and they are mostly all within similar

ranges. This result implies that charged moieties may alter the transition state structure for the HAT reactions more than the thermodynamics, consistent with the asynchronous reactivity trends recently demonstrated in Co-oxo mediated HAT reactions, suggesting alternative means of determining selectivity may be accessible using electrostatic effects.^{[46](#page-60-2)}

1.2.3 Charged Porphyrin Complexes

Cationic porphyrin complexes are among the best molecular electrocatalysts for small molecule reduction reactions. Savéant et al. investigated $CO₂$ reduction by $Fe⁰$ in a tetraphenyl porphyrin ligand with trimethylammonium moieties at either the ortho (*o*-TMA) or para (*p*-TMA) phenyl positions, as well as a version with para sulfonate groups $(p$ -SO₃) (Figure 1.4).^{[47](#page-60-3)} The CO₂ reduction overpotential (η) and turnover frequency (TOF) with the charged porphyrins deviated from the expected linear free energy relationship (LFER) determined using a series of porphyrins modified inductively through fluorination of the phenyls.^{[48](#page-60-4)} In particular, the cationic complexes exhibited higher rates of CO₂ reduction than would be predicted by the LFER given the onset potential, and the *o*-TMA has a significantly lower overpotential and higher rates than the *p*-TMA. In contrast, the anionic complexes exhibited lower rates than would be expected from the LFER. Initially, the observation that less reducing cationic compounds show enhanced reductive reactivity is counterintuitive. However, the Nocera group observed a similar trend between charge and reactivity in a hangman porphyrin with anionic carboxylates in the primary coordination sphere.^{[49](#page-60-5)} The Fe metalated anionic porphyrin likewise displayed reduced reactivity in comparison to neutral ligands. Additionally, there are multiple other examples of enhanced electrocatalytic $CO₂$ reduction reactivity through the incorporation of positively charged functional groups in the ligand framework.^{[50](#page-60-6),[51,](#page-60-7)[52](#page-60-8)} These results suggest that the reduction potential is not the most important factor for accelerating CO2 reduction reaction. Instead, the cationic TMA moieties were proposed by

Savéant to favor the formation of the reduced Fe-CO₂⁺⁻ intermediate *via* electrostatic stabilization. Computational investigations by Mayer and coworkers suggest that the Fe-CO2⁺⁻ adduct develops significant negative charge on the oxygen, which then is stabilized by the adjacent cations.^{[53](#page-61-0)} Importantly, they also identified that four distinct atropisomers of the *o*-TMA porphyrin were present in the electrochemical studies by Savéant.^{[54](#page-61-1)} The distinct atropisomers enabled them to investigate the orientation dependence of electrostatic effects in molecular systems, as in each case the exact arrangement of o -TMA moieties is distinct. Overall, the difference in the Fe^{III} and $Fe^{I/0}$ redox potentials between the distinct atropisomers varies by less than 50 mV, while the difference from neutral porphyrin is on the order of 400 mV.^{[54](#page-46-0)} Additionally, the TOF for $CO₂$ reduction mediated by the different atropisomers showed very little variation $(log(TOF_{max}/s⁻¹) = 4.6-5.3)$ despite the distinct field orientations at Fe.^{[55](#page-61-2)} These studies demonstrated again that charged moieties can lead to useful reactivity trends outside the bounds set by inductive LFER. However, they also challenged the assumption that electric fields generated by intramolecular charges lead to similar orientation dependent field effects as those observed in heterogeneous and enzymatic systems. Instead, the charge density is proposed as a more significant factor in determining reactivity than the exact location of the charge above or below the Fe plane. These extremely interesting set of studies underscore several of the challenges associated with interpreting electrostatic effects in solution, and motivate well-defined studies aimed at disentangling these effects.

An additional complication with interpreting electrostatic effects in molecular systems is the propensity for multi-step reactions, in which case each step will be differentially affected by an

Figure 1.5 Tetra-cationic porphyrin complex explored in the electrocatalytic reduction of CO2 and O2 and simplified representations of the distinct atropisomers resulting from restricted rotation around the Ph-C_{por} bond (por $=$ porphyrin). The blue circles correspond to the tri-methylammonium groups.

adjacent charge. In the case of $CO₂$ reduction, the prediction that electrostatic effects will stabilize the reduced CO₂^{$-$} was supported computationally. However, since then, additional investigations into the mechanism by Mayer and coworkers suggest that the mechanism is more complicated than initially thought, involving an electron transfer and chemical step prior to the true catalytic onset.⁵⁵ The tetra-cationic *o*-TMA substituted iron porphyrin complex is also among the best O₂ reduction reaction (ORR) molecular electrocatalysts, although for distinct mechanistic reasons. Although conceptually the reduction of O_2 by Fe^{III} to generate an Fe^{II}-OO^{$-$} is similar to the initial CO₂ reduction step, the accumulation of negative charge on the oxygen is $10x$ less than in CO₂, and the resulting electrostatic interaction is much weaker.^{[53](#page-46-2)} Instead, the cationic groups facilitate acetate coordination, which shifts the Fe^{III} reduction potential cathodically and results in a more reducing compound. The acetate bound compound reacts with $O₂$, while the initial complex without acetate shows no reactivity towards $O₂$. The rate of acetate binding was found to be sensitive to the concentration of electrolyte in solution, supporting that the enhanced binding is electrostatic in nature and can be quenched with additional ion pairing interactions. The disparate means of electrostatic catalysis between the two reduction reactions demonstrates that care must be taken in assigning the origin of catalysis to electrostatic interactions.

1.2.4 Additional Complexes Incorporating Electrostatic Effects

The electronic structure and reactivity of a series of [Cu^{II} -OH] complexes with negatively (SO₃⁻, $SO³$ (b) or positively (NMe₃⁺, ^{NMe3+}L) substituted pyridine carboxamide ligands was evaluated by the Tolman lab and compared to a neutral ligand congener (L) (Figure 1.4).^{[56](#page-61-3)} The distal charges had little effect on the electronic structure of the [Cu^{II}−OH] core, as UV-vis and EPR spectra of the complexes were similar. However, the charges significantly altered the $Cu^{II/III}$ oxidation potential, with the E1/2 increasing anodically with the overall charge of the complex in the order $S₀₃–L < L _{NMe3}+L$, spanning approximately 300 mV in applied potential. The increase in oxidation potential to more positive values with increasing cationic charge on the molecule is consistent with observations in the crown ether examples from the Yang group, and supports that the effect of anionic charges on redox potential is consistent with this trend.^{[42](#page-43-2)} In the presence of additional alkali metal salts the oxidation potential of the $\text{[Cu^{II}-OH]}$ with SO^{3-} L shifted to more positive potentials, consistent with increased shielding of the charge and quenching of the electrostatic effects. The O−H BDFE in the products resulting from HAT reactions, [Cu^{II}−OH₂]⁺, was found to vary only slightly between SO3−L and NMe3+L (91 vs. 91.5 kcal/mol), suggesting a change in the p*K*^a compensates for the change in redox potential. A similar compensation between redox potential and pK_a was observed with the N−H BDFE of Mn^VN complexes in the crown ether appended salen complexes with alkali metals of different charges from the Yang group[.44](#page-43-2) Despite similar O−H BDFE values, the $\lceil Cu^{II} - OH \rceil$ with ${}^{SO3-}L$ ligand was found to react up to 150x more rapidly with dihydroanthracene than the $NMe3+L$ complex, although steric hinderance with the counterions likely contributes to the distinct reactivity. While this example demonstrates that anionic charges can also exert electrostatic influences on E1/2 and reaction rates, the sulfonate anion is not ideal for such studies as it can coordinate to Cu and is more easily quenched in the presence of excess ions than TMA. The development of a more a more rigorously non-coordinating anion would be beneficial for expanding the study of anion effects. Additionally, this example demonstrates how electrostatic effects on mechanism can be difficult to separate from other influences, such as the presence of bulky counterions.

A few additional examples of electrostatic effects in molecular systems will be described briefly. The Tompson group demonstrated in a Cu^I metalated phosphinimine tren complex (Figure 1.4) that partial positive charge on the phosphines preferentially stabilizes the a1 frontier molecular orbital in comparison to complexes with neutral tren ligands, altering the identity of the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO).^{[57](#page-61-4)} The Lavallo group determined that the use of an anionic carborane substituted phosphine leads to enhanced Pd mediated oxidative addition of aryl chlorides relative to a neutral carborane containing analogue.^{[58](#page-61-5)} The increased reactivity is attributed to dissociation of the ligand due to electrostatic repulsion in the resting bis-ligated complex, furnishing a more reactive mono-ligated Pd complex. The Kanan group demonstrated that electrostatic interactions between ion pairs can stabilize polar transition states during Au(I) catalyzed reactions.[28,](#page-41-0)[29](#page-41-1) In these examples, counterions with higher charge density in low polarity solvent most effectively stabilize polar transition states to afford selectivity between two distinct products. Examples of electrostatic effects relating to metal-oxygen chemistry will be discussed in the next section.

1.2.5 Conclusions

While the field of molecular electrostatics is relatively young and most studies thus far have only examined the influence of adjacent cations, general conclusions regarding the impact of charged

functional groups are beginning to form. In every example considered, the redox potential is sensitive to the presence of adjacent charges. Specifically, more positive charges result in anodic shifts of a given redox couple in comparison to congeners with neutral ligands.⁹ The influence of electrostatic effects on molecular orbitals remains more unclear. In certain cases the presence of charged moieties uniformly lowers the energy of the orbitals,⁴³ while in others the charges exert a more selective impact on specific orbitals and cause reordering.^{[57](#page-49-0)} In systems with HAT reactivity, the presence of variably charged moieties has been observed to minimally alter the resulting E−H $(E=N, O)$ BDFE.^{[44,](#page-43-2)[56](#page-48-0)} This is despite significant changes in redox potential and p K_a , implying there may be significant differences in the transition state of these complexes, as is suggested in the asynchronous concerted proton-electron transfer (CPET) literature.⁴⁶ Additionally, in multiple examples the incorporation of charged functional groups leads to reactivity that is not well-described by LFER's determined using neutral ligands.^{42,[47,](#page-45-1)[56](#page-48-0)} The incorporation of charged functional groups can therefore serve as an orthogonal approach to modifying reactivity in conjunction with neutral modification. Despite these general trends, there remain many open questions. For example, separating electrostatic contributions from inductive effects is challenging in molecular systems where the charge is incorporated directly into the ligand. In general, properties that can be described by equations such as Coulomb's law or the Debye length have been considered electrostatic in origin.^{40,[53](#page-46-2)} The dependence of an experimental property, such as E_{1/2} or the rate of association, on the ionic strength or dielectric constant of the solvent is also considered to indicate an electrostatic origin.^{[53](#page-46-2)[,56](#page-48-0)} Overall, the actual similarities between externally applied electric fields and intramolecular electric fields generated by charged functional groups remain unclear. While the reactivity of the Diels-Alder reaction in the STM system described above was dependent on the orientation of the externally applied field,³ a similar correlation

between field direction and electronic structure/reactivity has not been demonstrated in the molecular electrostatic literature. Instead, the density of charge has been proposed to be more influential than the orientation of the field. $53,55$ $53,55$ Studies examining the influence of charge positioning are very limited at this point, $47,55$ $47,55$ in part due to the lack of synthetic means to vary the electric field at a given metal center. Regardless of whether charge orientation or density proves more influential, the rational positioning of the charges within the secondary coordination sphere will require the development of new ligand systems and potentially new charged functional groups. Detailed studies investigating the influence of electrostatics on discrete reaction steps will be required to inform the design of these systems, as electrostatic effects will vary between differing mechanistic steps.

1.3 Approaches to Stabilizing High Valent Intermediates

1.3.1 Introduction

High valent metal oxygen multiply bonded species are frequently the active oxidants in challenging oxidation reactions mediated in nature.^{[59,](#page-61-6)[60](#page-61-7)-[62](#page-61-8)} The hydroxylation of alkanes is mediated by Fe^{IV}-oxo porphyrin radical cations in cytochrome p450 enzymes, and Fe^{IV}-oxo intermediates in alpha ketoglutarate dependent enzymes have been observed to mediate hydroxylation as well as chlorination, desaturation, and epoxidation.^{60,[61](#page-51-1)} The formation of high valent Mn^{IV}-oxo intermediates is thought to proceed the formation of an O₂ bond in the oxygen evolving complex in photosystem II, generating oxygen from water during photosynthesis.^{[62](#page-51-1)} Additionally, Cu^{III}–oxo intermediates in Cu monooxygenase enzymes are likewise proposed to mediate C−H hydroxylation reactions[.59,](#page-51-2)[63](#page-61-9) The selective functionalization of C−H bonds is a key

challenge in the synthesis of fine chemicals and has also been investigated in the upcycling of polymers.[64](#page-61-10),[65](#page-61-11) Likewise, the oxygen formation step of water oxidation is considered the more challenging half reaction of water splitting and limits the use of water as a hydrogen source in the preparation of solar fuels.^{[66](#page-61-12)} Given the impact of these reactions, studies on metal-oxo intermediates have been pursued to gain insight on how these reactions are mediated in natural systems and how they could be applied in synthetic systems.

One approach towards the study of metal-oxo intermediates is the synthesis of model complexes. $63,67.69$ $63,67.69$ $63,67.69$ Indeed, numerous examples of metal-oxo complexes have been prepared by designing strongly donating ligands and stabilizing secondary interactions such as hydrogen bonds[.63,](#page-51-3)[67](#page-52-0)[-69](#page-52-1) These studies have elucidated many fundamental aspects of metal-oxo reactivity, such as the typical correlation between the rate of HAT and the thermodynamics of the reaction, as described in the Bell-Evans-Polanyi principle.^{[46](#page-45-0)} However, these model complexes typically display muted C−H activation reactivity in comparison to natural systems[.63,](#page-51-3)[67](#page-52-0)[-69](#page-52-1) One possible reason for the difference is the ligand field, which in natural systems is composed of fairly weak imidazole and carboxylate donors. In contrast, the coordination environments in synthetic systems typically involve strongly donating ligands such as amides or carbenes as well as higher coordination numbers. Additionally, many enzymatic metal-oxo intermediates have alternatively been described with a metal−oxyl resonance structure, wherein the metal is reduced by 1 electron and the oxygen is in the 1⁻ rather than a 2⁻ oxidation state.^{59,[70,](#page-62-2)[71](#page-62-3)} This electronic structure has been proposed to be more reactive than complexes with predominantly metal−oxo resonance structures.⁶⁹ However, the model complexes prepared to date are predominantly metal-oxos and provide minimal insight on the reactivity of putative metal−oxyl species. The incorporation of electric field effects into model complexes may allow for access to metal−oxos with unusual

electronic structures because weaker ligand fields can be used, and the orientation of negative charge near an O ligand may favor O-centered oxidation.

Electric fields in protein active sites have been proposed to alter the spin density on the oxygen in Fe^{IV}-oxo intermediates in cytochrome p450 enzymes.¹⁰ Additionally, the redox potential of metal ions within enzyme active sites are proposed to be modified by the presence of alkali metal cations.[72](#page-62-4) It has recently been established that electric fields within enzyme active sites can likely also alter the donor strength of ligands as a correlation between Hammet parameter and applied potential.[73](#page-62-5) Given these observations, electric fields in enzymes may aid in the formation of high valent intermediates despite the weakly donating ligand fields. This electric field strategy may analogously be useful for preparing high-valent metal-oxo model compounds with more weakly donating and biologically relevant ligand fields. The combination of weaker ligand fields and electrostatic effects may lead to unusual electronic structures and reactivity for the model complexes. This hypothesis is supported by the observed orbital reordering due to electrostatics in a Cu phosphinimine tren ligand and by the unusual HAT reactivity observed in the cases of a Mn^VN and [Cu^{II}–OH] complexes supported by charged ligands.^{44,[56,](#page-48-0)[57](#page-49-0)} Indeed, examples of oxygen-based reactivity in metal systems with charged ligands have begun to be investigated over the past few years. Although preliminary, these studies indicate (1) that the presence of alkali metals near the metal−oxo bond decreases the bond strength, (2) that O-atom transfer reactivity will also be influenced by the charge of the complex, and (3) that high valent oxidation states may be supported by weakly donating anionic ligands.

1.3.2 Examples of Electrostatic Effects on Metal Oxygen Based Reactivity

A recent study from the Borovik group assessed the influence of alkali earth metal cations on the electronic structure of an FeIV−oxo supported by a phosphinic amide substituted tren ligand

Figure 1.6 Metal complexes incorporating charged moieties (depicted in blue) which have been investigated in the context of metal-oxo chemistry.

(Figure 1.6).^{[74](#page-62-6)} The alkali earth metals are proposed to coordinate to two of the phosphine oxides and the FeIV−oxo. Coordination of the M^{2+} alters the extent of electron donation from the oxo ligand to the metal center, resulting in a ~ 18 cm⁻¹ reduction

in the v_{Fe−O} stretch as reported by nuclear resonance vibrational spectroscopy (NRVS). However, the change in the bond distance upon coordination of an alkali earth metal is too small to observe in extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra of the complexes $(\Delta 0.02 \text{ Å})$. The E[xz,yz] orbitals in the alkali earth metal coordinated FeIV−oxo complexes move lower in energy, resulting in a shifted d-d transition in the UV-vis spectra. The shift in the energy of the d-d transition was found to correlate with the acidity of the alkali earth metal cations. Overall, the coordination of an alkali earth metal cation weakens the FeIV−O bond to a similar extent as the weakening observed upon the introduction of H-bonding interactions in the related urea substituted tren ligand. The similarities between H-bonding interactions and alkali earth metal coordination are reminiscent of Boxer's treatment of H-bonding interactions in protein active sites as contributors to the applied electric field.^{[13](#page-35-0)} However, the relative influence of covalent contributions from the coordination of the alkali earth metal to the oxo and the electrostatic effects from the charge of the cation remain convoluted in this system.

The effect of overall charge on the electronic structure and O-atom transfer reactivity of a trispyrazolylmethane (Tpm) and tris-pyrazolyl borate (Tp) supported $Mo^{V1}O₂Cl$ core was investigated by the Li and Kirk groups (Figure 1.6).^{[75](#page-62-7)} The difference in the $v_{\text{Mo-O}}$ stretching frequencies between the two compounds was relatively small at 7 cm⁻¹. Additionally, the Mo^{VIV} redox potential was shifted anodically by 350 mV in the Tpm complex relative to the Tp complex. This shift is consistent with the calculated decrease in the energy of the HOMO in the cationic Tpm complex relative to the neutral Tp complex, resulting in a more electrophilic oxo complex. The lowering of the HOMO results in a 500-fold increase in the rate of O-atom transfer to PPh₃ in the Tpm complex relative to the Tp complex. The smaller HOMO-LUMO gap between the Tpm complex and PPh3 is proposed to lead to enhanced orbital mixing and a computed lowering of the transition state by 36.6 kcal/mol. The experimental Eyring analysis suggests that both complexes proceed through an associative mechanism for the O-atom transfer step. In contrast to the examples discussed in the previous section, the $E_{1/2}$ and K_{OAT} of the Tpm complex correlates well with a previously determined semi-linear relationship between these values in neutral compounds. The computed Löwdin atomic charges suggest that 50% of the difference between the Tpm and Tp complexes is localized at the central C or B atom, while the remaining 50% is delocalized, complicating separation of the inductive and electrostatic contributions to the experimental differences in $E_{1/2}$ and KOAT.

The cobalt mediated activation of O_2 was studied in a novel dianionic ligand prepared by the Maron and Piers groups (Figure 1.6).^{[76](#page-62-8)} The ligand is reminiscent of the pentapyridine PY5 ligand explored previously in metal-oxo chemistry, $77,78$ $77,78$ although the bridgehead carbon atom has been replaced with boron and the heterocycles in the plane are pyrazoles rather than pyridines. The $Co^{II/III}$ couple in the dianionic ligand is shifted cathodically by 90 mV relative to the couple in the PY5 ligand set despite the use of more weakly donating heterocycles. Oxygen activation has been observed previously with Co in related pentadentate heterocyclic ligand environments and is proposed to proceed via the formation of Co^{IV}-oxo↔Co^{III}-oxyl intermediates, without definite assignment of the oxo or oxyl resonance structure.^{[79](#page-63-0)} In the case of the dianionic ligand, the oxygen activation is proposed to proceed through the formation of a Co^V-oxo↔Co^{IV}-oxyl intermediate, consistent with anionic charges supporting the formation of highly oxidized intermediates. While reactivity studies and DFT in this report support the formation of a high valent intermediate, the exact assignment of a Co^{IV}-oxyl resonance structure is only supported by a computational spin density analysis.

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Chapter 2: Isolable Iodosylarene and Iodoxyarene Adducts of Co and Their O-atom Transfer and C−H Activation Reactivity

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2.1 Introduction

Iodosylbenzene (PhIO) and its derivative iodosylarenes have been widely used as O-atom donor reagents in transition metal mediated oxidation reactions including C−H hydroxylation and O-atom transfer to substrates.^{[1](#page-91-0)-4} The mechanisms of these reactions are proposed to proceed via the formation of a metal iodosylarene adduct followed by transfer of an oxygen atom with concomitant oxidation of the metal center to form iodoarene and a high-valent metal-oxo complex as the active oxidant.^{[5](#page-91-2)- [11](#page-91-3)} Concurrent to the development of this mechanistic paradigm have been studies suggesting that hypervalent iodine adducts themselves are likewise capable of performing atom transfer reactions to substrates.^{[12-](#page-91-4)[24](#page-92-0)} This alternative mode of activity has motivated efforts at isolating discrete transition metal iodosylarene adducts and studying their reactivity. While rare, there are some examples of well characterized transition metal iodosylarene adducts, including several that have been structurally characterized.^{[25-](#page-92-1) [31](#page-93-0)} Much of the focus thus far has been on Fe and Mn adducts, as these metals are most frequently featured in oxidation catalysis. More recently, iodosylarenes have been used to generate high-valent Co complexes as well.^{[32-](#page-93-1)34} Iodosylarene adducts have been cited in these studies as intermediates but have not yet been isolated or thoroughly characterized to examine their reactivity.

Herein, we report the first isolable examples of Co iodosyl and iodoxyarene adducts $[Co^{II}Tp^{Ad,Me}(^sPhIO)]^+$ (1), $[Co^{II}Tp^{tBu}(^sPhIO)]^+$ (2), and $[Co^{II}Tp^{tBu}(^sPhIO_2)]^+$ (3) (Tp = hydrotris(pyrazolyl)borate and ^s Ph = 2-(tert-butylsulfonyl)phenyl; Scheme 2.1). Complexes **1**, **2**, and **3** have been crystallographically characterized and detailed kinetic studies reveal a range of reactivity for these three adducts. Complex **1** shows unique behavior that may be consistent with transient oxo formation, but complexes **2** and **3** appear to react as adducts. The observed C−H activation kinetic isotope effect (KIE) is large in all cases, potentially consistent with proton tunnelling transition states.^{[35](#page-93-3)-[38](#page-93-4)} These observations, in addition to controls with redox-innocent Lewis acids, suggest that Lewis acid activation of iodosylarenes leads to H-atom abstraction with large KIEs. While transient oxo formation may occur in complex **1**, the adduct reactivity observed in complexes **2** and **3** indicate that tris-pyrazolyl borate ligands are not sufficiently donating to support high-valent oxidation states despite their anionic charge.

2.2 Results and Discussion

2.2.1 Synthesis of Adduct Complexes

Starting materials and ligands were synthesized according to previously reported procedures with slight modifications in some cases (see Experimental).^{[39-](#page-93-5)[45](#page-94-0)} Treatment of the previously reported NaTp^{Ad,Me} or KTp^{tBu} ligands with Co(MeCN)₆(OTf)₂ in dichloromethane (DCM) yielded complexes $\left[Co^{II}Tp^{Ad,Me}(OTf)\right]$ (4) and $\left[Co^{II}Tp^{tBu}(OTf)\right]$ (5) (OTf = trifluoromethanesulfonate) in 76% and 64% yield as bright blue crystalline solids. The ¹H NMR spectra of these complexes confirm overall *C*3-symmetry in solution with shifted resonances characteristic of paramagnetic species. The 19F NMR spectra of **4** and **5** support the coordination of OTf in solution as

Scheme 2.1 Synthetic routes to generate complexes **1**-**5** starting from the appropriate Tp ligand. A: $Co(MeCN)_6(OTf)_2$, DCM, N₂, r.t., **B**: 1) 1.1 equivalents NaBAr^F₄ 2) 1.1 equivalents ^sPhIO_x, Et₂O, N₂, r.t

demonstrated by a shift of the −CF3 resonance to −8.7 and −30.0 ppm, respectively (the signal from free OTf appears at −78 ppm). Additionally, the EPR spectra of **4** and **5** are consistent with an expected $S = 3/2$ spin state for high-spin Co^{II} centers (Appendix 2.1.4). Both 4 and 5 display similar electrochemistry, with irreversible oxidations at 2 V vs. $[FeCp2]^{0/+}$ (see Appendix 2.1.6).

Synthesis of the cobalt iodosylarene adducts was carried out by treatment of **4** and **5** with 1.1 equivalents of ^sPhIO and NaBArF₄ (BArF₄ = tetrakis(3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)phenyl)borate) in diethyl ether (Et₂O). This procedure resulted in the clean formation of new paramagnetic species that maintain C_3 -symmetry in solution as judged by ¹H NMR. A new set of paramagnetically shifted signals consistent with a bound ^sPhIO ligand are also observed, which suggests the formation of a stable adduct in solution (Appendix 2.1.3). These species were assigned as the cationic iodosylarene adducts **1** and **2** that can be isolated as blue powders in 76% and 83% yield, respectively (Scheme 2.1). Complex 3 was first observed as a by-product in ¹H NMR spectra from the synthesis of 2. The identity of 3 as an ^sPhIO₂ adduct was suspected due to literature reports that upon standing in solution, ^sPhIO will disproportionate into ^sPhI and ^sPhIO₂.^{[41](#page-65-0)} Treatment of 5 with independently prepared ${}^{\text{sp}}$ hIO₂ in the presence of NaBArF₄ in Et₂O led to the isolation of the

targeted ^sPhIO₂ adduct 3 in 67% yield as a light blue powder. Solution ¹H NMR spectra showed that complex **3** retains overall *C*3-symmetry with paramagnetically shifted resonances. The X-band EPR spectra of complexes 1-3 are consistent with $S = 3/2 \text{ Co}^{II}$ centers.

2.2.2 Crystallography

Single crystals of 4 and 5 were grown from concentrated solutions in Et₂O layered with petroleum ether and stored at −35 °C for a few days. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) structures of **4** and **5** confirm coordination of the Tp ligand and OTf counter-ion to the Co center (Appendix 2.3.1). The Co centers of these complexes adopt the expected pseudo-tetrahedral geometry observed for other reported [CoTpX] complexes.[46](#page-94-1)- [51](#page-94-2) One metric to note is the deviation of the B−Co−O angle from nearly linear in **5** (175.59(4)°) to 161.11(5)° in **4**. This distortion is attributed to the steric clashing of the −CF3 group with the adamantyl substituents that is not present for the *t*-butyl substituted Tp ligand.

Figure 2.1 XRD structures and selected bond lengths for complexes **1**, **2**, and **3** (Å). Structures depicted as ellipsoids at 50% probability. Hydrogen atoms (other than B–H), BAr^F₄ counter ions, and solvent molecules omitted for clarity.

Crystals of **1** were grown under the same conditions to those of **4** and **5**, while crystals of **2** were grown from a concentrated solution of Et2O layered with hexamethyldisiloxane and stored at −35 °C for 7 days. The XRD structures of **1** and **2** confirm the expected pseudo-tetrahedral geometry at Co and furthermore confirm coordination of the ^sPhIO ligand in the solid state (Figure 2.1). The average Co–N bond distances are nearly identical to those in **4** and **5**, suggesting the oxidation and spin state of Co is unchanged, which is also corroborated by the aforementioned spectroscopic data. The I–O bond lengths in **1** and **2** are 1.878(6) and 1.891(3) Å. When compared to the I−O distance of 1.848(5) Å for free ^sPhIO there appears to be minimal activation of the iodosylarene by the Co center in these complexes[.39](#page-65-1) The Co−O bond lengths are 1.920(6) and 1.934(3) Å, which are comparable with other Co^{II}–O bonds as well as the OTf starting complexes 4 and 5.^{[52](#page-94-3)} Complex **3** has also been structurally characterized with crystals grown from a layered Et₂O/ petroleum ether solution stored at −35 °C. The average Co–N bond lengths of **3** are nearly identical to those of the starting Co−OTf complex **5** and the I−O bond lengths of 1.814(3) and 1.780(3) Å are also similar to those in the structure of free ${}^{\text{sp}}$ hIO₂ at 1.822(3) and 1.796(2) Å.⁴¹ Isolable iodoxyarene adducts are quite rare, and to our knowledge **3** represents the first structurally characterized example with a transition metal.[30](#page-64-0) While the I−O bond lengths in this series of complexes are all similar to those reported in the free hypervalent iodine reagents, suggestive of minimal activation, the S=O∙∙∙I interactions show more sensitivity to Co coordination. The S=O∙∙∙I distances are in fact shorter than those found in the structures of the free oxidants, suggesting some effect of binding the Lewis acidic Co^{II} center. For 1 and 2 the distances have substantially shortened to $2.481(6)$ and $2.520(3)$ Å compared to 2.707(5) Å for free ${}^{\text{sp}}$ hIO.³⁹ For **3**, an analogous but smaller contraction from 2.693(2) Å to 2.662(3) Å is observed.⁴¹ In the case of 3, there is an unusual close interaction

between a solvent THF molecule and the iodine center which may also speak to a more electron deficient adduct (Figure $A2.41$).³⁰

The structural data for **1**, **2**, and **3** support the formation of well-defined adducts with no substantial change in the Co oxidation state, spin state, or activation of the hypervalent iodine unit. This series of complexes represents an unusual family of isolable, well-characterized hypervalent iodine adducts. These species are generally rare and, as mentioned in the introduction, there have been no examples to date of isolated Co adducts despite the use of iodosylarene reagents in Comediated oxidation reactivity[.32](#page-64-1)[-34](#page-64-2)

2.2.3 Reactivity Studies

The isolability of this series of iodosyl- and iodoxyarene adducts prompted us to investigate their oxidative activity. We were particularly interested in examining the O-atom transfer and C−H activation reactivity of these complexes with a focus on developing an understanding of the mechanism of these transformations. More specifically, we wanted to determine whether high-

Figure 2.2 UV-vis spectral changes during the decay of 1 (black, 2.5 mM) in Et₂O at 23 °C over 24 h. Inset shows plot of the natural log of the change in concentration of **1** (monitored at 995 nm) vs time with linear fit ($R^2 = 0.98$).

valent oxo complexes were generated over the course of these reactions or whether the adducts themselves could mediate oxidative reactivity.

While complexes **1**, **2**, and **3** were stable enough to allow for their isolation, they do slowly decompose in solution at room temperature. Complex **1** decays with a rate constant of $k_{\text{obs}} = 1.4(\pm 0.4) \times$

10[−]⁵ s[−]¹ at room temperature in Et2O (Figure 2.2, Table 2.1). Analysis of the resulting reaction mixture by ¹H NMR spectroscopy indicated a complex array of peaks that were not easily assigned (Figure A2.12). Analysis by ESI-MS shows evidence of incorporation of oxygen into the

ligand backbone suggesting ligand-based oxidation as a mode of decay for complex **1** (Figure A2.27). Attempts to react **1** with external substrates were carried out by addition of either 10 equivalents of thioanisole or up to 100 equivalents of 9,10-dihydroanthracene (DHA). In both cases no increase in the rate of decay was observed by UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure A2.32). Complex 1 does react rapidly with PMe₃ in \sim 120 s to generate what is assigned as an OPMe₃ adduct. The assignment of the phosphine oxide adduct is supported by independent synthesis from OPMe3 (Figures A2.14).

Complexes **2** and **3** were similarly unstable in solution and decayed with markedly slower rate constants than **1**. The decay of **2** was monitored via UV-vis spectroscopy to obtain a rate of decay with k_{obs} = 6.3(\pm 0.8) × 10⁻⁷ s⁻¹ at room temperature in Et₂O. Complex **3** decayed with k_{obs} = $6.3(\pm 0.4) \times 10^{-6}$ s⁻¹ as monitored with ¹H NMR spectroscopy at room temperature in CDCl₃. In addition, the decay profiles of both complexes are much less complicated than that observed for **1**; complex **2** decays to a single paramagnetic product and **3** decays to this same product while also

Substrate	$1^{[b]}$	$2^{[b]}$	$3^{\rm [c]}$
self-decay	14(4)	0.63(8)	6.3(4)
thioanisole	no change	1.12(9)	16(8)
$9,10$ -DHA	no change	1.2(3)	10.3(2)
$9,10$ -DHA KIE ^[d]	>12	14(5)	9(1)

[a] Reported rates are 10⁻⁶ s⁻¹. Reaction conditions: 2.5 mM cobalt complex, 23 °C, 25 mM substrate (250 mM for DHA). [b] Monitored via UV-vis spectroscopy in Et₂O. [c] Monitored via ¹H NMR spectroscopy in CDCl₃.
[d] 1:1 mixture of 125 mM each H₄-DHA and D₄-DHA in DCM.

Table 2.1 Observed reaction rates and KIEs of **1**, **2**, and **3** [a]

producing some amount of **2** (Figures A2.13 and A2.36). Similar to **1**, these species show rapid reactivity with phosphines to generate putative phosphine-oxide adducts (also supported by independent syntheses, Figures A2.15 and A2.16). Unlike **1**, both **2** and **3** show distinct reactivity with other substrates. In the presence of 10 equivalents of thioanisole, the rate of disappearance of **2** or **3** increased by roughly two-fold. In the reactions of **2** and **3** with thioanisole, the adduct of the corresponding oxidized substrate, phenylmethylsulfoxide, was observed by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. This assignment was again confirmed by independent synthesis of the adduct (Figures A2.17 and A2.18). Smaller, concentration dependent rate enhancements were observed for **2** and **3** treated with excess DHA ($k_2 = 2.4 \times 10^{-6}$ and 1.4×10^{-5} M⁻¹ s⁻¹, Figures A2.33, A2.35 and A2.38). In this case, anthracene was detected by GCMS analysis of the reaction mixtures (Tables A2.1 and A2.2).

