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Oxidative C–C and C–Heteroatom Reactivity of High-Valent Nickel **Complexes**

Sofia Marie Smith Washington University in St. Louis

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WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY IN ST. LOUIS

Department of Chemistry

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Oxidative C–C and C–Heteroatom Reactivity of High-Valent Nickel Complexes by Sofia M. Smith

> A dissertation presented to The Graduate School of Washington University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

> > May 2019 St. Louis, Missouri

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Sofia M. Smith

Washington University in St. Louis May 2019

Dedicated to my Family, I Love You.

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Oxidative C–C and C–Heteroatom Reactivity of High-Valent Nickel Complexes

by

Sofia M. Smith

Doctor of Philosophy in Chemistry

Washington University in St. Louis, 2019

Professor Liviu M. Mirica, Chair

Professor Kevin D. Moeller, Co-Chair

Nickel catalysts are commonly used for cross-coupling reactions such as Negishi, Kumada and Suzuki couplings. While Ni(0), Ni(I), and Ni(II) intermediates are most relevant in these transformations, Ni(III) and Ni(IV) species have also been recently proposed to play a role in catalysis. The formation of C–C and C–heteroatom bonds plays a fundamental role in organic transformations, and today cross-coupling reactions are one of the most powerful tools for the construction of new C–C bonds. However, limited examples exist of Ni-mediated C–heteroatom bond formation reactions, likely due to the difficulty of accessing high-valent organometallic Ni species that can undergo reductive elimination.

One way to expand our knowledge of these C–C and C–heteroatom atom bond formation reactions is to look at the stabilization and destabilization effects of the high-valent nickel complexes. Studying these effects will help us determine the most efficient way in performing C– C and C–heteroatom atom bond formation reactions. Tetradentate pyridinophane ligands have

been to stabilize uncommon high-valent organometallic nickel complexes. By varying the Nsubstituents, we are now able to probe the stabilization and destabilization effects that might play a crucial role in the C–C and C–heteroatom atom bond formation reactions.

A series of nickel complexes were synthesized to probe the C–C and C–heteroatom atom bond reactivity using the Ni-dimethyl and -metallacycle complexes. These complexes were fully characterized and their reactivity was tested. The oxidative reactivity was studied by looking at a variety of oxidants which include dioxygen and hydrogen peroxide to probe any C–O bond formation. Interestingly, while the oxidation of the Ni^{II} metallacycle complexes with various oxidants led to exclusive C–C bond formation in very good yields, the use of O_2 or H_2O_2 as oxidants led to appreciable amounts of C–O bond formation products, especially for an asymmetric pyridinophane ligand with one tosyl N-substituent. Moreover, cryo-ESI-MS studies strongly support the formation of several high-valent nickel species as key intermediates in this unprecedented aerobic Ni-mediated oxygenase-type chemistry.

Lastly, the tetradentate pyridinophane ligands were used in two catalytic oxidation reactions, a hydroxylation and a chlorination reaction for unactivated alkanes. These catalytic oxidation reactions use mild oxidants such as hypohalites which are commercially available. All these reactions could have important implications in organic transformations.

Chapter 1

High-Valent Organometallic Nickel Complexes and Their Reactivity

1.1 Introduction

Nickel (Ni) is commonly used as a catalyst for various cross-coupling reactions, including Negishi, Kumada, and Suzuki couplings. Although the 0, I, and II oxidation states of Ni are commonly involved in these catalytic transformations, recent studies show that the III and IV oxidation states of Ni also play a key role in organic transformations such as C–C and C– heteroatom bond formation reactions.

The first Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} organometallic complexes were reported almost 40 years ago, yet those were unreactive. In the past decade reports of reactive organometallic Ni complexes have exploded. This chapter reports all these systems, with a focus on the more recent, reactive examples. Other high-valent, non-organometallic Ni complexes are not discussed in detail, unless they promote organic reactions.

In the past decade, many advances have been made in the synthesis of high-valent organometallic Ni complexes and the study of their reactivity and involvement in various organic transformations. In 2007, Zargarian isolated and probed the reactivity of a Ni^{III} organometallic complex, which promoted chlorination of alkenes through Kharasch addition. In 2014 and 2015 Mirica isolated an alkyl(halide) and alkyl-alkyl Ni^{III} species capable of mediating C-X and C-C bond formation after heating, respectively. Similar reactivity was observed by Sanford in 2015, but with an isolated Ni^{IV} species that promoted C–X and $C(sp^2)$ – $C(sp^3)$ bond formation. Reactivity studies of high-valent Ni has been on the rise. Other observed reactivity mediated by these highvalent Ni species include bromination of alkenes and trifluoromethylation of alkyl and aryl substrates. The once elusive and unreactive Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} species are now promoting organic transformations normally proposed to be done by $Ni^{0/II}$ intermediates. This opens a new path where $Ni^{III/IV}$ could be accessed in a catalytic cycle during an organic transformation.

It is important to note that there are other high-valent Ni complexes that are not organometallic that could potentially provide information of the stability of these complexes in organic transformations. In this chapter we will present accomplishments made in the past 40 years involving organometallic Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} complexes since they were first observed by Kochi in 1978 and Smart in 1982, respectively. Several other reviews on high-valent nickel chemistry are available as well. $1-5$

1.2 Organometallic NiIII Complexes

Kochi and co-workers published in 1978 the first organometallic Ni^{III} , 1, species that was observed by EPR and UV-Vis (Scheme 1.1). Starting from the Ni^{II} precursor, sodium hexachloroiridate was added at -50 °C. A stable electronic spectrum with λ_{max} 410 nm and an EPR spectrum were immediately observed. After warming the solution to -18 °C, the EPR spectrum disappeared after approximately 20 minutes, which was associated with a reductive elimination from the paramagnetic species.⁶

Scheme 1.1 The first observed organometallic Ni^{III} species by Kochi and co-workers in 1978.

It was not until 1983 that van Koten and co-workers isolated the first high-valent nickel organometallic complex using the pincer ligand $1,1'$ - $(1,3$ -phenylene)bis(N,N- dimethylmethanamine) (NCN) (Scheme 1.2). The binding of the tridentate NCN pincer ligand and two anionic ligands yielded a stable trigonal bipyramidal Ni^{III}, 2. The auxiliary ligands in the cis coordination sites could easily be interchanged with anionic halogens, nitrites/nitrates, **3**, or isothiocyanato ligands, **4** and **5**, yet the complexes were unusually stable and were only proposed as plausible intermediates in chlorination of alkenes with $CCl₄$ through Kharasch addition.⁷⁻¹¹

Zargarian and co-workers revisited **2** in 2018 and used the electrophilic nature of the ligand backbone to promote C–X formation with water, alcohols, amines, and strong acids under mild conditions. Although the reactions generating C–X products were not high yielding or selective, the reactivity observed for **2** was rare.¹²

Scheme 1.2 The first high-valent nickel organometallic complexes stabilized by the pincer ligand published by van Koten and co-workers and then later revisited by Zargarian and co-workers in 2018.

In 1995, van Koten and co-workers introduced a similar pincer complex to 1,1'-(1,3 phenylene)bis(N,N-dimethylmethanamine), but with amino acid derivatives. In contrast to their original NCN ligand, this proline-type NCN pincer ligand could coordinate to the Ni center in a tridentate or pentadentate fashion. In this case, the Ni^{III} complex 6 was stabilized in an octahedral geometry and could be isolated in a 72% yield (Scheme 1.3).¹³

Scheme 1.3 The first isolated chiral Ni^{III} organometallic complex stabilized by an amino-acid pincer ligand.

In 1995, Hillhouse and co-workers proposed a Ni^{III} intermediate, 7 after exposing the Ni^{II} precursor to either O_2 or I_2 at room temperature (Scheme 1.4). The reaction resulted in a clean formation of *N*-p-tolylpyrrolidine, 86% and 77% respectively, after a chromatographic workup. Moreover, the one electron oxidant acetyl ferrocenium tetrafluoroborate also cleanly converts the Ni^{II} to **7** (85%).¹⁴⁻¹⁵

Scheme 1.4 Oxidatively-induced Ni^{II}, stabilized by a 2,2'-bipyridyl ligand published in 1995 by Hillhouse and co-workers.

In 1997, Hillhouse and co-workers published the oxidatively-induced reaction of the dimeric seven-membered nickel(II) oxametallacycle. Starting with the dimeric Ni^H , $O₂$ was bubbled through a solution of benzene forming over the course of 72 hours at room temperature a new C–O bond (Scheme 1.5). Formation of the C–O bond occurs via an oxidatively-induced mechanism to form the proposed Ni^{III} intermediate, **8** followed by a reductive-elimination to give 4,4-dimethylchroman, in 39% isolated yield.¹⁴⁻¹⁵

Scheme 1.5 Oxidatively-induced reaction of the dimeric seven-membered Ni(II) oxametallacycle.