Control reactions were also performed to assess the relative reactivity of **1** and **2** compared to free ^sPhIO. The complementary study to compare 3 with ^sPhIO₂ was hindered by the extremely poor solubility of ^sPhIO₂ in organic solvents. The rate of decay of ^sPhIO monitored via ¹H NMR spectroscopy with either 50 equivalents of DHA or 10 equivalents of thioanisole gave rates of $1.7(\pm 0.2) \times 10^{-5}$ and $4.3(\pm 0.1) \times 10^{-4}$ s⁻¹, respectively (Figure A2.39). The reaction of ^sPhIO with 10 equivalents of PPh3 was too rapid to monitor by this method; it was complete within 3 minutes of mixing. These data show that the rate of decay of ^sPhIO with thioanisole is at least an order of magnitude faster than for **1** and **2** under the same conditions and the rate with DHA is on the same order of magnitude as **1** and an order of magnitude faster than for **2** under similar conditions.

It has been previously shown for metal–porphyrin complexes that an equilibrium exists between metal iodosylarene adducts and the corresponding metal–oxo complexes.[13,](#page-64-3)[17](#page-64-4) This equilibrium can be shifted towards the metal iodosylarene adduct by addition of a sufficient excess of the iodoarene. In order to test whether the Co complexes presented here may reversibly form highvalent Co–oxo species, we tested the effect of added iodoarene on reaction rates. For complex **1**,
an excess of ^sPhI (10 equivalents) was added and the self-decay monitored. Under these conditions, no change of the rate of self-decay was observed (Figure A2.32). The reactions of **2** and **3** with thioanisole or DHA were also investigated with the addition of excess iodoarene. In both cases, no inhibition was observed with additional ^sPhI. However, in the case of 2, increased rates were observed and for **3**, a complex reaction occurred which produced unknown paramagnetic products in addition to the formation of **2** (Figures A2.34 and A2.19). While we do not have a concrete explanation for these observations, these experiments still oppose a simple reversible oxo formation pathway (see below).

Given a lack of reactivity studies that have been performed with discrete metal iodosyl- and iodoxyarene adducts, we sought to examine more carefully their C−H activation reactivity. As a mechanistic probe of C−H activation, KIEs for the reaction of **1**–**3** with DHA were measured. Due to the sluggish rates of reaction, we turned to a method reported in the literature for estimating KIE values using GCMS data from the relative ratio of the mass peaks of the H2- and D2-anthracene produced from the competition reaction of the oxidant with a 1 : 1 mixture of H₄- and D₄-DHA.^{[53](#page-73-0)} In these experiments, relatively large KIEs were observed for complexes **1**, **2**, and **3** (Table 2.1).

Figure 2.3 Plots of observed rate constants for the reaction of **2** (left) and **3** (right) with varying concentrations of DHA to determine second order rate constants, k_2

With this method, it was difficult to precisely determine the KIE value for **1** because there was no increase in the amount of D2-anthracene detected and instead a value is estimated with a lower bound of 12 using the variability in the instrument response for D_2 -anthracene in the control mixture (see Experimental and Table A2.2). The KIE values for **2** and **3** could be determined more precisely at 14 and 9, respectively. The KIE for free ^sPhIO was also determined using this method and was found to have a lower bound of 3, which is consistent with the value reported for PhIO.^{[53](#page-94-0)} Additionally, controls were performed involving redox-innocent, diamagnetic Lewis acids to determine whether the higher KIE values for complexes **1**–**3** could be due to the influence of the paramagnetic Co ion. Oxidation reactions under the conditions described using ^{sp}hIO in the presence of either Sc(OTf)₃ or NaBAr^F₄ display a high selectivity for H₄-DHA to give KIE values of >66 and >11, respectively. These results suggest that a paramagnetic Lewis acid is not essential for the observation of large KIE values under these conditions. Furthermore, all of the observed KIEs are larger than that measured for free ^s PhIO, supporting the agency of metal-based intermediates in the observed reactivity as opposed to simple dissociation of s PhIO.

As a final set of experiments to explore the reactivity of the Co iodosyl- and iodoxyarene complexes, we examined the effect of a Lewis acid on their stability and reactivity. Recently, there have been several reports suggesting that in the oxidation of a Co complex with ^{sp}hIO, strong Lewis acids such as Sc^{3+} can stabilize high valent, [Co-O–Sc]^{5+} moieties.^{33[,34](#page-64-1)} However, there has been some debate about the nature of these species, 54 prompting us to investigate the reactivity of our discrete adducts with Lewis acids. When complexes **2** and **3** were treated with excess Sc(OTf)3, the only observed reaction was slow conversion to complex **5**, presumably from the coordination of OTf. When complex **1** was treated with excess Sc(OTf)3 under the same conditions a mixture of products was obtained. We have been unable to purify a single species from this mixture, but we have crystallographically characterized a new asymmetric Co^H complex which appears to be the major product by ¹ H NMR analysis (**6**, Figure A2.20). Complex **6** shows a single Co center coordinated to two pyrazole arms from the Tp ligand, a free Ad,Me-pyrazole, and OTf with an outer sphere BAr^F4 ion. Notably, the mass spectrum of this solution did not show evidence of ligand oxidation that is typically observed in the self-decay of **1** (Figure A2.30). While there was no incorporation of Sc^{3+} or oxygen into the complex and we do not know the mechanism leading to ligand degradation, this new reaction product demonstrates an alternative pathway is operative for 1 when Sc^{3+} ions are added. These data do not allow us to definitively support or exclude the formation of transient, high-valent $[Co-O-Sc]^{5+}$ species.

2.2.4 Discussion of Possible Mechanism

The key question that remains is the mode of oxidative activity for these complexes. As mentioned

in the introduction, the most common paradigm in the literature is a pathway involving adduct decomposition to form a high-valent oxo complex. In our case, we have considered three potential reaction pathways summarized in Fig. 2.4: (A) irreversible, ratedetermining I−O bond scission to form a reactive, transient high-valent Co−oxo complex, (B) reversible I−O bond scission to form a transient Co−oxo complex or (C) direct oxidation of substrate by the Co iodosyl- or iodoxyarene adducts. We have ruled out a

Figure 2.4 Potential reaction pathways for Co-
iodosyl- and iodoxyarene adducts 1-3 involving
A) irreversible Co-oxo formation, B) reversible
Co-oxo formation, or C) direct substrate
oxidation. Where L = Tp ligand, S = substrate molecule, and $SO = 0$ oxidized substrate molecule.

mechanism involving dissociation of the hypervalent iodine oxidants on the basis of the observed differences in rates of reactions and KIEs of free ^sPhIO and the Co adducts (see Appendix 2.2).

The data for complex **1** are consistent with a rate-determining, irreversible Co−oxo forming step (Fig. 2.4, pathway A). To be clear, we have no spectroscopic evidence for a Co−oxo species, but its potential involvement is proposed based on the observed reactivity and cannot be ruled out. The rate of decay of complex 1 was not inhibited by addition of excess ^sPhI, which argues against any equilibrium between **1** and a Co−oxo species as shown in pathway B of Fig. 2.4. If **1** were to follow pathway C, it is expected that the rate of decay would be dependent on substrate concentration. Instead, the rate of decay of **1** was not accelerated by external substrates, with the exception of phosphines. Furthermore, the decay of **1** results in a complicated mixture of paramagnetic products and some degree of ligand oxidation in the mixture can be inferred from the ESI-MS data. Finally, the large calculated KIE for **1** is comparable to other reported metal−oxo complexes.[55-](#page-94-2)[57](#page-95-0) These data taken together are consistent with the involvement of a Co−oxo intermediate in the case of **1**, but are certainly not conclusive on their own. At minimum the data support a distinct reactivity pathway for **1** compared with complexes **2** and **3**.

For **2**, there is an observed substrate dependence on the rate of decay, suggesting I−O bond scission is not rate-limiting; this observation argues against pathway A. Furthermore, the reactivity of 2 is not inhibited by the addition of excess ^sPhI, which argues against a reversible oxo formation mechanism as would be observed in pathway B. These combined data support the direct agency of adduct **2** in the observed oxidative activity rather than decomposition into a Co−oxo complex (Fig. 2.4, pathway C). The observed large KIE for **2** also suggests that this adduct is directly involved in reactivity, as opposed to a dissociative pathway where free ^sPhIO acts as the active

oxidant. Given that the electrochemistry for both the Ad and the *^t* Bu systems shows similar electronic properties in both cases, the observed differences in reactivity between **1** and **2** are likely due to the differing steric profiles of these two systems.

The self-decay and observed substrate reactivity for **3** are similar to that of **2**, suggesting that a related mechanism may be operative. However, because formation of **2** is frequently observed in the reactivity of **3**, it is difficult to deconvolute relative contributions from these two species in certain experiments such as the KIE analysis and the inhibition of reactivity by added ^{sp}hI. These factors make it difficult to distinguish between pathways B and C, but the observed rate dependence on substrate concentration for **3** suggests that pathway A can be excluded.

2.3 Conclusions

Complexes **1** and **2** represent the first examples of isolable Co iodosylarene complexes and **3** represents the only example of a transition metal iodoxyarene complex to be thoroughly characterized. The studies herein demonstrate that these adducts display O-atom transfer reactivity and C−H bond activation with appropriate substrates. While the data are consistent with complex **1** reacting *via* transient oxo formation, complexes **2** and **3** appear to react directly as adducts. This series of complexes represents an unusual family of transition metal hypervalent iodine adducts and the detailed reactivity studies reported here further support the diverse reactivity that these species can exhibit. Notably, it must be underscored that these adduct species - which are frequently invoked only as intermediates - can be competent oxidants themselves in oxidative reactions. Although complex **1** may proceed through an oxo intermediate, our inability to isolate an oxo intermediate combined with the adduct reactivity observed with complexes **2** and **3** suggest that additional optimization of the ligand scaffold is necessary to stabilize high valent metals with weakly donating ligands. These observations motivated further studies into how charged functional groups alter ligand donor strength to inform the design of weakly donating ligands that can support metal oxo species.

2.4 Experimental

2.4.1 Materials and Instrumentation

All manipulations were carried out under a dry N_2 atmosphere using either standard Schlenk technique or in an mBraun Unilab Pro glove box. All chemicals were obtained from commercial sources and used as received unless otherwise stated. Solvents were dried on a solvent purification system from Pure Process Technologies before storing over 4Å molecular sieves under N2. Tetrahydrofuran (THF) was stirred over NaK alloy and passed through a column of activated alumina prior to storing over 4\AA sieves under N₂. Iodosylbenzene, Na[Tp^{Ad,Me}], NaBAr^F4, Co(MeCN)₆OTf₂, and d₄-DHA were prepared following literature procedures.^{[39,](#page-65-0)[40,](#page-65-1)42-44} Synthesis of K[Tp^{tBu}] followed a literature procedure for the synthesis of Li[Tp^{tBu}] substituting KBH₄ for LiBH₄, all other synthetic procedures were followed as reported.^{[45](#page-65-2)}

The iodoxyarene, ^sPhIO₂, was prepared by allowing a concentrated solution of ^sPhIO (300 mg, 0.88 mmol) in 10 mL of DCM to stir until the yellow color had dissipated, approximately three days. The resulting white precipitate was collected by filtration and washed several times with cold DCM and Et₂O before drying under vacuum to yield a white powder (212 mg, 67%). The spectroscopic features of this material matched a previous literature report.^{[41](#page-65-2)}

UV-vis spectra were recorded on either a Thermo Scientific Evolution 300 spectrometer with the VISIONpro software suite or a Cary 5000 UV/Vis/IR UMA spectrophotometer located in the UChicago MRSEC Materials Preparation and Measurement Laboratory. IR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Tensor II spectrometer with the OPUS software suite. All IR samples were prepared as KBr pellets in a homemade press. EPR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Elexsys E500 spectrometer with an Oxford ESR 900 X-band cryostat and a Bruker Cold-Edge Stinger. NMR spectra for ¹H, ¹⁹F{¹H}, and ³¹P{¹H} were recorded on either Bruker DRX-400 or AVANCE-500 spectrometers. Integrations of paramagnetic species are relative only to paramagnetic peaks, therefore in reported spectra below, resonances from diamagnetic protons, such as BAr^F4 counter ions, were not given integral values. Combustion analysis was performed by Midwest Microlab. Mass spectra were recorded on an Agilent 6130 ESI LC-MS by direct injection. Organic products identified by GC-MS using an Agilent 7890B GC equipped with an Agilent HP-5MS column coupled to an Agilent 5977A EI-MS. Isotope patterns compared to the NIST library to confirm assignments.

2.4.2 Complex Synthesis and Characterization

 $[CoTp^{Ad,Me}(^sPhIO)][Bar^F4]$ (1). To a solution of 4 (50 mg, 0.058 mmol) in 6 mL of Et₂O was added NaBA r^F 4 (54 mg, 0.061 mmol) followed by ^sPhIO (21 mg, 0.060 mmol). This mixture was allowed to stir for \sim 15 min before filtering through Celite. The resulting blue solution was then layered under petroleum ether in several portions before placing in a −35 °C freezer for several days to afford blue clumps of crystalline material (78 mg, 76%). Single crystals were grown by slow diffusion of petroleum ether into a concentrated solution in DCM at −35 °C over several days. UV-vis, nm in Et₂O 25 °C (ε, M⁻¹cm⁻¹): 572 (330), 634 (610), 652 (580), and 995 (120). IR (cm-1): 2909 (s), 2855 (m), 2564 (m, *ν*B-H), 1875 (w), 1835 (w), 1781 (w), 1656 (m), 1544 (s), 1479

(m), 1452 (m), 1425 (m), 1355 (m), 1280 (m), 1182 (m), 1130 (m), 939 (m), 887 (m), 840 (m), 792 (m), 748 (m), 715 (w), 680 (m), 667 (m), 642 (m). ¹ H NMR (CDCl3, 400 MHz): δ 78.00 (s, 3H), 18.86 (d, 1H), 18.37 (s, 9H), 14.61 (s, 1H), 10.06 (s, 1H), 7.75 (s, BAr^F4), 7.57 (s, BAr^F4), 6.09 (br, 18H), 2.77 (s, 9H), 2.44 (s, 9H), 1.51 (s, 9H), 0.80 (s, 9H). 19F NMR (CDCl3, 470 MHz): δ −62.6. Anal. Calc. for C84H83N6O3SB2F24ICo: C 52.55, H 4.36, N 4.38, Found: C 52.37, H 4.43, N 4.08.

 $[CoTp^{tBu}(^sPhIO)][Bar^F4]$ (2). To a solution of 5 (40 mg, 0.068 mmol) in 6 mL of Et₂O was added NaBAr^F4 (66.2 mg, 0.075 mmol) and ^sPhIO (25.4 mg, 0.075 mmol). After 20 minutes of stirring the blue solution was filtered through Celite and dried under vacuum. The resulting blue solid was redissolved in DCM before filtering through Celite to remove insoluble material and dried under vacuum once more. Finally, the blue residue was washed three times with petroleum ether and dried under vacuum to yield a blue powder (93 mg, 83%) which could be used without further purification. Single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction were grown from a concentrated Et2O solution layered with hexamethyldisyloxane and stored at −35 °C for 7 days. UV-vis, nm in Et2O, 25 °C (ε, M⁻¹cm⁻¹): 576 (350), 634 (700), 652 (680), 946 (96). IR (cm⁻¹): 3156 (m), 2970 (s), 2876 (w), 2498 (w, *ν*B-H), 1660 (w), 1611 (m), 1503 (m), 1398 (m), 1355 (s), 1279 (s), 1127 (s), 932 (m), 887 (m), 714 (m). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 500 MHz): δ 77.53 (s, 3H), 31.03 (s, 3H), 16.61 (s, 1H), 7.89 (br, 1H), 7.67 (s, BAr^F4), 7.47 (s, BAr^F4), 6.50 (br, 1H), 6.00 (br, 27H), 0.77 (s, 9H), −6.45 (br, 1H), -10.01 (br, 1H). ¹⁹F NMR (CDCl₃, 470 MHz): δ -62.6. Anal. Calc. for C63H59B2CoF24IN6O3S: C 46.04, H 3.62, N 5.11. Found: C 46.06, H 3.74, N 4.93.

 $[CoTp^{tBu}(^sPhIO₂)][Bar^F₄]$ (3). To a solution of 5 (73 mg, 0.12 mmol) in 6 mL of Et₂O was added NaBA r^F 4 (116 mg, 0.13 mmol) and ^sPhIO₂ (47 mg, 0.13 mmol). After 20 minutes of stirring, the blue solution was filtered through Celite and dried under vacuum. The resulting blue residue was

redissolved in minimal DCM and filtered once more through Celite to remove insoluble material before drying under vacuum to yield a blue powder (138 mg, 67%) which could be used without further purification. Single crystals of **3** were grown from a concentrated solution of diethyl ether layered beneath petroleum ether at −35 °C over several days. UV-vis, nm in Et2O, 25 °C (*ε*, M⁻¹cm⁻¹): 580 (sh, 530), 635 (820), 950 (140). IR data (cm⁻¹): 3159 (m), 2972 (m), 2500 (w, *v*_{B-} H), 1661 (w), 1612 (w), 1504 (m), 1399 (m), 1355 (s), 1279 (s), 1127 (s), 1029 (m), 713 (m). ¹H NMR (CDCl3, 500 MHz): δ 82.85 (s, 3H), 20.38 (s, 3H) 10.89 (s, 1H), 9.81 (br, 27H), 7.48 (s, BAr^F4), 7.31 (s, BAr^F4), 6.41 (s, 1H), 3.74 (s, 1H), -5.11 (s, 1H), -23.69 (br, 1H). ¹⁹F NMR (CDCl3, 470 MHz): δ −62.6. Anal. Calc. for C63H59B2CoF24IN6O4S C 45.59, H 3.58, N 5.06, Found: C 45.57, H 3.59, N 5.04.

 $[CoTp^{Ad,Me}(OTf)]$ (4). To a solution of $[NaTp^{Ad,Me}](500$ mg, 0.73 mmol) in 20 mL of DCM was added $Co(MeCN)_{6}(OTf)_{2}$ (445 mg, 0.74 mmol). The mixture was allowed to stir for 24 h before filtering through a fine fritted glass funnel to remove insoluble materials and yield a deep blue solution. The volatiles were removed *in vacuo* and the resulting blue residue was taken up in boiling petroleum ether with minimal THF $(-5 \text{ mL}, 9.1 \text{ ratio of petroleum ether to THF})$ before filtering hot through Celite. The resulting solution was cooled to room temperature whereupon dark blue crystals began to form. After cooling, crystallization was driven to near completion by storing in a −35 °C freezer overnight. The supernatant was then decanted away from the crop of blue crystals which were rinsed with cold petroleum ether before drying *in vacuo* to obtain dark blue crystalline material (480 mg, 76%). Single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction were grown from slow diffusion of petroleum ether into a concentrated THF solution at −35 °C over the course of several days. UV-vis, nm in DCM 25 °C (*ε*, M-1cm-1): 512 (sh, 90), 546 (260), 556 (270), 620 (420), 630 (400), and 1030 (70). IR (cm-1): 2910 (s), 2850 (m), 2564 (m, *ν*B-H), 1653 (m), 1546 (s),

1427 (m), 1342 (m), 1230 (m), 1200 (m), 1098 (m), 1067 (m), 1014 (m), 862 (m), 791 (m), 750 (m), 682 (m), 631 (m). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz): δ 79.0 (3H), 15.9 (9H), 8.2 (18H), 2.9 (9H), 2.2 (9H), 0.0 (9H), −4.5 (1H). 19F NMR (CDCl3, 470 MHz): δ −7.4. Anal. Calc. for C43H58N6O3F3BSCo: C 59.65, H 6.75, N 9.71, Found: C 59.92, H 6.74, N 9.03. Anal. Calc. for C₄₇H₆₆N₆O₄F₃BSCo (one additional molecule of THF included): C 60.19, H 7.09, N 8.96, Found: C 59.90, H 6.77, N 8.58. Elemental analysis for **4** is slightly but consistently off from the predicted value for the molecular formula. We believe that this variability may be due to solvent inclusion from crystallization. As can be seen, the experimental values match well with those predicted for a mono-THF solvate.

 $[CoTp^{tBu}$ OTf] (5). To a solution of $K[Tp^{tBu}]$ (400 mg, 0.95 mmol) in 18 mL DCM was added Co(MeCN)6OTf2 (574 mg, 0.95 mmol). After stirring for 24 hours, the reaction was filtered through a medium fritted glass funnel and the resulting blue filtrate was dried under vacuum. The residue was dissolved in boiling petroleum ether and THF mixture and filtered hot before being cooled to room temperature and stored at −35 °C for one day to yield microcrystalline product (357 mg, 64%). Single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction were grown from a concentrated Et₂O solution layered with petroleum ether and stored at −35 °C for two days. UV-vis, nm in Et2O 25 ^oC (ε, M⁻¹cm⁻¹): 574 (330), 616 (580), 956 (70). IR (cm⁻¹): 3137 (m), 2967 (s), 2869 (m), 2516 (w, *ν*B-H), 1636 (w), 1503 (s), 1396 (s), 1258 (s), 1194 (s), 1170 (m), 1058 (m), 1033 (m), 788 (m), 735 (m), 639 (m). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 500 MHz): δ 79.91 (s, 3H), 23.64 (s, 3H), 9.79 (br, 27H), −21.07 (br, 1H). ¹⁹F NMR (CDCl₃, 470 MHz): δ –30.0 (s). Anal. Calc. for C₂₂H₃₄BCoF₃N₆O₃S: C 44.84, H 5.82, N 14.26. Found: C 44.79, H 5.73, N 14.27.

 $[{\bf CoTp}^{\rm Ad,Me} {\bf H(pyr}^{\rm Ad,Me}) {\bf OTf}][{\bf BAr}^{\rm F}$ ₄ $]$ (6). To a solution of 1 (25 mg, 0.013 mmol) in 3 mL of Et2O was added ScOTf₃ (64 mg, 0.13 mmol). The suspension was stirred overnight during which time

a purple solution formed which was filtered through Celite and layered under petroleum ether at −35 °C. Single crystals formed from this solution over the course of several days which were suitable for X-ray diffraction studies (17 mg). Due to the complicated ¹H NMR spectrum, peaks were not assigned and relative integrations were reported only for well isolated peaks. UV-vis, nm, 25 °C in Et₂O: 542, 596, ~1090. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz): δ 48.11 (s, 2H), 38.69 (s, 1H), 36.91 (s, 6H), 12.53 (d, 2H), 8.65 (s, 6H), 7.90 (s, BAr^F 4), 7.61 (s, BAr^F 4), 6.58 (d, 9H), 6.17 (s, 1H), 5.07, 4.77, 4.58, 2.38 (s, 3H), 2.09 (s), 1.89 (s), 0.22 (s), −0.43 (s br), −0.46 (s), −2.89 (s, 6H), -9.52 (br), -11.67 (br).

2.4.3 Kinetic Experiments

Data for rate determination were collected in triplicate unless otherwise noted. In a typical experiment, a solution of Co complex was prepared in the appropriate solvent (Et2O, DCM, or CDCl3). Substrates were then either added as solids, liquids, or concentrated solutions in the same solvent to the Co complex solution to yield a final Co concentration of 2.5 mM. Reaction mixtures were then transferred to either air-free cuvettes fitted with Teflon plugs to be monitored by UVvis spectroscopy or to J. Young NMR tubes to be monitored by ${}^{1}H$ NMR spectroscopy over the course of 24-36 hours. UV-vis spectral data were analyzed by plotting the natural log of the absorbance at a given wavelength at time $t(A_t)$ divided by initial absorbance (A_0) vs time in seconds to give the observed rate *kobs* as the slope of the linear fit of the data. Experiments monitored by ¹H NMR spectroscopy were processed and analyzed using the MestReNova software package v 12.0.0-20080 by plotting the integral graph of a given resonance. The data were plotted as the natural log of the integration at time $t(A_t)$ divided by initial integration (A_0) vs time in seconds to yield the observed rate *kobs* as the slope of the linear fit of the data. Plotting the *kobs* vs

concentration of DHA yielded second order rate constants *k2* as the slope of the linear fit of the data.

Kinetic isotope effects (KIEs) were determined using GC-MS data. In a typical experiment, a solution of Co complex (2.5 mM) was prepared using a mixture of 50 equiv. each of H4-DHA and D4-DHA in a 1:1 molar ratio (for a total of 100 equiv. of DHA) dissolved in DCM. The solutions were allowed to stand for 62 hours before being filtered through a column of silica and then subjected to GC-MS analysis. The amount of anthracene present was calculated using a standard calibration curve. Using the relative ratios of the peak intensity at 178.1 and 180.1 m/z for H_2 anthracene and D2-anthracene, respectively, the concentrations of proteo- and deutero-anthracene were calculated for the starting 1:1 mixture and reaction solutions. After subtracting the quantity of anthracene and d2-anthracene present in the original mixture from the amount detected in the reaction solutions, the amount of each produced over the course of the reaction could be calculated. The ratio of H₂-anthracene to D₂-anthracene formed during the reaction gave the KIE value. In the case of 1, ^sPhIO, ^sPhIO with Sc^{3+} , and ^sPhIO with Na^{+} , the amount of D₂-anthracene produced gave unreasonable values within the error of the measurement. Instead of using the raw data, the standard deviation of the 1:1 mix was used to as a representative amount of D_2 -anthracene that may have been produced below a reasonable detection limit. This maximum amount of potential D2-anthracene provided estimates for the lower bounds of the KIE in these cases. The raw data is provided in Tables A2.1 and A2.3, and the substituted data is provided in Tables A2.2 and A2.4.

2.4.4 X-Ray Crystallography

The diffraction data for **3** were measured at 100 K on a Bruker D8 fixed-chi with PILATUS1M (CdTe) pixel array detector (synchrotron radiation, $\lambda = 0.41328$ Å (30 KeV)) at the Chem-MatCARS 15-ID-B beamline at the Advanced Photon Source (Argonne National Laboratory). The

diffraction data for **1**, **2**, **4**, **5**, and **6** were measured at 100 K on a Bruker D8 VENTURE diffractometer equipped with a microfocus Mo-target X-ray tube $(\lambda = 0.71073 \text{ Å})$ and PHOTON 100 CMOS detector. Data reduction and integration were performed with the Bruker APEX3 software package (Bruker AXS, version 2017.3-0, 2018). Data were scaled and corrected for absorption effects using the multi-scan procedure as implemented in SADABS (Bruker AXS, version 2014/5).^{[58](#page-95-1)} The structures was solved by SHELXT (Version 2014/5)^{[59](#page-95-2)} and refined by a full-matrix least-squares procedure using OLEX2 (XL refinement program version 2018/1).^{[60,](#page-95-3)[61](#page-95-4)}

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Chapter 3: Electrostatic vs. Inductive Effects in Phosphine Ligand Donor Properties and Reactivity

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3.1 Introduction

Spectroscopic and computational studies have cited oriented electric fields in active sites as key contributors to enzymatic reactivity.^{[1-](#page-140-0)7} Enzymes maintain and orient electric fields using polar and charged functional groups in the protein scaffold around the active site, a strategy that is appealing for synthetic molecular systems but difficult to mimic.^{[8](#page-140-2)-[12](#page-140-3)} Multiple approaches have been proposed for incorporating similar electric fields into systems that lack an enzymatic superstructure. Electric fields can be directly applied to synthetic compounds through attachment to electrode surfaces or STM tips and these approaches have been shown to increase catalytic rates.^{[13-](#page-140-4)[22](#page-141-0)} Another approach is to rationally append charged functional groups onto molecular scaffolds to offer control over the orientation and magnitude of electrostatic effects. Indeed, there has been enormous interest in modeling or leveraging electrostatic interactions in organic and inorganic molecules.^{[23-](#page-141-1)[46](#page-143-0)} Computations predict that electrostatic effects can have a large impact on reactivity and catalysis.[47-](#page-143-1) [61](#page-144-0)

In particular, we are interested in designing weakly donating ligands in which pendant anionic charges sufficiently alter the donor strength and redox potential of the ligand and

resulting metal complex so that high valent metal-oxo species can be isolated and studied. A detailed understanding of the relative magnitudes of inductive and electrostatic charged substituent effects would be valuable in rationally tuning molecular reactivity through ligand design. In this context, *inductive* represents through bond polarization of the molecule, similar to effects observed with electron donating or withdrawing groups, while *electrostatic* indicates through space polarization of a bond consistent with Coulomb's law. Experimentally parsing out the relative inductive and electrostatic contributions to reactivity and electronic structure from charged functional groups is challenging even in simple systems. A prime example of this is in classic Hammett literature where inductive through-bond and electrostatic through-space influences from substituents were predominantly treated as one lump effect, sometimes referred to as σ_i .^{[62](#page-145-0)} However, in a subset of this literature, there has been considerable debate on whether electrostatics or through-bond electron density factors are dominant in σ_i . Hammett originally considered the influence of substituents to be entirely electrostatic in nature, a view supported by Ri, Eyring, and Westheimer.^{[63,](#page-145-1)[64](#page-145-2)} Conversely, Jaffe considered substituent effects primarily through electron density, foreshadowing modern computational analyses.^{[65](#page-145-3),66} The efficacy of both methods in rationalizing reactivity trends supports that both electrostatic and inductive interactions are active, and methods to distinguish between them are still being pursued to this day.^{[67](#page-145-5)-[69](#page-145-6)} A more thorough understanding of the inductive and electrostatic factors influencing the electronic structure and reactivity of distally charged ligands and complexes would be instructive, particularly as leveraging through-space interactions can serve as a strategy to break free-energy relationships.^{[70-](#page-145-7)[76](#page-146-0)}

Phosphines are ideal scaffolds for quantifying the influence of electrostatics as these ligands feature prominently in catalysis and have well defined parameters for rationalizing reactivity trends, such as the Tolman Electronic Parameter (TEP) and cone angle.^{[77](#page-146-1)} Indeed, cationic and anionic moieties have previously been incorporated into phosphines, frequently leading to distinct properties or reactivity in comparison to neutral analogues.^{[78](#page-146-2)-} ^{[83](#page-146-3)} Phosphine borate ligands specifically have been prepared through the incorporation of triaryl- and trifluoroborate and carborane functional groups, and have shown enhanced reactivity in polymerization, ^{[84](#page-146-4)-[93](#page-147-0)} cross coupling, ^{[94-](#page-147-1)[96](#page-147-2)} and hydrofunctionalization^{[97,](#page-147-3)[98](#page-147-4)} reactions. These anionic phosphines are uniformly considered to be stronger donors than their neutral isostructural analogues. However, the origin of this increase (electrostatic or inductive) has remained elusive, and has largely been considered inductive by default.^{68,[69,](#page-91-1)[94-](#page-92-0)[96,](#page-92-1)[98-](#page-92-2)[101](#page-148-0)} The ambiguity regarding through space effects of covalently bound distal anions limits the rational design of ligand scaffolds that leverage electric fields to enhance reactivity. For instance, a recent computational study predicts accelerated oxidative addition (OA) reactivity at a PMe3 supported Pd complex in the presence of either an externally applied electric field or a correctly positioned chloride ion.⁵³ This study suggests that similar effects may be replicated using distally charged anionic phosphines if a suitably thorough understanding of electrostatic effects in covalently bound anions can be obtained.

Herein we report a method to assign the electrostatic and inductive contributions of anionic functional groups to phosphine donor strength using the solvent dependence of phosphorus selenium coupling values (J_{P-Se}) . This method is initially developed using the novel phosphine PPh₂CH₂BF₃⁻ (1) (Scheme 3.1). The R-BF₃⁻ functional group is ideal for

this analysis as it provides a more compact charge in comparison to commonly used aryl borates.⁹⁶ Additionally, trifluoroborate groups are

Scheme 3.1 Synthesis of K1 and reactions to form reatively inert in comparison to aryl borates, which can [PPh4][**1**Se], **2**, and the proposed product of C−F oxidative addition by a Ni complex featuring **1**.

engage in aryl-group transfer decomposition pathways⁸⁷ and intramolecular C−H oxidative addition reactivity.⁹⁹ The methylene linker to the phosphine precludes convoluting resonance influences that may be present in aryl linkers. We report the synthesis of the potassium salt of this phosphine, K1, and assess the electrostatic impact of the R-BF₃⁻ moiety via both the solvent dependent NMR coupling constants of its phosphine selenide SePPh₂CH₂BF₃ (**1**Se) and its complexation to Rh carbonyls to give [PPh4][Rh(acac)(CO)(PPh2(CH2BF3))] (**2**). The possibility of competing contributions to *J*P-Se from ion pairing is excluded through controls with two different countercations, [PPh4][**1**Se] and [TEA][**1**Se]. The solvent dependence of [PPh4][**1**Se] shows a 1/4π*ε* dependence, consistent with Coulomb's law, and fits suggest that up to 80% of the increase in donor strength relative to SePPh2Et is attributable to electrostatic effects, a conclusion which we replicate using calculations. This study is then extended to an additional anionic phosphine selenide with a longer and more rigid aryl linker, SePPh₂(2-BF₃Ph)[−] (3^{Se}),^{90,91}

and the 1/4π*ε* fit similarly suggests that up to 70% of the increase in donor strength relative to PPh3 results from electrostatic contributions.

Finally, an order of magnitude acceleration in the OA of aryl fluorides mediated by K**1** and Ni(COD)2 is observed relative to neutral phosphines of comparable donor strengths, PEt₃ and PCy₃. This finding suggests a unique impact of electrostatic effects beyond that expected from increased donor strength. This accelerated reactivity is applied to the catalytic defluoroborylation of fluoroarenes, with improved reactivity observed with comparatively unactivated substrates. In summary, this work illustrates how electrostatic interactions from charged functional groups are a substantial contributor to phosphine donor strength in common organic solvents and that these electrostatic effects can be leveraged for increased reactivity and catalysis.

3.2 Results and Discussion

3.2.1 Synthesis and Characterization of PPh2CH2BF3K (K**1**)

Synthesis of the phosphine proceeds readily via deprotonation of Ph2PH with KHMDS (KHMDS = potassium hexamethyldisilazide), followed by dropwise addition to a stirring THF solution of potassium iodomethyltrifluoroborate, and yields K**1** as a white powder following workup (Scheme 3.1). We note that a related zwitterionic triphenyl phosphonium methyl trifluoroborate has been previously synthesized.^{[102](#page-148-1)-[104](#page-148-2)} The ¹H NMR of K1 shows the expected aromatic signals for the phenyl groups, and a doublet of quartets at 0.8 ppm from coupling of the CH2 linker to phosphorus, boron, and fluorine (Figure A3.1). The ${}^{31}P{^1H}$ NMR spectrum shows a quartet at -15 ppm due to fluorine coupling with an identical chemical shift to that observed for PPh2Et (Figure A3.2). This observation is consistent with previous reports that charged phosphines have similar shifts as

their neutral analogues.^{90,91,101} Analysis by ¹⁹ $F{^1H}$ and ¹¹B 1H NMR indicates the expected shifts and coupling for a $R-BF_3$ ⁻ group, supporting the presence of this anionic unit (Figures A3.3 and A3.5).^{[105](#page-148-3)} Compound K1 was structurally characterized via single-crystal X-ray diffraction **Figure 3.1** SXRD structures of the anions of K**1**, **2**, [PPh4][**1Se**], and [PPh4][**3Se**] with ellipsoids at 50% and H-atoms and counterions omitted for clarity. C is shown in grey, O in red, F in bright green, and other atom types are labelled. Selected bond lengths and angles (averaged where appropriate): (A) B⋯P 2.858(3) Å (B) Rh–C1 1.797(3) Å, Rh–P 2.2408(6) Å, C1–O1 1.152(3) Å, C1-Rh-P $89.5(1)^\circ$, Rh-C1-O1 175.1(3)° Rh…B 4.150(4) Å, B…C 3.719(5) Å, B…O 3.955(4) Å (C) P–Se 2.129(1) Å, P…B 3.029(6) Å. (D) P–Se 2.112(5) Å, P…B 3.562(2) Å.

(SXRD, Figure 3.1). The SXRD structure shows the expected connectivity with an average $B \cdots P$ distance of 2.858(3) Å and a close association between K and B (\sim 3 Å, Figure A3.45). While it is unclear if this association is preserved in solution, larger cations were chosen to limit ion pairing in further analyses (see below).

3.2.2 Tolman Electronic Parameter and *J*P-Se Determination

To assay the donor strength of phosphine **1**, its Tolman Electronic Parameter (TEP) was determined using a Rh carbonyl complex of the form Rh(acac)(CO)L, (L=phosphine). While the limitations of TEP in reflecting M-L bond strengths has been noted previously, 106 it remains a standard in the literature for the comparison of phosphine donor strength.^{[107](#page-148-5)} The TEP is a measure of the donation of electron density from a phosphine to a metal complex through the combined effects of σ donation (P \rightarrow M) and π back-bonding (M \rightarrow P) interactions.^{83,[107](#page-95-5)} TEP is traditionally determined from the A₁-symmetrical *v*co stretching frequency in Ni(CO)₃L complexes, where a higher *v*co indicates a less electron rich metal center resulting from weaker phosphine donors. However, the toxicity of the Ni(CO)4 starting material has motivated the development of other model complexes to determine TEP. One such complex which displays a robust linear correlation between *v*_{CO} and TEP is Rh(acac)(CO)L, (see Figure A3.32 for equation), and accordingly the complex with $L =$ **1** was synthesized.[108](#page-148-6)

Addition of K1 to Rh(acac)(CO)₂ with PPh₄Br affords [PPh4][Rh(acac)(CO)(PPh2(CH2BF3))] (**2**) as a yellow solid. The SXRD structure of **2** shows a square planar geometry at Rh (Figure 3.1). The BF_3^- unit is located significantly above the Rh square plane and close contacts (\sim 2.3 Å) are observed between the BF₃⁻ and protons on PPh₄⁺, consistent with H-bonding interactions (Figure A3.46). No secondary interactions between PPh₄⁺ and CO are observed. The B…C and B…O distances are 3.719(5) and 3.955(4) Å, notably shorter than the B…Rh distance of 4.150(4) Å, although the difference diminishes upon normalizing to van der Waals radii (see Experimental). Compound **2** is readily identified in solution by the appearance of a doublet of quartets in the ³¹P{¹H} NMR spectrum arising from coupling of the phosphorus nucleus to ¹⁰³Rh (*J*P- $R_h = 166$ Hz) and ¹⁹F ($J_{P-F} = 10$ Hz), consistent with the solid-state structure (Figure A3.7). The solution IR spectrum of 2 in CH₂Cl₂ shows a v_{CO} of 1965 cm⁻¹, which correlates to a TEP of 2061.7 cm⁻¹ (Figure A3.32). This TEP is identical to that of PEt₃ (2061.7 cm⁻¹), and is significantly more donating than the related alkyldiaryl phosphine PPh₂Et (2066.7) cm^{-1}) (Figure 3.2).⁷⁷ This result is consistent with the enhanced donation previously observed for phosphines with anionic borates[.68,](#page-91-0)[83,](#page-92-6)[86,90-92,](#page-92-3)[95,](#page-92-8)[96](#page-92-1)[,100,101,](#page-92-5)[109-](#page-148-7) [112](#page-148-8)

In addition to metal carbonyl adducts, phosphine selenide compounds have also been used to quantify the donor strength and basicity of phosphines via their P−Se coupling

Figure 3.2 Correlation between the TEP of selected phosphine ligands and the *J*P-Se in CDCl₃ of their respective phosphine selenides (black and grey squares, grey line is the linear fit)[.77](#page-92-7)[,108](#page-96-0)[,122](#page-98-0) The green square is the experimental TEP for **1** determined using compound **2** and the calculated J_{P-Se} . The squares in red and blue are the experimental J_{P-Se} for $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ and $[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$ in DMSO- d_6 and CDCl₃ and the calculated TEP. The linear fit was used to determine calculated values. (See SI for the fit parameters and a comprehensive list of phosphines included).

constants (J_{P-Se}) .^{[113,](#page-149-0)[114](#page-149-1)} The use of NMR coupling constants is advantageous due to greater instrumental resolution and sensitivity in the coupling value as compared to vibrational spectroscopy.^{[115](#page-149-2)} Changes in J_{P-Se} report on changes in the s character of the P-Se bond.^{[116](#page-149-3),[117](#page-149-4)} The electron donating/withdrawing character of the substituents on P influences this s character through hybridization changes as predicted by Bent's rule.^{[118](#page-149-5),[119](#page-149-6)} Electron withdrawing R groups on PR₃ increase the s character and *J*_{P-Se}, while electron donating R groups effect the opposite. 113

The phosphine selenide, [PPh4][SePPh2CH2BF3] ([PPh4][**1**Se]), was prepared by stirring K**1** overnight in THF with an excess of elemental Se and PPh4Br. The facile oxidation is consistent with the increased donor strength of **1**, as most preparations require heating of elemental Se or the use of soluble red selenium.^{118,[120](#page-149-7)} The SXRD structure confirms the

geometry of [PPh4][1^{Se}] and shows close contacts (\leq 2.7 Å) between the protons on PPh4⁺ and the BF₃⁻ (Figure 3.1 and Figure A3.47). The ³¹P{¹H} NMR spectrum of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] shows full conversion to the selenide with a quartet peak at \sim 33 ppm and satellite quartets at \sim 31 and \sim 35 ppm from coupling to the ⁷⁷Se nucleus (Figure A3.12). In DMSO- d_6 the *J*_{P-} Se of 687 Hz is nearly identical to the *J*P-Se of SeP*ⁱ* Pr3 (686 Hz, CDCl3) and indicates an increase in donor strength relative to the neutral congener SePPh2Et (722 Hz, CDCl3) (Figure A3.59). 101

We then sought to compare our two experimental assays of phosphine donor strength. While the use of *J*P-Se to measure phosphine donor strength is well established, specific correlations between *J*_{P-Se} and TEP have not been clearly defined.^{118,[121](#page-149-8)} Fitting of the reported *J*_{P-Se} and TEP values for a series of 18 alkyl and aryl phosphines resulted in a reasonable linear correlation (R^2 = 0.84, see section A3.7).^{77[,108,](#page-96-0)122} Using this analysis to extrapolate a value of J_{P-Se} from the experimentally determined TEP of 2 provides $J_{P-Se} = 698$ Hz, which is significantly larger than the experimentally determined value of 687 Hz for [PPh₄][1^{Se}] in DMSO-*d*6. Surprisingly, measuring the *J*_{P-Se} of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃ results in a significant decrease in *J*_{P-Se} to 657 Hz (Δ = 30 Hz), suggesting that phosphine 1 is a stronger donor in CDCl₃ than DMSO. Overall, the TEP and *J*_{P-Se} values clearly indicate that the anionic charge promotes a large increase in the donor strength of phosphine **1**. However, we wanted to further understand the origin of the large solvent dependence of this donor strength.

3.2.3 Analysis of Donor Strength Solvent Dependence

The presence of the charged borate in phosphine **1** and the discrepancy between TEP values determined via different methods prompted us to investigate how electrostatic effects contribute to these measurements. "Through-space" interactions have been suggested

previously to explain anamolous J_{P-Se} behavior in phosphines with 2-furyl and omethoxyphenyl substituents, but a thorough analysis of this effect has not been undertaken.^{[123](#page-149-10)} A dependence on solvent ionic strength was proposed as a means of separating electrostatic and inductive contributions of a R-NMe₃⁺ substituent on the rate of acetate binding in iron porphyrins.³⁸ We reasoned that a similar solvent variation approach would be useful for separating inductive and electrostatic contributions to the donor strength of **1**. Specifically, the through-space electrostatic influence of the charged group should be modified by the solvent dielectric (ε) , a measure of a medium's ability to shield a charge,^{[124](#page-149-11)} while the through-bond interactions should remain constant.

IR spectra of 2 and the parent Rh(CO)₂(acac) were initially acquired in MeCN, THF, and DCM. However, no variation of *v*co outside of instrumental error is observed (Figures A3.37 and A3.38). This is perhaps not surprising as the expected change in stretching frequency of ~10 cm⁻¹ is not large compared to the instrumental resolution (4 cm^{-1}) . Resolving dielectric induced shifts is further limited by spectral convolution or broadening, likely from Rh–P rotational isomers of **2** with different stretching frequencies as has been observed in other carbonyl systems.[125](#page-150-0) This manifests as substantially broader spectra for **2** than for Rh(CO)₂(acac). These competing factors complicate the interpretation of donor strength in 2 and suggest that the higher sesitivity and resolution of *J*P-Se may make it a more conducive method for examining electrostatic effects.

While the inductive donor effects in $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ should be insensitive to ε , the electrostatic stabilization of the formally cationic phosphonium in the dominant resonance structure Se⁻-P⁺R₃ by the adjacent BF₃⁻ anion should increase as *ε* decreases.^{101,[126](#page-150-1)} Lower *ε* solvents will less effectively screen the anion, resulting in greater stabilization of the

Figure 3.3 (A) Solvent dependence of J_{P-Se} for anionic and neutral phosphines. The fit data for [PPh₄][1^{Se}] is provided in the text, and the fit data for [PPh₄][3^{Se}] is R² = 0.92, *J*_{P-Se} = 700(2) - 1.4(2)*10³*(1/4πε). (B) Solvent dependence of [TEA][1^{Se}] in comparison to $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ (repeated from A for comparison), the fit data for $[TEA][1^{Se}]$ is $R^2 = 0.77$, *J*P-se $691(2) - 7(2)^*10^{2*}(1/4\pi\varepsilon)$. Linear fits are shown as lines. Further discussion of the fits is provided in appendix 3. Different dielectrics (ε) were generated with CDCl₃ (ε = 4.8), CD₂Cl₂ $(\varepsilon = 9.1)$, acetone- d_6 ($\varepsilon = 21$), CD₃CN ($\varepsilon = 36.6$), DMSO- d_6 ($\varepsilon = 46.7$), or mixtures thereof (Table A3.13).

positive formal charge and a lower *J*_{P-Se}. Although it is difficult to predict solution structures, SXRD and DFT analysis (see below) of all phosphine selenides considered in this report show shorter distances between P and B than Se and B, supporting the feasibility of the anion stabilizing a formal positive charge on P (Table A3.1). We note that previous literature studies demonstrate some solvent dependence to *J*_{P-Se}, with one report suggesting variation between 2-3%.^{[127,](#page-150-2)[128](#page-150-3)} In our analysis, comparison of J_{P-Se} in the anionic phosphine to a neutral analogue and restricting solvent choice to aprotic solvents serve as controls for any incidental trends.

As mentioned, an overall decrease of 30 Hz in the *J*_{P-Se} of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] is observed upon moving from CDCl₃ (ε = 4.8) to DMSO- d_6 (ε = 46.7). Expanding the solvent selection to

include CD₃CN, acetone-*d*₆, CD₂Cl₂, and mixtures thereof shows a consistent decrease in *J*P-Se as *ε* decreases (Figure 3.3, Figures A3.59-A3.62, Table A3.13). In comparison, only a slight change of 7 Hz is observed across the same *ε* range for the neutral congener SePPh2Et (Figure 3.3, Figure A3.69, Table A3.13). Coulomb's law suggests that a linear dependence on 1/4π*ε* should be expected for a primarily electrostatic effect. Indeed, the observed solvent dependence of J_{P-Se} for $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ follows this trend. The variable solvent coupling data for $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ was fit to the linear relationship $J_{P-Se} = 693(1)$ – $2.12(12)*10^{3}*(1/4\pi\varepsilon)$ (R² = 0.98). The neutral congener was also fit and shows a shallower slope of $-5(6)^*10^2$ and a worse R² = 0.06 value (Table A3.14).

While this solvent trend for [PPh₄][1^{Se}] is well modeled by an electrostatic effect, we also wanted to account for any ion pairing interactions. Ion pairing can range from separated free ions to close contact ion pairs, with varying degrees of ion solvation and association in between. These solvent separated ion pairs may also exist in an equilibrium, and generally it is difficult to precisely characterize the speciation of an ion pair in solution.[129](#page-150-4) Increased ion pairing in low *ε* solvents may influence the observed solvent dependence in the *J*_{P-Se} of [PPh₄][1^{Se}]. To exclude this possibility, [TEA][1^{Se}] (TEA⁺ = NEt₄⁺) was prepared as a control with comparatively stronger ion pairing due to the higher charge density of the $TEA⁺$ cation. As H-bonding interactions between the cation and the BF3 [−] are observed in the crystal structures of [TEA][**1**Se] and [PPh4][**1**Se], the C*H*² and B*F*³ ¹H and ¹⁹F resonances are used as reporters on ion pairing in solution (Figures A3.47 and A3.49). In DMSO-*d*6, the methylene and fluorine resonances in [TEA][**1**Se] and [PPh4][**1**Se] are superimposable, consistent with identical 1^{Se} environments. In CD₂Cl₂ (ε = 9.1), the methylene resonance in [TEA][**1**Se] is shifted downfield by 0.4 ppm relative to [PPh4][**1**Se]

and the F resonance is shifted downfield by 1.0 ppm (Figures A3.22-A3.25). The downfield shift is consistent with stronger H-bonding interactions in solution deshielding the methylene protons and fluorines of [TEA][**1**Se] to a greater extent than in [PPh4][**1**Se]. Some degree of ion pairing in [PPh4][**1**Se] is likely present, as DOSY of [PPh4][**1**Se] in CDCl3 shows that the cation and anion diffuse at the same speed (Figure A3.16). However, the NMR experiments demonstrate that the extent of contact-ion pairing in solution appears to be greater in [TEA][**1**Se] than in [PPh4][**1**Se], as is expected based on the differing size of the cations.

Once it was established that $TEA⁺$ ion pairs more strongly than $PPh⁺$, the impact of cation identity on J_{P-Se} was investigated. The J_{P-Se} of $[TEA][1^{Se}]$ in high ε solvents shows nearly identical J_{P-Se} values to that of $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$, consistent with isolated free ions. However, moving to lower *ε* solvents only results in a decrease of 9 Hz in the *J*P-Se for [TEA][**1**Se] (Figures 3.3, A3.66 and A3.67, Table A3.13). The magnitude of this change and the slope of the linear fit $(-7(2)^*10^2, R^2 = 0.77)$ resembles those of the neutral analogues (Table A3.14). Intuitively, these results suggest that the enhanced ion pairing between TEA⁺ and 1^{Se} results in shielding of the BF₃⁻ charge, thus limiting the detection of electrostatic effects on *J*P-Se in low *ε* solvents. In contrast, the large size and diffuse charge of PPh₄⁺ less effectively shields the BF_3^- and allows for the observation of solvent dependent through space effects. Similar effects have been observed in ion-pair catalysis, where a small compact SbF6⁻ anion stabilizes polar transition states and affords greater product selectivity in lower *ε* solvents, while a larger and more diffuse B(3,5-CF₃Ph)₄⁻ anion shows no improvement.²⁷ The effect of alternative cations on the J_{P-Se} of $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ in CDCl₃ was also explored. The addition of 20 equivalents of PPh₄Br or PPNCl (PPN⁺ =

bis(triphenylphosphine)iminium⁺) results in minimal deviation $(\leq 4 \text{ Hz})$, while 20 equivalents of NBu4Cl or TEABr result in significant increases in the coupling, as expected for the formation of tighter ion pairs and enhanced anion shielding (Table A3.15). Overall, these controls with [TEA][**1**Se] support the assignment of electrostatic effects instead of ion pairing in rationalizing the observed solvent dependence.

3.2.4 Electrostatic Contributions to Donor Strength

Assigning the solvent dependence of *J*_{P-Se} as electrostatic in origin enables the separation of electrostatic and inductive contributions to donor strength (Table 1). The difference in *J*P-Se between [PPh₄][1^{Se}] and the SePPh₂Et in high ε solvents, where the charge is effectively shielded, provides an estimate of the inductive contributions of the BF₃⁻ group. The change in *J*_{P-Se} for [PPh₄][1^{Se}] upon moving to less shielding environments represents the introduction of electrostatic contributions, with the maximum contribution at the hypothetical vacuum limit. The high *ε* and vacuum limits of *J*_{P-Se} obtained from the linear fits to $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ and $SePh_2Et$ therefore provide the relative electrostatic and inductive contributions to donor strength. Simply shifting from the high *ε* limit (693 Hz) to the vacuum limit (524 Hz) of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] yields an overall change in *J*P-Se of 169 Hz.

Comparison of this electrostatic shift with the 207 Hz difference in coupling between the vacuum limit of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] (524 Hz) and the high $ε$ limit of SePPh₂Et (731 Hz) provides an estimated electrostatic contribution of 82% to the total increase in donor strength (Table 3.1A). While this analysis uses the extrapolated limits, the experimental data from the accessible range of ε suggest that the electrostatic contribution is \sim 50% (Table A3.13). These analyses show that electrostatic factors have a major, and even dominant, impact on the donor properties in these systems.

A.	Experimental	$R = Et$ $X = 1$	$R = Ph$ $X = 3$	B. DFT	
	SePPh ₂ R	731	741	SePPh ₂ Et	872
	$(\varepsilon = \infty, J_{\text{neutral}})$			$(\varepsilon = 1, J_{\text{neutral}})$	
	$[PPh_4]$ $[X^{Se}]$	693	700	SePPh ₂ Et	809
	$(\varepsilon = \infty, J_{\infty})$			(point charge, $\varepsilon = 1, J_{point}$)	
	$[PPh_4]$ $[X^{Se}]$	524	591	$[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$	792
	$(\varepsilon = 1, J_{\text{vac}})$			$(\varepsilon = 1, J_{\text{anion}})$	
	$\Delta J_{\text{covalent}} = J_{\infty} - J_{\text{neutral}}$	-38	-41	$\Delta J_{\text{covalent}} = J_{\text{anion}\infty} - J_{\text{point}}$	-17
	ΔJ electrostatic $= J_{\text{vac}} - J_{\infty}$	-169	-109	$\Delta J_{\text{electrostatic}} = J_{\text{point}} - J_{\text{neutral}}$	-63
	$\Delta J_{\text{tot}} = J_{\text{vac}} - J_{\text{neutral}}$	-207	-150	$\Delta J_{\text{tot}} = J_{\text{anion}} - J_{\text{neutral}}$	-80
	Relative contributions to ΔJ			Relative contributions to ΔJ	
	ΔJ electrostatic/ ΔJ tot	0.82	0.73	ΔJ electrostatic/ ΔJ tot	0.79
	$\Delta J_{\text{covalent}}/\Delta J_{\text{tot}}$	0.18	0.27	$\Delta J_{\text{covalent}}/\Delta J_{\text{tot}}$	0.21

Table 3.1 Experimental (A.) and Computational (B.) *J*_{P-Se} Coupling Constants as a Function of Charge and Dielectric. All values in Hz except the relative contribution ratios.

To further investigate the relative contribution of through-space and through-bond effects, Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations were performed to estimate *J*P-Se and compare with experimentally determined values (Table 3.1B). For simplicity, two local geometries of the phosphine **1**Se were considered to capture limiting rotamers that may be present in solution: one transoid rotamer with a Se–P–C–B dihedral of 158° and one cis rotamer with a Se–P–C–B dihedral of 74° (Figures A3.52 and A3.53). A Boltzmann weighted average of these two extremes predicts a nearly 100% population of the transoid isomer at room temperature, with a calculated gas phase *J*_{P-Se} of 792 Hz. We then performed optimizations of the transoid rotamer with explicit solvation to see if the observed experimental trends were reproduced computationally. Optimizations in CHCl3, DCM, and MeCN predict | *J*_{P-Se} | values of 648, 675, and 684 Hz respectively (Figures A3.56-A3.58, Table A3.13). These values are in remarkably good agreement with both the experimentally determined *J*_{P-Se} as well as the observed trend with solvent dielectric.

To computationally deconvolute electrostatic contributions to J_{P-Se}, we analyzed the effect of including point charges in the gas phase. Coulomb's law was used to estimate the electric field at P generated by a negative point charge located at B in the transoid rotamer of **1**Se. This analysis gives an electric field parallel to the P−Se bond (defined as the z-axis) of ~−1.07 V/Å (Table A3.5). The electrostatic contribution to J_{P-Se} was then determined by calculating the J_{P-Se} for SePPh₂Et with a negative point charge at \sim 3.7 Å from P in the z direction, resulting in an applied field of comparable magnitude. The inclusion of this point charge lowers *J*_{P-Se} to 809 Hz from 872 Hz in the neutral analogue, suggesting that the purely electrostatic contribution to *J*_{P-Se} is 63 Hz. This electrostatic contribution is 79% of the total computed difference in *J*P-Se between 1^{Se} and SePPh₂Et (80 Hz, Table 3.1), which is identical within error to that determined experimentally. Thus, DFT calculations support the experimental data demonstrating that electrostatic effects play a significant role in the donor properties of **1**.

3.2.5 Extension and Comparison to Other Phosphines

The selenide of an anionic phosphine previously investigated for Pd catalyzed olefin polymerization/oligomerization, [PPh4][SePPh2(2-BF3Ph)] ([PPh4][**3**Se]), was synthesized analogously to $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$. This phosphine was targeted to test the generality of this solvent-dependence analysis of electrostatic contributions to donor properties, particularly in the presence of increased rigidity and possible convoluting resonance effects from an aryl linker.^{90,91} The SXRD structure of $[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$ confirms the expected connectivity and also shows that the B of the BF_3 ⁻ group is farther from the phosphine than in [PPh₄][1^{Se}] (Figure 3.1, 3.562(2) and 3.029(6) Å respectively). The P of the PPh₄⁺ cation is located at 5.895(2) Å from the B, however H-bonding interactions between the PPh₄⁺ aryl protons and the BF_3 ⁻ fluorines are observed (Figure A3.51).

The solvent dependence of J_{P-Se} for $[PPh4][3^{Se}]$ was measured with the related assumption that inductive and resonance contributions along the covalent linkage would be predominantly independent of solvent *ε* screening. The *J*P-Se of [PPh4][**3**Se] decreases by 18 Hz upon moving from DMSO-*d*⁶ to CDCl3, a smaller change than the 30 Hz shift observed for [PPh4][**1**Se] (Figures 3.3 and A3.68, Table A3.13) . Furthermore, the magnitude of the slope of the linear fit to the solvent dependence for $[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$ is $\sim 70\%$ of that for [PPh₄][1^{Se}]. This is consistent with the ratio predicted from a $1/(r^2)$ dependence from Coulomb's law based on the relative B…P distances in the anionic fragments of $[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$ and $[PPh4][1^{Se}]$ from SXRD $(3.562(2)$ and $3.029(6)$ Å respectively, 72%, see Experimental).

The neutral congener of $[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$, SePPh₃, was also prepared and the J_{P-Se} changes by 5 Hz upon switching from CDCl3 to DMSO-*d*⁶ (Figures 3.3 and A3.70, Table A3.13). Using the *J*P-Se values from the high *ε* and vacuum limits determined from the linear fit of [PPh4][**3**Se] and an identical comparison method to that described above suggests an electrostatic contribution to the overall shift of 73%, which is slightly smaller than that for [PPh4][**1**Se] (82%). In sum, all the experimental data acquired on both [PPh4][**1**Se] and [PPh4][**3**Se] support a significant and potentially major role that through-space electrostatic interactions have in the donor properties of these phosphines, and furthermore illustrate that *J*P-Se is a useful probe for deconvoluting electrostatic from inductive or resonance effects.

Comparing the overall shifts in J_{P-Se} from [PPh₄][1^{Se}] and [PPh₄][3^{Se}] from their respective neutral congeners to other anionic phosphine systems is instructive, even in the absence of comparable solvent dependence studies. In one example a triptycene borate phosphine with a P⋯B distance of 3.03 Å was compared to a silicon based neutral analogue.^{96,[111](#page-96-1)} The shift in J_{P-Se}

observed in CDCl3 upon switching from the neutral to anionic version approached 90 Hz. The magnitude of this shift is larger than the 63 Hz shift between [PPh4][**1**Se] and SePPh2Et and the 54 Hz difference between [PPh₄][3^{Se}] and SePPh₃ in CDCl₃. The greater magnitude of the shift can be rationalized by the orientation of the anionic functional group, which is constrained to align with the P−Se bond in the triptycene case. The significant change in *J*_{P-Se} coupling observed in the triptycene case contrasts with another example featuring an anionic BPh₃[−] group, SePPh₂(p-BPh₃Ph)⁻¹⁰¹ The difference in coupling between this compound and the neutral congener SePPh₃ is only 30 Hz in CDCl3, likely due to the larger distance between the charged group and the phosphine (6.49 Å from DFT) and delocalization of the anionic charge into the aryl rings on boron[.96](#page-92-1)[,99](#page-92-4)[,101](#page-92-5) These examples illustrate that the distance, orientation, and anion structure influence the magnitude of the impact on phosphine donor properties.

3.2.6 C−F Oxidative Addition Reactivity

The comparatively strong donor properties of phosphine **1** prompted up to consider its application in challenging oxidative addition (OA) reactions. Indeed, anionic phosphines have previously shown enhanced coupling reactivity with aryl chlorides in comparison to neutral isostructural congeners.^{94-[96](#page-92-1)} Uniquely, the J_{P-Se} analysis carried out above with [PPh4][**1**Se] allows for comparison between the reactivity of K**1** and phosphines of quantitatively similar donor strengths. Comparison with PEt3 is instructive as the *J*P-Se (684 Hz) closely matches that of $[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ in DMSO (687 Hz) and the cone angles are similar (132 \degree and 140 \degree for PEt₃ and PPh₂Et).⁷⁷ The reactivity of PCy₃ was also investigated as the *J*P-Se (675 Hz) closely matches that predicted for [PPh4][**1**Se] in THF using the 1/4π*ε* linear fit (ε = 7.6, 671 Hz). While these comparisons do not perfectly account for enhanced ion
pairing from K^+ or imperfect matching of cone angles, they are nonetheless useful to reveal trends in reactivity as a function of electrostatic contributions to donor strength.

The OA of aryl fluoride bonds was chosen for this comparison due to a recent computational report suggesting that this reaction is accelerated in the presence of an electric field.⁵³ Additionally, the OA of C_6F_6 by Ni(COD)₂ (COD = 1,5-cyclooctadiene) with PEt₃ has been previously reported to proceed very slowly, taking ~4 weeks in hexane for completion.^{[130](#page-150-0)} Therefore, the rates of C_6F_6 OA by Ni(COD)₂ with K1, PEt₃ and PC_{V3} in THF were determined along with the overall conversion.

The combination of Ni(COD)2 and 2 equivalents of K**1** in THF generates a red solution with an absorbance in the UV-vis spectrum at 464 nm (Figure A3.44). The ${}^{31}P\{{}^{1}H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction shows the appearance of three new resonances with some unreacted K**1**, indicating a mixture of differentially ligated species (Figure A3.73). Addition of 10 equivalents of C_6F_6 , as well as CF_3Ph and OPPh₃ as internal standards, results in the disappearance of these resonances and the formation of a new doublet at 9.6 ppm consistent with coupling to a Ni−F (Figure A3.78). Similarly, the ¹⁹F NMR spectrum shows the appearance of resonances consistent with Ni–C₆F₅ (−117.5, −166.4, and −167.1) ppm) and Ni−F (−383.6 ppm) moieties (Figures A3.74-A3.76). The product resonances grow in with an average observed rate of $1.6(2)E-4$ s⁻¹, and level off after ~7 hours with an average yield of 25(3)% (Figures A3.77 and A3.79, Table A3.16). The reaction between Ni(COD)₂, 2 equivalents of K1 and 21 equivalents of C₆F₆ was also examined by monitoring the decay of the absorbance at 464 nm using UV-vis spectroscopy (Figure A3.40). The observed rate of decay is on the same order of magnitude as the rate of formation determined by NMR methods $(5.6(4)E-4 s^{-1})$. Reducing the amount of added

K1 to 1 equivalent decreases the observed rate $(2.8E-4 s⁻¹)$, which is inconsistent with a mechanism involving the dissociation of a ligand prior to OA (Figure A3.39). The rate is also reduced with the addition of 3, 4, or 8 equivalents of K**1**, with the appearance of a new absorbance at 375 nm suggesting additional coordination of K**1** to Ni may be possible (Figures A3.41-A3.43). As a control, the absorbance at 464 nm was monitored in the absence of substrate and indicated minimal decay over the same time frame (Figure A3.44).

Carrying out the same reaction with PEt3 and PCy3 results in the growth of similar NMR signals as those observed with K**1**, but with significantly slower rates of product formation $(3.7(7)E-6 s⁻¹$ and $2.0(1)E-5 s⁻¹$, respectively) (Figures S80-S87, Table A3.16). In contrast to K**1**, the OA product growth continues throughout the time the reaction was monitored, reaching $24(2)\%$ at 114 h for PEt₃ and $66(15)\%$ at 53 h for PCy₃. The enhanced rate observed with K**1** not only supports previous observations that anionic groups enhance rates of OA reactions, ^{94-[96](#page-92-1)} but also demonstrates that the rate enhancement is greater than would be predicted on the basis of donor strength. This is perhaps most clearly illustrated by the one order of magnitude rate acceleration with K**1** over PCy3, despite the nearly identical donor strengths predicted by our analysis. A distinct mechanism for electrostatic rate enhancement beyond an increase in donor strength has been suggested previously with an anionic carborane phosphine, wherein accelerated OA reactivity was attributed to ligand dissociation and transition state (TS) stabilization.⁹⁵ The exact nature of the rate acceleration with K**1** is not yet clear. It is possible that the TS is lowered by the presence of an electric field generated by the BF_3^- , as is predicted computationally,⁵³ but other factors, such as ion pairing with K^+ , may also be determinative. Regardless, these results emphasize that anionic charges enhance reactivity through mechanisms beyond simply increasing donor strength.

3.2.7 Catalytic Defluoroborylation Reactivity

The significant rate acceleration observed in stoichiometric reactivity led us to investigate catalytic C–F borylation with K**1** and Ni(COD)2. Defluoroborylation of fluorinated arenes with Ni has been reported previously with N-heterocyclic carbene (NHC) and PCy3 ligands.^{[131-](#page-150-1)[133](#page-150-2)} The use of strongly donating ligands is consistent with the difficulty of the OA step, as C–F bonds have the highest BDE among carbon-halogen bonds.¹³¹ Likewise, high catalyst loadings (10%), reaction temperatures (110 °C), and long reaction times (\geq 12 h) highlight the difficulty of these transformations.

Optimization reactions were carried out using K**1** and Ni(COD)2 for the defluoroborylation of 1,3-difluorobenzene using B2pin2 (bis(pinacolato)diboron) as the test substrate. Ultimately, a 50% yield of 1-Bpin-3- C_6FH_4 was realized with the following conditions: 9% catalyst loading with 1.8 equivalents of B₂pin₂, 0.72-0.75 equivalents of CsOH•xH₂O (15-20% H₂O), and 1.9 equivalents of methanol in THF heated at 50 °C for 4 hours (Tables 3.2 and A3.17-A3.24 contain information on optimization trials). Notably, substituting K**1** for PEt3, PCy3, or PPh2Et under identical reaction conditions results in no conversion to the borylated product (Tables 3.2 and A3.21). NMR monitoring over time indicates that the reaction is complete after 2 hours (Tables 3.2 and A3.21). Increasing the temperature to 100 °C for 2 hours or stirring at room temperature for 22 hours only slightly affects the yield (48% and 44%, respectively, Tables 3.2 and A3.22). Switching B2pin2 for B₂nep₂ (bis(neopentylgylcolato)diboron) or B₂cat₂ (bis(catecholato)diboron) to test alternative transmetallating agents significantly reduces the yield (32% and 0%, Tables 3.2

and A3.22), in contrast to previous studies with $PCy3.134$ $PCy3.134$ Both MeOH and CsOH are required for catalysis, with alternative alcohols or metal salts reducing the yield. Exchanging the K^+ counterion on 1 for more solubilizing counterions does not improve the

Reaction conditions unless otherwise stated - 1,3 C₆F₂H₄ (40 µL, 0.4 mmol, 11 equiv.), Ni(COD)₂ (10 mg, 0.036 mmol), K1 (22 mg, 0.072 mmol), B₂pin₂ (184 mg, 0.72 mmol, 20 equiv.), CsOH•xH₂O (15-20% H₂O) (5 mmol, 8-8.5 equiv.), CF₃Ph (20 µL, 0.16 mmol, 4.5 equiv.) and MeOH (30 µL, 0.72 mmol, 20 equiv.) were dissolved in 1 mL of THF and heated with stirring at 50 °C for the specified time. Yields determined by integration of ¹⁹F NMR peak of 1-Bpin-3-C₆FH₄ and comparison to the internal standard CF₃Ph. Yields are relative to the theoretical yield (0.4 mmol) determined using 1,3 $C_6F_2H_4$.

*Standard order of addition: combine Ni(COD)₂, K1, and B₂pin₂ in 1 mL THF. Add CF₃Ph, then 1,3 C₆F₂H₄, then CsOH•xH₂O (15-20% H₂O) and finally MeOH before placing on hot plate.