In 2002, Hillhouse and co-workers described a stereochemical synthesis of aziridine by an oxidatively induced reductive elimination from a Ni^{III} complex (Scheme 1.6). Reaction of *N*tosylaziridine with a $(bpy)Ni⁰(cod)$ results in the elimination of 1,5-cyclooctadiene and the oxidative addition of the aziridine, to give the azametallacyclobutane complex. The formation of the Ni^{II} complex results in only one regioisomer, with the oxidative addition occurring exclusively at the least-hindered C–N bond. Addition of dioxygen forms the proposed Ni^{III} complex 9 which then undergoes a reductive elimination with inversion of stereochemistry to reform the aziridine with 92% inversion by 1 H NMR.¹⁶

Scheme 1.6 The reformation of aziridine by an oxidatively induced reductive elimination.

In 2005, Warren and co-workers isolated a trigonal planar Ni^{III} complex 10 stabilized by bidentate β-diketiminate-type ligand and an imidoadamantane nitrogen donor (Scheme 1.7). Reactivity of terminal imido complex with CO, CN^tBu, and PMe₃ resulted in OC–N, NC–N, and P–N bond formation in good yields $(76\%, 84\%, \text{ and } 91\%)$.¹⁷

Scheme 1.7 N–X bond formation using trigonal planar terminal imido Ni^{III} complex published by Warren and co-workers in 2005.

In 2007 and 2009, Zargarian and co-workers used the (1,3 bis((diisopropylphosphaneyl)oxy)propane) PCP-type phosphonite ligand and (1-(3- $((diisopropylphosphaneyl)oxy)phenyl- N , N -di N^R methanamine) PCN -type phosphonite pincer$ ligands to stabilize the Ni^{III} centers, complexes 11 and 12, respectively (Scheme 1.8). Similar to the NCN Ni complexes from van Koten and co-workers, the PCP/PCN oxidized Ni species could promote C–Cl coupling of alkenes with CCl⁴ through the Kharasch addition in good yields (60- 85%).18-19

Scheme 1.8 Several phosphonite pincer Ni^{III} complexes isolated by Zargarian and co-workers in 2007 and 2009, showing also the Kharasch addition reactivity.

In 2008, Zargarian and co-workers used PCP pincer ligand 1,5 bis(diisopropylphosphaneyl)pentyl. In this case, the Ni^{III} center in complex 13 is stabilized with a trigonal bipyramidal geometry (Scheme 1.9). In contrast to their previously discussed PCP phosphonite ligands, the complex does not show reactivity at the isolated Ni^{III} oxidation state.²⁰

Scheme 1.9 PCP pincer Ni^{III} complexes stabilized in a trigonal bipyramidal geometry, isolated by Zargarian and co-workers in 2008.

Hillhouse and co-workers synthesized two Ni^{III} imides supported by 1,2-bis(di-tertbuylphosphino)ethane in 2011 (Scheme 1.10). The oxidation of the Ni^{II} complexes led to the formation of both aryl- and alkyl-substituted Ni^{III} imides. The aryl substituent was the bulky 2,6dimesitylphenyl and the alkyl substituent was adamantine. Both Ni^{III} imide compounds showed analogous EPR spectra at low temperature but different variable-temperature magnetic properties. A low-spin/high-spin equilibrium was proposed to take place for the alkyl-substituted Ni^{III} imide complex 14 to account for the difference. The aryl-substituted Ni^{III} imide, 15, favors one rotamer because of the steric properties of the 2,6-dimesitylphenyl substituent. Complex **15** can undergo hydrogen atom abstraction resulting in the Ni^{II} complex with "Bu₃SnH (95%).²¹

Scheme 1.10 Hillhouse and co-workers isolated an alkyl and aryl-substituted Ni^{III} imide complexes in 2011.

Vicic and co-workers reported in 2012 a one-electron oxidation of the Ni^{II} complex supported by a BOXAM ligand $(BOXAM = bis((4-isopropyl-4,5-dihydrooxazol-2-))$ yl)phenyl)amine) (Scheme 1.11). The Ni^{III} complexes, **16** were all characterized by EPR and UV-Vis. The redox behavior of these complexes strongly depends on the co-ligand $(CH_3, CF_3 \text{ or } Cl)$. The oxidation potential varies from -0.17 V for $R = CH_3$ to +0.43 V for $R = CF_3$.²²⁻²³

Scheme 1.11 One electron oxidation of the Ni^{II} complex supported by a BOXAM ligand reported by Vicic and co-workers.

In 2013, Vicic and co-workers proposed a five-coordinate Ni^{III} complex supported by a terpyridine ligand and two fluoroalkyl ligands (Scheme 1.12). Ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate was used to oxidize the Ni^{II} complex to the proposed Ni^{III} complex 17, but even upon rapid workup of the reaction mixture, one CF_3 group eliminated to form the new Ni^H complex. The last step might occur through a reductive homolysis of a trifluoromethyl radical from complex **17**. 24

Scheme 1.12 Proposed five-coordinate Ni^{III} complex stabilized by two CF_3 ligands and a bulky terpyridine ligand.

In 2013, Tilley and co-worker reported an isolable Ni^{III} alkyl species, complex **18** that has been prepared through a two-electron oxidative addition of methyl iodide to a Ni^I complex (80%) (Scheme 1.13). The bis-amido ligand framework is capable of supporting the nickel complexes in three different oxidation states. Complex **18** was thermally unstable and decomposed in one day in benzene ito the Ni^{II} complex and ethene.²⁵⁻²⁶

Scheme 1.13 Synthesis of a Ni^{III} alkyl species proceeding through a Ni^I species stabilized by a bis-amido ligand framework.

Mirica and co-workers published in 2014 a series of $Ni^{III}(ary)$ halide complexes stabilized by the tetradentate ligand *N,N'*-di-*tert*-butyl-2,11-diaza[3,3](2,6)pyridophane (Scheme 1.14). The Ni^{III}(aryl)halide complex 19 is stable at low temperature yet undergoes rapid C–halide bond formation at room temperature (54%). The $Ni^{III}(ary)$ halide complex also undergoes a rapid transmetalation reaction with Grignard reagents to yield a detectable $Ni^{III}(aryl)$ alkyl complex 20, followed by C–C bond formation at RT (48%) .²⁷

Scheme 1.14 Synthesis and reactivity of the Ni^{III}(aryl)halide and Ni^{III}(aryl)alkyl complexes by Mirica and co-workers in 2014.

Mirica and co-workers published in 2015 the synthesis of two stable organometallic Ni^{III} complexes that contain two trifluoromethyl ligands and are supported by tetradentate N-donor ligands ^RN4 (R= Me or *t*Bu) (Scheme 1.15). Interestingly, the corresponding Ni^{II} precursors undergo facile oxidation, including aerobic oxidation to generate the Ni^{III} complexes 21. Unlike most other organometallic Ni^{III} complexes, complexes 21 are indefinitely stable at room temperature under N₂. Heating complexes 21 at 80 \degree C for 24 hours or photolysis with visible light at room temperature produces only trace amounts of the deposition products CF₃H and C_2F_6 ²⁸

Scheme 1.15 Synthesis of stable bis(trifluoromethyl)nickel(III) complexes supported by a tetradentate pyridinophane ligand.

Mirica and co-workers reported in 2015 a synthesis of several Ni^{III} complexes supported by a modified tetradentate pyridinophane ligand containing one phenyl group (Scheme 1.16). Starting from the Ni^{II} precursor, one equivalent of oxidant is added to generate the $Ni^{III}(MeCN)Br$ complex **22**. Subsequently, silver hexafluoroanthimony was added to abstract the bromide and give the Ni^{III} -disolvento complex 23, which is a room-temperature stable dicationic complex. The Ni^{III}-dimethyoxide species 24, can be synthesized and undergoes aryl methoxylation that is favored by an addition of an oxidant. Given that the C–O bond formation reactivity of **24** is favored by addition of the PhI(PyOMe)₂OTf₂ oxidant, the possible formation of a Ni^{IV} intermediate can be invoked. Further studies show that when the oxidant is added, the proposed Ni^{IV} species is too unstable to observe and rapidly undergoes reductive elimination.²⁹

Scheme 1.16 Synthesis of a several of Ni^{III} complexes supported by a modified tetradentate pyridinophane ligand containing one phenyl group.

Vicic and co-workers reported the oxidation of (tpy)Ni^{II}(C₄F₈) (tpy = terpyridine) in 2015 by using the [C4F8] ligand. The oxidation was performed with silver tetrafluoroborate to obtain the desired Ni^{III} complex 25 (Scheme 1.17). 25 has an octahedral nickel center where the terpyridine ligand binds in a κ^3 formation. The nickel-nitrogen bonds *trans* to the fluoroalkyl ligands were found to be much shorter than the nickel-nitrogen bonds that were *cis* to the fluoroalkyl groups by about 0.2 Å^{30}

Scheme 1.17 Oxidation of (tpy)Ni^{II}(C₄F₈) complex, leading to a stable Ni^{III} complex reported by Vicic and co-workers in 2015.

In 2016, Diao and co-workers proposed a square pyramidal Ni^{III} alkyl-complex 26 stabilized by bidentate, anionic ligand 3,5-dimethyl-2-(2-pyridyl)pyrrole. The unstable intermediate is thought to form an iodide bridged Ni^{III} dimer 27, which undergoes rapid reductive elimination to form ethane in 43% yield (Scheme 1.18).³¹

Scheme 1.18 Synthesis of a square pyramidal Ni^{III} alkyl-complex and its reactivity.