Table 3.2 Selected optimization conditions varied from the final conditions developed for defluoroborylation of 1,3-difluorobenzene. See SI for additional optimizations.

yield (Table A3.23), and no trend is observed with solvent *ε* across a limited series of ethereal solvents (Table A3.24).

This method was extended to other fluoroarenes to examine the scope of reactivity (Figure 3.4). The highest yield observed is for 1,3 difluorobenzene (50%), followed by fluorobenzene (42%), with lower yields for more highly fluorinated substrates. The trend of decreasing yields with higher levels of fluorination contrasts with the trend observed with an NHC, where more highly fluorinated substrates are more easily defluoroborylated.¹³³ Additionally, homocoupling is competitive in substrates with adjacent fluorine atoms in our system. The fluorobenzene borylation with K**1** is higher than

that with an NHC ligand (20%) ,¹³³ but in general other systems perform defluoroborylation of more diverse fluoroarenes with higher yields than the current system.^{131,132}

mg, 0.072 mmol), $B_2pin_2(184 mg, 0.72 mmol)$, CsOH•xH₂O product with C₆F₆, it is likely unless otherwise specified were determined in triplicate by proceeds through a traditional **Figure 3.4** Substrate scope defluoroborylation catalysis. Unless otherwise specified, all reactions were carried out in 1 mL of THF with Ni(COD)2 (10 mg, 0.036 mmol), K**1** (22 (15-20%) (54 mg, 0.29-0.31 mmol), MeOH (30 μL, 0.72 mmol), CF₃Ph (20 μL, 0.16 mmol) and substrate (0.4 mmol) that and were heated with stirring for 4 hours at 50 °C. All yields comparison to an internal CF3Ph integral standard. (a) Yield determined using GCMS, no CF₃Ph added to the reaction. OA, For more details see SI.

Based on the observed formation of a C-F OA defluoroborylation transmetalation, and reductive elimination

mechanism. The differing reactivity trend with arene fluorination implies that the enhanced OA rate in the present system makes transmetalation the turnover limiting step. This hypothesis is consistent with increased yields with an excess of B2pin2 as well as the need for more nucleophilic hydroxide or alkoxide additives over fluoride sources. We speculate that in-situ generated methoxide may facilitate transmetalation of B_2 pin₂ by exchanging with Ni-F intermediates, as a similar σ -bond metathesis of B2pin2 with Ni alkoxide complexes has been reported.^{[135](#page-150-4)} However, the specific role played by $Cs⁺$ and MeOH remains unclear. Faster rates and unique reaction conditions for this system (ie. lower temperature, base, water and alcohol) suggest that it may offer complementary reactivity to the established neutral phosphine systems and motivates further investigation. Regardless of specific methodological applications, the fact that the inclusion of a BF_3^- group enables a diarylalkyl phosphine to perform comparably with an NHC in C-F borylation highlights how electrostatic effects can both dramatically enhance stroichiometric OA reactivity as well as catalytic processes.

3.3 Conclusions

In conclusion, a new anionic phosphine ligand has been synthesized and demonstrates that the inclusion of an anionic trifluoroborate group dramatically increases the donor properties relative to neutral analogues. Furthermore, a series of experiments and calculations have demonstrated that a significant portion of the increase in donor strength arises from electrostatic as opposed to inductive effects. The electrostatic interactions in this ligand accelerate OA rates by an order of magnitude compared to ligands of similar donor strength, consistent with theoretical predictions. This enhanced OA reactivity can be leveraged for

the catalytic defluoroborylation of C–F bonds with reactivity trends that differ from previously reported examples. While there are several reports on the influence of appended anionic groups on mono- or polydentate phosphine ligands, this work is the first case where the relative contributions from inductive versus electrostatic donation have been disentangled. The ability of charged groups to stabilize specific resonance structures, such as the zwitterionic Se⁻–P⁺R₃ structure, offers tremendous potential in tuning catalytic systems as we demonstrate here. The fact that a major portion of the increase in donor strength arises from electrostatic effects in common organic solvents with charge-diffuse counterions has important implications for ligand design as the directionality of electric fields provides a unique variable for influencing reactivity and breaking classic free-energy relationships. Given that charged functional groups exert a significant through space influence on donor properties and reactivity, the location of a charge in space relative to the ligand donor atom and the metal center is expected to likewise have a significant effect.

3.4 Experimental

3.4.1 General Considerations

All reagents were purchased from commercial suppliers and used without further purification unless otherwise specified. K[ICH₂BF₃],^{[136](#page-150-5)} K[PPh₂(o -BF₃Ph)],^{[90,91,](#page-92-3)[137](#page-150-6)} SePPh₃ and SePPh₂Et^{[113](#page-97-0)[,122](#page-98-0)} were synthesized according to literature procedures. All manipulations were carried out under an atmosphere of N_2 using standard Schlenk and glovebox techniques. Glassware was dried at 180 °C for a minimum of two hours and cooled under vacuum prior to use. All reactions were carried out in 20 mL scintillation vials unless otherwise specified. Catalytic reactions were carried out in 4 mL screw thread borosilicate glass vials. All volumes below 1 mL were measured using

Hamilton 100 or 250 μL syringes. Solvents were dried on a solvent purification system from Pure Process Technology and stored over 4 Å molecular sieves under N_2 . Tetrahydrofuran was stirred over NaK alloy and run through an additional activated alumina plug prior to use to ensure dryness. Solvents were tested for H₂O and O₂ using a standard solution of sodium-benzophenone ketyl radical anion. C₆D₆, CDCl₃, acetone-d₆, CD₃CN, and DMSO-d₆ were dried by passage over a column of activated alumina and stored over 4 Å molecular sieves in the glovebox. ¹H, ¹³C{¹H}, ¹⁹F{¹H}, ¹¹B{¹H}, and ³¹P{¹H} data were acquired on a combination of three spectrometers: a 400 MHz Bruker DRX spectrometer equipped with a BBO probe; a 500 MHz Bruker Avance-II+ spectrometer equipped with a ${}^{1}H\{ {}^{19}F, {}^{13}C, {}^{31}P\}$ QNP probe; and a 500 MHz Bruker Avance III HD spectrometer equipped with a Bruker BBFO "Smart" probe. All spectrometers use Topspin. Chemical shifts are reported in ppm units referenced to residual solvent resonances for ${}^{1}H$ and ¹³C{¹H} spectra, and external standards for ³¹P, ¹¹B, and ¹⁹F. Assignments for ¹³C NMR resonances were made based on previously reported (PPh₄) and related compounds (Rh(acac)(CO)PPh₃, PPh₂Et, PPh₂(2-BF₃-Ph).^{90,91,[138](#page-151-0)-[141](#page-151-1)} Unless otherwise indicated, multipoint baseline corrections were applied to ¹⁹F NMR spectra in Mnova to remove broad peaks in the baseline around 150 – 220 ppm resulting from Teflon within the probe. NMR samples were prepared by dissolving approximately 10-20 mg of the sample in about 0.5 mL of the appropriate deuterated solvent. No change in signal position or coupling was observed as a function of concentration. IR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Tensor II. Solution IR were recorded in a solution cell using CaF2 windows, and then the solvent signal was subtracted out. Solid IR were recorded using a KBr pellet. Elemental analysis was performed by Midwest Microlabs.

Synthesis of Ph₂PCH₂BF₃K (K1). To a stirring solution of PHPh₂ (0.368 g, 1.97 mmol) in THF (5 mL) was added a solution of KHMDS (0.398 g, 1.99 mmol, 1 eq) in THF (5 mL), resulting in a bright red homogeneous solution. This was added dropwise over 20 minutes to a stirring slurry of K[ICH₂BF₃] (0.541 g, 2.18 mmol, 1.1 eq) in THF (5 mL). After addition, the resulting slurry was stirred for 1 hour, placed in the freezer at −40 °C to settle for 1 hour and then filtered through Celite. The filtrate was dried under vacuum, and the resulting sticky white solid was washed with Et₂O (2 x 10 mL), leaving behind Ph₂PCH₂BF₃K as a white powder (0.301 g, 0.98 mmol, 50%). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*₆) δ = 7.33 (t, *J* = 8 Hz, 4H, *o*-Ph–H), 7.24-7.14 (m, 6H, *m*and *p*-Ph–H), 0.8 (dq, *J*_{P-H} = 14 Hz, *J*_{F-H} = 4 Hz, 2H, C*H*₂BF₃).³¹P{¹H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*6) δ = −15.9 (q, *J*P-F = 13 Hz, *P*Ph2(CH2BF3)). 19F{1 H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO*d*6) δ = −133.9 (broad s, 3F, B*F*3). 13C{1 H} NMR (126 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*6) δ = 144.4 (d, *J*C-P = 25 Hz, *C*ipso), 132.0 (d, *J*C-P = 50 Hz, *C*ortho), 127.6 (s, *C*para), 126.9 (s, *C*meta), 17.0 (broad s, *C*H₂BF₃). ¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*₆) δ = 4.0 (broad s). IR (KBr pellet): 3419 (w), 3053 (m), 2916 (w), 2885 (w), 1954 (w), 1881 (w), 1807 (w), 1584 (m), 1480 (m), 1433 (s), 1386 (m), 1168 (s), 1093 (m), 1046 (s), 931 (s), 742 (s), 697 (s). K**1** was too air sensitive for reliable elemental analysis, and instead was consistent with full oxidation of the phosphine sample despite multiple attempts. Elem. Anal: Calc'd (Ph2PCH2BF3K+O): C 48.5 H 3.8 N 0 Found: C 48.1 H 4.0 N 0.

Synthesis of $[PPh_4][Rh(acac)(CO)(PPh_2(CH_2BF_3))]$ **(2).** To a stirring THF solution (3 mL) of Rh(acac)(CO)2 (67 mg, 0.26 mmol) was added a THF solution (5 mL) of K**1** (80 mg, 0.26 mmol, 1 eq) and a DCM solution (4 mL) of PPh4Br (109 mg, 0.26 mmol, 1 eq), resulting in a color change from light yellow to brown. The reaction was stirred at room temperature for 1 hour, then filtered,

evacuated to dryness, and washed with petroleum ether leaving $[PPh_4][Rh(acac)(CO)(PPh_2(CH_2BF_3))]$ as a brown oil, which was crystallized by vapor diffusion of Et2O into a CHCl3 or DCM solution at room temperature to yield yellow crystals (146 mg, 0.17 mmol, 67%). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 7.85 (m, 8H, Ph and PPh₄) 7.73 (m, 8H, PPh4), 7.57 (m, 8H, PPh4) 7.19 (m, 6H, Ph) 5.30 (s, 1 H, C*H*acac), 1.92 (s, 3H, C*H*3acac), 1.62 (m, 2H, C*H*2BF3), 1.56 (s, 3H, C*H*3acac). 31P{1 H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl3) δ = 40.4 (dq, *J*P-Rh = 166 Hz, *J*_{P-F} = 10 Hz, 1P, *PPh*₂(CH₂BF₃)), 25.6 (s, 1P, *PPh₄*). ¹⁹F {¹H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = −131.6 (broad s, 3F, BF₃). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (126 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 190.5 (dd, *J*c-Rh = 79 Hz, *J*C-P = 25 Hz, Rh-*C*O), 186.6 (s, *C*Oacac), 185.6 (s, *C*Oacac), 137.7 (d, *J*C-P = 49 Hz, *C*ipso), 135.9 (d, $J_{\text{C-P}} = 4$ Hz, PPh₄ C_{para}), 134.5 (d, $J_{\text{C-P}} = 10$ Hz, PPh₄ C_{meta}), 134.0 (d, $J_{\text{C-P}} = 11$ Hz, *C*ortho), 130.9 (d, *J*C-P = 13 Hz, PPh4 *C*ortho), 128.5 (d, *J*C-P = 3 Hz, *C*para), 127.0 (d, *J*C-P = 10 Hz, *C*meta), 117.6 (d, *J*C-P = 89 Hz, PPh4 *C*ipso), 100.3 (s, *C*Hacac), 27.7 (d, *J*C-P = 5 Hz, *C*H3acac), 27.0 (s, *C*H_{3acac}), 19.1 (br s, *C*H₂BF₃).¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 3.6 (broad s). IR (DCM solution, CaF₂ windows, cm⁻¹): 3068 (m), 2969 (s), 2859 (m), 1962 (s, Rh-C≡O), 1574 (s, acac C=O), 1514 (s), 1487 (m), 1434 (m), 1383 (m), 1167 (m), 1104 (s). Elem. Anal: Calc'd $([PPh4][Rh(acac)(CO)(PPh2(CH2BF3))] \subset 61.8 H 4.7 N 0. Found: C 61.5 H 4.9 N 0.$

Synthesis of [PPh4][SePPh₂(CH₂BF₃)] ([PPh₄][1^{Se}]). To a stirring solution of K1 (50 mg, 0.16) mmol) in THF (5 mL) was added a 10-fold excess of elemental selenium powder (129 mg, 1.6 mmol, 10 eq), followed by PPh4Br (75 mg, 0.17 mmol, 1.1 eq) in DCM (3 mL). This mixture was stirred overnight, then filtered through Celite and all volatiles were removed in vacuo. Crystallization by vapor diffusion of Et2O into a CDCl3 or DCM solution of [PPh4][**1**Se] gave the product as clear crystals (60 mg, 0.087 mmol, 55%). Analytically pure samples were obtained by crystallizing [PPh4][1^{Se}] from a mixture of hot MeCN and THF. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl3) δ = 7.98-7.92 (m, 4H, Ph–H), 7.88-7.82 (m, 4H, *p*-Ph-H PPh4), 7.77-7.70 (m, 8H, PPh4), 7.65-7.57 (m, 8H, PPh4), 7.30-7.24 (m, 6H, Ph–H) 1.89 (dq, *J*P-H = 10 Hz, *J*F-H = 4 Hz, 2H, CH₂BF₃). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 33.59 (q, *J*_{P-F} = 10 Hz, *J*_{P-Se} = 656 Hz, 1P, Se*P*Ph₂(CH₂BF₃)), 22.08 (s, 1P, *PPh*₄). ¹⁹F{¹H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = −132.93 (broad s, 3F, BF₃). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (126 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 135.9 (d, *J*_{C-P} = 88.2 Hz, *C*_{ipso}), 135.9 (s, PPh4 *C*para), 134.4 (d, *J*C-P =12.6 Hz, PPh4 *C*meta), 132.3 (d, *J*C-P = 12.6 Hz, *C*ortho), 130.9 $(d, J_{C-P} = 25.2 \text{ Hz}, \text{PPh}_4 \text{Cortho}), 129.8 \text{ (s, Cpara)}, 127.5 \text{ (d, J_{C-P}} = 25.2 \text{ Hz}, \text{Cmeta}), 117.5 \text{ (d, J_{C-P}} = 113.4 \text{ Hz}, \text{Ceta}$ Hz, PPh₄ C_{ipso}), 26.7 (broad s, CH₂BF₃). ¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 3.1 (broad s). IR (CDCl3 solution): 3058 (m), 1978 (w), 1907 (w), 1814 (w), 1590 (m), 1487 (m), 1438 (s), 1310 (w), 1144 (m), 1103 (s), 1023 (s). Elem. Anal: Calc'd ([PPh₄][SePPh₂(CH₂BF₃)] C 64.8 H 4.7 N 0. Found: C 65.0 H 4.7 N 0.3.

Synthesis of [TEA][SePPh₂(CH₂BF₃)] ([TEA][1^{Se}]). To a stirring solution of K1 (50 mg, 0.16) mmol) in THF (5 mL) was added a 10-fold excess of elemental selenium powder (129 mg, 1.6 mmol, 10 eq), followed by TEABr (36 mg, 0.17 mmol, 1.05 eq) in DCM (3 mL). This mixture was stirred overnight, then filtered through Celite and all volatiles were removed in vacuo. Crystallization by vapor diffusion or layering of Et2O into a DCM solution of [TEA][**1**Se] at -35 $\rm ^{\circ}C$ gave the product as clear colorless needle shaped crystals (49 mg, 0.103 mmol, 63%). ¹H NMR $(400 \text{ MHz}, 25 \text{ °C}, \text{CDC1}_3)$ δ = 7.93-7.84 (m, 4H, Ph–H), 7.36-7.3 (m, 6H, Ph–H), 3.18 (q, *J*_{H-H} = 5 Hz, 8 H, N(C*H*2CH3)4), 1.94 (dq, *J*P-H = 16 Hz, *J*F-H = 4 Hz, 2H, C*H*2BF3), 1.20 (t, *J*H-H = 4 Hz, 12 H, N(CH₂CH₃)₄). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 32.2 (q, *J*_{P-F} = 10 Hz, *J*_{P-Se} = 678 Hz, 1P, SePPh₂(CH₂BF₃)). ¹⁹F{¹H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = -131.4 (broad s, 3F, BF₃). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (101 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 136.4 (d, *J*_{C-P} = 70 Hz, *C*_{ipso}), 131.5 (d, *J*_{C-P} = 11 Hz, *C*ortho), 130.0 (d, *J*C-P = 2, *C*_{para}), 127.8 (d, *J*C-P = 12 Hz, *C*_{meta}), 52.5 (t, *J*C-N = 2 Hz, N(*C*H₂CH₃)₄),

23.3 (broad s, *C*H₂BF₃), 7.6 (s, N(CH₂*C*H₃)₄). ¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 2.9 (broad s). IR (KBr pellet): 2981 (w), 2948(w), 1486, (m), 1436 (m), 1393 (w), 1370(w), 1310 (w), 1262 (w), 1139 (s), 1099 (s), 1023 (s), 969 (s), 953 (s), 808 (m), 762 (m), 732 (m), 698 (s). Elem. Anal: Calc'd ([TEA][SePPh₂(CH₂BF₃)] C 53.0 H 6.8 N 2.9. Found: C 52.8 H 7.0 N 3.1.

Synthesis of [PPh₄][SePPh₂(2-BF₃Ph)] ([PPh₄][3^{Se}]). To a stirring acetonitrile solution (10 mL) of K[PPh2(2-BF3Ph)] (50 mg, 0.14 mmol) was added an excess of elemental selenium powder (109 mg, 1.4 mmol, 10 eq) and this mixture was stirred for 6 hours at room temperature. The solution was filtered, and PPh₄Br (62 mg, 0.14 mmol, 1 eq) was added as a solid, the resulting slurry was stirred for 10 min, then all volatiles were removed under vacuum. The white powder was washed with 2 mL CHCl₃ to remove excess PPh₄Br, and then extracted into MeCN. Crystallization by diffusion of Et₂O into the filtered MeCN solution afforded $[PPh_4][SepPh_2(2-BF_3Ph)]$ as clear crystals (Yield: 10 mg, 0.014 mmol, 10%). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 8.04 (dd, 1H, *J*F-H = 16 Hz, *J*H-H = 8 Hz) 7.91 (t, 4H, *J* = 8 Hz), 7.76-7.65 (m, 20H), 7.4-7.2 (m, 9H). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, CD3CN) δ = 40.3 (s, *J*P-Se = 700 Hz, 1P, Se*P*Ph2(2-BF3Ph)]), 22.9 (s, 1P, *P*Ph₄). ¹⁹F{¹H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = −132.6 (m, 3F, BF₃). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (126 MHz, 25 °C, CD3CN) δ = 136.9 (d, *J*C-P = 97 Hz, *C*ipso), 136.4 (s, PPh4 *C*para), 135.9 (s), 135.8 (d, *J*C-P = 16 Hz, *C*³ -Ar), 135.7 (d, *J*C-P = 13 Hz, PPh4 *C*meta), 133.4 (d, *J*C-P = 13 Hz, *C*ortho), 132.0 (s), 131.3 (d, *J*C-P = 13 Hz, PPh4 *C*ortho), 130.9 (s, *C*para), 128.3 (d, *J*C-P = 13 Hz, *C*meta), 126.4 (d, *J*C-P = 25 Hz, C^6 -Ar), 119.0 (d, *J*_{C-P} = 113 Hz, PPh₄ *C*_{ipso}). ¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CDCl₃) δ = 2.4 (broad q, *J*_{B-F} = 51 Hz). IR (KBr pellet): 3048 (m) 1586 (m) 1482 (m) 1434 (s) 1315 (w) 1260 (w) 1181 (m) 1162 (m) 1109 (s) 1052 (w) 978 (m) 955 (m) 935 (s) 759 (m) 725 (s) 691 (s) 610 (m). Elem. Anal: Calc'd ([PPh₄][SePPh₂(2-BF₃Ph)]) C 67.5 H 4.6 N 0. Found: C 67.7 H 4.9 N 0.

3.4.3 X-Ray Structure Determination

The diffraction data were measured at 100 K on a Bruker D8 VENTURE with PHOTON 100 CMOS detector system equipped with a Mo-target micro-focus X-ray tube (λ = 0.71073 Å). Data reduction and integration were performed with the Bruker APEX3 software package (Bruker AXS, version 2015.5-2, 2015). Data were scaled and corrected for absorption effects using the multiscan procedure as implemented in SADABS (Bruker AXS, version 2014/5, 2015, part of Bruker APEX3 software package). The structure was solved by the dual method implemented in $SHELXT¹⁴²$ $SHELXT¹⁴²$ $SHELXT¹⁴²$ and refined by a full-matrix least-squares procedure using OLEX23^{[143](#page-151-3)} software package (XL refinement program version $2014/7^{144}$ $2014/7^{144}$ $2014/7^{144}$). Suitable crystals were mounted on a cryoloop and transferred into the cold nitrogen stream of the Bruker D8 Venture diffractometer. Most of the hydrogen atoms were generated by geometrical considerations and constrained to idealized geometries and allowed to ride on their carrier atoms with an isotropic displacement parameter related to the equivalent displacement parameter of their carrier atoms. The co-crystallized THF and phenyl rings of the phosphine were modeled for disorder in K**1**. For [PPh4][**1Se**], after fully solving and refining the structure, a relatively large residual peak was observed suggesting a possible co-crystallized submixture. The peak was located close to the CH2-BF3 bond, and the distance correlated well with a P-I bond length. Thus, this component was refined as a $(Ph₂)P-I$ (refined occupancy about 4%). While it is hard to concretely assign the identity of such a small submixture, we note that several examples of $(R_2)P-I$ molecules have been previously reported with P-I bond lengths between 2.45-2.55 Å).^{[145](#page-151-5)}

3.4.4 Discussion of van der Waals Radii in **2**

Given that the van der Waals radii of B, C, O and Rh are 205, 196, 171, and 232 pm, the sum of the covalent radii for B…C, B…O, and B…Rh are 401, 376, and 437 respectively.^{[146](#page-151-6)} The

interatomic distances for B⋯C, B⋯O, and B⋯Rh in the crystal structure of 2 are 371.9(4), 395.5(4) and 415.0(4) pm. Dividing the interatomic distances by the sum of the covalent radii gives 0.93, 1.05, and 0.95 for B…C, B…O, and B…Rh, respectively. Although the interatomic distances between B⋯C and B⋯O are significantly shorter than that between B⋯Rh, the lengths normalized for the sum of covalent radii are similar.

3.4.5 Computational Procedures

General

The structure of 1^{Se} , SePPh₂Et, and 2 were optimized in Orca version 4.0^{147} 4.0^{147} 4.0^{147} using the B3P Functional, with the def2-TZVP^{[148](#page-151-8)} basis set on C, H, B, and F, and def2-TZVPP¹⁴⁸ basis set on Rh, Se, and P. Rh also had an ECP applied. Different local minima geometries of the BF3 group were found by changing the input geometry, which resulted in optimization to two local minima in the two extremes of the BF3 positioning. The "transoid" geometry (with a larger Se-P-C-B dihedral) was the global minimum based on comparison of energy by 3.4 kcal, but both geometries were confirmed as local minima with frequency calculations.

NMR couplings were calculated in Gaussian16^{[149](#page-151-9)} with the "Mixed" method using mPW1PW91 functional and $6-311++G(2d,2p)$ basis set, similar to methods used in the literature to calculate Se chemical shifts.[150](#page-152-0) The average coupling was weighted for a Boltzmann population of the cisoid and transoid isomers based on the calculated energy difference which predicts a nearly 100% population of the ground state transoid isomer at room temperature.

We also considered several solvation models to understand to rationalize the trends we observed. While implicit solvation failed to reproduce our observed trends, explicit solvation did match our observations. For these calculations, the starting geometries of **1**Se were used with 10 randomly arranged solvent molecules of either MeCN, DCM, or CHCl3. The geometry of this model was

then optimized with ORCA 5.0^{151} 5.0^{151} 5.0^{151} with the BP86 functional, with def2-QZVP basis sets on all atoms as well as the D3BJ dispersion correction. Local minima were found, but we did not perform frequency calculations both due to the size of the system, and the high likelihood of multiple minima of similar energy due to minor changes in solvent coordinates. NMR couplings were then calculated in ORCA 5.0 using the EPR/NMR module with the same basis sets but with the O3LYP functional.

Use of Coulomb's Law to Estimate the Electric Field

The electric field exerted at phosphorus in **1Se** as a result of the anionic BF3 moiety was estimated using a variation of Coulomb's law. The electric field equation was obtained by dividing coulombs law by q_1 and explicitly separating the vector connecting the points into x, y and z components.^{[152](#page-152-2)} Doing this results in three equations describing the x, y and z components of the electric field where the z-axis vector is defined as the P-Se bond vector. The equation for the z component is shown below.

$$
E_z(x_1, y_1, z_1) = \frac{q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{z_1 - z_2}{[(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2]^{3/2}}
$$

The charge of q_2 is in Coulombs, the constant of proportionality is in V/mC (or equivalently Nm^2/C^2), and the x,y,z coordinates are in meters. The resulting electric field is in units of V/m.

Two separate optimized geometries for **1Se** were considered, the transoid and cisoid rotamers (Figures A3.52 and A3.53). Both geometries were considered in order to estimate the range of accessible geometries in solution. Starting with optimized geometries, the z-axis was aligned along the P−Se bond in Avogadro.[153](#page-152-3) The x,y,z coordinates for the B were used as the location of a negative charge, point 2, and the coordinates for phosphorus were used as point 1. An example of the code put into Matlab to calculate the electric field in the transoid geometry (coordinates included in code) is shown below. The electric field calculated at P for this geometry in V/Å was $E(x, y, z) = (0.5145, 0.9015, -1.0672)$. The electric field was analogously calculated at Se(x,y,z) $= (0, 0, 2.14028)$ in V/Å and was $(0.1334, 0.2338, -0.5423)$. The coordinates for boron and selenium in the cisoid geometry were B(x, y, z) = (0.52958, 2.85487, -0.94860) and Se(x,y,z) = $(0, 0, 2.11743)$. The electric field calculated at P in the cisoid geometry in V/Å is E(x, y, z) = (0.2679, 1.4444, −0.4799). The electric field at Se in the cisoid geometry in V/Å was (0.1014, 0.5467, −0.5872). The same code was used to estimate the location for a point charge on the z axis below the phosphine to replicate the electric field. The x and y coordinates were set to 0 and values were entered into the z coordinate until a similar field was predicted. In this case, placing a negative point charge at $(0, 0, -3.7)$ resulted in a predicted field at P of $(0, 0, -1.0533)$. This negative point charge was included via the "charge" input in Gaussian.

NBO Analysis

We have considered **1**, 1^{Se} , and **2** with an NBO/NPA analysis to look for any donor-acceptor interactions between non-adjacent atoms. Using the second-order perturbation analysis we have been unable to find any donor-acceptor interactions >2 kcal/mol between B/F and P/Se/Rh in any of the structures we have examined.

We have also used NBO analysis to examine our simplified assumption of a "point charge" centered at B. We have used NBO analysis to look at the sum of the charges on B and the 4 atoms directly bound to it. This sum is −1.62. In the neutral congener Ph2PEt this analogous sum is −0.69. Comparing these two net values shows that there is almost perfectly an additional −1 charge on the BF3 substituted phosphine. Furthermore, comparison of the individual charges on each atom shows that this negative charge is fairly symmetrically distributed, albeit with a slightly larger

change going from H to F (more negative) and from C to B (more positive) than is observed in the change of charge on the common methylene carbon. As the electric field at P or Se will be an average of all the charge density, the effects from each individual atom will be averaged. Overall, while there are some subtleties as to the arrangement of the charge, the NBO analysis does support that the estimation of a point charge localized at B is reasonable. This demonstrates that simple electrostatic relationships (Coulomb's Law) and charge assumptions (approximating a BF3 as a point charge) provide a good model for solution phase electrostatic effects.

3.4.6 Discussion of the Slopes of *J*P-Se vs. 1/4π*ε*

The linear fits of *J*P-Se versus 1/(4*πε*) for [PPh4][**1Se**] and [PPh4][**3Se**] show that Coulomb's law provides a reasonable approximation for how the donor properties of these phosphine selenides vary with different solvents:

$$
F = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi \varepsilon r^2}
$$

Coulomb's law also has dependences on the charges involved in the electrostatic interaction (q1 and q2) as well as the distances between those charges. If we make the assumption that the charges in [PPh4][**1Se**] and [PPh4][**3Se**] should be identical (or at least similar), then the ratio of the slopes to the linear fits of J_{P-Se} versus $1/(4\pi\varepsilon)$ should be proportional to the difference in the square of the point charge-to-test charge distances in the two phosphine selenides. If we use the B⋯P distance for this value, the distances are 3.029 and 3.562 Å. The ratio of the squares of these distances is 0.72. This suggests that, simplistically, we might expect that the ratio of the slopes of *J*P-Se versus 1/(4*πε*) for [PPh4][**1Se**] and [PPh4][**3Se**] should be ~1.4. The ratio from the linear fits to the data is 1.5, in good agreement to the predicted ratio from the difference charge-to-charge distance.

3.4.7 Procedure for Oxidative Addition of C_6F_6

UV-visible Spectroscopic Monitoring

To a stirring THF solution (1 mL) of Ni(COD)₂ (14 mg, 0.051 mmol) was added a THF solution (1 mL) of K**1** (30 mg, 0.099 mmol, 1.9 eq) and an excess of C6F6 (200 mg, 1.07 mmol, 21 eq), resulting in a deep red solution. After stirring for one hour, the solution had become brown-yellow, and NMR indicated oxidative addition of the C−F bond via the appearance of characteristic 19F NMR peaks at −383 (Ni–F) and −117 (*o*-C–F) ppm and the disappearance of ³¹P peaks associated with K1 (Figures A3.74-A3.79). Further characterization of the oxidative addition product could not be obtained due to the instability of the resulting species. Samples for UV-vis were prepared by dissolving Ni(COD)2 (10 mg, 0.035 mmol), K**1** (22 mg, 0.072 mmol, 2 equiv.), and C6F6 (89 μL, 0.76 mmol, 21 equiv.) in 2.9 mL THF, resulting in a 12 mM solution. Diluting 75 μL of this solution in 2.5 mL resulted in a 0.36 mM solution which was used to monitor the decay of the Ni complex by UV-vis. The decay of the absorbance at 464 nm was monitored to determine the rate of decay of the in situ formed Ni complex (Figure A3.40). Monitoring the decay under identical conditions in the absence of C6D6 indicates minimal decay (Figure A3.44).

NMR Spectroscopic Measurement of Reaction Kinetics

K**1**

A THF stock solution was prepared by adding 66 μ L of CF₃Ph (0.54 mmol) and 125 μ L of C₆F₆ (1.08 mmol) to 9 mL of THF. In a 20 mL scintillation vial Ni (COD) ₂ (10 mg, 0.036 mmol), K1 (22 mg, 0.072 mmol, 2 equiv.) and PPh3O (10 mg, 0.036, 1 equiv.) were dissolved in 3 mL of the stock solution (delivering 0.18 mmol of CF_3Ph , 5 equiv., and 0.36 mmol C_6F_6 , 10 equiv.). Approximately 500 μL of this solution was pipetted into an NMR tube, which was then covered with a small piece of tubing connected to a plastic adapter, removed from the glovebox, frozen in LN2, placed under vacuum on the Schlenk line and sealed under vacuum. The sample was kept frozen until the time of the first scan.

PCy3

A THF stock solution was prepared by adding 66 μL of CF₃Ph (0.54 mmol) and 125 μL of C₆F₆ (1.08 mmol) to 9 mL of THF. In a 20 mL scintillation vial Ni (COD) ₂ (10 mg, 0.036 mmol), PCy₃ (20 mg, 0.072 mmol, 2 equiv.) and PPh3O (10 mg, 0.036, 1 equiv.) were dissolved in 3 mL of the stock solution (delivering 0.18 mmol of CF_3Ph (5 equiv.) and 0.36 mmol C_6F_6 (10 equiv.). Approximately 500 μL of this solution was pipetted into an NMR tube, which was then covered with a small piece of tubing connected to a plastic adapter, removed from the glovebox, frozen in LN2, placed under vacuum on the Schlenk line and sealed under vacuum. The sample was kept frozen until the time of the first scan. NMR spectra were collected every 3 hours for 18 hours, then every 5 hours for 35 more hours, for 53 hours of monitoring total.

PE_{t3}

A THF stock solution was prepared by adding 32 μL of PEt³ (0.216 mmol), 66 μL of CF3Ph (0.54 mmol) and 125 μL of C_6F_6 (1.08 mmol) to 9 mL of THF. In a 20 mL scintillation vial Ni(COD)₂ $(10 \text{ mg}, 0.036 \text{ mmol})$ and PPh₃O $(10 \text{ mg}, 0.036, 1 \text{ equiv})$ were dissolved in 3 mL of the stock solution (delivering 0.072 mmol of PEt₃ (2 equiv.), 0.18 mmol of CF₃Ph (5 equiv.), and 0.36 mmol C_6F_6 (10 equiv.)). Approximately 500 μ L of this solution was pipetted into an NMR tube, which was then covered with a small piece of tubing connected to a plastic adapter, removed from the glovebox, frozen in LN2, placed under vacuum on the Schlenk line and sealed under vacuum. The sample was kept frozen until the time of the first scan. Spectra of the reaction were collected every

3 hours for 18 hours, then every 5 hours for 36 more hours, then every 12 hours for 60 more hours, for a total of 114 hours. Previous reports suggest the reaction reaches completion after 4 weeks, and the partial conversion observed here is consistent with that time frame.^{[154](#page-152-4)}

NMR Spectroscopy Methods

 T_1 measurements of the reaction mixtures were used to decide collection parameters for monitoring the course of the reaction. Fluorine NMR was collected without decoupling with the following parameters: NS = 16, O1P = -113 ppm, SW = 140 ppm, D1 = 25 s and AQ = 2s. ³¹P{1H} was collected using the following parameters: $NS = 31$, $OIP = 35$ ppm, $SW = 429$ ppm, $D1 = 35$ s, and AQ = 2s. The spectra were collected using an automated Bruker Avance III HD nanobay 400 MHz. The rate of formation was determined using Mnova by generating a concentration graph, and fitting the concentration data to a three parameter exponential fit to the equation $y = B+F*exp(-E)$ x*G), with G the observed rate.