In 2016 Diao and co-workers presented a mixed valent Ni^{II}/Ni^{III} complex 28 stabilized by four triazabicyclodecene (TBD) nitrogen ligands. The Ni centers adopt a square planar and square pyramidal geometry, respectively. Attempts to oxidize 28 with 1.5 eq PhICl₂ did not produce the high-valent dimer complex **29**. However, the proposed intermediate **29** promotes ligand functionalization of two TBD ligands with N-N coupling, which is isolated as a new Ni^{II} complex in 55% yield (Scheme 1.19).³²

Scheme 1.19 N-N bond formation at Ni^{III} dimer published by Diao and co-workers in 2016.

In 2016, Mirica and co-workers subsequently published a series of Ni^{III} complexes 30 and **31** that perform aromatic cycanoalkylation (Scheme 1.20). The synthesis of the Ni^{III} complexes is relatively similar to the paper published by Mirica et al. in 2015. The difference is that the axial nitrogens contain a neopentyl group instead of a *t*-butyl group. Base was added to the Ni^{III}-solvento complex **31** at room temperature to obtain the cyanoalkylated product. Regioselective αcycanoalkylation was observed with various nitrile substrates to generate secondary and tertiary nitriles.³³

In 2016, Mirica and co-workers synthesized the first isolated Ni^{III}-dialkyl complex stabilized by the *N,N'*-dimethyl-2,11-diaz[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane ligand (Scheme 1.21). The Ni^{III} complex **32** was shown to generate ethane in 54% yield over 24 hours at room temperature. However, the addition of one equivalent of oxidant to the Ni^{III} complex 32 led to clean formation of ethane in 84% yield, while addition of two equivalent oxidant to the Ni^{II} precursor generated an almost quantitative amount of ethane within 30 min at room temperature (88%). These results suggest that access to a Ni^{IV} intermediate should lead to fast reductive elimination and C–C bond formation.³⁴

Scheme 1.21 Synthesis and reactivity of the Ni^{III} -dialkyl complex reported by Mirica and co-workers in 2016.

In 2016, Company and co-workers observed an active Ni^{III} -OCl intermediate stabilized by tetradentate macrocyclic ligand composed of two amidate, one pyridine, and one aliphatic amine groups (Scheme 1.22). Oxidation of the Ni^{II} complex by addition of 3 equivalents of Ca(OCl)₂ leads to the formation of square pyramidal complex 33 . However, 2 more equivalents of Ca(OCl)₂ lead to the formation of perchlorate Ni^{III} complex 34, which is thought to be active intermediate in the catalytic oxidation of cyclohexane.³⁵

Scheme 1.22 Catalytic oxidation of cyclohexane through a Ni^{III}-OCl intermediate.

In 2016, Sanford and co-workers isolated a series of Ni^{III} complexes 35, stabilized by tridentate trispyrazolylborate anionic ligand and different $C(sp^2)$, $C(sp^3)$, and CF_3 ligands. Upon heating at mild temperatures, these complexes undergo reductive elimination followed by C–C bond formation of the auxiliary ligands in moderate yields (Scheme 1.23)³⁶

Scheme 1.23 Alkyl-alkyl and alkyl-aryl C–C bond formation and trifluoromethylation using an isolated Ni^{III} complex stabilized by scorpionate borate ligand and $C(sp^2)$, $C(sp^3)$, and CF_3 ligands.

In 2017, Diao and co-workers observed two high-vent Ni^{III}/Ni^{III} dimers (Scheme 1.24) stabilized benzoquinoline and carboxylate ligands. The Ni centers adopt a pseudo-octahedral structure and are bridged by a bromide atom. The warmup of complex **36** leads to reductive elimination and C-Br bond formation of 10-bromobenzoquinoline in 190% yield. A stable Ni^{III}- Ni^{III} dimer 37 was confirmed by X-ray, however, no C–Br bond formation was observed.³⁷

Scheme 1.24 C–Br bond formation using a Ni^{III} dimer supported by carboxylate and benzoquinoline ligands.

In 2017, Ritter and co-workers showed C–F bond formation from aryl-Ni III fluorides stabilized by bidentate ligand (2-(2-pyridinyl)phenyl-2-nitrobenzenesulfonamide) with an octahedral geometry (Scheme 1.25). Addition of selectfluor to complex the first two Ni^{II} complexes promotes C–F bond formation of corresponding products in 62% and 39% yield, respectively. The high-valent Ni complexes **38** and **39** could not be isolated but were proposed and in the case of 40 and 41 were detected by EPR. In contrast, oxidation of the last Ni^{II}, which contains a strong rigid coordinating oxygen atom within the aryl moiety, leads to the isolation of stable complex **42**. Although the Ni^{III} -F complex **43** was also detected by EPR, C–F bond formation was not detected.³⁸

Scheme 1.25 C–F bond formation with aryl Ni^{III} fluoride complexes and active Ni^{III} species observed published by Ritter and co-workers in 2017.

1.3 Organometallic NiIV Complexes

In 2003, Dimitrov and co-workers oxidized the starting material with air at -60 $^{\circ}$ C to give a quasi-tetrahedral Ni^{IV} complex 44 stabilized by four anionic ligands (three 1-norboryl ligands and halide atom) (Scheme 1.26). Addition of one extra equivalent of 1-norborylLi to **44,** attempting to remove the halide ligand to isolate a homoleptic Ni^{IV} complex was unsuccessful. However, this

resulted in the detection of dinorbornane, obtained from C–C bond formation of two 1-norboryl ligands.³⁹

Scheme 1.26 Formation of a quasi-tetrahedral Ni^{IV} complex that leads to C–C bond formation published by Dimitrov and co-workers in 2003.

Turro and co-workers published in 2009 a stable tetraalkyl NiIV complex **45** stabilized by two (5Z,11E)-dibenzo[a,e]cyclooctatetraene in a distorted tetrahedral fashion (Scheme 1.27). Interestingly the high-valent Ni^{IV} complex doesn't exhibit any reactivity; the complex is air-stable and can be heated to above 290 $^{\circ}$ C before any decomposition is observed.⁴⁰

Scheme 1.27 Synthesis of a stable tetraalkyl Ni^{IV} complex published by Turro and co-workers.

It is important to mention that starting in 2013, Chatani and co-workers proposed a nickelcatalyzed alkylation and arylation mechanisms involving C-H bonds of benzamides and acrylamides. The proposed mechanism proposes that the first step is a ligand exchange followed by the coordination of the amide to the Ni center generating **46** and HX (Scheme 1.28). **47** forms probably via a concerted metalation-deprotonation mechanism, which then undergoes an oxidative addition of butyl-bromide to generate 48. The Ni^{IV} intermediate goes through a reductive elimination to form **49,** which then gets protonated to form the alkylation product and regenerate the Ni^{II} complex. The catalytic system takes advantage of chelation assistance by an 8aminoquinoline moiety, which supports the nickel complex. $41-42$

Scheme 1.28 Proposed nickel-catalyzed alkylation mechanism involving high-valent nickel intermediates by Chatani and co-workers.

In 2015, Sanford and co-workers isolated an octahedral Ni^{IV} center stabilized by a neutral scorpionate tris(2-pyridyl)methane, cyclic alky/aryl C-donor ligand $(-CH_2CMe_2-o-C_6H_4)$ and anionic trifluoromethyl ligands, complex **50**. A quantitative amount of benzocyclobutane was detected upon heating of **50** for seven hours, indicating reductive elimination and C–C bond formation. On the other hand, addition of 1.2 equivalents of acetate resulted in $C(sp^3)$ –O bond formation in 78% yield (Scheme 1.29).

Scheme 1.29 $C(sp^2) - C(sp^3)$ and $C(sp^3) - X$ bond formation using isolated tris(2-pyridyl)methane Ni^{IV}cycloneophyl(CF₃) complexes.

Similarly, the anionic scorpionate ligand, trispyrazolylborate also stabilizes a Ni^{IV} center complex **51**, but does not undergo reductive elimination of benzocyclobutane. Addition of 1.2 equivalents of different X nucleophiles also result in $C(sp^3)$ –X bond formation in 98% yields (Scheme 1.30). However, addition of nucleophilic azide results in the slow formation of indoline in quantitative yields after Ni^{II} is exposed to adventitious water.⁴³ In addition, the Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} complexes supported by the trispyrazolylborate ligand were isolated in 2017 with different axial ligands.⁴⁴

Scheme 1.30 $C(sp^3)$ –X bond formation using in-situ trispyrazolylborate Ni^{IV} -cycloneophyl (CF_3) complexes.

In 2015, Sanford and co-workers tested the reactivity of alkyl-aryl Ni^{IV} complexes 52 stabilized by tridentate trispyrazolylborate anionic ligand. Upon heating, these complexes undergo reductive elimination and trifluoroalkylation of aryl groups with different electronic properties (Scheme 1.31).⁴³

Scheme 1.31 Trifluormethylation of different aryl substrates by using a trispyrazolylborate Ni^{IV}-aryl(CF₃₎₂ complexes.

In 2016, Fout and co-workers isolated an octahedral Ni^{IV} structure, 53, supported by anionic, tridentate bis(diisopropylphenyl-benzimidazol-2-ylidene)phenyl pincer ligand and three bromide anionic ligands. Complex 53 is obtained from the addition of $Br₂$ to its Ni^{II} counterpart. The complex was then used as a bromide transfer reagent for bromination of different organic substrates including styrene, cyclohexene, mesitylmagnesium bromide, and lithium hexamethyldisilazide in 50-87% yield (Scheme 1.32).⁴⁵

Scheme 1.32 Bromination of alkenes using an isolated Ni^N tribromide complex as a bromide transfer reagent.

In 2017, Sanford and co-workers probed intramolecular C-H activation by using scorpionate ligand bis(2-pyridyl)(2-^Rphenyl)-fluoromethane as a model system. Oxidation of the Ni^{II} complex under mild conditions resulted in C_{inso} -H activation of the aryl ring on the ligand. A range of bis(2-pyridyl)(2-^Rphenyl)-fluoromethaneNi^{IV}F(CF₃)₂ octahedral complexes, **54**, were isolated in good yields (Scheme 1.33).⁴⁶

Scheme 1.33 Oxidatively induced C-H activation of bis(2-pyridyl)(2-^Rphenyl)-fluoromethane Ni $aryl(CF_3)_2$ complexes.

Mirica and co-workers reported in 2017 the first organometallic nickel complexes supported by a triazacyclononane (Me₃tacn) and the cyclic alky/aryl C-donor ligand (- $CH₂CMe₂$ *o*-C6H4-) (Scheme 1.34). A combination of these two ligands allowed for the synthesis and isolation of the organometallic Ni^{III} , 55 and Ni^{IV} , 56 complexes. With these complexes in hand a variety of reactivity experiments was tested. Heating the Ni^{III} complex for three hours at 80 °C, 42% of C–C bond formation was observed. When performing the same reaction with the Ni^{IV}

complex instead of the Ni^{III}, 34% of C–C bond formation was observed. Interestingly, shining a blue LED light on the Ni^{IV} complex leads to rapid C–C bond formation with yields up to 91%. Reactivity of the Ni^{IV} complex in the presence of a nucleophile leads to a decrease of C–C product and observation of 29% combined yield for C–heteroatom bond formation.⁴⁷

In 2017, Nebra and co-workers showed C-H bond activation and trifluoromethylation of arenes by using a stable octahedral Ni^{IV} complex supported by simple monodentate ligands. Addition of one equivalent of XeF_2 to the Ni^{II} results in the formation of monomeric and dimeric Ni^{III} species, complex 58 and 59. The active Ni^{IV} species, 57, was obtained by the addition of second equivalent of XeF_2 ; this complex can be used for trifluoromethylation of 1,2dichorobenzene in 94% yield (Scheme 1.35).⁴⁸

Scheme 1.35 C-H bond activation and trifluoromethylation of 1,2-dichlorobenzene using isolated Ni^{IV} complex supported by simple, monodentate ligands.

1.4 Other High-Valent Ni Complexes

1.4.1 NiIII Structures

Other Ni^{III} complexes that were previously isolated (Figure 1.1). In 1982, Smart and coworkers isolated a Ni^{III}, decamethylnickelocene complex. Oxidation of the Ni^{II} complex with one equivalent of oxidant leads to the formation of cationic species **60**, which is supported by two pentamethylcyclopentadiene ligands.49-50 In 2006 and 2008, Liaw and co-workers isolated a highvalent Ni^{III} species, 61, stabilized in a distorted trigonal bipyramidal fashion by a trianionic, tetradentate triphenylphosphine-type ligand with thiolate substituents.⁵¹⁻⁵² Using the same ligand framework, Lee and co-workers isolated the first high-valent nickel alkyl (**61,** R = ethyl of methyl) substituted complexes in 2010.⁵³ One year later, Kinoshita and co-workers obtained a high-valent halide bridged Ni^{III} dimer stabilized by tetradentate ligand tris (2-pyridylthio)methanide in 90% yield, **62**. ⁵⁴ The dimer slowly transforms into mononuclear **63** (89%), which adopts a distorted trigonal bipyramidal geometry after the ligand isomerizes into bis(2-pyridylthio)(2 thiopyridinium)methyl in solution.⁵⁴ In 2012, although the complex was not isolated, Ray and coworkers observed a trigonal bipyramidal high-valent Ni^{III}-oxo species stabilized by tetradentate

ligand (tris[2-(N-tetramethylguanidyl)ethyl] amine) **64**. ⁵⁵ In the same year, Patral and co-workers observed a high-valent Ni^{III} species stabilized in a distorted octahedral fashion by two tridentate ligands N-2-Methylthiophenyl-2′-pyridinecarboxamide, **65**. 56

Figure 1.1 Other observed Ni^{III} complexes.

1.4.2 NiIV Structures

Other Ni^{IV} complexes that were previously isolated (Figure 1.2). Starting with complex 66, Smart and co-workers published in 1982 an Ni^N decamethylnickelocene complex. The complex was synthesized by oxidizing the Ni^{II} complex with two equivalents of oxidant. The complex is supported by a two pentamethylcyclopentadiene ligands.⁴⁹⁻⁵⁰ In 1994, Klein and co-workers published the first organometallic Ni^{IV} complex, **67**. Complex **67** is stabilized by a chelating acylphenolato dianion, a pair of trans trimethylphosphine, iodide and methyl ligand and adopts an octahedral geometry.57-58 A few years later Klein and co-workers published in 1997 a new organometallic Ni^{IV} complex, 68, which also adopted an octahedral geometry. Complex 68 is supported by a pair of trimethylphosphine and a pair of acylphenolate dianion ligands.⁵⁹ In 1995, Gould and co-workers isolated a high-valent Ni^{IV} species, 69, stabilized in an octahedral fashion by two tridentate ligands, 2,6-diacetylpyridine dioxime.⁶⁰⁻⁶¹ The first silylnickel(IV) complex 70 was isolated in 1999 by Tanka and co-workers. Complex **70** was stabilized by a bis(dimethylphosphino)ethane and two 1,2-disilylbenzene ligands; the complex adopts an octahedral geometry.⁶² In 2004, Saigo and co-workers published a high-valent Ni^{IV} complex 71 which was similar to complex **70.** The big difference between these two complexes is that **71** adopts a distorted trigonal-bipyramidal orientation.⁶³ Ray and co-workers published in 2012 a trigonal bipyramidal high-valent Ni^{IV}-oxo species 72 stabilized by tetradentate ligand (tris[2-(Ntetramethylguanidyl)ethyl] amine) which was observed by ESI-MS.⁵⁵ Finally, the first Ni^{IV} dimer, **73**, was isolated by Browne and co-workers in 2017. The complex was generated by the reaction of its Ni^{II}-tris-µ-chloro bridging counterpart with NaOCl. The high-valent dinuclear Ni^{IV} complex was stabilized by two 1,4,7-trimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclononane ligands and was bridged by a tris- μ -oxido structure.⁶⁴

Figure 1.2 Other observed Ni^{IV} complexes.

1.5 Conclusion and Outlook

This chapter provided an overview of the organometallic chemistry of isolated Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} complexes and the proposed involvement of Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} intermediates in various organometallic transformations. The importance of high-valent nickel chemistry is to gain a better understanding of the catalytic cycles in order to employ more effective catalysts for a range of synthetically useful organic transformations such as C-H functionalization, transmetalation and C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions at the Ni^{II} stage. Although most C–C and C– heteroatom coupling reactions that are catalyzed by nickel are mainly involved in a $Ni^{0/II}$ oxidationstate change, the past decade has shown a growing amount of evidence for the participation of Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} intermediates in the catalytic cycles.

The first mononuclear organometallic Ni^{III} complex was observed in 1978 but it wasn't until 1982 that a different high-valent organometallic Ni^{III} complex was isolated. No reactivity was shown for the first isolated Ni^{III} complex. Starting in 1995, more reactivity was being observed with the proposing Ni^{III} intermediates. Furthermore, mononuclear Ni^{III} intermediates have been observed during oxidatively induced C–C bond elimination from a Ni^{II} precursors. Additionally, the involvement of mononuclear Ni^{III} intermediates has been proposed in a wide range of C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions.

The first isolated Ni^{IV} complex was in 1982 but it wasn't until 2003 when the first C–C bond formation reactivity from a high-valent Ni^{IV} organometallic complexes was observed. More proposed catalytic cycles involving Ni^{IV} intermediates have become more accepted recently. In addition, dinuclear Ni^{III} complexes that are not stabilized by a Ni-Ni bond and their role in catalytic processes have also been reported. Most importantly, the interconversion between Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} complexes has been demonstrated, suggesting that it is not always possible to unambiguously confirm the oxidation state.

Finally, we envision that in the near future, the chemistry of the less-common oxidation states of Ni will lead to novel organometallic reactions that involve one and two-electron oxidation processes. This includes higher yielding C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions and a better understanding of the catalytic cycles involving high-valent Ni species. More specifically, we anticipate the ability of Ni^{IV} complexes to engage in selective $C(sp^3)$ and $C(sp^2)$ —heteroatom coupling reactions. A key challenge for achieving this objective will be to define a class of oxidants and supporting ligands that selectively access the Ni^N intermediate rather than the more common Ni^{III} . This should enable the design of catalytic sequences in which a Ni-carbon bond forming step is coupled with oxidation and C–heteroatom coupling via $Ni^{III/V}$ catalysis.