3.4.8 Procedures for Catalytic C−F Borylation

Trial reactions – A 4 mL screw thread cap vial was charged with solid $Ni(COD)_2$ (10 mg, 0.036) mmol), K₁ (22 mg, 0.072 mmol, 2 equiv.) and B₂pin₂ (amount specified in reaction tables). The solid mixture was then dissolved in 1 mL THF to give dark red solutions. Next, 1,3 difluorobenzene (40 μL, 0.4 mmol, 11 equiv.), CF₃Ph (20 μL, 0.16 mmol, 4.5 equiv.) and any additives were added to the reactions. Solutions were heated at 50 °C for the specified amounts of time. To work up the reactions, the 1 mL reaction was diluted to 5 mL in a scintillation vial. From that solution, 50 μL were diluted to 400 μL within an NMR tube, giving a 4 mM solution of CF_3Ph and what would be a 10 mM solution of product if there were 100% conversion of the fluoroarene. All yields are reported relative to added 1,3-difluorobenzene, consistent with the yields reported

in Figure 3.4. See Tables A3.17-A3.24 for the yields from trial runs. Some of the yields are a slight underestimate because an excess of 1,3-difluorobenzene was added relative to B_2 pin₂ (11 equiv. arene vs 10 equiv. B₂pin₂ relative to $Ni(COD)_{2}$. Yield was determined by comparing the integration of the CF3Ph peak to the product peak using the following equation- [155](#page-152-5)

Moles of product =
$$
\frac{Integration \ of \ product}{\# \ of \ functions \ in \ product}
$$
 × $\frac{\# \ of \ functions \ in \ CF3Ph}{Integration \ of \ CF3Ph}$ × moles of *CF3Ph*

Yield = moles of product/theoretical yield * 100

Theoretical yield for borylated products is 0.4 mmol, theoretical yield for coupled products is 0.2 mmol.

Catalytic reactions – Stock solutions were prepared for three reactions at a time by dissolving Ni(COD)₂ (30 mg, 0.108 mmol, 3 equiv.), K1 (66 mg, 0.216 mmol, 6 equiv.), and B₂pin₂ (552 mg, 2.16 mmol, 60 equiv.) in 3 mL THF. Next the substrate (1.2 mmol, 33 equiv.), CF3Ph (60 μL, 0.48 mmol, 13.5 equiv.), and MeOH (90 μL, 2.16 mmol, 60 equiv.) was added. The solution was divided into three vials which each already contained CsOH (54 mg, 0.36 mmol, 1 equiv.). The reactions were then heated at 50 °C for 4 hours. See Figure 3.4 for the yields from these reactions. To characterize the yield of the C6FH5 reaction, the 1 mL reaction was diluted to 5 mL in a scintillation vial. From this solution, 45 μL was subsequently diluted to 3 mL, giving what would be a 1.2 mM solution if there were 100% conversion. This solution was filtered through a short silica plug in a pipette. The integration of the C_6H_5-B pin was compared to an integral calibration curve prepared with stock solutions of C6H5-Bpin. The methods for workup and yield determination by NMR for the remaining catalytic reactions are identical to those for the trial reactions. Literature sources were used to assign the NMR shifts and MS of substrates and products:

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Chapter 4: Electrostatic Effects on Bond Vibrations in Ni Nitrosyl Compounds Featuring a Novel Borate Anion

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4.1 Introduction

The incorporation of electric field effects into catalytic systems has emerged as a promising avenue to control reactivity.^{[1](#page-185-0)-3} Large oriented electric fields have been reported within enzyme active sites and are proposed to be the predominant contributor to enzyme catalysis in certain cases.^{[4,](#page-185-2)[5](#page-185-3)} The most frequently proposed method of electric field mediated transition state stabilization is through alignment of the electric field within the active site to mimic the transition state dipole.^{4-[7](#page-185-4)} Recently, electric fields within metalloenzymes have also been proposed to alter fundamental properties of the metal active site such as redox potential, basicity, and the localization of spin density.^{[8](#page-185-5)} Externally applied electric fields have also been applied to accelerate reactions and alter selectivity in heterogeneous systems such as capacitor reactors, probe-bed-probe reactors, and integrated circuit reactors.³ Organic reactions can likewise be accelerated by the presence of an externally applied field, as demonstrated using scanning tunneling microscopy experiments.^{[9](#page-185-6),10}

Electric fields within enzymatic active sites are generated by the presence of alkali metal cations and charged or polar residues throughout the protein structure.^{2,[5](#page-143-3)} A similar strategy for incorporating electric field effects into molecular reactivity can be envisioned through the incorporation of charged functional groups.² Indeed, multiple studies examining the electrostatic influence of cationic alkali and alkaline earth metals, $11-13$ $11-13$ $11-13$ cationic trimethylammonium groups, $14-14$ $14-14$ $14-14$ ^{[16](#page-186-2)} and anionic sulfonates,^{14,[16,](#page-143-5)[17](#page-186-3)} borates^{[18,](#page-186-4)[19](#page-186-5)} and carboxylates^{[20,](#page-186-6)[21](#page-186-7)} in transition metal complexes
have been reported in the past few years. Charged moieties can exert a range of different effects on transition metal electronic structure and reaction mechanism. Most commonly, the redox potential of the transition metal is significantly shifted as a function of the charge.² Other electronic features that have been influenced include TM=E basicity (E=O, N)^{[11,](#page-143-1)[13,](#page-143-2)[16](#page-143-3)} and the energy of molecular orbitals.^{[22](#page-186-0)} Reactivity trends in H-atom transfer,^{[11](#page-143-1),16} O-atom transfer¹⁸ and O₂ and CO₂ reduction reactivity^{14,[15,](#page-143-6)[23](#page-186-1)} have also been observed to differ from those observed with neutral ligands.

Despite these recent examples, the assignment and interpretation of electrostatic effects remains challenging in molecular systems. One complication involves deconvoluting electrostatic effects from inductive contributions from the charged functional groups. To date, this challenge has been addressed in a few examples by varying the ionic strength or dielectric constant of the surrounding media, which variably quenches the electrostatic contribution to allow assignment.^{[16,](#page-143-3)[24](#page-186-2)} In the previous chapter, we demonstrated that in experimentally accessible conditions up to 46% of the increase in donor strength in an anionic phosphine relative to the neutral conger resulted from electrostatic contributions. The electrostatic influence would increase even more if the compound were soluble in non-polar solvents, given an estimated 82% contribution in a vacuum environment. The significant contribution from through space effects suggests that the location of the charge in space will likewise exert a substantial influence. Given this, an additional challenge in characterizing molecular electrostatic effects regards the anticipated directionality of these effects based on precedent from enzymatic and heterogeneous examples.^{[5](#page-143-7)[-7](#page-143-8)} However, an orientation dependence to field effects in molecular systems has not been clearly demonstrated. One reason for the dearth of examples is the synthetic challenge of moving charges around a molecule such that the orientation of a field can be varied, and examples of suitable systems are extremely

limited.¹⁴ A recent report from the Mayer group examined the dependence of redox potential and electrocatalytic CO₂ and O₂ reduction reactivity between four different atropisomers of iron metalated *ortho*-trimethylammonium substituted tetraphenyl porphyrin complexes.[15,](#page-143-6)[24,](#page-144-0)[25](#page-186-3) In these atropisomers, the charges are fixed either above or below the porphyrin plane, and result in distinct electric field environments at the iron center. The iron based redox couples, as well as the overpotential and TOF for O₂ and CO₂ reduction was found to vary minimally across the series despite the different electric field environments. Given the lack of variation between the different atropisomers, it was proposed that the density of charge surrounding the iron center plays a larger role in determining the redox potential and reactivity than the exact orientation of the generated field. Considering that the alignment of an applied field with the transition state dipole is a key method of rate acceleration in heterogeneous and enzymatic systems, the lack of orientation dependence in molecular systems suggests that similar effects may not be accessible. To address this question, additional studies on molecular systems in which the field orientation can be altered are necessary.

Measuring the effect of charged ligand scaffolds on the stretching frequency of coordinated small molecules should provide insight on the electric field environment at metal coordination site. Diatomic bond vibrations are known to be sensitive to the magnitude of the field along the bond axis. Specifically, the dipole of the first excited state in a polar diatom is larger than the dipole in the ground state, resulting in a greater sensitivity of the energy of the first excited state to an applied field[.5,](#page-143-7)[26](#page-187-0) As the energies of the two states are differentially affected, the transition energy measured by vibrational spectroscopy shifts accordingly. This effect is known as the vibrational Stark effect and has been used by the Boxer group to measure electric fields in enzymatic and solution

environments[.5,](#page-143-7)[26](#page-145-0) Given the response of bond vibrations to external electric fields, analyzing the effect of charged functional groups on a bond vibration in molecular systems may provide insight on the relevance of a field interpretation in these systems. Additionally, bond activation at transition metal centers is a key step in small molecule activation and may provide insight on how to leverage electrostatic effects in similar reactions. **Figure 4.1** Proposed series of complexes with varying electric fields due to differential positioning of the anionic moiety.

To address the impact of field orientation in molecular systems, this work proposes the synthesis of a series of tridentate pyridine-based ligands with anionic functional groups appended to different positions on the pyridine ring. The large charge on the tri-anionic ligand should lead to significant electrostatic effects, and the variation of the position should lead to distinct field strengths at the metal center. To measure the anion effects on donor strength and the electric field at the metal center, I have targeted metalation with a nickel nitrosyl fragment, a metal diatomic oscillator combination commonly used to measure the donor strength of tri-dentate ligands (Figure 4.1).^{[27](#page-187-1)} Previous studies have reported a nitrosyl stretching (v_{NO}) frequency of ~1740 cm⁻¹ in the case of weakly donating ligands such as tris-pyrazolyl borate and decreasing stretching frequencies with the use of more strongly donating ligands such as tris carbene borates (\sim 1700 cm⁻¹).²⁷ The nitrosyl stretching frequency obtained with the proposed anionic ligands will also be compared to the Ni nitrosyl metalated neutral tris-pyridine ligand (Figure 4.1).

Initially, the synthesis of anionic tripodal pyridine-based ligands was pursued with anionic trifluoroborate (BF₃⁻) moieties. DFT calculations on the proposed Ni-NO series indicate that the v_{NO} is sensitive to the location of the anion. However, the BF₃^{$-$} se anions reduced the solubility of the starting 2-bromopyridine arms in organic solvents, inhibiting the reliable synthesis of tridentate ligands with a central phosphine atom. To address solubility concerns, the synthesis of the novel anion R-BF₂CF₃⁻ incorporating a trifluoromethyl group was pursued. The incorporation of the R- $BF₂CF₃⁻$ anion has been preliminarily observed at the 3, 4 and 5 positions of 2-bromo-pyridine, although the work-up procedure remains under development. Upon isolation of pure BF_2CF_3 ⁻ substituted 2-bromopyridine, the reagent can be reacted with phosphine electrophiles to generate multi-dentate pyridine-based ligands, analogous to the procedures developed with the $BF_3^$ substituted 2-bromopyridine.

4.2 Results and Discussion

4.2.1 Computational Prediction of Donor Strength

The influence of anion positioning on the donor strength of tridentate pyridine ligands was assessed computationally across a series of Ni nitrosyl complexes (see experimental section for computational details). In total five distinct ligands were investigated, a neutral tris-pyridyl phosphine (PPy3) ligand and the series of proposed anionic pyridine ligands P(6-BF3-2-py)3**,** P(5- BF₃-2-py)₃, P(4-BF₃-2-py)₃, and P(3-BF₃-2-py)₃. The distinct positions of the anions in each ligand is expected to result in a different electrostatic environment, as Coulomb's law predicts a $1/r^2$ dependence of the electric field on distance.^{[28](#page-187-2)} The ligands were optimized with Ni-NO, as the nitrosyl vibration (v_{NO}) is a commonly used metric of donor strength for tri-dentate ligands.²⁷ Specifically, ν_{NO} decreases in energy with more strongly donating ligands due to an increase in

Figure 4.2 DFT optimized structures of the proposed Ni-NO complexes with the calculated stretching frequency ($VNO(comp)$), the experimental ($VNO(exp)$) or scaled ($VNO(scale)$) stretching frequency, M-N-O bond angle, and electric field predicted along the z axis using Coulomb's law and the optimized structures (see experimental section for details).

back bonding from Ni. For example, the v_{NO} for the tris carbene borate complex PhB('BuIm)3NiNO is 1701 cm⁻¹, while for the tris-pyrazolyl borate ligand HB(pzMe2)3NiNO v_{NO} is 1746 cm⁻¹.^{[27](#page-146-0)} Additionally, ν_{NO} is expected to be informative in this case as bond vibrations can report on the electric field in their environment via the vibrational stark effect.⁵ Geometry optimizations of the nitrosyl complexes using the O3LYP functional shows tridentate coordination of the ligand to Ni in all cases and Ni-N-O angles varying between 167.2 and 179.8° (Figures A4.31-A4.35). Nickel nitrosyls can assume two distinct resonance structures, either a linear Ni−N≡O with a formally

cationic nitrogen and oxygen, or a bent Ni−N=O with a formally anionic nitrogen.[29,](#page-187-3)[30](#page-187-4),[31](#page-187-5) The angles of the optimized structures are consistent with linear nitrosyl complexes but suggest that the anion position may influence the contributions of each resonance structure. Frequency calculations indicate that the nitrosyl stretch $v_{NO(comp)}$ varies with anion position, with the highest energy stretch predicted for $[P(6-BF_3-2-py)_3NiNO]^2$ (Figure 4.2). The experimentally determined v_{NQ} frequency determined for the neutral ligand PPy₃ nitrosyl complex (see below) can be used to scale the calculated frequencies, a common correction applied to predicted virbations.^{[32](#page-187-6)} Surprisingly, the experimental $v_{NO(exp)}$ for [PPy₃NiNO]⁺ is lower in energy than the predicted VNO(scale) for [P(6-BF₃-2-py)3NiNO]²⁻, suggesting that the neutral ligand is a stronger donor than the tri-anionic ligand. This trend is contrary to what would be expected given the observed increase in phosphine donor strength upon inclusion of a BF_3^- moiety in Chapter 3. The remaining anionic ligands are predicted to have lower energy $v_{NO(scale)}$ stretches than $[PPy3NiNO]^+$. Notably, the νNO(scale) stretch in the two examples of meta substitution, [P(5-BF3-2-py)3NiNO]2− and [P(3-BF3- 2-py)3NiNO]^{2−} are predicted to vary by 51 cm⁻¹ despite what are likely similar inductive and resonance contributions, highlighting the potential involvement of through space electrostatic contributions. While the values of the *v*NO(scale) stretches vary outside of the experimentally established frequency range, they do suggest that substantial variation in the nitrosyl vibration may be observed simply due to modification of anion location.

4.2.2 Synthesis and Characterization of Heteroaryl Phosphines with BF3K Substituents

The synthesis of bi- and tri-dentate ligands with anionic pyridines was initially pursued with 6 trifluoroborate (BF3) substituted 2-bromopyridine (2-Br-6-BF3K-py), the synthesis of which was previously reported in the literature.[33](#page-187-7) Given the challenge of selective lithiation in unsymmetric dibromo pyridines, the synthesis of 2-bromopyridines with BF3 moieties in the 3, 4 and 5 positions

was not initially pursued, although literature reports suggest that selective lithiation and subsequent functionalization is possible.^{[34](#page-187-8)-36} A bromine at the 2 position was included to enable subsequent substitution onto a central tethering atom such as phosphine and furnish the desired multi-dentate

ligands. It was found that the lithium-halogen exchange of 2-Br-6-BF3K-py with nBuLi in THF at −78 °C was aided by the inclusion of stoichiometric LiCl to increase the solubility of the pyridine. Initially, the bi-dentate ligand was targeted as the double substitution was

Figure 4.3 The proposed tri- and bi-dentate ligands $P(6-BF_3-2-py)$ ₃ and $PPh(6-BF_3-2-py)$ pyridine)₂.

anticipated to proceed more cleanly (Figure 4.3, right). Indeed, reaction of the lithiated pyridine with pre-cooled PPhCl₂ resulted in the formation of PPh(6-BF₃K-2-pyridine)₂, which was isolated at the protonated zwitterion in 34% yield after stirring with 2 equivalents of $\text{HCl}_{(aq)}$ and extracting into ethyl acetate (Figures A4.1-A4.5). The preparation of a tridentate ligand was subsequently pursued with PCl3, which proved to be a more challenging electrophile (Figure 4.3, left). Addition of pre-cooled PCl₃ to the pyridine anion usually resulted in the formation of P(6-BF₃K-2-py)₃, which was also isolated as a protonated zwitterion in 11% yield after precipitation from an $HC_{\text{[aq]}}$ /methanol solution (Figures A4.6-A4.10). Although the syntheses for these multi-dentate phosphine-based ligands have been replicated, they do not reliably result in the desired product and are low yielding. One potential reason for this variability is the minimal solubility of 2-Br-6- BF3K-py in THF at −78 °C, which may preclude stoichiometric reactivity. In order to address this challenge, the synthesis of more soluble anionic 2-bromopyridines was pursued.

4.2.3 Synthesis and Characterization of Pyridines with BF2CF3K Substituents

Anionic 2-bromopyridines with more solubilizing anions were pursued to increase the reliability of the phosphine multi-dentate ligand synthesis. A more soluble anion is also anticipated to benefit the study of electrostatic effects, as non-polar solvents less effectively shield unpaired charges and allow for electrostatic effects over longer length scales.^{[7,](#page-143-8)[24,](#page-144-0)[37](#page-187-10)} Ideally, the selected anion would be solubilizing, non-coordinating to prevent convoluting covalent interactions, inert to common decomposition pathways, and compact to ensure a high charge density. The commonly used sulfonate and carboxylate anions do not fulfill these requirements, as they can coordinate metals and engage in proton-shuttling reactivity.^{16,[38](#page-188-0),[39](#page-188-1)} Alky and alkoxy borates have been reported to engage in group transfer reactivity,^{[40](#page-188-2),[41](#page-188-3)} and aryl borates have been observed to engage in redox reactivity and have more charge delocalization into the aryl rings. $42-44$ $42-44$ $42-44$ The synthesis of a novel anion to meet these requirements was pursued as no viable options existed to date. The substitution of a fluorine on BF_3 with a CF_3 group was predicted to increase the solubility of the anion while maintaining a compact and chemically and redox inert anion. However, there are extremely limited examples of CF₃ substituted fluoroborates, with BF₃CF₃K being the predominant example.^{[45,](#page-188-7)[46](#page-188-8)} The substitution of R-BF3 moieties has been reported with TMSCl in the presence of KF, and accordingly the initial attempts at generating the new anion involved the use of TMSCl, KF, and TMSCF₃ with 2-Br-6-BF₃K-py (Figure 4.4).^{[47](#page-188-9),[48](#page-188-10)} However, no substitution was observed under these conditions. Alternatively, the substitution of boranes with CF3 has been reported previously with TMSCF₃ and KF and could potentially be implemented with boronic acid substituted 2-bromopyridines (Figure 4.4).^{[41,](#page-151-0)46} However, the synthesis of boronic acid substituted pyridines on large scales is complicated by competing protodeboronation decomposition pathways.^{[55,](#page-156-0)[49](#page-188-11)} Finally, the borane $B(OMe)_{2}CF_{3}$ has been reported from the reaction between $B(OMe)_{3}CF_{3}$ and super-

stoichiometric MeSO₂Cl.⁴⁶ In theory the borane could be substituted for the B(OⁱPr)₃ electrophile used in the reported synthesis of 2-Br-6-BF₃K-pyridine (Figure 4.4). The borane B(OMe)₂CF₃ is reported to be isolated via distillation, however in our hands the product was very challenging to separate from excess MeSO₂Cl. Alternatively, the abstraction of methoxide from B(OMe)₂ArCF₃ has been reported with stoichiometric TMSCl.⁴¹ Consistent with this report, the in-situ generation of B(OMe)2CF3 from B(OMe)3CF3 and TMSCl proved to be a synthetically viable route to install a BF2CF3 anion (vide infra).

While pursuing the design of a novel anion, the method of carbon-halogen exchange to install the anion on 2-bromopyridine was also re-evaluated. It has been reported previously that the use of iPrMgCl•LiCl, also known as turbo Grignard, can be used to substitute aryl iodides with pinacol boranes.^{[50](#page-188-12)} As this procedure is simpler than lithium halogen exchange at low temperatures, the use of 2-bromo-x-iodo-pyridines ($x = 2$, 3, 4 and 5) was selected for the initial investigations with novel anions. The viability of this method of substitution with the in-situ prepared $B(OMe)_{2}CF_{3}$ was first investigated with 2-Br-4-I-pyridine. A stoichiometric amount of turbo Grignard was combined with 2-Br-4-I-pyridine in THF at −10 °C and then stirred at room temperature for 2

Figure 4.4 Synthetic routes towards the preparation of a BF₂CF₃ substituted pyridine.

hours. The pyridine Grignard was then cooled to −78 °C and a solution of the borane generated insitu via the reaction of stoichiometric KB(OMe)3CF3 with 1 equivalent of TMSCl was filtered into the solution. The reaction was warmed to room temperature overnight, and the next morning dioxane was added to precipitate the Mg salts. Without this step, the reaction does not proceed cleanly as Mg can act as a fluoride abstractor (Figure A4.24).^{[51](#page-189-0)} Subsequently, the reaction is

Figure 4.5 SXRD structure of 2-Br-4- BF2CF3K-pyridine. C is in grey, N is in blue, Br is in brown, B is in pink, F is in green and K is in cyan. H-atoms are omitted for clarity.

filtered and the filtrate is combined with 3 equivalents of KHF2(aq) for 30 minutes. Drying of the organic fraction then yields a brown oil which was characterized by NMR spectroscopy. The ¹H NMR spectrum indicates approximately 80% purity as three major resonances with the

appropriate splitting patterns are observed

(Figure A4.17). Additionally, two resonances consistent with CF3 and BF2 resonance are observed in the ¹⁹F NMR spectrum (Figure A4.18), and a peak consistent with an anionic boron is observed around 0 ppm in the ¹¹B NMR spectrum (Figure A4.19). Notably, the BF₂ resonance around -170 ppm in the 19F NMR spectrum is significantly shifted in comparison to the BF3 resonance in 2-Br-6-BF3K-pyridine, which appears around ~140 ppm. Although significant coupling between the fluorine and boron atoms is anticipated, the coupling in these spectra is mostly not resolved. Test scale reactions with 2-Br-3-I-pyridine and 2-Br-5-I-pyridine also suggest the formation of the desired product in ~80% initial purity, while the reaction with 2-Br-6-I-pyridine does not yield the desired product (Figures A4.25-A4.30). Scaling up the synthesis to 3g of 2-Br-4-I-pyridine resulted again in the desired 2-Br-4-BF2CF3K-pyridine as the major crude product, although the development of a purification procedure is ongoing. Crystals of this product were obtained from a concentrated solution of the pyridine in DCM/THF, and the structure determined by single crystal x-ray diffraction (SXRD) confirms the presence of the BF_2CF_3 anion on the pyridine (Figure 4.5). The solubility properties of this new anion appear improved relative to the BF3 pyridine congener, as the brown oil readily dissolves in minimal MeCN, THF, acetone and ethyl acetate. The relatively high purity of the crude products from these reactions are promising, and bulk purification methods are currently being pursued.

4.2.4 Synthesis and Characterization of Ni-NO Complexes

Following large scale synthesis of the BF_2CF_3 substituted bromopyridines, they will be incorporated into tridentate ligands using a synthetic prep analogous to the one developed for the 2-Br-6-BF3K-pyridine. The next step will be to react them with nBuLi at −78 °C and quench the carbanion with PCl3, and it is anticipated that LiCl will not be required given the improved

solubility in THF. In order to compare the νNO stretches of Ni-NO complexes supported by anionic and neutral pyridine ligands, the neutral ligand congener was also prepared. The ligand PPy3 was synthesized according to literature procedure^{[52](#page-189-1)} and metalated with $NiNOBr(PPh₃)₂$ ^{[53](#page-189-2)} in the presence of NaBPh₄ to furnish [PPy3NiNO][[BPh4]. SXRD of crystals grown from DCM/benzene confirm coordination of the pyridines to nickel (Figure 4.6). Four

Figure 4.6 SXRD structure of [PPy3NiNO][BPh4]. C is in grey, N in blue, O in red, P in purple, and Ni in teal. H atoms and BPh4 omitted for clarity.

different Ni-NO complexes are present in the asymmetric unit with Ni-N-O bond angles varying from 164.4(5) to 172.3(4) $^{\circ}$, suggesting the angle may be impacted by crystal packing. NMR spectra likewise support the assignment of a symmetric complex in solution (Figures A4.11- A4.13). The IR spectrum of this compound contains the nitrosyl stretch at 1795 cm⁻¹, indicating that the ligand is very weakly donating (Figure A4.16). Cyclic voltammetry of the compound in THF shows two irreversible reductions at -2.05 and -2.81 V vs Fc/Fc⁺ (Figures A4.14 and A4.15). The first reduction may be consistent with nitrosyl coupling, which has previously been observed with pyridine ligands.⁵⁴

4.3 Conclusion

The syntheses of novel phosphine linked bidentate and tridentate pyridine ligands with BF3 substituents at the 6 position on pyridine are reported. However, the syntheses are low yielding and unreliable, possibly due to the limited solubility of the BF₃⁻ anion in organic solvents. The limited solubility of the BF₃⁻ anion will also be problematic for the observation of electrostatic effects, which are most prominent in non-polar solvents. Given these considerations, the design of a novel BF₂CF₃⁻ anion for incorporation into the series of proposed pyridine-based ligands is pursued. Preliminary results towards the synthesis of anionic 2-bromopyridines with $BF_2CF_3^-$ at the 3, 4 or 5 positions on the pyridine are presented. In these procedures, the $B(OMe)_{2}CF_{3}$ borane is prepared in-situ and reacted with the 2-Br-X-MgBr-pyridine $(X = 3, 4, or 5)$ Grignard and subsequently fluorinated to yield the crude desired 2-Br-X-BF₂CF₃-pyridine $(X = 3, 4, or 5)$ product in approximately 80% purity as determined by 1 H NMR. A single crystal structure of the 2-Br-4-BF2CF3-pyridine confirms the connectivity of the proposed anionic pyridine and the assignment of NMR resonances. The purification of these novel pyridines will be optimized and their incorporation into tridentate ligands will be pursued. Metalation of these compounds with

NiNO will allow for comparison of the donor strength with other tri-dentate ligands and provide insight into electrostatic effects on bond vibrations.

4.4 Experimental

4.4.1 General Procedures

All reagents were purchased from commercial suppliers and used without further purification unless otherwise specified. The reagents $P(Py)_{3}$,^{[52](#page-154-0)} NiNOBr(PPh₃)₂,⁵³ 2-Br-6-BF₃K-pyridine,^{33,[55](#page-189-4)} and $KB(OMe)$ ₃ $CF₃⁴⁶$ $CF₃⁴⁶$ $CF₃⁴⁶$ were synthesized according to literature procedures. All manipulations were carried out under an atmosphere of N_2 using standard Schlenk and glovebox techniques. Glassware was dried at 180 °C for a minimum of two hours and cooled under vacuum prior to use. All reactions were carried out in 20 mL scintillation vials unless otherwise specified. All volumes below 0.5 mL were measured using Hamilton 100 or 250 μL syringes. Solvents were dried on a solvent purification system from Pure Process Technology and stored over 4 Å molecular sieves under N2. Tetrahydrofuran was stirred over NaK alloy and run through an additional activated alumina plug prior to use to ensure dryness. Solvents were tested for H2O and O2 using a standard solution of sodium-benzophenone ketyl radical anion. C₆D₆, CDCl₃, acetone- d_6 , CD₃CN, and DMSO-*d*⁶ were dried by passage over a column of activated alumina and stored over 4 Å molecular sieves in the glovebox. ¹H, ¹³C{¹H}, ¹⁹F{¹H}, ¹¹B{¹H}, and ³¹P{¹H} data were acquired on a combination of three spectrometers: a 400 MHz Bruker DRX spectrometer equipped with a BBO probe; a 500 MHz Bruker Avance-II+ spectrometer equipped with a ${}^{1}H\{ {}^{19}F, {}^{13}C, {}^{31}P\}$ QNP probe; and a 500 MHz Bruker Avance III HD spectrometer equipped with a Bruker BBFO "Smart" probe. All spectrometers use Topspin. Chemical shifts are reported in ppm units referenced to residual

solvent resonances for ¹H and ¹³C{¹H} spectra, and external standards for ³¹P{¹H}, ¹¹B{¹H}, and ¹⁹F $\{^1H\}$. NMR samples were prepared by dissolving approximately 5-10 mg of the sample in about 0.5 mL of the appropriate deuterated solvent. IR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Tensor II using a KBr pellet.

4.4.2 Syntheses

PPh(6-BF3-2-pyH)2. A 8 mL THF solution of 2-Br-6-BF3K-pyridine (300 mg, 1.14 mmol) and LiCl (48 mg, 1.14 mmol, 1 equiv.) was cooled to −78 °C. To the solution was added nBuLi (454 μL, 1.14 mmol) and the reaction was stirred for 20 minutes. To the reaction was added 1.542 mL of a 2 mL THF stock solution with 100 μ L of PPhCl₂ (~77 μ L delivered, 0.56 mmol, 0.5 equiv.) and the reaction was left stirring to warm to room temperature overnight. The reaction was pumped down and then the reaction was suspended in 10 mL MeOH and 12 mL of a 0.1 M HCl(aq) solution was added. The mixture was extracted with ethyl acetate and the organic fraction was dried under vacuum to yield the desired product as a crude solid $(159.6 \text{ mg}, 0.39 \text{ mmol}, 34\%)$. ¹H NMR (400 m) MHz, 25 °C , DMSO- d_6) δ = 15.27 (br s, 2H), 8.31 (t, $J = 8$ Hz, 2H), 7.95 (d, $J = 8$ Hz, 2 H), 7.60 (m, 3H), 7.47 (m, 2H), 7.19 (d, $J = 8$ Hz, 2H). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO- d_6) $\delta =$ −13.6 (s). ¹⁹F{1 H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*6) δ = −142.0 (br s). 11B{1 H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*₆) δ = 0.9 (br s). ESI-MS (negative mode, MeCN) 399.1 (HPPh(2-BF₃-6-py)₂⁻).

P(6-BF3-2-pyH)3. A 40 mL solution of 2-Br-6-BF3K-pyridine (1.09 g, 4.13 mmol) and LiCl (219 mg, 5.16 mmol, 1.25 equiv.) in THF was cooled to -78 °C, yielding a sheer white solution. To the solution nBuLi (1.651 mL, 4.13 mmol, 1 equiv.) was added dropwise, resulting in an orange solution. The reaction was stirred for 10 minutes and neat PCl₃ (139 μ L, 1.38 mmol, 0.33 equiv) pre-cooled to −78 °C was added dropwise using a micro-syringe, and the reaction was allowed to

warm to room temperature overnight with stirring. The next day the brown heterogeneous solution was dried under vacuum. The solid was removed from the glovebox and was suspended in methanol and 41 mL of 0.1 M HCl(aq) was added. After 1 hour the white precipitate was collected by filtration and dried under vacuum. The solid was pumped into the glovebox and dissolved in minimal DMF and layered under THF at room temperature. After a few days small white crystals were isolated of the product (73.6 mg, 0.16 mmol, 11%). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-d6) δ = 15.18 (br s, 3H), 8.37 (t, *J* = 8Hz, 3H), 8.08 (d, *J* = 8Hz, 3H), 7.34 (d, *J* = 8 Hz, 3H). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*₆) δ = −19.2 (s). ¹⁹F{¹H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*₆) δ = 142.5 (br s). ¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, DMSO-*d*₆) δ = 0.7 ppm (br s). ESI-MS (negative mode, MeCN) 747.1 (HLiP(2-BF₃-6py)₃⁻).

 $[P(2-pv)_3]$ NiNO][BPh₄]. In 10 mL of DCM was combined PP_{y3} $(12.2 \text{ mg}, 0.04 \text{ mmol})$, NiNOBr(PPh3)2 (32 mg, 0.046 mmol, 1.15 equiv.) and NaBPh4 (15.8 mg, 0.046 mmol, 1.15 equiv.) and the heterogeneous mixture was stirred for 12 hours. Filtration of the heterogeneous solution affords purple solid, which was washed with C_6H_6 to remove excess PPh₃ and PPy₃. The crude material was isolated in quantitative yield and was crystallized from a layering of DCM/C6H6 to obtain crystals suitable for diffraction. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₂Cl₂) δ = 10.04 (d, *J* = 4 Hz, 3 H), 7.96 (m, 6H), 7.67 (t, *J* = 4 Hz, 3H), 7.31 (br s, 8H, BPh4), 6.99 (t, *J* = 8 Hz, 8H), 6.84 (t, *J* $= 8$ Hz, 4H). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (162 MHz, 25 °C, CD₂Cl₂) δ = −27.9 (s). ¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CD2Cl2) δ = −6.6 (s). Cyclic voltammetry (0.1 NaBPh4 in THF) −2.05 V and −2.81 V vs Fc/Fc⁺. IR (KBr pellet): 1795 cm⁻¹ (v_{NO}).