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Chapter 2

High-Valent Organometallic Nickel Species Relevant to Carbon-Carbon Bond Formation Reactions

2.1 Introduction

Palladium and nickel catalysts are commonly used in cross-coupling reactions, such as Negishi, Kumada and Suzuki couplings.¹⁻⁹ Palladium is the more common catalyst of the two, and typically the palladium-mediated catalytic cycles involves $Pd^{0/II}$ or $Pd^{II/IV}$ oxidation state changes. By comparison, the mechanisms of nickel-catalyzed cross-coupling reactions is less understood. There has been a need to investigate nickel catalysts due to their possible advantages over other metals, as it has a tendency to undergo one-electron redox reactions.¹⁰⁻¹⁸ Many studies also show that Ni^{III} species are key intermediates in C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions.^{2-3, 6-8,} 11, 19-23

In the past several years we have employed tetradentate pyridinophane ligands to stabilize uncommon organometallic $Pd^{III/IV}$ and $Ni^{III/IV}$ complexes.²⁴⁻³³ These high-valent complexes are capable of C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions. In addition, we have recently reported the use of N,N'-dimethyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{Me}N4) ligand to stabilize high-valent Ni^{III} complexes that undergo C–C bond formation reactions.³⁰ Herein, we report the use of a modified pyridinophane ligand that destabilizes the Ni center to observe changes in reactivity. We tested the effect of the amine substituents on the axial nitrogen by replacing one or both of the methyl groups with a more electron-withdrawing toluenesulfonate (tosyl, Ts) group. Observations of the $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{H}Me₂$ complexes show the less coordinating the axial ligand is, the more reactive and the less stable the high-valent Ni species are, leading to faster reactivity. Thus, the $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ complex gives rapid C–C bond formation at low temperatures and is therefore the most reactive of the three complexes.

2.2 Experimental Section

Reagents and Materials. All manipulations were carried out under a nitrogen atmosphere using standard Schlenk and glove box techniques if not indicated otherwise. All reagents for which the synthesis was not given are commercially available from Aldrich, Acros or STREM, and were used as received without further purification. Solvents were purified prior to use by passing through a column of activated alumina using an MBRAUN SPS. $Mg(CD_3)I$ ³³ N,N'-R-2,11diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (R= Me, TsMe and Ts) (^RN4),³⁴ (^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂,³⁰ (^{Me}N4)Ni^{III}Me₂,³⁰ ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate (FcPF₆),³⁵ acetylferrocene tetrafluoroborate (^{Ac}FcBF₄)³⁵ were prepared according to the literature procedures. Other abbreviations used throughout the chapter: dimethoxyethane (DME), silver hexafluoroantimony $(AgSbF_6)$, 1-Fluoro-2,4,6trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT), 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT) and (diacetoxyiodo)benzene (PhI(OAc)2).

2.2.1 Synthesis of the Nickel Complexes

Preparation of (TsMe **N4)Ni^{II}Br₂.** A modified procedure was used.³⁶ (DME)NiBr₂ (408.0 mg, 1.32) mmol) and ^{TsMe}N4 (540.1 mg, 1.32 mmol) were dissolved in dichloromethane (DCM) (50 mL) at 20 °C under N_2 , which made the solution turn from orange to green. After the reaction was stirred for 16 hours, the solution was concentrated down to 10 mL. The solution was then filtered and washed with diethyl ether to give a green solid (688.3 mg, 1.10 mmol, 83%). X-ray quality crystals were obtained by a slow diethyl ether diffusion into an acetonitrile solution at 25 °C.

Elemental analysis: found C 37.67, H 3.72, N 7.46%; calculated $C_{22}H_{24}Br_2N_4NiO_2S\cdot DCM+H_2O$ C, 37.84, H 3.87 N, 7.68%

Preparation of (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂ (2). A modified procedure was used.³⁶ A solution of MeMgCl in THF (3.0 M, 0.38 mL) was added to a stirred suspension of $(^{TsMe}N4)NiBr_2$ (367.5 mg, 0.59 mmol) in THF (5 mL), cooled at -50 °C in a N₂ filled glovebox. The mixture was stirred at this temperature for 30 minutes, and then slowly warmed up to -10 °C over the course of 12 hours. 1,4-dioxane (15 mL) was then added to the deep red solution. The resulting suspension was allowed to sit for one hour in a -35 °C freezer. The suspension was filtered, and the solvent was removed under vacuum at -50 °C and the residue was extracted with pre-cooled diethyl ether (200 mL). The resulting deep red solution was filtered and dried under vacuum giving rise to an orange solid (252.0 mg, 0.51 mmol, 86%). X-ray quality crystals were obtained by a slow pentane diffusion into a THF solution at -35 °C.

¹H NMR (300 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 7.95 (d, $J = 6.3$ Hz, 2H, K), 7.48 (m, 4H, J), 7.38 (t, $J =$ 6.7 Hz, 2H, I), 7.10 (d, *J* = 6.2 Hz, 2H, H), 6.95 (d, *J* = 14.1 Hz, 2H, G), 6.82 (d, *J* = 13.7 Hz, 2H, F), 5.22 (d, *J* = 13.9 Hz, 2H, E), 4.24 (d, *J* = 13.8 Hz, 2H, D), 2.49 (s, 3H, C), 2.25 (s, 3H, B), - 0.92 (s, 6H, A) (Figure 2.1).

APT (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 159.40 (n), 159.25 (m), 144.62 (l), 138.96 (k), 136.43 (j), 130.92 (i), 128.10 (h), 125.59 (g), 125.08 (f), 64.08 (e), 58.14 (d), 38.30 (c), 21.72 (b), -8.68 (a) (Figure 2.1).

Elemental analysis: found C 51.32, H 5.29, N 9.77%; calculated $C_{24}H_{30}N_4NiO_2S\cdot DCMC$, 51.57, H 5.54, N 9.66%

Figure 2.1 Proton (left) and carbon (right) structural assignments from NMR experiments for $(TsMeN4)Ni^{II}Me₂$

Preparation of $(^{TsMe}N4)$ **Ni^{II}** (CD_3) **₂.** A solution of CD_3MgI (2.0 M, 0.59 mL) was added to a stirred suspension of $(^{TsMe}N4)NiBr_2$ (256.1 mg, 0.41 mmol) in THF (5 mL), cooled at -50 °C in a N² filled glovebox, and the mixture stirred for 30 minutes followed by a slow and gradual increase in temperature to -10 °C over the course of 12 hours. After stirring for 12 hours, 1,4-dioxane (10 mL) was added to the deep red solution. The resulting suspension was allowed to sit for one hour in a -35 °C freezer before the suspension was filtered and the filtrate removed under vacuum. The resulting solid was extracted with pre-cooled diethyl ether (100 mL). The deep red solution was filtered and the filtrate was dried under vacuum giving rise to an orange solid (146.2 mg, 0.29 mmol, 72%). The ¹H NMR spectrum of the product is identical to that of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{H}Me₂$ except for the missing singlet for the Ni-Me group at -0.92 ppm. The ²H NMR of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^H(CD₃)₂$ shows only a singlet for the Ni-Me group at -1.12 ppm in MeCN.

Preparation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$ **. A modified procedure was used.³⁶ (DME)NiBr₂ (352.0 mg, 1.14** mmol) and ^{Ts}N4 (625.1 mg, 1.14 mmol) were dissolved in 50 ml of DCM at 20 °C under N₂, which made the solution turn from orange to green. After the reaction was stirred for 14 hours, the solution was concentrated, then filtered and washed with diethyl ether to give a green powder (682.0 mg, 0.89 mmol, 78%).

Elemental analysis: found C 39.41, H 4.32, N 6.42%; calculated $C_{28}H_{28}Br_2N_4NiO_4S_2\cdot DCM+2H_2O$ C, 39.22, H 3.86 N, 6.31%

Preparation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ **(3). A modified procedure was used.³⁶ A solution of MeMgCl in** THF (3.0 M, 0.44 mL) was added to a stirred suspension of $(^{Ts}N4)NiBr₂$ (339.8 mg, 0.44 mmol) in THF (5 mL), cooled at -50 °C in a N₂ filled glovebox. The mixture was stirred at this temperature for 30 minutes, and then slowly warmed up to -10 °C over the course of 12 hours. 1,4-dioxane (15 mL) was then added to the deep red solution. The resulting suspension was allowed to sit for one hour in a -35 °C freezer. The suspension was filtered, and the solvent was removed under vacuum at -50 °C and the residue extracted with pre-cooled diethyl ether (200 mL). The resulting deep red solution was filtered and dried under vacuum giving rise to an orange solid (107.4 mg, 0.168 mmol, 38%). X-ray quality crystals were obtained by a slow diethyl ether evaporation at -35 °C.