Potassium 2-bromopyridin-4-yltrifluoromethyldifluoroborate (K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py]). A 40 mL THF solution of 2-Br-4-I-pyridine (3g, 0.01 mol) was cooled to −10 °C in the cold well and

i PrMgCl•LiCl (8.54 mL, 1.3M in THF, 0.011 mol, 1.05 equiv.) was added dropwise. The reaction was stirred at −10 °C for 1 hour and at room temperature for 2 hours. The brown homogenous solution was cooled in the cold well to −78 °C. Concurrently, KB(OMe)3CF3 (2.35 g, 0.011 mol, 1.05 equiv.) was dissolved in 40 mL THF and neat TMSCl (1.475 mL, 0.012 mmol, 1.1 equiv.) was added. The reaction was stirred for 1 hour and then filtered through a celite pad. The borane filtrate was added dropwise over the course of an hour to the cooled pyridine solution. The reaction was left to warm to room temperature overnight. Dioxane (20 mL) was added and the reaction was stirred for 1 hour, over which time a precipitate formed. The reaction was filtered through celite and removed from the box. KHF₂(aq) $(2.476 \text{ g}, 0.032 \text{ mmol}, 3 \text{ equiv})$ in 10 mL of water was added and the reaction was stirred for 30 minutes. The organic phase was decanted and dried with K_2CO_3 and then pumped down to a brown oil. The brown oil was transferred back into the glovebox and stirred with 15 mL of 50:50 DCM/hexane at −78 °C for 30 minutes. Decanting the solution and drying the solid under vacuum yielded 1.7g of brown crude solid, which was ~80% pure by NMR. The oil was dissolved in 5 mL THF and 5 mL DCM was added. The solution was decanted and concentrated by half under vacuum. After a few days at room temperature crystals suitable for diffraction formed at the bottom of the vial. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 8.09 (d, *J* = 8Hz, 1H), 7.57 (s, 1H), 7.41 (d, *J* = 4 Hz, 1H). ¹⁹F{¹H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = −74.3 (d, *J* = 38 Hz, 3F), -174.0 (q, *J* = 76 Hz, 2F). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (126 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 166.5 (br s, 1C, CF3F2B*C*), 149.0 (s, 1C), 142.3 (s, 1C, Br*C*), 132.2 (s, 1C), 127.7 (s, 1C). 11B{1 H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 0.2 (s, J = 48 Hz, 1B).

Potassium 2-bromopyridin-3-yltrifluoromethyldifluoroborate (K[2-Br-3-BF₂CF₃-py]). An 8 mL solution of 2-Br-3-I-pyridine (300 mg, 1.06 mmol) was cooled in the −40 °C freezer in the glovebox. The vial was removed and placed on a stir plate, and iPrMgCl•LiCl (854 μL, 1.3 M in

THF, 1.1 mmol, 1.05 equiv.) was added dropwise at room temperature. The reaction was left to stir for 3 hours, then cooled to −78 °C in the cold well. Concurrently, TMSCl (148 μL, 1.16 mmol, 1.1 equiv.) was added to a solution of KB(OMe)3CF3 (235 mg, 1.1 mmol, 1.05 equiv.) in 8mL of THF and stirred for 1 hour. The borane solution was filtered dropwise into the cooled pyridine solution, and the reaction was left to stir overnight. The next day 2 mL of dioxane was added and the reaction was filtered. A 1 mL solution of $KHF_{2(aq)}$ (248 mg, 3.2 mmol, 3 equiv.) was added and the reaction was stirred for 30 minutes. The organic fraction was decanted and dried with K_2CO_3 and pumped down to a brown oil under vacuum. The resulting oil was characterized by NMR and was not worked up further. The preliminary assignments for the desired product, observed in $\sim80\%$ purity by NMR, are as follows. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 8.55 (d, *J* = 8 Hz, 1H), 8.33 (d, *J* = 4 Hz, 1H), 7.72 (dd, *J* = 4 Hz, 8Hz, 1H). ¹⁹F{¹ H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, CD3CN) δ = −73.0 (d, *J* = 38 Hz, 3F), −171.0 (d, *J* = 76 Hz, 2F). 11B{1 H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CD3CN) δ = 0.6 (br s).

Potassium 2-bromopyridin-5-yltrifluoromethyldifluoroborate (K[2-Br-5-BF2CF3-py]). An 8 mL solution of 2-Br-5-I-pyridine (300 mg, 1.06 mmol) was cooled in the −40 °C freezer in the glovebox. The vial was removed and placed on a stir plate, and iPrMgCl•LiCl (854 μL, 1.3 M in THF, 1.1 mmol, 1.05 equiv.) was added dropwise at room temperature. The reaction was left to stir for 3 hours, then cooled to −78 °C in the cold well. Concurrently, TMSCl (148 μL, 1.16 mmol, 1.1 equiv.) was added to a solution of KB(OMe)3CF3 (235 mg, 1.1 mmol, 1.05 equiv.) in 8 mL of THF and stirred for 1 hour. The borane solution was filtered dropwise into the cooled pyridine solution, and the reaction was left to stir overnight. The next day 2 mL of dioxane was added and the reaction was filtered. A 1 mL solution of $KHF_{2(aq)}$ (248 mg, 3.2 mmol, 3 equiv.) was added and the reaction was stirred for 30 minutes. The organic fraction was decanted and dried with K_2CO_3

and pumped down to a brown oil under vacuum. The resulting oil was characterized by NMR and was not worked up further. The preliminary assignments for the desired product, observed in $\sim80\%$ purity by NMR, are as follows. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 8.38 (s), 7.85 (d, *J* = 8Hz, 1H), 7.46 (d, *J* = 8 Hz, 1H). ¹⁹F{1 H} NMR (376 MHz, 25 °C, CD3CN) δ = −74.7 (s, 3F), −175.4 (d, $J = 76$ Hz, 2F). ¹¹B{¹H} NMR (160 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) $\delta = 0.9$ (br s).

4.4.3 X-Ray Crystallography

The diffraction data were measured at 100 K on a Bruker D8 VENTURE with PHOTON 100 CMOS detector system equipped with a Mo-target micro-focus X-ray tube ($\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). Data reduction and integration were performed with the Bruker APEX3 software package (Bruker AXS, version 2015.5-2, 2015). Data were scaled and corrected for absorption effects using the multiscan procedure as implemented in SADABS (Bruker AXS, version 2014/5, 2015, part of Bruker APEX3 software package). The structure was solved by the dual method implemented in $SHELXT⁵⁶$ $SHELXT⁵⁶$ $SHELXT⁵⁶$ and refined by a full-matrix least-squares procedure using OLEX23^{[57](#page-189-6)} software package (XL refinement program version 2014/7[58](#page-189-7)). Suitable crystals were mounted on a cryoloop and transferred into the cold nitrogen stream of the Bruker D8 Venture diffractometer. Most of the hydrogen atoms were generated by geometrical considerations and constrained to idealized geometries and allowed to ride on their carrier atoms with an isotropic displacement parameter related to the equivalent displacement parameter of their carrier atoms. The co-crystallized benzene molecule in [PPy3NiNO][BPh4] was modeled for disorder.

4.4.4 Computational Methods

Geometry optimizations and subsequent frequency calculations for [PPy3NiNO]⁺, [P(6-BF3-2py)3NiNO]^{2−}, [P(5-BF₃-2-py)3NiNO]^{2−}, [P(4-BF₃-2-py)3NiNO]^{2−}, and [P(3-BF₃-2-py)3NiNO]^{2−} were carried out using Orca version 4.0^{59} 4.0^{59} 4.0^{59} with the O3LYP functional and the def2-SVP^{[60](#page-189-9)} basis set on C, H, B, and F, and def2-TZVPP⁶⁰ basis set on N, O and Ni. The spin state and charge were set to a triplet and +1 for PPy3NiNO and a triplet and −2 for the anionic ligands. The frequency results were checked to ensure no negative vibrations were predicted. The frequency values were scaled by multiplying the predicted frequencies $ν_{NO(comp)}$ by 0.91, which is the ratio of $ν_{NO(exp)}/ν_{NO(comp)}$ for $[P(2-py)_3NiNO]$.

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Appendix 1: Synthesis and Metalation of Anionic Tetrapyrazole Lutidine Based Ligands

A1.1 Introduction

High valent metal oxygen multiply bonded intermediates $(M^n=O)$ selectively mediate challenging oxidation reactions in enzymatic catalysis, such as C−H activation and water oxidation.[1](#page-228-0) Interest in studying these intermediates is motivated by a desire to replicate the observed enzymatic rates and selectivity in synthetic systems. Advances in synthetically mediated C−H functionalization and water oxidation would be enabling for the design of fine chemicals, such as pharmaceuticals, and the production of renewable fuels, respectively. One means of studying these intermediates is the synthesis of model metal complexes wherein the metal-oxygen moiety may be studied without complications from the protein scaffold. Numerous studies have mapped out the significant influence of d-electron count, metal geometry, H-bonding interactions, and O-H BDFE (among other characteristics) on the resulting electronic structure and reactivity.^{[2-](#page-228-1)4} Computational studies have also provided insight into the active mechanisms for enzymatic oxidation reactions. Recently, the assignment of oxo intermediates with a predominant $Mⁿ=O$ resonance structure has been challenged, with instead metal-oxyl $(M^{n-1}-O^*)$ resonance structures being proposed as important for oxidative reactivity (Scheme A1.1). [5](#page-228-3) For instance, in C−H activation the active oxidants in iron-based enzymes such as syringomycin halogenase and taurine/TauD and Cu-based enzymes such as dopamine β-monooxygenase and lytic polysaccharide monooxygenases are respectively proposed to be Fe^{III}−O[•] and Cu^{II}−O[•] rather than the typical oxo resonance structures.⁵ Likewise, water oxidation mediated by photosystem II and by synthetic cobalt oxide materials have been proposed to proceed via Mn^{IV}-O[•] and Co^{III}-O[•] intermediates, respectively, rather than Mn^V=O

and $Co^N=O$ species.^{[6](#page-228-4),[7](#page-228-5)} Despite the prevalence of this proposed resonance structure in first-row metal mediated oxidation reactions, there remain only two characterized synthetic examples of Mⁿ⁻¹–O[•] complexes, a Zn^{II}–O[•] isolated within a zeolite and a bimetallic Ru^{II}–O[•] complex.^{[5](#page-168-0)}

 $A = H (pz₄lut)$ or anion (SO₃, BF₃, CH₂BF₃)

Scheme A1.1 (Top) Two limiting resonance structures for metaloxygen moieties, $M^n=(O^2)$ on left Targeted pz₄lut ligand $(A = H)$ and anionic functional groups.

Notably, very little is known regarding strategies to stabilize a $M^{n-1}-O'$ resonance structure over the equivalent Mⁿ=O metal oxo resonance structure, which hampers the exploration of metal-oxyl reactivity. It has been proposed that the use of π -accepting ligands with strongly donating ligands axial to the metal-oxygen bond should favor oxyl formation, [5](#page-168-0) but additional methods remain to be explored. We hypothesize that the use of weakly donating ligands may encourage and $M^{n-1}-(O^{t-1})$ on right. (Bottom) oxidation at the O rather than M, while incorporating substitution at methine carbon with distal anionic functional groups should allow for accessible redox potentials despite the weak donors due

to the lower overall charge. Additionally, the electric fields generated by the anionic moieties, if correctly aligned, may direct the location of oxidation. To test this hypothesis, we endeavored to generate an anionic congener of the previously reported pentadentate tetra-pyrazole lutidine ligand $(pz₄)$ lut).^{[8](#page-228-6)} This choice was inspired by the numerous examples of octahedral metal-oxo complexes generated using heterocycle based ligands^{[9](#page-228-7)} and the proposed intermediacy of a Co^{IV} −O[•] intermediate with a dianionic penta-pyridine ligand.^{[10](#page-228-8)} Additionally, we anticipated facile functionalization of pz4lut via deprotonation of the methine backbone carbon and reaction with electrophiles to install distal anionic functional groups (Scheme A1.1).

Scheme A1.2 Summary of the reactivity observed with the deprotonated pz₄lut and electrophiles.

In this appendix we report progress towards the synthesis of dianionic congeners (Scheme A1.2) of pz4lut and the comparison of iron-oxygen species in both systems. While preliminary evidence supports the formation of an $Fe^{IV}=O$ with $[Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]_2$, the challenges associated with the synthesis and metalation of a dianionic congener with non-coordinating anions precluded any comparisons. Preliminary results on the synthesis and metalation of a SO_3^- functionalized pz4lut ligand and the reaction products from borylation attempts are also reported.

A1.2 Results and Discussion

A1.2.1 Metalation and Oxidation of pz4lut

The synthesis of $\alpha, \alpha, \alpha', \alpha'$ -tetra(pyrazolyl)lutidine (pz₄lut) was carried out according to the previously reported synthesis[.8](#page-169-0) Multiple coordination geometries have been reported for metalated

pz4lut complexes. A pentadentate coordination mode is reported for the first row Mn, Fe, Co, Ni and Cu complexes in which the sixth coordination site of the octahedral metal is occupied by a chloride ligand[.8,](#page-169-0)[11](#page-228-9) Alternatively, bidentate coordination has been observed with Ru and Pd complexes, where each set of adjacent pyrazoles coordinates to a metal center and result in bimetallic complexes.^{[12](#page-228-10),[13](#page-228-11)} Finally, a related bidentate coordination is observed with Ag, which is coordinated by two adjacent pyrazoles from two separate pz4lut molecules.^{[14](#page-229-0)}

The ligand pz₄lut was metalated with $Fe(OTf)₂(MeCN)₂$ in DCM to give $[Fe(pz4]ut)MeCN][OTf]_2$ as an orange solid after crystallization from MeCN/Ether (OTf = trifluoromethanesulfonate). The observed symmetric diamagnetic ${}^{1}H$ NMR in CD3CN is consistent with pentadentate coordination to a low spin Fe center (Figure A1.4). Collecting ${}^{1}H$ NMR in CD₂Cl₂ results in a paramagnetic spectrum (Figure A1.5), suggesting that the spin state is sensitive to the axially coordinated ligand. Cyclic voltammetry in a 0.1 M TBAPF₆ propionitrile solution shows a reversible oxidation at 0.96 V vs $Fc^{0/+}$ and an irreversible reduction at −2.11 V vs $Fc^{0/+}$ (Figure A1.21). The reaction between [Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]₂ and the O-atom transfer reagent ^s PhIO (Ph = 2-(*tert*-butylsulfonyl)phenyl) in MeCN was monitored by UV-vis at −40 °C. Collecting spectra with 1-minute intervals showed that the addition of quarter equivalents of ^sPhIO resulted in the decay of the absorbance at 424 nm and the appearance of new absorbances at 756 and 890 nm over the course of a few minutes (Figure A1.1). These two absorbances at 756 and 890 nm are consistent with the previously reported absorption spectra of $Fe^{IV}=O$ complexes. ^{[15](#page-229-1)} The product decays slowly at −40 °C, with a ¼ of the intensity lost after 1 hour (Figure A1.23). In propionitrile at −65 °C a similar species grows in more slowly over the course of 25 minutes (Figure A1.24). While this new species is so far consistent with an $Fe^{IV}=O$, this assignment is tentative as no further characterization was pursued. With this data suggesting that an oxo complex

Figure A1.1 UV-vis spectra of the reaction between ^sPhIO and [Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]2 in MeCN at -40 °C with scans collected in 1-minute intervals. Two concentrations are shown to emphasize changes with peaks of different intensities. The initial scan is shown in black, and ^sPhIO was added in quarter equivalents every 3 (left) or 2 (right) minutes to give the red spectrum.

could be generated using the neutral pz4lut ligand, the synthesis of a dianionic ligand congener was subsequently pursued.

A1.2.2 Test Deprotonations of pz4lut

Methylation at the methine carbon of pz4lut has been previously reported using nBuLi or KO'Bu to deprotonate followed by reaction with MeI as an electrophile.^{[16](#page-229-2)} Monitoring the deprotonation with nBuLi in *d*8-THF by variable temperature NMR shows that the deprotonation proceeds at −78 °C to generate an asymmetric product (Figure A1.7). Warming to −50 °C and −25 °C results in slight broadening but overall minimal changes in the spectrum. At 0 °C the resonances for the asymmetric product disappear and are replaced by broad lumps, suggesting the deprotonated

product is not stable above $0 °C$ (Figure A1.6). Deprotonation pf pz4lut with KO'Bu in THF likewise results in an asymmetric product observed by NMR spectroscopy in DMSO (Figure A1.8). Benzyl potassium (BnK) was also effective at deprotonating pz4lut and produces a yellow precipitate in THF. Reaction of the deprotonated intermediate generated using benzyl potassium with MeI at −40 °C likewise yields the methylated product (Figure A1.9). Given their effectiveness in methylation reactions, these three bases were used in the following attempts to install anionic functional groups.

A1.2.3 Sulfonation of pz₄lut and Subsequent Metalation

The sulfonate anion $(R-SO₃⁻)$ can be installed on the backbone of pz₄lut by deprotonation and reaction with SO3NMe3 as the electrophile at room temperature in THF (Figure A1.10). Either nBuLi at −78 °C or benzyl potassium at room temperature can be used to deprotonate in this reaction, however the use of KO'Bu leads to regeneration of pz4lut. Metalation of Li2pz4lut(SO3)2 with Mn(MeCN)₂OTf₂ in MeCN yielded an asymmetric octahedral Mn complex with coordination of two pyrazoles, the pyridine and two sulfonates (Figure A1.2). This structure was confirmed by SXRD of yellow crystals grown from DMF/ether. The ¹H NMR spectrum of $Mn(pz4lut(SO₃)₂)(L)$ (L=solvent) in DMSO contains broad features in the aromatic region, although it is unknown whether these correspond to the product or other Mn impurities (Figure A1.12). The coordination geometry of the $Co(MeCN)_{6}OTf_{2}$ metalated ligand likewise appears to involve both sulfonates as the ¹H NMR shows 6 inequivalent pyrazole resonances, consistent with two bound and two free pyrazoles (Figure A1.13). However, the structure has not been confirmed by SXRD. Conversely, metalation of Li2pz4lut(SO3)2 with Fe(MeCN)2OTf2 in MeCN yields a symmetric complex by NMR spectroscopy and the structure determined by SXRD or orange crystals shows coordination to the metal center through the four pyrazoles and pyridine (Figures A1.2 and A1.11). Cyclic

voltammetry of the Fe(pz4lut(SO₃)₂)(MeCN) in DMF shows an irreversible oxidation at 423 mV vs $Fc^{0/+}$ (Figure A1.22). The irreversible oxidation may be due to structural rearrangement upon oxidation to Fe^{III}. We hypothesize that the ligand coordination mode is determined by hard/soft acid/base interactions, as the softer low spin Fe^{II} favors coordination through the pyrazoles while

Figure A1.2 Ball and stick model of SXRD structures of the $Mn(pz4lut(SO₃)₂)(DMF)$ (left) and $Fe(pz4lut(SO₃)₂)(MeCN)$ (right) demonstrating the two available coordination geometries. Manganese is shown in pink, iron in orange, carbon in grey, nitrogen in blue, oxygen in red, sulfur in yellow, and H atoms have been omitted for clarity.

the high spin Mn^{II} and Co^{II} prefer oxygen coordination. Oxidation reactions between Fe(pz4lut(SO3)2)(MeCN) and ^sPhIO (Figure A1.25) or meta-chloroperoxybenzoic acid (Figure A1.26) in MeCN/DCM mixtures were monitored by UV-vis. Minimal changes to the original spectrum were observed upon the addition of the oxidants, suggesting that they were not sufficiently oxidizing to generate an $Fe^{IV}=O$ species. The multiple coordination modes available to the sulfonate substituted pz₄lut motivated the exploration of more rigorously non-coordinating distal anions, such as tetra-valent borates.

A1.2.4 Attempted Installation of a Borate Group on pz4lut

To install a non-coordinating anion on the methine position of pz4lut, multiple borane electrophiles were reacted with the deprotonated pz4lut. Reaction of the pz4lut anion generated using nBuLi (−78 °C) or BnK (−40 °C) with BF3•Et2O results in a complicated mixture of products (Figure A1.14). Multiple attempts to promote a cleaner reaction were unsuccessful, suggesting the BF3 is too electrophilic for clean reactivity. The anion generated using KO'Bu or BnK was found to be unreactive with the less electrophilic trialkyl borates B(OMe)₃ or B(OiPr)₃ at room temperature, yielding NMR spectra of either the deprotonated pz₄lut in DMSO or deuterated pz₄lut in CD₃CN (Figure A1.15). Deprotonation of pz4lut with BnK at room temperature and reaction with $B(C_6F_5)$ 3 in THF yielded a THF activated product, in which the methine position of pz4lut was substituted with $C_4H_8OB(C_6F_5)$ ⁻ as a result of ring-opening a THF molecule coordinated to the borane. This product was confirmed by the presence of four aliphatic resonances with appropriate integrations in the ¹H NMR spectrum and a low-quality crystal structure confirming the connectivity (Figures A1.3 and A1.16). The major product of the reaction between pz4lut deprotonated using BnK and $B(C_6F_6)$ ₃ in toluene is a distinct decomposition product resulting from the loss of a pyrazole on each side of the molecule and ring-opening and closing of the remaining pyrazole to generate a 2,6-pyrimidine-pyridine based product. The assignment of this product is supported by the ${}^{1}H$ NMR spectrum and a low-quality crystal structure (Figures A1.3 and A1.17). The reactivity with the borane substituted iodomethyl electrophile ICH₂B(OⁱPr)₂, prepared according to literature procedure,^{[17](#page-229-3)} was also investigated. Reaction of pz₄lut with BnK in THF and subsequent addition of ICH₂B($O^i Pr$)₂ at room temperature resulted in substitution of the iodine for the pz₄lut carbanion to generate pz4lut(CH₂B(OⁱPr)₂)₂, as determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy (Figure A1.18). Reaction of this product with KHF_2 and water in THF resulted in the formation of an unknown

Figure A1.3 Ball and stick model depictions of SXRD structures of the reaction products generated between pz4lut deprotonated with BnK and $B(C_6F_5)$ ₃ in THF (left) and toluene (right) suitable to determine connectivity. Carbon is depicted in white, nitrogen is blue, potassium is purple, oxygen is red, boron is orange, and fluorine is green. Hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity.

product with spectral features inconsistent with pz4lut(CH2BF3)2. Specifically, the pyrazole and pyridine resonances do not integrate correctly, and no appropriate CH2 peak is identifiable (Figure A1.19). Ultimately, generation of the pz₄lut(CH_2BF_3)₂ with KHF_2 and D₂O is proposed to proceed in dilute DMSO with gentle heating (Figure A1.20). While apparently effective, these conditions were not amenable to scale-up and were not pursued further.

A1.3 Experimental

A1.3.1 General

Pz₄lut was synthesized according to the previously published synthesis.^{[8](#page-169-0)} The 2,6 pyridine dicarboxaldehyde was prepared by oxidizing 2,6 pyridine dimethanol with selenium dioxide with slight modification to a literature report;^{[18](#page-229-4)} the reaction was refluxed for 2 hours and after passing through a silica plug the product was recrystallized by dissolving in hot acetone/hexane and storing at 0° C. The synthesis of pz₄lut was often challenging as the ligand would remain protonated in the aqueous layer during the extraction step. The crude oil was typically crystallized from a concentrated boiling THF solution cooled to −40 °C rather than through chromatography. Fe(MeCN) $_2$ (OTf)₂ and Mn(MeCN) $_2$ (OTf)₂ were prepared analogously to Co(MeCN) $_6$ (OTf) $_2$ (see syntheses). The reagent ICH₂B(OⁱPr₃)₂ was prepared according to literature procedure.^{[17](#page-175-0)} All other reagents were purchased from commercial sources. All reactions were performed under nitrogen except the ones which involve water. UV-vis spectra were collected using a dip probe and solvent baths to cool the air free glassware. Spectra were smoothed in origin to remove noise resulting from the set-up.

A1.3.2 Preliminary Synthetic Procedures

Co(MeCN)6(OTf)2. In a 500 mL round bottom flask in the glovebox was added 150 mL of MeCN and 6g of anhydrous CoCl₂ (0.0462 mol) and the mixture stirred until dissolved, adding more MeCN if necessary. Then, TMSOTf (21.57 g, 0.097 mol, 2.1 equiv., 17.56 mL) was slowly injected and the reaction was stirred overnight. The volume was reduced under vacuum until precipitate was observed, and then 200 mL of ether was added and the resulting orange solid was collected via filtration. The solid was transferred back into the flask and stirred with 200 mL of ether for 1 hour. Then mixture was filtered again and washed with more ether. The solid was collected dried under vacuum to yield 18.65 g of pink solid (67% yield).

[Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]2. A scintillation vial was charged with 400 mg of pz4lut (1.08 mmol) and 470 mg of Fe(OTf)2MeCN2 (1.08 mmol, 1 equiv.) and stirred in 10 mL of DCM for 4 days, over which time orange solid precipitated. The reaction was dried under vacuum and the orange solid was dissolved in 5 mL MeCN and layered under ether. After storing at -45 C for 4 days orange crystals and powder were separated from the yellow mother liquor (247 mg, 30% yield). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 8.48 (s, 4H), 8.45 (s, 4H), 8.33 (s, 2H), 8.24 (m, 3H), 6,70 (s, 3H).

Li₂pz₄lut(SO₃)₂. A vial with pz₄lut (183 mg, 0.5 mmol) dissolved in 10 mL THF was cooled to −78 °C in the cold well of the glovebox. To the solution was added nBuLi (452 μL of 2.5 M solution, 1.13 mmol, 2.3 equiv.) dropwise and the reaction turned orange. The reaction was stirred for 1 hour, and subsequently SO3NMe3 was added as a solid and the reaction was allowed to warm to room temperature while stirring overnight, resulting in a green solution. The solution was pumped down to a green solid, which was used without further purification. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ = 7.71 (t, 1H, *J*_{H-H} = 8 Hz), 7.66 (d, 4H, *J*_{H-H} = 4 Hz), 7.55 (d, 4H, *J*_{H-H} = 4 Hz), 6.96 (d, 2H, $J_{\text{H-H}}$ = 8 Hz), 6.35 (dd, 4H, $J_{\text{H-H}}$ = 4 Hz).

Fe(pz₄lut(SO₃)₂)(MeCN). A scintillation vial was charged with Li₂pz₄lut(SO₃)₂ (179 mg, 0.33) mmol) and Fe(MeCN)₂(OTf)₂ (144 mg, 0.33 mmol, 1 equiv.) and 5 mL of MeCN was added. The reaction turned green and then orange and was stirred overnight, giving an orange heterogeneous mixture. The reaction was pumped down to an orange solid which was washed with ether. Crystals suitable for SXRD were grown from an MeCN/ether layering stored at −35 °C. Although the collected ¹H NMR spectra frequently contained paramagnetic peaks, the Fe product is tentatively assigned as corresponding to the diamagnetic resonances. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, 25 °C, CD₃CN) δ $= 9.06$ (d, 4H, $J_{\text{H-H}} = 4$ Hz), 8.98 (d, 2H, $J_{\text{H-H}} = 12$ Hz), 8.47 (d, 4H, $J_{\text{H-H}} = 4$ Hz), 8.13 (t, 1H, $J_{\text{H-H}}$ $H = 12$ Hz), 6.57 (t, 4H, $J_{H-H} = 4$ Hz), 2.34 (s, 3H).

Mn(pz4lut(SO3)2)(MeCN). Combination of Lizpz4lut(SO3)2 (50 mg, 0.09 mmol) in MeCN with Mn(MeCN)₂OTf₂ (40 mg, 0.09 mmol, 1 equiv.) in 5 mL MeCN resulted in a light green solution with white precipitate. The reaction was dried under vacuum and crystallization form a DMF/ether layering yielded yellow crystals suitable for XRD.

 $Co(pz4lut(SO₃)₂)(MeCN)$. In a scintillation vial Li₂pz₄lut(SO₃)₂ (10 mg, 0.02 mmol) dissolved in MeOD and $Co(MeCN)_6$ OTf₂ (11 mg, 0.02 mmol, 1 equiv.) dissolved in MeOD were combined.

The solution turned green and over 1 hour pink solid precipitated. NMR of the resulting pink solid in DMSO is consistent with the asymmetric coordination of the sulfonate ligand to Co. ${}^{1}H$ NMR $(400 \text{ MHz}, 25 \text{ °C}, \text{ DMSO-}d_6)$ δ = 71.37 (s, 2H), 69.43 (s, 2H), 41.58 (s, 2H), 24.06 (s, 2H), 14.15 (s, 2H), 12.81 (s, 2H), 4.06 (s, 3H), −26.55 (s, 2H).

A1.4 Supporting data

Figure A1.4 ¹H and ¹⁹F NMR of [Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]₂ in CD₃CN, colored circles peak indicate assignments.

Figure A1.5 ¹H and ¹⁹F NMR spectra of [Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]₂ in CD₂Cl₂. The MeCN is likely replaced by OTf given the two ^{19}F signals and the observed spin state change.

Figure A1.6 NMR spectra of pz4lut with 2.2 equivalents of nBuLi in *d*8-THF at the indicated temperatures. Proteo THF peaks observed at \sim 3.6 and 1.7 ppm. Procedure: A solution of pz4lut (5mM) was prepared by dissolving 10 mg of pz4lut (0.027 mmol) in 538 μL *d*8-THF, and diluting 50 μL of that solution to 500 μL in an NMR tube. The tube was cooled in a dry ice/IPA bath, and nBuLi (24 μL, 2.2 equiv.) was syringed in. The NMR tube was loaded into the pre-cooled spectrometer.

Figure A1.7 NMR spectrum in *d*₈-THF of the reaction between pz₄lut and 2.2 equivalents of nBuLi at −50 °C with tentative assignments for the resonances. Six resonances are observed for the pyrazole protons rather than the three observed in the spectrum of pz4lut, suggesting an asymmetric product.

Figure A1.8¹H NMR in DMSO of the reaction between 3 equiv. KO^tBu and pz4lut. The reagents were combined in THF, giving an orange homogeneous solution, and pumped down under vacuum and then dissolved in DMSO.

Figure A1.9¹H NMR of the methylated pz₄lut generated using benzyl potassium to deprotonate and MeI as the electrophile in THF at −40 °C. The spectrum was collected in CD3CN at room temperature. The integrations do not exactly match the expected product, likely due to impurity peaks in the aromatic region and excess MeI, however the peak positions and splitting are consistent with the reported methylated pz₄lut spectrum.

Figure A1.10¹H NMR spectrum of Lizpz4lut(SO₃)₂ in CD₃CN.

Figure A1.11 ¹H NMR of the reaction product between Li2pz4lut(SO3)2 and Fe(MeCN)2OTf2 collected in CD3CN. Tentative assignments are indicated by colored circles.

Figure A1.12¹H NMR of the reaction between Lizpz4lut(SO₃)₂ and Mn(MeCN)₂OTf₂ collected in DMSO-*d*6.

Figure A1.13 ¹H NMR spectrum of the reaction product from Lizpz4lut(SO₃)₂ and Co(MeCN)6(OTf)2 collected in DMSO-*d*6.

Figure A1.14¹H NMR spectra of the crude reaction products in CD₃CN for the following reactions and comparison to pz4lut. Deprotonation of pz4lut was carried out in THF with nBuLi at −78 °C or benzyl potassium at −40 °C and was subsequently reacted with BF₃•Et₂O and left to stir and warm to room temperature overnight. After drying, NMR of the crude reactions were collected.

(Top, first) 60 mg of pz4lut (0.16 mmol) was dissolved in THF at RT and KO'Bu (54.4 mg, 0.48 mmol, 3 equiv.) was added as a solid and stirred for 30 minutes. $B(OMe)$ ₃ (56 µL, 0.5 mmol, 3.1) equiv.) was dissolved in 2 mL THF and added, yielding a yellow homogeneous solution after stirring for two days. Addition of ether yielded a yellow precipitate, and ¹H NMR in DMSO of both precipitate (shown) and filtrate contain resonances consistent with a potassium salt of deprotonated pz4lut.

(Second) 60 mg of pz4lut (0.16 mmol) was dissolved in THF and a solution of benzyl potassium (BnK, 42 mg, 0.32 mmol, 2 equiv.) in THF was added, yielding a yellow heterogeneous solution. B(OiPr)3 in THF (150 μL, 0.646 mmol, 4 equiv.) was added and no change was observed. After stirring overnight the reaction became orange and homogeneous. The reaction was dried under vacuum and ¹H NMR was collected in DMSO (shown).

(Third) 25 mg of pz4lut was stirred with 23 mg of KO'Bu in THF. The reaction was dried under vacuum, and NMR of the product was collected in DMSO (shown).

(Fourth) 60 mg of pz₄lut (0.16 mmol) was dissolved in THF and BnK $(43.1 \text{ mg}, 0.331 \text{ mmol}, 2.05$ equiv.) in THF was added, yielding a brown heterogeneous solution. A THF solution of B(OMe)3 (30 μL, 0.27 mmol, 2.1 equiv.) was added. The reaction was filtered and the filtrate dried after stirring for a few hours, and ¹H NMR was collected of the solid (shown).

(Bottom, fifth) 1 H NMR spectrum of pz4lut collected in CD3CN. Methine proton resonance located at 7.78 ppm.

Figure A1.16¹H NMR in CD₃CN of the following reaction: pz4lut (138 mg, 0.37 mmol) was dissolved in THF and BnK (101 mg, 0.78 mmol, 2.1 equiv.) was added as a THF solution. The reaction was stirred for 30 minutes, and then a solution of $B(C_6F_5)$ in THF was added. After stirring for 1 hour the reaction was dried under vacuum to a brown gel and ¹H NMR was collected in CD3CN (shown above).

Figure A1.17¹H NMR in DMSO-*d*6 of the reaction mixture generated by reacting pz4lut (100 mg, 0.27 mmol) with BnK (70 mg, 0.54 mmol, 2 equiv.) in THF, drying the solution to collect a yellow solid, and combining the yellow solid suspended in toluene with a solution of $B(C_6F_5)$ ₃ in toluene. The reaction was filtered and NMR was collected of the dried filtrate (shown). No further purification was carried out, the NMR is consistent with the pyrimidine structure observed by SXRD of a crystal grown from an ether/hexane layering of this reaction mixture, and tentative assignments for the pyrimidine resonances are indicated with colored circles. The remaining resonances may belong to additional pyrazole-based compounds in solution, but overall they have not been assigned. The resonance at 2.3 ppm is likely the methyl on toluene.

Figure A1.18¹H NMR spectrum collected in CDCl₃ of the following reaction: pz4lut (50 mg, 0.13 mmol) and BnK (35 mg, 0.27 mmol, 2 equiv.) were combined in THF at room temperature, resulting in a brown cloudy solution. A solution of $ICH_2B(O^iPr)_2$ in THF was added and the reaction turned green and remained heterogeneous. The reaction was stirred overnight and filtered, the yellow filtrate was collected and dried under vacuum. ¹H NMR was collected of the CDCl₃ soluble fraction (shown). Colored circles indicate peak assignments.

Figure A1.19¹H NMR in DMSO-*d*6 of the unknown reaction product typically observed upon attempted fluorination of pz4lut($CH_2B(O^iPr)_2$)₂ using KHF₂. In this particular procedure, 75 mg of $pz4lut(CH_2B(OⁱPr)_{2})$ (0.11 mmol) was dissolved in THF and 54 mg of KHF₂ (0.68 mmol, 6 equiv.) was added along with 140 μL of water. The reaction was stirred overnight and dried under vacuum and triturated with ether. The solid was extracted with acetone, dried under vacuum to a yellow oil, and ¹ H NMR was collected in DMSO-*d*6 (shown).

Figure A1.20 ¹H, ¹⁹F and ¹¹B NMR characterization of the proposed pz4lut(CH2BF3)2 (with impurities) collected in DMSO-d₆. To generate this product, 10 mg of pz₄lut(CH₂B(OⁱPr)₂)₂ (0.015 mmol) was dissolved in 3 mL of DMSO- d_6 and 0.5 mL was added to a nmr tube. D₂O (50 μL) and KHF₂ (10 mg, 48 equiv.) were added and the reaction was heated with stirring at 65 °C for two hours, after which time the stir bar was removed and NMR was collected. Separate experiments increasing the concentration of this reaction results in formation of the product shown in the previous NMR.

A1.4.2 Cyclic Voltammetry

Figure A1.21 (Top) Full cyclic voltammogram of [Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]₂ (5 mM) in a 0.1 M solution of TBAPF₆ in propionitrile with internal ferrocene at room temperature collected at 100 mV/s. (Middle) Cyclic voltammogram of isolated oxidation at differing scan rates. (Bottom) cyclic voltammogram of isolated irreversible reduction at differing scan rates.

Figure A1.22 Cyclic voltammogram of 3 mM Fepz₄lut(SO₃)₂(MeCN) collected in a 0.1 M TBAPF6 DMF electrolyte.

Figure A1.23 UV-vis of the decay of the intermediate formed upon reaction of the 5 mM solution of [Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]2 in MeCN at -40 °C with 1.1 equiv. of ^sPhIO added as a DCM solution (Figure A1.1). Scans from the initial spectrum (top, dark red) to the middle spectrum (dark red, 50% transparent) were collected every minute. Scans thereafter were collected every 5 minutes, for a total collection time of 41 minutes.

Figure A1.24 UV-vis spectrum of the reaction between a 5 mM solution of [Fe(pz4lut)MeCN][OTf]₂ in EtCN and 1.1 equiv. ^sPhIO as a DCM solution at -65 °C (IPA/dry ice). Scans were collected in 1 minute intervals for approximately 30 minutes before the maximum intensity was reached. The initial spectrum is in black and the final spectrum is in dark red.

Figure A1.25 UV-vis spectra collected in 1 minute intervals monitoring the reaction between 0.5 mM solution of Fepz4lut(SO3)2(MeCN) in MeCN and 1.1 equiv. of ^sPhIO as a DCM solution at −40 °C. The initial spectrum is in black and the final spectrum is in red after 16 minutes. No further changes were observed at −40 °C nor upon warming.

Figure A1.26 UV-vis spectra collected in 1 minute intervals monitoring the reaction between 0.5 mM solution of Fepz4lut(SO3)2(MeCN) in 1:1 DCM/MeCN and 1.1 equiv. of mCPBA as a DCM solution at −40 °C. The initial spectrum is in black and the final spectrum is in red after 10 minutes. No further changes were observed upon warming and re-cooling aside from a decrease and subsequent increase in intensity of the peak at 430 nm.

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Appendix 2: Supporting Data for Chapter 2

A2.1 Characterization Data

A2.1.1 IR Spectra

Figure A2.1 Vibrational spectrum of **1** as KBr pellet (see experimental section above for specific peak values).

Figure A2.2 Vibrational spectrum of **2** as KBr pellet (see experimental section above for specific peak values).

Figure A2.3 Vibrational spectrum of **3** as KBr pellet (see experimental section above for specific peak values).

Figure A2.4 Vibrational spectrum of **4** as KBr pellet (see experimental section above for specific peak values).

Figure A2.5 Vibrational spectrum of **5** as KBr pellet (see experimental section above for specific peak values).

A2.1.2 UV-vis Spectra

Figure A2.6 UV-vis spectra for complexes **1** (a), **2** (b), **3** (c), **4** (d), and **5** (e). Complexes **1**-**3** and **5** are solutions in Et2O while **4** is a solution in DCM, all recorded at room temperature. See text above for detailed peak positions and absorptivity values.

A2.1.3 NMR Spectra

Figure A2.7 The ¹H NMR spectrum of 1 in CDCl₃. Inset is expanded near the diamagnetic region to show details. Note: Residual solvent and BAr^F4 resonances not labeled.

Figure A2.8 The ¹H NMR spectrum of 2 in CDCl₃. Inset is expanded near the diamagnetic region to show details. Note: Residual solvent and BAr^F4 resonances not labeled.

Figure A2.9 The ¹H NMR spectrum of 3 in CDCl₃. Inset is expanded near the diamagnetic region to show details. Note: Residual solvent and BAr^F4 resonances not labeled.

Figure A2.10 The ¹H NMR spectrum of 4 in CDCl₃. Inset: ¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the same solution. Note: Residual solvent resonances not labeled.

Figure A2.11 The ¹H NMR spectrum of 5 in CDCl₃. Inset: ¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the same solution. Note: Residual solvent resonances not labeled.

Figure A2.12 The ¹H NMR spectrum of the decay of 1 (2.5 mM in CD₂Cl₂) after 24 h. Note: the top of residual solvent and BAr^F anion peaks have been clipped to better show paramagnetic peaks.

Figure A2.13 The ¹H NMR spectrum of the decay of 2 (in CDCl₃) after standing for 14 d in Et₂O. Note: the top of residual solvent and BAr^F4 anion peaks have been clipped to better show paramagnetic peaks.

Figure A2.14 The ¹H NMR spectrum of the reaction of 1 (2.5 mM in CDCl₃) with (top) 10 equiv of PMe3 and (bottom) independently prepared OPMe3 (OPMe3 prepared by treating ^sPhIO with 1.1 equiv of PMe3 in CDCl3 and stirring for 1 h). Red squares indicate the putative OPMe3 adduct. Note: the top of the residual solvent peaks and excess PMe3 have been clipped to better show paramagnetic features. Inset: ³¹P NMR spectrum of reaction mixture, consistent with free PMe₃.

Figure A2.15 The ¹H NMR spectrum (CDCl₃) of the 2.5 mM reaction of 2 (top) and 3 (bottom) with 10 equiv of PPh3. Red squares are assigned to resonances for the OPPh3 adduct, other paramagnetic peaks arise from an unknown impurity. Note: the top of the residual solvent, BAr^F_{4} , and excess PPh₃ resonances have been clipped to better show paramagnetic peaks. Inset: ³¹P NMR spectrum of the respective reaction mixtures consistent with free PPh3.

Figure A2.16 The ¹H NMR spectrum of independently synthesized OPPh₃ adduct prepared by treatment of a solution of 5 with 1.1 equiv of OPPh₃ in the presence of 1.1 equiv NaBAr^F4. Note: Peaks for residual solvent and BAr^F anion have been clipped off to show detail of paramagnetic features.

Figure A2.17 The ¹H NMR spectrum of the reaction of 2 (top, CDCl₃) and 3 (bottom, 2.5 mM in CDCl3) with 10 equiv. thioanisole after 52 and 32 h. Red squares mark resonances for the PhSOMe adduct (see below), blue circles are for **2** formed as the immediate decay product of **3**, and other paramagnetically shifted peaks are from an unknown impurity. Note: The top of the residual solvent peaks and BAT^{F} 4 resonances have been clipped off to better show paramagnetic features.

Figure A2.18 The ¹H NMR spectrum of independently prepared CoTp^{tBu}-PhSOMe adduct (CDCl3) generated by the addition of 1.1 equiv of PhSOMe to **2** in the presence of 1.1 equiv NaBAr^F₄. Note: residual solvent peaks have been clipped at the top to better show paramagnetic peaks.

Figure A2.19 The ¹H NMR spectrum of the reaction of 3 with 20 equivalents of ^sPhI in CDCl₃. Peaks labeled with blue circles correspond to some of complex **2** produced while other labeled resonances belong to unknown paramagnetic products. Note: residual solvent, ^sPhI, and BAr^F4 resonances have been clipped at the top to better show paramagnetic peaks.

Figure A2.20 The ¹H NMR spectrum of the crystals of 6 obtained from the reaction of 1 with 10 equiv of ScOTf3. Note: the top of residual solvent peaks has been clipped off to better show the paramagnetic features.

Figure A2.21 The X-band EPR spectrum of 1 collected on a 15 mM solution in Et₂O at 15 K. Microwave frequency: 9.63 GHz, microwave power: 0.2 mW, and $g_{\text{eff}} = 5.55$, 3.58, and 2.05.

Figure A2.22 The X-band EPR spectrum of 2 collected on a 15 mM solution in Et₂O at 15 K. Microwave frequency: 9.63 GHz, microwave power: 2.0 mW, and $g_{\text{eff}} = 6.25, 3.49,$ and 2.05. Asterisks indicate what is consistent with a small amount of **5**.

Figure A2.23 The X-band EPR spectrum of 3 collected on a 15 mM solution in Et₂O at 15 K. Microwave frequency: 9.63 GHz, microwave power: 0.6 mW, and $g_{\text{eff}} = 5.66, 3.44,$ and 2.29. Asterisks indicate what is consistent with a small amount of **5**.

Figure A2.24 The X-band EPR spectrum of **4** collected on a 15 mM solution in THF at 15 K. Microwave frequency: 9.63 GHz, microwave power: 0.2 mW, and $g_{\text{eff}} = 5.51$, 3.40, and 2.01.

Figure A2.25 The X-band EPR spectrum of 5 collected on a 15 mM solution in Et₂O at 15 K. Microwave frequency: 9.63 GHz, microwave power: 0.2 mW, and $g_{\text{eff}} = 5.02, 4.05,$ and 2.17.

Figure A2.26 The X-band EPR spectrum of 6 collected on a 9 mM solution in CDCl₃ at 15 K. Microwave frequency: 9.63 GHz, microwave power: 4.0 mW, and *g*eff = 5.66, 3.28, and 2.15. Asterisk indicates an unknown $S = \frac{1}{2}$ impurity.

Figure A2.27 The MS data for the self-decay of 1 (2.5 mM in Et₂O) after 24 h showing free pyrazole (m/z 217.3, $[pz^{Ad,Me}H]^+$), ligand (m/z 659.5, $[H_2Tp^{Ad,Me}]^+$), single oxygen atom incorporation (m/z = 675.5, [H₂OTp^{Ad,Me}]⁺), and double oxygen atom incorporation (m/z = 691.5) $[H_2O_2Tp^{Ad,Me}]^+$).

Figure A2.28 The MS data for the self-decay of 2 (isolated from the decay reaction in Et₂O, after a 1 M HCl_{aq} wash) after 24 h showing free ligand (m/z 383.3, $[H_2Tp^{tBu}]^+$) and single oxygen-atom incorporation (m/z = 399.3, $[H_2OTp^{tBu}]^+$).

Figure A2.29 The MS data for the self-decay of 3 (2.5 mM in Et₂O) after 24 h showing free ligand (m/z 383.3, [H₂Tp^{tBu}]⁺) and single oxygen atom incorporation (m/z = 399.3, [H₂OTp^{tBu}]⁺).

Figure A2.30 The MS data for the reaction of 1 with 10 equiv of $Sc³⁺$ ions showing free pyrazole $(m/z\ 217.3\ [pz^{Ad,Me}]^+)$ and ligand $(m/z = 659.5, \ [HzTp^{Ad,Me}]^+).$

A2.1.6 Electrochemistry

Figure A2.31 The cyclic voltammograms of **1** (green) and **2** (blue) showing irreversible oxidations at 2.07 and 2.05 V vs. $[FeCp2]^{0/+}$. Conditions: 5 mM complex with 0.1 M $[Bu4N][PF_6]$ in DCM, scan rate 100 mV/s, glassy carbon working electrode with platinum wire counter electrode and silver wire as a pseudo-reference. Potentials referenced externally to the $[FeCp2]^{0/+}$. Asterisks indicate starting potential and arrows indicate direction of sweep.

A2.2 Kinetic Experiments

A2.2.1 Kinetic Plots

Figure A2.32 Kinetic data obtained for complex 1 (2.5 mM in Et₂O) a) of the self-decay, b) with 10 equiv of DHA, c) with 10 equiv thioanisole, d) 100 equiv of DHA, e) with 10 equiv PMe3, and f) with 10 equiv ^sPhI. Experiments without errors were not collected in triplicate. Plot for the reaction of 1 with 10 equiv PMe₃ plotted as absorbance vs time as it did not follow pseudo-first order kinetics.

Figure A2.33 Representative plot of the decay of 2 (2.5 mM in Et₂O) in the presence of 100 equiv. of DHA showing both loss of **2** and growth of peaks corresponding to anthracene. Arrow indicates position of wavelength monitored for kinetics, asterisks indicate peaks for anthracene.

Figure A2.34 Kinetic data obtained for complex 2 (2.5 mM in Et₂O) a) of the self-decay, b) with 10 equiv of thioanisole, c) with 10 equiv thioanisole and 20 equiv of ^s PhI, d) with 20 equiv ^s PhI, and e) with 10 equiv PPh₃. Reaction of 2 with 10 equiv PPh₃ plotted as absorbance vs time as it did not follow pseudo-first order kinetics.

Figure A2.35 Kinetic data obtained for complex 2 (2.5 mM in Et₂O) a) with 10 equiv DHA, b) with 50 equiv DHA, c) with 75 equiv DHA, d) with 100 equiv of DHA, and e) with 50 equiv DHA and 20 equiv of s PhI. f) Plot of *k*obs vs [DHA] to determine the second order rate constant, *k*2.

Figure A2.36 The ¹H NMR spectrum of the decay of 3 in CDCl₃ after 32 h at room temperature. Inset: overlay of the change in intensity of the 20.4 ppm resonance over time used to calculate *k*obs.

Figure A2.37 Kinetic data obtained for complex **3** (2.5 mM in CDCl3, monitoring the area of the 20.4 ppm resonance) a) for the self-decay, b) with 10 equiv. thioanisole, and c) with 10 equiv. PPh₃ (2.5 mM Co complex in Et₂O). Plot of the reaction of **3** with 10 equiv. PPh₃ shown as absorbance vs time as it did not fit pseudo-first order kinetics.

Figure A2.38 Kinetic data obtained for complex **3** (2.5 mM in CDCl3, monitoring the area of the 20.4 ppm resonance) a) with 10 equiv DHA, b) with 50 equiv DHA, c) with 75 equiv DHA, and d) with 100 equiv of DHA and e) plot of *k*obs vs [DHA] to determine the second order rate constant, *k*2.

Figure A2.39 Kinetic data obtained for the background reaction of ^{sp}hIO (2.5 mM in CDCl₃, monitoring the area of the 8.0 ppm resonance for loss of ^sPhIO) a) with 50 equiv DHA and b) with 10 equiv thioanisole.

Figure A2.40 A representative MS trace for determination of the KIE from the reaction of **1** with a 1:1 molar ratio of H4-DHA:D4-DHA in DCM at 25 °C. Black bars are experimental data, red bars are isotope modeling of anthracene, and blue bars are isotope modeling of D₂-anthracene.

sample	Total [anthracene] mM	[anthracene] detected mM		[anthracene] Increase mM		KIE	average KIE
$1:1$ mix		proteo	deutero	proteo	deutero		
trial 1	0.0087	0.0024	0.0063	N/A	N/A		
trial 2	0.0100	0.0027	0.0073	N/A	N/A		
trial 3	0.0103	0.0029	0.0074	N/A	N/A		
1							
Trial 1	0.0152	0.0094	0.0059	0.0069	-0.0004		
Trial 2	0.0164	0.0100	0.0064	0.0074	-0.0009		
Trial 3	0.0160	0.0098	0.0062	0.0069	-0.0012	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	
$\overline{2}$							
Trial 1	0.0259	0.0188	0.0071	0.0164	0.0008	20.0	
Trial 2	0.0318	0.0231	0.0088	0.0204	0.0015	13.7	
Trial 3	0.0365	0.0266	0.0099	0.0237	0.0025	9.5	$14(\pm 5)$
3							
Trial 1	0.0253	0.0174	0.0079	0.0150	0.0016	9.4	
Trial 2	0.0304	0.0213	0.0091	0.0187	0.0018	10.3	
Trial 3	0.0332	0.0231	0.0100	0.0203	0.0026	7.8	$9(+1)$
sPhIO							
Trial 1	0.0107	0.0042	0.0066	0.0017	0.0003	5.8	
Trial 2	0.0119	0.0046	0.0073	0.0019	0.0000		
Trial 3	0.0122	0.0048	0.0075	0.0019	0.0000	$\overline{}$	

Table A2.1 Raw data and KIE values determined for the reactions of **1**, **2**, **3**, and s PhIO with a 250 mM 1:1 mixture of H4-DHA:D4-DHA in DCM.

Table A2.2 KIE values determined for the reactions of **1**, **2**, **3**, and ^s PhIO with DHA using a minimum detectable value to replace increases in D₂-anthracene that are smaller than the standard deviation from the 1:1 mix. The average concentration of D_2 -anthracene in the 1:1 mix is 0.007(±0.0006) mM. Shown in red are cases where the standard deviation of 0.0006 mM was used as the maximum amount of D₂-anthracene that could be produced but not measured above error. Using this maximum value provides a lower bound for the KIE.

Table A2.3 Raw GCMS data for the reactions of ^sPhIO in the presence of Lewis acids with DHA for KIE calculations. Conditions: 2.5 mM ^sPhIO, 2.5 mM Lewis acid, and 250 mM of 1:1 H₄-DHA:D4-DHA mixture in DCM, left to stir for 65 h at room temperature.

Table A2.4 KIE values determined for the reactions of ^sPhIO with DHA in the presence of Lewis acids using a minimum detectable value to replace increases in D_2 -anthracene that are smaller than the standard deviation from the 1:1 mix. The average concentration of D_2 -anthracene in the 1:1 mix is 0.024(±0.0014) mM. Shown in red are cases where the standard deviation of 0.0014 mM was used as the maximum amount of D₂-anthracene that could be produced but not measured above error. Using this maximum value provides a lower bound for the KIE.

A2.3 X-Ray Crystallography

A2.3.1 Structures

Figure A2.41 Structure of **3** showing the secondary interaction of a THF molecule with the iodine center of the bound ^sPhIO₂ ligand. The I1-O5 distance is 2.558(4) Å. Thermal ellipsoids shown at 50% probability and counter anion, other solvent, and H-atoms other than B-H omitted for clarity.

Figure A2.42 Depiction of the molecular structure of **4** determined by X-ray diffraction. Only one of the independent molecules is shown. Thermal ellipsoids shown at 50% probability. H-atoms other than B-H have been omitted for clarity.

Figure A2.43 Depiction of the molecular structure of **5** determined by X-ray diffraction. Thermal ellipsoids shown at 50% probability. H-atoms other than B-H and a Et₂O molecule have been omitted for clarity.

Figure A2.44 Depiction of the molecular structure of **6** determined by X-ray diffraction. Shown as ball and stick model for connectivity only. Atom labeled O1 is from coordinated OTf. The Hatoms, disordered Et₂O solvent molecule, and $BAT^F₄$ counter ion omitted for clarity.

A2.3.2 Metrical Parameters

Complex:	1	$\boldsymbol{2}$	3	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	5	6
Bond Length (\AA)						
$Co1-N_{avg}$	2.037	2.032	2.026	2.038	2.016	2.027
$Co1-O1$	1.920(6)	1.934(3)	1.925(3)	1.955(1)	1.948(1)	1.994(2)
$I1-O1$	1.878(6)	1.891(3)	1.814(3)	N/A	N/A	N/A
$I1-O4$	N/A	N/A	1.780(3)	N/A	N/A	N/A
Angle $(°)$						
$B1-C01-O1$	160.4(3)	171.6(1)	173.7(1)	161.11(5)	175.59(4)	107.1(2)

Table A2.5 Selected bond distances and angles for the Co complexes reported.
A2.3.3 Refinement Details

Table S6. Crystal data and structure refinement for 1.

Table A2.6 Crystal data and structure refinement for **1**.

 $R_{\text{int}} = \Sigma |F_o^2 - \langle F_o^2 \rangle / \Sigma |F_o^2|$ $R1 = Σ | |F_o| - |F_c|| / Σ |F_o|$ $wR2 = [\Sigma [w (F_o² - F_c²)²] / \Sigma [w (F_o²)²]]^{1/2}$ Goodness-of-fit = $[\Sigma \text{ [w (F_o^{2-F_c²)²] / (n-p)^{1/2}]}$ n: number of independent reflections; p: number of refined parameters

Table A2.7 Crystal data and structure refinement for **2**.

 $R_{\text{int}} = \Sigma |F_o^2 - \langle F_o^2 \rangle / \Sigma |F_o^2|$ $R1 = Σ | |F_o| - |F_c|| / Σ |F_o|$ $wR2 = \left[\Sigma \left[w \left(F_o^2 - F_c^2 \right)^2 \right] / \Sigma \left[w \left(F_o^2 \right)^2 \right] \right]^{1/2}$ Goodness-of-fit = $[\Sigma \text{ [w (F_o^{2-F_c²)²] / (n-p)^{1/2}]}$ n: number of independent reflections; p: number of refined parameters

Table S8. Crystal data and structure refinement for 3.

Table A2.8 Crystal data and structure refinement for **3**.

 $R_{\text{int}} = \Sigma |F_o^2 - \langle F_o^2 \rangle / \Sigma |F_o^2|$ $R1 = Σ | |F_o| - |F_c|| / Σ |F_o|$ $wR2 = [\Sigma [w (F_o² - F_c²)²] / \Sigma [w (F_o²)²]]^{1/2}$ Goodness-of-fit = $[\Sigma \text{ [w (F_o² – F_c²)²] / (n-p)^{1/2}]$ n: number of independent reflections; p: number of refined parameters

Table S9. Crystal data and structure refinement for 4.

Table A2.9 Crystal data and structure refinement for **4**.

 $R_{\text{int}} = \Sigma |F_o^2 - \langle F_o^2 \rangle / \Sigma |F_o^2|$ $R1 = Σ | |F_o| - |F_c|| / Σ |F_o|$ $wR2 = [\Sigma [w (F_o² - F_c²)²] / \Sigma [w (F_o²)²]]^{1/2}$ Goodness-of-fit = $[\Sigma \text{ [w (F_o² – F_c²)²] / (n-p)^{1/2}]$ n: number of independent reflections; p: number of refined parameters

Table A2.10 Crystal data and structure refinement for **5**.

 $R_{\text{int}} = \Sigma |F_o^2 - \langle F_o^2 \rangle / \Sigma |F_o^2|$ $R1 = \sum | |F_o| - |F_c| | / |\Sigma| |F_o|$ $wR2 = [\Sigma [w (F_o² - F_c²)²] / \Sigma [w (F_o²)²]]^{1/2}$ Goodness-of-fit = $[\Sigma \text{ [w (F_o² – F_c²)²] / (n-p)^{1/2}]$ n: number of independent reflections; p: number of refined parameters

Table A2.11 Crystal data and structure refinement for **6**.

 $R_{\text{int}} = \Sigma |F_o^2 - \langle F_o^2 \rangle / \Sigma |F_o^2|$ $R1 = \sum | |F_o| - |F_c| | / |\Sigma| |F_o|$ $wR2 = [\Sigma [w (F_o² - F_c²)²] / \Sigma [w (F_o²)²]]^{1/2}$ Goodness-of-fit = $[\Sigma \text{ [w (F_o² – F_c²)²] / (n-p)^{1/2}]$ n: number of independent reflections; p: number of refined parameters

Appendix 3: Supporting Data for Chapter 3

A3.1 NMR Characterization Data

Figure A3.1 ¹H NMR spectrum of K1 in DMSO- d_6 with inset showing CH₂ peak.

Figure A3.2 ³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of K1 in DMSO- d_6 .

Figure A3.3 ¹⁹ F {¹H} NMR spectrum of K1 in DMSO- d_6 . Broad feature around -190 ppm is a result of Teflon within the probe.

Figure A3.4 ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectrum of K1 collected in DMSO- d_6 .

Figure A3.5 ¹¹ B {¹H} NMR spectrum of K1 in DMSO- d_6 collected in a quartz NMR tube.

Figure A3.6¹H NMR spectrum of 2 collected in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.8 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of 2 collected in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.9 ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectrum of 2 collected in CDCl₃. Inset depicts doublet of doublets corresponding to the Rh-*C*O carbon. Asterisks indicate THF impurity.

Figure A3.10 ¹¹ B {¹H} NMR spectrum of 2 in CDCl₃ collected in a quartz NMR tube, the broad peak centered at 0 in the baseline is a result of borosilicate in the NMR probe.

A3.1.3 [PPh4][SePPh2(CH2BF3)] ([PPh4][**1**Se])

Figure A3.11¹H NMR spectrum of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃, with inset showing splitting on the CH₂ group.

Figure A3.12 ³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.13 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.14 ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectrum of [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.15¹¹B{¹H} NMR spectrum of [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃ collected in a quartz NMR tube.

Figure A3.16 DOSY NMR spectrum of $[PPh4][1^{Se}]$ in CDCl₃. The diffusion value is 6.64 cm²/sec. Smearing is observed at 7.26 ppm due to the solvent peak.

A3.1.4 [NEt4][SePPh2(CH2BF3)] ([TEA][**1**Se])

Figure A3.17¹H NMR spectrum of [TEA][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃, with inset showing splitting on the CH₂ group.

Figure A3.18 ${}^{31}P\{{}^{1}H\}$ NMR spectrum of [TEA][$1{}^{Se}$] in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.19 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of [TEA][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.20 ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectrum of [TEA][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃.

Figure A3.21¹¹B{¹H} NMR spectrum of [TEA][1^{Se}] collected in CDCl₃; the broad peak centered around 0 ppm is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube and the NMR probe.

A3.1.5 Comparison between [TEA][**1**Se] and [PPh4][**1**Se]

Figure A3.22 ¹H NMR spectra of [TEA][1^{Se}] and [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CD₂Cl₂.

Figure A3.23 ¹H NMR spectra of [TEA][1^{Se}] and [PPh4][1^{Se}] in DMSO- d_6 .

Figure A3.24¹H NMR spectra showing methylene resonance of [TEA][1^{Se}] and [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CD2Cl2 and DMSO-*d*6. The * indicates a small THF impurity.

Figure A3.25 19F NMR spectra showing the BF3 resonance of [TEA][**1**Se] and [PPh4][**1**Se] in CD2Cl2 and DMSO-*d*6.

A3.1.6 [PPh4][SePPh2(2-BF3Ph)] ([PPh4][**3**Se])

Figure A3.26¹H NMR spectrum of [PPh4][3^{Se}] in CD₃CN; observed solvent impurities include DCM, THF and Et2O.

Figure A3.27³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of [PPh4][3^{Se}] in CD₂Cl₂.

Figure A3.28 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of [PPh₄][3^{Se}] in CD₃CN.

Figure A3.29¹³C{1H} NMR spectrum of [PPh₄][3^{Se}] in CD₃CN.

Figure A3.30 ¹¹B{¹H} NMR spectrum of [PPh4][3^{Se}] in CD₃CN collected in a quartz NMR tube; the broad peak in the baseline around 0 is a result of borosilicate in the NMR probe.

Figure A3.31 IR spectrum (KBr Pellet) of K**1**.

Figure A3.32 IR spectrum (DCM Solution) of **2**. The equation correlating the stretching frequency in Rh(CO)(acac)L compounds and TEP from Ni(CO)3L is $y = 0.5716x + 938.47$, where y is TEP and x is $ν_{(CO)Rh}$ (reference [108](#page-96-0) in Chapter 3).

Figure A3.33 IR spectrum (KBr pellet) of **2**.

Figure A3.34 IR spectrum (CDCl₃ solution) of [PPh₄][1^{Se}]. Note that the features around 2250 cm^{-1} are a combination of CO2 and solvent stretches.

Figure A3.35 IR spectrum (KBr pellet) of [TEA][**1**Se].

Figure A3.36 IR spectrum (KBr pellet) of [PPh4][**3**Se].

Figure A3.37 IR spectra of 2 in different solvents. vco shifts by \sim 3 cm⁻¹, which is within the instrument error (4 cm^{-1}) .

Figure A3.38 IR spectra of Rh(CO)₂acac in different solvents.

A3.3 UV-visible spectra

Figure A3.39 UV-vis traces of the reaction between Ni(COD)2 (0.36 mM), 1 equivalent of K**1**, and 21 equivalents of C_6F_6 in THF at RT, with scans taken every 5 minutes for a total of 70 minutes; the spectrum for the first scan is maroon and the spectrum for the last scan is teal. Inset: Exponential fit to the decay of the absorbance at 464 nm with the equation $y=y_0+A*exp(R_0*x)$. The fit values are y₀ = 0.132(9), A=0.173(8), and R₀ = -2.81E-4(3.05E-5). The kobs determined from this fit is $-2.8E-4 s^{-1}$.

Figure A3.40 UV-vis traces of the reaction between Ni(COD)2 (0.36 mM), 2 equivalents of K**1**, and 21 equivalents of C_6F_6 in THF at RT, with scans taken every 5 minutes for a total of 90 minutes; the spectrum for the first scan is maroon and the spectrum for the last scan is teal. Inset: Exponential fit to the decay of the absorbance at 464 nm with the equation $y=y_0+A*exp(R_0*x)$. The fit values are y₀ = 0.510(6), A=0.280(6), and R₀ = -5.68E-4(3.98E-5). The kobs determined from this fit is $-5.6E-4 s^{-1}$.

Figure A3.41 UV-vis traces of the reaction between Ni(COD)2 (0.36 mM), 3 equivalents of K**1**, and 21 equivalents of C_6F_6 in THF at RT, with scans taken every 5 minutes for a total of 90 minutes; the spectrum for the first scan is maroon and the spectrum for the last scan is teal. Inset: Exponential fit to the decay of the absorbance at 464 nm with the equation $y=y_0+A*exp(R_0*x)$. The fit values are y₀ = 0.703(6), A=0.890(5), and R₀ = -3.71E-4(6.03E-6). The kobs determined from this fit is $-3.7E-4$ s⁻¹.

Figure A3.42 UV-vis traces of the reaction between Ni(COD)2 (0.36 mM), 4 equivalents of K**1**, and 21 equivalents of C6F6 in THF at RT, with scans taken every 5 minutes for a total of 90 minutes; the spectrum for the first scan is maroon and the spectrum for the last scan is teal. Inset: Exponential fit to the decay of the absorbance at 464 nm with the equation $y=y_0+A*exp(R_0*x)$. The fit values are y₀ = 1.110(35), A=0.857(30), and R₀ = −3.14E−4(2.69E−5). The kobs determined from this fit is $-3.1E-4 s^{-1}$.

Figure A3.43 UV-vis traces of the reaction between Ni(COD)2 (0.36 mM), 8 equivalents of K**1**, and 21 equivalents of C_6F_6 in THF at RT, with scans taken every 5 minutes for a total of 90 minutes; the spectrum for the first scan is maroon and the spectrum for the last scan is teal. Inset: Exponential fit to the decay of the absorbance at 464 nm with the equation $y=y_0+A*exp(R_0*x)$. The fit values are y₀ = 0.609(48), A=1.825(47), and R₀ = -9.44E-5(3.20E-6). The kobs determined from this fit is $-9.4E-5$ s⁻¹.

Figure A3.44 UV-vis traces of the reaction of Ni(COD)2 and K**1** without C6F6 in THF at RT, with scans taken every 5 minutes for a total of 70 minutes; the spectrum for the first scan is maroon and the spectrum for the last scan is teal.

A3.4 X-Ray Crystallography

Figure A3.45 SXRD structure of K1 with K⁺ counterion shown.

Figure A3.46 SXRD structure of 2 with PPh₄⁺ counterion shown. H-bonding interaction between BF3 and PPh4 indicated by a dashed line. Two independent molecules of $Rh(acac)(CO)(PPh₂(CH₂BF₃))$ are present in the asymmetric unit. The closest H-bonding interaction between the second molecule and PPh4 is 2.303(2) Å.

Figure A3.47 SXRD structure of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] with PPh₄⁺ counterion shown. H-bonding interaction between BF₃ and PPh₄ indicated by a dashed line.

Figure A3.48 Space filling model of the SXRD structure of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] with PPh₄⁺ counterion shown.

Figure A3.49 SXRD structure of [TEA][1^{Se}] with TEA⁺ counterion shown. H-bonding interaction between BF3 and TEA indicated by a dashed line.

Figure A3.50 Space filling model of the SXRD structure of [TEA][1^{Se}] with TEA⁺ counterion shown.

Figure A3.51 SXRD structure of [PPh₄][3^{Se}] with PPh₄⁺ counterion shown. H-bonding interaction between BF₃ and PPh₄ indicated by a dashed line.

Table A3.1 Selected average bond lengths for SXRD structures.

Identification code	$[TEA][1^{Se}]$	$[\mathrm{PPh4}][3^\mathrm{Se}]$
Empirical formula	C ₂₁ H ₃₂ BF ₃ NPSe	$C_{42}H_{34}BF_{3}P_{2}Se$
Formula weight	476.2	747.40
Temperature/K	100(2)	100(2)
Crystal system	orthorhombic	triclinic
Space group	Pca21	$P-1$
$a/\text{\AA}$	18.1513(9)	9.6724(5)
b/A	10.6673(5)	12.8821(6)
c/A	11.7071(6)	14.5407(7)
α /°	90	84.9610(10)
β /°	90	77.687(2)
$\gamma/^\circ$	90	74.085(2)
Volume/ \AA^3	2266.8(2)	1701.43(15)
Z	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{2}$
$\text{p}_\text{calc}g/\text{cm}^3$	1.390	1.459
μ/mm^{-1}	1.722	1.245
F(000)	981	764.0
Crystal size/ $mm3$	$0.433 \times 0.259 \times 0.165$	$0.303 \times 0.218 \times 0.13$
Radiation	MoKα (λ = 0.71073)	MoKα (λ = 0.71073)
20 range for data collection/ \circ	4.428-62.256	4.466 to 56.758
Index ranges	$-26 \le h \le 26$, $-15 \le k \le 15$, -16 $-12 \le h \le 12$, $-17 \le k \le 17$, -19 $\leq l \leq 17$	$\leq l \leq 19$
Reflections collected	59551	62543
Independent reflections	7176 [$R_{int} = 0.0245$, $R_{sigma} =$ 0.026]	8501 [$R_{int} = 0.0322$, $R_{sigma} =$ 0.0207]
Data/restraints/parameters	7176/1/258	8501/0/442
Goodness-of-fit on F^2	1.082	1.074
Final R indexes $[I>=2\sigma(I)]$	$R_1 = 0.0204$, $wR_2 = 0.0518$	$R_1 = 0.0293$, w $R_2 = 0.0701$
Final R indexes [all data]	$R_1 = 0.0219$, $wR_2 = 0.0523$	$R_1 = 0.0353$, w $R_2 = 0.0727$
Largest diff. peak/hole / e \AA ⁻³	$0.64/-0.15$	$0.55/-0.32$
Flack parameter		

Table A3.2 Refinement data for crystal structures of K**1**, **2**, [PPh4][**1**Se], [TEA][**1**Se], and [PPh4][**3**Se].