¹H NMR (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 7.73 (d, $J = 7.9$ Hz, 4H, G), 7.55 (t, $J = 7.7$ Hz, 2H, F), 7.38 (m, 8H, E), 6.81 (d, *J* = 14.6 Hz, 4H, D), 5.18 (d, *J* = 14.6 Hz, 4H, C), 2.25 (s, 6H, B), -1.05 (s, 6H, A) (Figure 2.2).

¹³C NMR (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 159.24 (j), 144.50 (i), 138.97 (h), 137.57 (g), 130.86 (f), 128.08 (e), 125.86 (d), 58.54 (c), 21.57 (b), -7.68 (a) (Figure 2.2).

Elemental analysis: found C 51.98, H 4.87, N 7.49%; calculated $C_{30}H_{34}NiO_{4}S_{2}•DCM C$, 51.54, H 5.02, N 7.76%

Figure 2.2 Proton (left) and carbon (right) structural assignments from NMR experiments for $({}^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$.

Preparation of $({}^{\text{Ts}}\text{N4})\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}(\text{CD}_3)$ **, A solution of CD₃MgI (2.0 M, 0.67 mL) was added to a stirred** suspension of $(^{Ts}N4)NiBr_2$ (206.3 mg, 0.269 mmol) in THF (5 mL), cooled at -50 °C, and the mixture was stirred for 30 minutes followed by a gradual increase in temperature to -10 °C over the course of 12 hours. After stirring for 12 hours, 1,4-dioxane (10 mL) was added to the deep red solution. The resulting suspension was allowed to sit for one hour in a -35 °C freezer before the suspension was filtered and the filtrate removed under vacuum. The resulting solid was extracted with pre-cooled diethyl ether (100 mL). The deep red solution was filtered, and the filtrate was dried under vacuum giving rise to an orange solid $(40.0 \text{ mg}, 0.063 \text{ mmol}, 23\%)$. The ¹H-NMR spectrum of the product is identical to that of $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ except for the missing singlet for the Ni-Me group at -1.05 ppm. The ²H NMR of $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^{II}(CD_3)_2$ shows only a singlet for the Ni-Me group at -1.17 ppm.
2.2.2 Reactivity Studies

General procedure for the isolation of the NiIII complexes by EPR. An EPR tube was charged with a solution of $({}^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ or $({}^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ in acetonitrile (MeCN) or THF. A butyronitrile (PrCN) or 2-methyl-tetrahydrofuran (MeTHF) solution containing one equivalent of ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate (FcPF $_6$), silver hexafluoroantimonate (AgSbF $_6$) or acetylferrocenium tetrafluoroborate (Ac FcBF₄) was then added. The resulting solution of 1:3 MeCN:PrCN or 1:3 THF:MeTHF was shaken for five seconds and then frozen in liquid nitrogen.

¹H NMR reactivity studies of (^RN4)NiMe² Complexes. General procedure for the reactivity studies of (^RN4)NiMe₂ complexes (R = Me, TsMe and Ts) (Scheme 2.1). In N₂-filled glove box, a solution of 8-10 mg of (^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂, (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂ or (^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂ in 2.0 mL of MeCN-d₃ was added into a NMR tube containing one equiv. of 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard. To this solution an oxidant $[^{Ac}FcBF_4, H_2O_2, O_2, CD_3I, 1-Fluoro-2, 4-6$ trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT), $PhI(OAc)_2$ or 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT)] was added in MeCN-d3. For all experiments the NMR tube was filled to the top with additional MeCN- d_3 so that no headspace was left, to avoid the escape of volatiles and sealed with a septum. The reaction mixtures were mixed to form homogeneous solutions. The reaction mixtures were then kept in the dark and periodically monitored by ${}^{1}H$ NMR until no additional changes were observed. The average product yields from at least two independent experiments were determined by NMR integration using 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard. All data is included in Appendix D.

 $(M^{\text{de}}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ and $(T^{\text{sMe}}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ reactivity reactions were performed at 20 °C and the reactivity of $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ was performed at -20 °C to minimize Ni black formation.

Ethane ¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.85 (s). Ethane-d₃¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.81 (sept).

Methane ¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.20 (s). Methane-d₁ ¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.18 (t).

Scheme 2.1 General reactivities studies.

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(^{R}N4)Ni^{II}Me_{2} \xrightarrow{[O]} CH_{3}CH_{3} + CH_{3}-H/D
$$

Crossover Experiments. General procedure for the crossover experiments of (RN4)NiMe₂ complexes ($R = Me$, TsMe and Ts) (Scheme 2.2). In an N₂-filled glove box, a half equivalent of (^RN4)NiMe₂ and a half equivalent of (^RN4)Ni(CD₃)₂ (R = Me, TsMe or Ts) in MeCN-d₃ were added to the NMR tube as separate solutions. The NMR tube contained one equivalent of 1,3,5 trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard. To this solution one or two equivalents of ${}^{Ac}FeBF_4$ were added in MeCN-d3. For all experiments, the NMR tube was filled to the top with additional MeCN-d³ so that no headspace was left to avoid the escape of volatiles and sealed with a septum. The reaction mixtures were mixed carefully to form homogeneous solutions. The reaction mixtures were then kept in the dark and periodically monitored by ${}^{1}H$ NMR until no additional changes were observed. The average product yields from at least two independent experiments were determined by NMR integration using 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard. All the data is included in Appendix D.

When ²H NMR was used to monitor the crossover experiments, one equivalent of benzene- d_6 was added instead of 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard, and MeCN was used instead of MeCN-d₃ as the solvent. A blank sample with MeCN-d₃ was used for shimming.

The crossover experiments for $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ and $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ were performed at 20 °C and the crossover experiments for $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^HMe_2$ was performed at -20 °C.

Ethane ¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.85 (s). Ethane-d₃¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.81 (sept).

Ethane-d₆²H NMR (MeCN), δ: 0.81 (s). Ethane-d₃²H NMR (MeCN), δ: 0.83 (s).³⁷

Methane ¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.20 (s). Methane-d₁ ¹H NMR (MeCN-d₃), δ : 0.18 (t).

Scheme 2.2 Crossover reactivity.

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$$
1/2 \text{ eq}^{r} \text{N4Ni}^{r} \text{(CH}_{3})_{2}
$$
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$$
1 \text{ or } 2 \text{ eq}^{A c} \text{Fc}^{B} \text{F}_{4}
$$
\n
$$
CH_{3} \text{-CH}_{3} + CH_{3} \text{-CD}_{3} + CH_{3} \text{-H/D}
$$
\n
$$
1/2 \text{ eq}^{R} \text{N4Ni}^{r} \text{(CD}_{3})_{2}
$$
\n
$$
CD_{3} \text{CN}
$$

Catalytic Kumada Cross-Coupling Reactions. General procedure for the Kumada crosscoupling with $({}^R N4)$ NiBr₂ (R = Me, TsMe and Ts). A small vial equipped with a magnetic stir bar inside a nitrogen filled glove box was charged with the corresponding alkyl halide or aryl halide substrate (0.1 mmol), decane as internal standard and the Ni complex $(3 \text{ mg}, 0.05 \text{ eq})$ in THF (5.0 g) mL). The Grignard reagent (1.2 eq) was added slowly to the stirring solution over one hour via syringe, and the resulting solution was stirred at room temperature for 24 hours. A 1-hour, a 2 hour, and a 24-hour aliquot (500 μL) was taken. Then, each reaction mixture was worked up by quenching with 5 mL of saturated NH4Cl solution and extracting the mixture with diethyl ether (15 mL). The organic layer was separated and dried over $MgSO₄$. The yield of product(s) was obtained by GC/FID using decane as internal standard and is an average of at least three independent runs, while the identity of the products was confirmed by GC/MSD. All data is included in Appendix E. No cross-coupled products were observed in the absence of $(^{R}N4)NiBr₂$.

2.2.3 Physical Measurements

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance.¹H NMR, ²H NMR, ¹³C NMR, APT, gCOSY, NOESY, TOXY, HSQC and HMBC spectra were recorded on a Varian Mercury-300 spectrometer (300.121 MHz), Agilent DD2-500 spectrometer (499.885 MHz) or Agilent DD2-600 spectrometer (599.736 MHz). Chemical shifts are reported in ppm and referenced to residual solvent resonance peaks.³⁸⁻³⁹ Abbreviations for the multiplicity of NMR signals are s (singlet), d (doublet), dd (doublet of doublets), t (triplet), m (multiplet). All the NMR spectra are included in Appendix A.

UV-Vis, EPR and EA. UV-visible spectra were recorded on a Varian Cary 50 Bio spectrophotometer and are reported as λ_{max} , nm (ε , M^{-1*}cm⁻¹). The UV-vis spectra are included in Appendix C. EPR spectra were recorded on a Bruker EMX-PLUS EPR or a JEOL JES-FA EPR spectrometer at X-band (~9.2 GHz) frequency in frozen solution at 77 K. The purchase of the Bruker EMX-PLUS EPR spectrometer was supported by the National Science Foundation (MRI, CHE-1429711). Elemental analyses were carried out by the Intertek Pharmaceutical Services.

Electrochemical Measurements. Cyclic voltammetry experiments were performed with a BASi EC Epsilon electrochemical workstation or a CHI 660D Electrochemical Analyzer. The electrochemical measurements were taken in a glove box under nitrogen. A glassy carbon disk electrode $(d = 1.6$ mm) was used as the working electrode for cyclic voltammetry. The auxiliary electrode was a Pt wire for cyclic voltammetry measurements. The non-aqueous references electrode used was a silver wire dipped in a bleach (Ag/AgCl). The reference electrodes were calibrated against Cp2Fe (Fc). Electrochemical-grade electrolytes from Fluka were used as the supporting electrolyte for electrochemical measurements. All the CV spectra are included in Appendix B.

X–ray Crystallography. All X-ray crystallography experiments were performed by Dr. Nigam Rath. Suitable crystals were mounted on MiTeGen cryoloops in random orientations in a Bruker Kappa Apex-II CCD X-ray diffractometer equipped with an Oxford Cryostream LT device and a fine focus Mo Kα radiation X-ray source ($\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). Preliminary unit cell constants were determined with a set of 36 narrow frame scans. Typical data sets consist of combinations of ω and φ scan frames with a typical scan width of 0.5° and a counting time of 15−30 s/frame at a crystal-to-detector distance of 4.0 cm. The collected frames were integrated using an orientation matrix determined from the narrow frame scans. Apex II and SAINT software packages (Bruker Analytical X-Ray, Madison, WI, 2008) were used for data collection and data integration. Analysis of the integrated data did not show any decay. Final cell constants were determined by global refinement of xyz centroids of reflections from the complete data sets. Collected data were corrected for systematic errors using SADABS (Bruker Analytical X-Ray, Madison, WI, 2008) based on the Laue symmetry using equivalent reflections. Structure solutions and refinement were carried out using the SHELXTL-PLUS software package. The structures were solved by direct methods and refined successfully in specified crystal systems and space groups. Full matrix leastsquares refinements were carried out by minimizing $\text{Zw}(\text{Fo}^2-\text{Fc}^2)^2$. The non-hydrogen atoms were refined anisotropically to convergence. Typically, the hydrogen atoms were treated using the appropriate riding model. The complete listings of X-ray diffraction parameters are included in Appendix G.

2.3 Results and Discussion

2.3.1 Synthesis and Characterization of NiII/III Complexes

The azomacrocycle ligands N,N'-dimethyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{Me}N4), N- $(p$ -toluenesulfonyl),N'-(methyl)-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{TsMe}N4) and N,N'ditoluensulfonyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{Ts}N4) were synthesized according to a literature procedure (Figure 2.3).³⁴ Complexes (^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂, 1, (^{Me}N4)Ni^{III}Me₂, 1⁺, were synthesized as reported previously.³⁰

Figure 2.3 Ligands used for stabilizing high-valent nickel complexes.

The dark orange complex $({}^{\text{TsMe}}N4)Ni^{\text{II}}Me_2$, 2, was prepared in 86% yield from the precursor (TsMe N4)Ni^{II}Br₂ via transmetalation with methylmagnesium chloride (Scheme 2.3). The single crystal X-ray structure of **2** reveals a square planar geometry for the Ni center that is bound to two pyridyl nitrogen atoms from the $^{TsMe}N4$ ligand and two methyl groups, with an average equatorial Ni-N_{pyridyl} bond length of 1.947 Å and an average Ni-C bond length of 1.929 Å (Figure 2.4). As expected, **2** is diamagnetic, likely due to the strong σ-donor methyl groups that favor the low-spin square planar geometry. The cyclic voltammetry (CV) of **2** exhibits an oxidation process at -890 mV vs Fc⁺/Fc (Figure 2.5) which is tentatively assigned to the Ni^{III/II} peak.

Using the same process as the complex above, we were able to prepare the orange complex $(T^sN4)Ni^{II}Me₂$, **3**, in 38% yield from the precursor $(T^sN4)Ni^{II}Br₂$. Similarly to **2**, the single crystal X-ray structure of **3** reveals a square planar geometry for the Ni center, with an average equatorial Ni-N_{pyridyl} bond length of 1.974 Å and an average Ni-C bond length of 1.943 Å (Figure 2.4). Complexes 2 and 3 were both characterized by ¹H and ¹³C NMR. The CV of 3 exhibits an oxidation process at -430 mV vs Fc⁺/Fc (Figure 2.5) which is tentatively assigned to the Ni^{III/II} peak. The oxidative potential of the $Ni^{III/II}$ peak increases by approximately 500 mV each time a tosyl group is added to axial nitrogen on the ligand.

Scheme 2.3 Synthesis of $(^{R}N4)$ NiMe₂ complexes.

Figure 2.4 ORTEP representation of **2** (left) and **3** (right), with 50% probability thermal ellipsoids. Selected bond distances (Å), **2**: Ni1-C1, 1.934; Ni1-C2, 1.923; Ni1-N1, 1.976; Ni1-N2, 1.971 **3**: Ni1-C8, 1.929; Ni1- C8_i, 1.929; Ni1-N1, 1.974; Ni1-N1_i, 1.974.

Figure 2.5 CV of 2 (left) in 0.1 M *n*Bu₄NPF₆/ MeCN at RT (100 mV/s scan rate). Redox potential: E_(Ni^{IIII}) = –890 mV and CV of **3** (right) in 0.1 M *n*Bu4NPF6/MeCN at RT (100 mV/s scan rate). Redox potential: $E_{(Ni^{III/II})} = -430$ mV.

Both complexes **2** and **3** can be oxidized using one equivalent of silver hexafluoroantimonate (AgSbF₆) in THF at -50 °C to obtain $[(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{III}Me_2]SbF_6$, 2⁺, and

 $[(T^sN4)Ni^{III}Me_2]SbF_6$, 3⁺. The X-Ray structure of 2⁺ shows a six-coordinate Ni^{III} center in a distorted octahedral geometry. The average equatorial Ni-N_{pyridyl} bond lengths are similar with our previously reported organometallic $(^{R}N4)Ni^{III}$ complexes,³⁰⁻³¹ but due to the asymmetry of the ^{TsMe}N4 ligand, the axial Ni-N_{amine} bond lengths are not the same. The Ni-N_{Ts} (2.456 Å) bond is longer than the Ni-N_{Me} (2.145 Å) bond (Figure 2.6), likely due to a more electron deficient nature of the tosyl-group resulting in a longer distance away from the Ni center. Although we were not able to obtain X-ray quality crystals for complex 3 ⁺ due to its instability, we did observe a decomposition product, which has one hydroxide and one water attached (Figure 2.6).

Figure 2.6 ORTEP representation of 2^+ (left) and 3^+ decomposition (right) with 50% probability thermal ellipsoids. Selected bond distances (Å), **2 +** : Ni1-C1, 1.932; Ni1-C2, 1.925; Ni1-N1, 1.968; Ni1-N2, 1.965; Ni1-N3, 2.145; Ni1-N4, 2.456 **3 + decomposition**: Ni1-O1, 2.081; Ni1-O2, 1.977; Ni1-N1, 1.908; Ni1-N2, 2.03; Ni1-N3, 2.25; Ni1-N4, 2.29.

The EPR spectrum of complex **2 ⁺** exhibits a pseudo-axial signal in a solvent mixture of THF and methyl-THF (MeTHF). A superhyperfine coupling was observed in the g_z direction due to the two axial N donors (I=1) coupling to the Ni^{III} center (Figure 2.7). It is noteworthy that the N_{Me} nitrogen (17.5 G) binds stronger to the metal center than the N_{Ts} nitrogen (5.8 G). This is consistent with the previously shown crystal structure, due to the tosyl group being more electronwithdrawing than a methyl group. When complex 2^+ was further subjected to a solvent mixture of PrCN and MeCN, a different signal was observed in the g_z direction. The observed superhyperfine coupling for this g^z region resulted in a quintet, which was from two axial nitrogens with equally binding strengths to the metal center (Figure 2.7). In this case, we suspect that the N_{Me} and MeCN or PrCN bind in the axial direction because the tosyl ligand does not bind as strongly to the Ni center.

Figure 2.7 Experimental (1:3 THF:MeTHF, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of 2^+ (left) using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.270$ (A_x = 12.0 G), $g_y = 2.243$ (A_y = 12.0 G), $g_z = 2.011$ (A_z (N) = 17.5 G and A_z (N) = 5.8 G). Experimental (1:3 MeCN:PrCN, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of 2^+ (right) using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.222$, $g_y = 2.202$, $g_z = 2.012$ (A_z (2N) = 15.0 G).

The EPR spectrum of complex **3 +** in MeCN and PrCN shows a rhombic signal with superhyperfine coupling in the g_z region caused by the interaction between the nickel center and two nitrogen atoms (Figure 2.8). This shows that both axial N_{Ts} or two nitrile solvent molecules (MeCN or PrCN) bind in the axial direction to the nickel center. We compared the two N_{Ts} (9.0)

G), two N_{Me} (15 G), and two nitrile solvents (15 G) binding in the axial direction, showing that N_{Ts} binds in the weakest manner. The difference in binding allows us to verify that N_{Ts} , instead of the nitrile solvent, is binding in the axial direction. EPR spectrum of **3 +** in THF/MeTHF gives a similar spectrum to the spectrum taken in the solvent mixture MeCN:PrCN, although **3 +** is less stable in the THF/MeTHF solvent system. With these complexes in hand we were able to directly probe the reactivity and characterize the roles each different axial substituent played.