A3.5 Calculations

A3.5.1 Matlab Code for Estimating Electric Field Using Coulombs Law

```
%Electric field at P - defining coordinates - transoid
Px = 0;Py = 0;Pz = 0;Bx = 1.07559/10^10; %enter position in Å, converts to m
By = 1.88457/10^10;Bz = -2.23090/10^10;CP = 9E9; % constant of proportionality, units in Vm/C
elec = -1.60218E-19; %electron charge in C
%defining distances
PB = (Px-Bx)^2 + (Py-By)^2 + (Pz-Bz)^2;rPB = PB^{\wedge}(3/2);
%electric field at P from transoid B1 in V/m
EBx = CP*elec*(Px-Bx)/rPB;EBy = CP*elec*(Py-By)/rPB;
EBz = CP*elec*(Pz-Bz)/rPB;%electric field from far B1 in V/A
EVAx = EBx/10^10;EVAy = EBy/10^10;EVAz = EBz/10^10;%electric field from far B1 in atomic units
Eaux = EVAx/51.4;Eauy = EVAy/51.4;
Eauz = EVAz/51.4;
%summary/output 
EVm = [EBx, EBy, EBz] x, y, z components of electric field in V/mEVA = [EVAx, EVAy, EVAz] x, y, z components of electric field in V/\tilde{A}Eau = [Eaux, Eauy, Eauz] x, y, z components of electric field in atomic
```

```
units
```
A3.5.2 Optimized Structures

Figure A3.52 Calculated structure of **1**Se (cisoid structure).

Table A3.3 Coordinates of optimized structure of 1^{Se} (cisoid structure)

Figure A3.53 Calculated structure of 1^{Se} with the BF₃ group rotated down (transoid structure).

Table A3.4 Coordinates of calculated structure of edited **1**Se (transoid structure).

Transoid

Table A3.5 Calculated electric field and J_{P-Se} for calculated structures of 1^{Se} .

Figure A3.54 Optimized structure of SePPh₂Et.

Table A3.6 Coordinates of calculated structure of SePPh₂Et

Figure A3.55 Optimized structure of **2**.

Table A3.7 Coordinates of calculated structure of **2**.

Figure A3.56 Optimized structure of 1^{Se} with explicit MeCN solvation.

Table A3.8 Coordinates of calculated structure of **1**Se with explicit MeCN solvation.

Figure A3.57 Optimized structure of 1^{Se} with explicit DCM solvation.

Table A3.9 Coordinates of calculated structure of **1**Se with explicit DCM solvation

Figure A3.58 Optimized structure of 1^{Se} with explicit CHCl₃ solvation.

H	-2.220991	3.940223	-1.545776
C	2.884976	1.225234	-1.218915
C1	2.361311	-0.275269	-2.043871
C1	4.666396	1.330431	-1.180932
C1	2.174394	2.653910	-2.003281
H	2.518728	1.178121	-0.187717
C	-4.706603	-2.498081	4.264596
C1	-6.035536	-1.523564	4.932598
C1	-5.216461	-3.342919	2.780700
C1	-4.080618	-3.643816	5.472684
H	-3.891716	-1.824938	3.994636
C	-7.352896	0.855192	0.532008
C1	-8.409996	0.409612	-0.822728
C1	-8.231549	1.880809	1.704523
C1	-6.668396	-0.575215	1.330325
H	-6.525656	1.448142	0.140035
$\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{C}}$	-0.772219	0.489478	5.208282
C1	-1.738479	-0.980737	5.554662
C1	0.899158	0.267979	5.765478
C1	-1.522395	1.927819	5.942119
H	-0.745242	0.646119	4.127642

Table A3.10 Coordinates of calculated structure of **1**Se with explicit CHCl3 solvation

A3.6 Variable Solvent ${}^{31}P\{{}^{1}H\}$ NMR

A3.6.1 [PPh4][**1**Se]

Figure A3.59³¹P{¹H} NMR spectra of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] in CD₃CN (left) and DMSO- d_6 (right) showing the P−Se phosphorus resonance.

Figure A3.60 ³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectra of [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃ (left) and CD₂Cl₂ (right) showing the P−Se phosphorus resonance.

Figure A3.61 31P{1 H} NMR spectrum of [PPh4][**1**Se] in (CD3)2CO showing the P−Se phosphorus resonance.

Figure A3.62³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectra of [PPh4][1^{Se}] in the indicated solvent mixtures showing the P−Se phosphorus resonance.

Figure A3.63³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectra of [PPh₄][1^{Se}] in CH₂Cl₂ with addition of different equivalents of PPh4Br. While the changing electrolyte concentration could influence the solvent dielectric, and hence the coupling constant, literature examples with tetra-alkyl ammonium salts suggest that very little change is expected for changing electrolyte concentration over this concentration range (~1) M) (ref [156,](#page-129-0) Chapter 3).

Figure A3.64³¹P{¹H} NMR spectra of [PPh₄][1^{se}] in CDCl₃ with addition of tetrabutylammonium (TBA) salts.

Figure A3.65³¹P{¹H} NMR spectra of [PPh4][1^{Se}] in CDCl₃ with addition of tetraethylammonium (TEA) and bis(triphenylphosphine)iminium (PPN) salts.

A3.6.2 [TEA][**1**Se]

Figure A3.66 31P{1 H} NMR spectrum of [TEA][**1**Se] in the indicated solvents showing the P−Se phosphorus resonance.

Figure A3.67 31P{1 H} NMR spectrum of [TEA][**1**Se] in the indicated solvents showing the P−Se phosphorus resonance.

A3.6.3 [PPh4][**3**Se]

Figure A3.68³¹P{¹H} NMR spectra of [PPh4][3^{Se}] in different solvents, showing change in *J*P-se.

A3.6.4 Neutral Congeners

Figure A3.69³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectra of SePPh₂Et in the indicated solvents.

Figure A3.70³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectra of SePPh₃ in the indicated solvents.

A3.7 Correlation between J_{P-Se} and TEP

Figure A3.71 Plot of experimental *J*P-Se reported in CDCl₃ vs. TEP determined using Ni(CO)₃L in DCM or Rh(CO)(acac)L. Data was fit linearly using $y = mx + b$ with $m = 0.23(2)$ and $b = 1904(17)$ with $R^2 = 0.84$. Phosphines corresponding to each point are listed in the next table.

Compound	Experimental TEP	Experimental J_{P-Se}	Calculated TEP	Calculated J_{P-Se}
	2061.7 cm ⁻¹			698 Hz
$[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ CDCl ₃		657	2052.3	
$[PPh_4][1^{Se}]$ DMSO		687	2059.1	
$[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$ CDCl ₃		677	2056.8	
$[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$ DMSO		695	2060.9	

Table A3.11 Additional data points added to Figure 3.2. The linear fit was used to calculate the corresponding TEP or *J*_{P-Se} from the experimental value. Experimental TEP was determined via the linear correlation between v_{CO} Rh(CO)(acac)L and TEP.

Table A3.12 Phosphines used in the *J*_{P-Se} vs. TEP fit. Data in brackets were determined using Rh(CO)(acac)L. All other TEP values were determined using Ni(CO)₃L, and all *J*_{P-Se} values were measured in CDCl3. Data was collected from references [77,](#page-92-0) [108](#page-96-0) and [122](#page-98-0) in Chapter 3.

Figure A3.72 Plots of *J*_{P-Se} as a function of solvent dielectric – the PPh₄ Se compounds are compared to their neutral congeners in the top plot and the coupling of 1^{Se} with two different counterions is compared in the bottom plot. Solvent dielectric for mixtures was estimated using a volume weighted average of the pure solvent dielectrics. We have been unable to find detailed studies of the dielectrics of these binary mixtures, but literature reports suggest that solvent mixtures of low polarity solvents scale approximately linearly with concentration and that using a volume or mole fraction weighted average of the pure solvent dielectric provides a reasonable estimate of the mixture dielectric.* We have chosen to use volume fraction for ease but use of mole fractions results in negligible changes to the values and fits.

* (a) See Figure 2 in Wang, P. Anderko, A. Computation of dielectric constants of solvent mixtures and electrolyte solutions. *Fluid Phase Equilibr.* **2001**, *186* (1-2), 103-122. (b) Jouyban, A.; Soltanpour, S.; Chan, H.-K. A Simple Relationship between Dielectric Constant of Mixed Solvents with Solvent Composition and Temperature *Int. J. Pharm.* **2004**, *269*, 353-360. (c) Jouyban, A.; Soltanpour, S. Prediction of Dielectric Constants of Binary Solvents at Various Temperatures *J. Chem. Eng. Data* **2010**, *55*, 2951-2963.

Solvent	Dielectric	[PPh4] [1 ^{Se}]	[TEA] [1 ^{Se}]	[PPh4] [3 ^{Se}]	SePPh ₂ Et	SePPh ₃	1 ^{Se} DFT explicit solvent
CDCl ₃	4.8	657	679	677	720	731	-648
$1:1$ CDCl ₃ : CD ₂ Cl ₂	7	669	682				
CD ₂ Cl ₂	9.1	675	687	690	727	735	-675
1:1 $acetone-d6$: CD_2Cl_2	13	682	688				
$acetone-d6$	21	686	691	695	739	748	
CD ₃ CN	36.6	689	689	700	727	735	-684
$DMSO-d_6$	46.7	687	688	695	722	735	

Table A3.13 *J*P-Se (Hz) for [PPh4][**1**Se], [TEA][**1**Se], [PPh4][**3**Se], SePPh2Et, SePPh3 at different dielectrics. To estimate the experimentally accessible electrostatic contribution to donor strength for [PPh₄][1^{Se}], the following calculation was performed: $(687-657)/(722-657)*100 = 46\%$. The experimentally accessible electrostatic contribution for $[PPh4][3^{Se}]$ is $(695-677)/(735-677)*100 =$ 31%. The coupling predicted by DFT including explicit solvent (Figures A3.56-A3.58) is included in the last column.

Phosphine	$\lceil \mathrm{PPh}_4 \rceil \lceil 1^\mathrm{Se} \rceil$	$\left[\text{TEA} \right]$ 1^{Se}	$[PPh_4][3^{Se}]$	SePPh ₂ Et	SePPh ₃
а	693(1)	691(2)	700(2)	731(5)	741(5)
b	$-2.12(12)*103$	$-7(2)*10^2$	$-1.4(2)*103$	$-5(6)*10^2$	$-5(5)*10^2$
R^2).98		0.92	$0.06\,$	$\rm 0.02$

Table A3.14 Fit parameters for the linear fits of J_{P-Se} to $1/(4\pi\varepsilon)$ of the form $J_{P-Se} = a + b*(1/(4\pi\varepsilon))$.

Table A3.15 *J*P-Se (Hz) for [PPh4][**1**Se] with the addition of various additional salts, the difference is relative to the coupling value for [PPh4][**1**Se] in the appropriate solvent. NMR spectra are shown in the NMR section.

A3.9 NMR Spectra of C6F6 Oxidative Addition

A3.9.1 K**1** with Ni(COD)2

Figure A3.73³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction of K1 and Ni(COD)₂ in THF.

Figure A3.74 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction of K1, Ni(COD)₂, and C₆F₆ after 1 hr at RT. This upfield region shows the characteristic Ni–F peak.

Figure A3.75 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction of K1, Ni(COD)₂, and C₆F₆ after 1 hr at RT. The broad peak centered around −180 ppm is Teflon within the NMR probe. The peak at -164.6 ppm that is cut off is excess C_6F_6 .

Figure A3.76¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the reaction between K1 (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C6F6 (120 mM) in THF with CF3Ph (60 mM) and PPh3O (12 mM) as internal integral standards after 20 h at RT. Oxidative addition product peaks assigned: -117.5 (2F, Fortho), -132.3 (6F, BF3), -166.4 (1F, F_{para}) -167.1 (2F, F_{meta}) based on comparison to reference [154.](#page-125-0) Peaks at -140.3 and $-$ 156.5 ppm are not always observed and are assigned as unknown impurities. The peak at -164.6 ppm is unreacted C6F6.

Figure A3.77 Time course monitoring of the ¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the reaction between K1 (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C₆F₆ (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12 mM) as internal integral standards over the course of 20 h at RT. The observed rate of formation and % completion for the oxidative addition product for the following peaks are: -166.4 ppm (1.4E–4 s⁻¹, 3.5 mM, 30%), −167.1 ppm (1.7E−4 s[−]¹ , 3.0 mM, 25%), −117.5 ppm (1.9E−4 s[−]¹ , 2.6 mM, 22%). The average observed rate of formation and % yield are 1.7(3)E−4 s⁻¹ and 25(4)%.

Figure A3.78 ³¹ P {¹H} NMR spectrum of the reaction between K1 (24 mM), Ni(COD) $_2$ (12 mM) and C6F6 (120 mM) in THF with CF3Ph (60 mM) and OPPh3 (12 mM) as internal integral standards after 16 h at RT. The phosphorus resonance for the oxidative addition product is assigned as the doublet at 9.6 ppm on the basis of coupling to ¹⁹F on the Ni–F.

Figure A3.79 Time course monitoring of the ${}^{31}P\{{}^{1}H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction between K1 (24 mM) , Ni $(COD)_{2}$ (12 mM) and $C_{6}F_{6}$ (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12 mM) as internal integral standards over the course of 16 h at RT. The observed rate of formation and % completion for the oxidative addition peak at 9.6 ppm is 1.4E-4 s⁻¹ and 3.0 mM (25%).
A3.9.2 PCy3 with Ni(COD)2

Figure A3.80¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the reaction between PCy₃ (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C_6F_6 (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12 mM) as internal integral standards after 53 h at RT. Oxidative addition product peaks assigned: −110.6 (2F, Fortho), −166.8 (2F, Fmeta) based on comparison to reference [154.](#page-125-0) The F_{para} peak is hidden under the C_6F_6 peak, but can be observed in the ¹⁹F{¹H} NMR spectrum. The peak at -164.6 ppm is the unreacted C₆F₆.

Figure A3.81 Time course monitoring of the ¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the reaction between PCy₃ (24) mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C₆F₆ (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12 mM) as internal integral standards over the course of 52 h at RT. The observed rate of formation and % completion for the oxidative addition product for the following peaks are: -110.6 ppm (2.0E–5 s⁻¹, 6.7 mM, 56%), -166.8 ppm (2.1E-5 s⁻¹, 7.0 mM, 58%). The average observed rate of formation and % yield are $2.10(7)E-5$ s⁻¹ and 57(2)%.

Figure A3.82 ³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction between PCy₃ (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C6F6 (120 mM) in THF with CF3Ph (60 mM) and OPPh3 (12 mM) as internal integral standards after 53 h at RT. The phosphorus resonance for the oxidative addition product is assigned as the doublet at 18.5 ppm on the basis of coupling to 19F in the Ni−F. The starting phosphine is assigned as the peak at 10.6 ppm.

Figure A3.83 Time course monitoring of the ${}^{31}P\{{}^{1}H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction between PCy₃ (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C₆F₆ (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12 mM) as internal integral standards over the course of 53 h at RT. The observed rate of formation and % completion for the oxidative addition peak at 18.5 ppm is 2.0E−5 s[−]¹ and 10.0 mM (83%).

Figure A3.84¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the reaction between PEt₃ (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C_6F_6 (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12 mM) as internal integral standards after 114 h at RT. Oxidative addition product peaks assigned: −116.6 (2F, Fortho), −163.9 (1F, Fpara), and −166.0 (2F, Fmeta) based on comparison to reference [154.](#page-125-0) Peaks at −140.3 and −156.5, and −169.3 ppm are not always observed and are assigned as unknown impurities. The peak at −164.6 ppm is unreacted C_6F_6 .

Figure A3.85 Time course monitoring of the ¹⁹F NMR spectrum of the reaction between PEt₃ (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C₆F₆ (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12 mM) as internal integral standards over the course of 114 h at RT. The observed rate of formation and % completion for the oxidative addition product for the following peaks are: −116.6 ppm (3.5E−6 s⁻¹, 2.7 mM, 23%), -163.9 ppm (4.3E–6 s⁻¹, 2.7 mM, 23%), and 166.0 (4.0E–6 s⁻¹, 2.7 mM, 23%). The average observed rate of formation and % yield are $4.0(4)E-6$ s⁻¹ and 23%.

Figure A3.86 ³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction between PEt₃ (24 mM), Ni(COD)₂ (12 mM) and C6F6 (120 mM) in THF with CF3Ph (60 mM) and OPPh3 (12 mM) as internal integral standards after 114 h at RT. The phosphorus resonance for the oxidative addition product is assigned as the doublet at 13.8 ppm on the basis of coupling to ^{19}F in the Ni-F. The starting phosphine is assigned as the resonance at 18.1 ppm.

Figure A3.87 Time course monitoring of the ${}^{31}P\{{}^{1}H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction between PEt₃ (24 mM) , Ni (COD) ₂ (12 mM) and C₆F₆ (120 mM) in THF with CF₃Ph (60 mM) and OPPh₃ (12) mM) as internal integral standards over the course of 114 h at RT. The observed rate of formation and % completion for the oxidative addition peak at 13.8 ppm is $2.8E-6$ s⁻¹ and 3.2 mM (27%).

Phosphine	Average k_{obs}	Average yield	k_{obs} from 19 F NMR	yields from 19 F NMR	k_{obs} from 31P NMR	yield from $31P$ NMR
K1	1.6(2)E-4 s ⁻¹ 25(3)% at	20h	$1.4E-4 s^{-1}$ $1.7E-4 s^{-1}$	30% 25%	$1.4E-4 s^{-1}$	25%
			$1.9E-4 s^{-1}$	22%		
PCy ₃	2.0(1)E-5 s ⁻¹ 66(15)% at	53 h	$2.0E-5 s^{-1}$ $2.1E-5 s^{-1}$	56% 58%	$2.0E-5 s^{-1}$	83%
PEt ₃	3.7(7)E-6 s ⁻¹ 24(2)% at	114h	$3.5E-6s^{-1}$ 4.3E-6 s^{-1} 4.0E-6 s^{-1}	23% 23% 23%	$2.8E-6s^{-1}$	27%

Table A3.16 Summary of observed rates from NMR monitoring experiments

Figure A3.88 ³¹ P {¹H} NMR spectrum of the reaction of PEt₃, Ni(COD)₂, and C₆F₆ in THF after 1 hour (bottom, black) and 1 week (top, red) at RT. The features around 17 ppm are unreacted Ni(COD)₂ PEt₃ adducts and the doublet at 13 ppm is the oxidative addition product with ¹J_{P-F} coupling.

A3.10 Characterization of Products in Defluoroborylation Reactions

A3.10.1 NMR Spectra

Figure A3.89¹⁹F{¹H} NMR spectrum of the reaction mixture from one of the catalytic borylation reactions of 1,2-difluorobenzene in THF following standard catalytic conditions detailed in methods section. The peaks at −102.8, −115.8, and −140.3 ppm are assigned as 1-Bpin-2-C6FH4, 2,2'-F2-1,1'-Ph2, and 1,2-difluorobenzene, respectively.

Figure A3.90¹⁹F{¹H} NMR spectrum of the reaction mixture from one of the catalytic borylation reactions of 1,3-difluorobenzene in THF following standard catalytic conditions detailed in methods section. The peaks at −111.3 and −115.7 ppm are assigned as 1,3-difluorobenzene and 1- Bpin-3-C6FH4, respectively.

Figure A3.91 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction mixture from one of the catalytic borylation reactions of 1,4-difluorobenzene in THF following standard catalytic conditions detailed in methods section. The peaks at −110.1 and −120.9 ppm are assigned as 1-Bpin-4-C6FH4 and 1,4 difluorobenzene, respectively.

Figure A3.92 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction mixture from one of the catalytic borylation reactions of 1,2,4-trifluorobenzene in THF following standard catalytic conditions detailed in methods section. The peaks at −116.7, −135.3 and −145.1 ppm are assigned to 1,2,4 trifluorobenzene and the peaks at −120.2 and −121.7 ppm are assigned to 2,2',5,5'-F4-1,1'-Ph2.

Figure A3.93 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of the reaction mixture from one of the catalytic borylation reactions of 1,3,5-trifluorobenzene in THF following standard catalytic conditions detailed in methods section. The peaks at −108.8, −112.1, and −116.4 ppm are assigned as 1,3,5 trifluorobenzene, 1-Bpin-3,5-C6F2H3, and 1,3-Bpin-5-C6FH3, respectively.

A3.10.2 GC/MS Characterization

Figure A3.94 GC trace of the reaction mixture resulting from one of the catalytic borylation reactions of C_6H_5F . The peak at a retention time of 6.486 minutes corresponds to C_6H_5B pin (see MS below) and the peak at 6.634 minutes corresponds to B_2 pin₂.

Figure A3.95 Mass spectrum of the C6H5Bpin peak from the reaction mixture GC resulting from one of the catalytic borylation reactions of C6H5F.

A3.11 Catalytic C-F Borylation Trial Reactions

µL, 0.16 mmol, 4.5 equiv) were dissolved in 1 mL of THF and heated with stirring at 50 °C for the specified time. Yields determined by integration of $19F$ NMR peak of 1-Bpin-3-C₆FH₄ and comparison to the internal standard CF₃Ph. Yields are relative to the theoretical yield (0.4 mmol) determined using 1,3 $C_6F_2H_4$.

Table A3.17 Initial scan of additives for C-F borylation of 1,3 difluorobenzene.

equiv.), CF₃Ph (20 µL, 0.16 mmol, 4.5 equiv) and H₂O (10 µL, 0.72 mmol, 20 equiv.) were dissolved in 1 mL of THF and heated with stirring at 50 °C for the specified time. Yields determined by integration of ¹⁹F NMR peak of 1-Bpin-3-C₆FH₄ and comparison to the internal standard CF₃Ph. Yields are relative to the theoretical yield (0.4 mmol) determined using 1,3 $C_6F_2H_4$.

Table A3.18 Variation of reaction conditions with H₂O as an additive.

(54 mg, 0.29-0.31 mmol, 8-8.5 equiv.), CF₃Ph (20 µL, 0.16 mmol, 4.5 equiv.) and alcohol (0.72 mmol, 20 equiv.) were dissolved in 1 mL of THF and heated with stirring at 50 °C for the specified time. Yields
determined by integration of ¹⁹F NMR peak of 1-Bpin-3-C₆FH₄ and comparison to the internal standard
CF₃Ph. Yie

Table A3.19 Variation of reaction conditions with alcohols as additives.

equiv.), CF₃Ph (20 µL, 0.16 mmol, 4.5 equiv) and MeOH (30 µL, 0.72 mmol, 20 equiv.) were dissolved in 1 mL of THF and heated with stirring at 50 °C for the specified time. Yields determined by integration of ¹⁹F NMR peak of 1-Bpin-3-C₆FH₄ and comparison to the internal standard CF₃Ph. Yields are relative to the theoretical yield (0.4 mmol) determined using 1,3 $C_6F_2H_4$.

Table A3.20 Variation of reaction conditions with MeOH as an additive

Table A3.21 Variation of reaction time with MeOH and CsOH additives and control reactions

Reaction conditions unless otherwise stated - 1,3 $C_6F_2H_4$ (40 µL, 0.4 mmol, 11 equiv.), Ni(COD)₂ (10 mg, 0.036 mmol), K1 (22 mg, 0.072 mmol), B₂pin₂ (184 mg, 0.72 mmol, 20 equiv.), CsOH•xH₂O (15-20% H₂O) (54 mg, 0.29-0.31 mmol, 8-8.5 equiv.), CF₃Ph (20 µL, 0.16 mmol, 4.5 equiv) and MeOH (30 µL, 0.72 mmol, 20 equiv.) were dissolved in 1 mL of THF and heated with stirring at 50 °C for the specified time. Yields determined by integration of ¹⁹F NMR peak of $1-\text{Bpin-3-C}_6\text{FH}_4$ and comparison to the internal standard $CF_3\text{Ph}$. Yields are relative to the theoretical yield (0.4 mmol) determined using 1,3 $C_6F_2H_4$.

*Standard order of addition: combine Ni(COD)₂, K1, and B₂pin₂ in 1 mL THF. Add CF₃Ph, then 1,3 C₆F₂H₄, then CsOH•xH₂O (15-20% H₂O) and finally MeOH before placing on hot plate.

Table A3.22 Variation of addition order and additives.

mmol) determined using 1,3 $C_6F_2H_4$.
*Standard order of addition: combine Ni(COD)₂, K1, and B₂pin₂ in 1 mL THF. Add CF₃Ph, then 1,3 C₆F₂H₄, then CsOH•xH₂O (15-20% H₂O) and finally MeOH before placing

Table A3.23 Variation of cations.

1 mL of THF and heated with stirring at 50 °C for the specified time. Yields determined by integration of ¹⁹F NMR peak
of 1-Bpin-3-C₆FH₄ and comparison to the internal standard CF₃Ph. Yields are relative to the th

Table A3.24 Variation of reaction solvent.

Appendix 4: Supporting Data for Chapter 4

A4.1 Characterization data

A4.1.1 PPh(6-BF3-2-pyH)2

Figure A4.1¹H NMR spectrum of PPh(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₂ in DMSO- d_6 .

Figure A4.2 ³¹ P {¹H} NMR spectrum of PPh(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₂ in DMSO- d_6 .

Figure A4.3 ¹⁹ F {¹H} NMR spectrum of PPh(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₂ in DMSO- d 6. The broad peaks in the baseline around 150 – 220 ppm result from Teflon within the probe.

Figure A4.4 ¹¹B $\{^1H\}$ spectrum of PPh(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₂ in DMSO- d_6 . The broad peak in the baseline is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube.

Figure A4.5 Negative mode ESI-MS of PPh(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₂ in MeCN. Isotope patterns are observed as a result of ^{11}B having 80% abundance and ^{10}B having 20% abundance, but the peak intensity for 10B is increased due to the presence of 2 B atoms. The expected isotope patterns shown written below each assignment were predicted using chemdraw.

Figure A4.6 ¹H NMR spectrum of P(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₃ in DMSO- d_6 with DMF and THF impurities present from the crystallization conditions.

Figure A4.7 ³¹ P {¹H} NMR spectrum of P(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₃ in DMSO-*d*₆.

Figure A4.8 ¹⁹ F {¹H} NMR spectrum of P(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₃ in DMSO- d_6 . The broad peaks in the baseline around $150 - 220$ ppm result from Teflon within the probe

Figure A4.9 ¹¹ B {¹H} NMR of P(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₃ in DMSO- d_6 . The broad peak observed in the baseline is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube.

Figure A4.10 Negative mode ESI-MS of P(6-BF₃-2-pyH)₃ in MeCN. Isotope patterns are observed as a result of ^{11}B having 80% abundance and ^{10}B having 20% abundance, but the peak intensity for ¹⁰B is increased due to the presence of 3 B atoms. The expected isotope patterns shown written below each assignment were predicted using chemdraw.

Figure A4.11 Aromatic region of the ¹H NMR spectrum of $[P(2-py)3NiNO][BPh4]$ in CD₂Cl₂ with assignments for the resonances. Minor additional impurity peaks are observed outside of this region around 1.3 ppm.

Figure A4.12 ³¹ $P\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum of $[P(2-py)_{3}NiNO][BPh_4]$ in CD₂Cl₂.

Figure A4.13 ¹¹ B {¹H} NMR spectrum of [P(2-py)3NiNO][BPh₄] in CD₂Cl₂. The broad peak around 0 is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube.

Figure A4.14 Cyclic voltammogram of [P(2-py)3NiNO][BPh4] collected in a 0.1 M NaBPh4 THF solution and referenced to external ferrocenium.

Figure A4.15 Cyclic voltammogram of first reduction of $[P(2-py)3NiNO][BPh4]$ collected at variable scan rates.

Figure A4.16 IR spectrum of [P(2-py)3NiNO][BPh4] collected in a KBr pellet.

A4.1.4 K[2-Br-4-BF2CF3-py]

Figure A4.17¹H NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of crude product from synthesis of K[2-Br-4-BF2CF3-py] after washing with DCM/hexane at −78 °C.

Figure A4.18 ¹⁹ F {¹H} NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of crude product from synthesis of K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py] after washing with DCM/hexane at −78 °C. The broad peaks in the baseline around 150 – 220 ppm result from Teflon within the probe

Figure A4.19¹¹B{¹H} NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of crude product from synthesis of K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py] after washing with DCM/hexane at −78 °C. The broad peak around 0 is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube.

Figure A4.20 ¹H NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of crystalline K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py] from a concentrated THF/DCM solution. Deuterosolvent was stored outside of the glovebox, accounting for the water impurity at 2.16 ppm.

Figure A4.21 ¹⁹ F {¹H} NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of crystalline K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py] from a concentrated THF/DCM solution.

Figure A4.22 ¹¹B{¹H} NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of crystalline K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py] from a concentrated THF/DCM solution.

Figure A4.23 ¹³C{¹H} NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of crystalline K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py] from a concentrated THF/DCM solution.

Figure A4.24 ¹H NMR spectrum of crude product of reaction with B(OMe)₂CF₃ without the use of dioxane.

A4.1.5 K[2-Br-3-BF2CF3-py]

Figure A4.25¹H NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-3-BF2CF3-py]. Asterisks indicate unknown impurities.

Figure A4.26 ¹⁹ F {¹H} NMR spectrum collected in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-3-BF₂CF₃-py]. The broad peaks in the baseline around $150 - 220$ ppm result from Teflon within the probe

Figure A4.27 ¹¹ B {¹H} NMR spectrum collected in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-3-BF2CF3-py]. The broad peak in the baseline around 0 is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube.

A4.1.6 K[2-Br-5-BF2CF3-py]

Figure A4.28¹H NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-5-BF2CF3-py]. Asterisks indicate unknown impurities.

Figure A4.29 ¹⁹ $F\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum collected in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-5-BF2CF3-py].

Figure A4.30 ¹¹B $\{^1H\}$ NMR spectrum collected in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-5-BF2CF3-py]. The broad peak in the baseline around 0 is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube.

Figure A4.31 ¹H NMR spectrum in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-6-BF2CF3-py]. Integration and splitting patterns of the resonances are not consistent with the desired product.

Figure A4.32 ¹⁹ F {¹H} NMR spectrum collected in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-6-BF₂CF₃-py]. The BF₃ resonances in the −150 ppm range are consistent with the reported spectra for BF3CF3K.

Figure A4.33 ¹¹ B {¹H} NMR spectrum collected in CD₃CN of the crude brown oil from the synthesis of K[2-Br-6-BF2CF3-py]. The broad peak in the baseline around 0 is a result of borosilicate in the NMR tube.

A4.2 SXRD Tables

Table A4.1 Refinement data for crystal structures of K[2-Br-4-BF₂CF₃-py] and [P(2py)3NiNO][BPh4].

A4.3 Calculations

A4.3.1 Coordinates of Optimized Structures

Figure A4.34 Coordinates of optimized geometry for PPy3NiNO aligned in Avogadro with the Z axis along the NO bond.

Figure A4.35 Coordinates of optimized geometry for P(6-BF3-2-py)3NiNO aligned in Avogadro with the Z axis along the NO bond.

N 1.57862 -0.79004 -2.68357

Figure A4.36 Coordinates of optimized geometry for P(5-BF3-2-py)3NiNO aligned in Avogadro with the Z axis along the NO bond.

Figure A4.37 Coordinates of optimized geometry for P(4-BF₃-2-py)₃NiNO aligned in Avogadro with the Z axis along the NO bond.

- F -0.31900 -5.84477 -5.34341
- F -0.59460 -4.34954 -7.05951

Figure A4.38 Coordinates of optimized geometry for P(3-BF3-2-py)3NiNO aligned in Avogadro with the Z axis along the NO bond.

A4.3.2 Matlab Code Used to Predict Fz at the Midpoint of the NO Bond for the 3 Isomer

Field predicted for each isomer along the nitrosyl axis:


```
NB3x = NO x-B3x;NB3y = NOy-B3y;NB3z = NOz-B3z;dNB3 = NB3x^2 + NB3y^2 + NB3z^2;davg = (dNB1^(1/2) + dNB2^(1/2) + dNB3^(1/2))/3;
%Field direction along NO bond
CP = 9E9:
elec = -1.60218E-19;rNB1 = dNB1^(3/2);rNB2 = dNB2^(3/2);
rNB3 = dNB3^(3/2);
%Boron 1
EB1x = CP*elec*-1*(NOx-B1x)/rNBI;EB1y = CP*elec*-1*(NOy-B1y)/rNBI;EB1z = CP*elec*-1*(NO_Z-B1z)/rNBI;EVALx = EB1x/10^10;EVALV = EB1V/10^10;EVA1z = EB1z/10^10;
Eau1x = EVA1x/51.4;
Eau1y = EVA1y/51.4;
Eau1z = EVA1z/51.4;
%Boron2
EB2x = CP*elec*-1*(NOx-B2x)/rNB2;EB2y = CP*elec*-1*(NOy-B2y)/rNB2;
EB2z = CP*elec*-1*(NO_Z-B2z)/rNB2;EVA2x = EB2x/10^10;EVA2y = EB2y/10^10;EVA2z = EB2z/10^10;Eau2x = EVA2x/51.4;
Eau2y = EVA2y/51.4;
Eau2z = EVA2z/51.4;
%Boron 3
EB3x = CP*elec*-1*(NOx-B3x)/rNB3;EB3y = CP*elec*-1*(NOy-B3y)/rNB3;EB3z = CP*elec*-1*(NOz-B3z)/rNB3;
```

```
EVA3x = EB3x/10^10;
EVA3y = EB3y/10^10;
EVA3z = EB3z/10^10;
Eau3x = EVA3x/51.4;
Eau3y = EVA3y/51.4;
Eau3z = EVA3z/51.4;
% Total field in volts per Angstrom along z axis 
EVAz = EVA1z + EVA2z + EVA3z
```