Figure 2.8 Experimental (1:3 MeCN:PrCN, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of **3 ⁺** using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.365$, $g_y = 2.304$, $g_z = 2.002$ (A_z (2N) = 9.0 G).

2.3.2 C–C Bond Formation Reactivity of (^RN4)NiIIMe² Complexes

The organometallic reactivities of **1**, **2** and **3** were investigated under different reaction conditions and then compared with each other. Reductive elimination of **1**, **2** or **3** was observed upon oxidation with ${}^{Ac}FeBF_4$ in CD₃CN, and the yields of methane and ethane were monitored via ¹H NMR over time to track the reaction. As the reactions plateaued, the yield percentages of the products were calculated. Data shows a faster reaction when having more electron withdrawing substituents on the axial amines (Scheme 2.4). Formation of undesired methane is minimized with

ligands bearing tosyl groups. When performing this reaction on compounds with electron withdrawing groups on the axial amines, the temperature was lowered to prevent Ni black formation. When looking at the data, we noticed that complex **2** gave the highest ethane formation. The reductive elimination of ethane from the Ni^{II} center proceeds through a classical Ni^{II/0} mechanism, as suggested by the formation of an observable amount of Ni black for all reactions. Interestingly, addition of two equivalents of ${}^{Ac}FcBF_4$ to a solution of any of the three complexes **1**, **2** or **3** in CD3CN resulted in less methane formation for complex **1** relative to the other two complexes**,** leading to an increased yield of ethane of 88%. The yields increased for the other two complexes to 80% (**2**) and 59% (**3**) respectively. The reaction time for all three complexes was faster when adding two equivalents of Ac FcBF₄ than with one equivalent. However, the fastest reaction time with two equivalents of Ac FcBF₄ is when complex 1 is used. Complex 1 was previously reported to proceed through a Ni^{IV} intermediate.³⁰ Complexes 2 and 3 were shown to have a slower reactivity than with complex 1, when adding two equivalents of ${}^{Ac}FcBF_4$. We suspect that two different mechanisms take place due to the tosyl group weakly binding in a Ni^{III} stage. This allows for the formation of a 5-coordinate system versus a 6-coordinate system, which has been shown previously to give faster reactivity.

1 eq Ac FcBF ₄	2 eq Ac FcBF ₄
8 hr, 20 °C	30 min, 20 °C
$(^{Me}N4)$ Ni ^{II} Me ₂	$(^{\text{Me}}N4)$ Ni ^{II} Me ₂
$CH3-H/D$	$CH3-H/D$
CH_3 -CH ₃	$CH3$ -CH ₃
CD_3CN	CD_3CN
$67 \pm 1 \%$	$88 \pm 1 \%$
$11 \pm 2 \%$	$1 \pm 1 \%$
1 eq Ac FcBF ₄	2 eq Ac FcBF ₄
4 hr, 20 °C	2 hr, 20 °C
$({}^{\text{TsMe}}$ N4) Ni^{II} Me ₂	(^{TsMe} N4)Ni ^{ll} Me ₂
$CH3-H/D$	$CH3$ -H/D
CH_3 -CH $_3$	CH_3 -CH ₃
CD_3CN	CD_3CN
$72 \pm 4 \%$	$3 \pm 2 \%$
$4 \pm 2 \%$	$80 \pm 3 \%$
1 eq Ac FcBF ₄ 2 hr, -20 °C $({}^{Ts}N4)$ Ni ${}^{H}Me_2$ \sim CH ₃ -CH ₃ $CH3$ -H/D \pm CD_3CN $51 \pm 2 \%$ $0 \pm 0 \%$	2 eq Ac FcBF ₄ 2 hr, -20 °C $({}^{\text{Ts}}\textsf{N}4)\textsf{Ni}^{\textsf{II}}\textsf{M}\textsf{e}_2$ \cdot CH ₃ -CH ₃ $+$ CH ₃ -H/D CD ₃ CN $59 \pm 2 \%$ $3 \pm 1 \%$

Scheme 2.4 C–C bond formation reactivity of the $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{I}Me_{2}$ complexes with ${}^{Ac}FcBF_{4}$.

Additional mechanistic studies were employed to probe the observed reactivity for complexes **2** and **3**. Crossover experiments using a 1:1 mixture of $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{I}Me_{2}$ and $(^{R}N4)Ni^{II}(CD_{3})_{2}$ in CD₃CN revealed two types of results upon addition of one equivalent ^{Ac}FcBF₄. For the previously published complex 1, a 1:1 mixture of CH₃CH₃ and CH₃CD₃ was generated in ~25% yield for each product after eight hours (Scheme 2.5).³⁰ We observe 48% CH₃CH₃ for complex 2 and 30% CH₃CH₃ for complex 3, but do not observe CH₃CD₃ for either of these crossover reactions. This gives evidence to support the idea that the last two complexes go through different mechanisms. Confirming by ²H NMR, we observe 45% CD_3CD_3 and no CH_3CD_3 for complex 2. When performing these sets of experiments with two equivalents ^{Ac}FcBF₄, we observed no change in complexes **2** and **3** (Appendix D).

Scheme 2.5 Crossover reactivity studies of the $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{II}Me_{2}$ complexes.

$$
\begin{array}{llll}\n\text{(MeN4)}\n\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\n\text{(CH}_{3})_{2} & \frac{1 \text{ eq}}{\text{Arr, 20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}} \text{CH}_{3} - \text{CH}_{3} + \text{ CH}_{3} - \text{CD}_{3} + \text{CH}_{3} - \text{H/D} + \text{ }^{\circ}\text{CD}_{3} - \text{CD}_{3} \\
\text{(MeN4)}\n\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\n\text{(CD)}_{3})_{2} & \text{CD}_{3}\n\text{CN} & 25 \pm 2 \% & 25 \pm 2 \% & 11 \pm 9 \% & [25 \%] \\
\text{(TsMeN4)}\n\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\n\text{(CH}_{3})_{2} & \frac{1 \text{ eq}}{\text{2 hr, 20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}} \text{CH}_{3} - \text{CH}_{3} + \text{CH}_{3} - \text{CD}_{3} + \text{CH}_{3} - \text{HD} + \text{ }^{\circ}\text{CD}_{3} - \text{CD}_{3} \\
\text{(TsMeN4)}\n\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\n\text{(CD)}_{3})_{2} & \text{CD}_{3}\n\text{CN} & 48 \pm 2 \% & 0 \pm 0 \% & 1 \pm 1 \% & [48 \%] \\
\text{(TsN4)}\n\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\n\text{(CH)}_{3})_{2} & \frac{1 \text{ eq}}{\text{Arr, -20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}} \text{CH}_{3} - \text{CH}_{3} + \text{CH}_{3} - \text{CH}_{3} - \text{CH}_{3} + \text{CH}_{3} - \text{CD}_{3} + \text{CH}_{3} - \text{HD} + \text{ }^{\circ}\text{CD}_{3} - \text{CD}_{3} \\
\text{(TsN4)}\n\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}\n\text{(CD)}_{3})_{2} & \text{CD}_{3}\n\text{CN} & 30 \pm 1 \% & 0 \pm 0 \% & 0 \pm 0 \% & 10 \% \\
\end{array}
$$

Based on the reactivity studies mentioned above, we propose that complexes **2** and **3** proceed through a different C–C bond formation mechanism than complex **1,** which goes through a six-coordinate system.³⁰ The faster ethane formation observed upon one-electron oxidation of the Ni^{II} complex 2 and 3 is proposed to proceed through a five-coordinate Ni^{III} system, which is

highly reactive (Scheme 2.6). The Ni complex then proceeds through a fast-direct reductive elimination that generates a Ni^I species. Lastly, a disproportionation generates a Ni^{II}-solvent complex (Appendix G) and nickel black.

We attempted to use several other oxidants, including O_2 and H_2O_2 as oxidants, to probe for C–X bond formation. Upon reaction of 1 , 2 and 3 with O_2 or H_2O_2 , we observed, in all cases, an appreciable amount of ethane formation, with varying amounts of methane (Scheme 2.7). No C–O products were observed due to the complexes' tendencies to undergo reductive elimination with a $sp³$ carbon. The last two complexes are also too reactive due to fast decomposition of the high-valent Ni^{III} intermediates even at low temperatures.

Scheme 2.7 C–C bond formation reactivity of the $(^{R}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ complexes with $O₂$ and $H₂O₂$.

$$
(^{Me}N4)Ni^{il}Me_{2} \xrightarrow{8 hr, 20°C} CH_{3}-CH_{3} + CH_{3}+H/D
$$
\n
$$
C_{D_{3}CN} = C_{D_{3}CN} + C_{D_{
$$

Other oxidants, including 1-fluoro-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT), (diacetoxyiodo) benzene $(\text{PhI}(OAc)_2)$ and 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT), were also unable to generate new C–X bonds, although high yields of ethane formation were observed in all cases (Scheme 2.8). The trend is consistent with a faster reductive elimination from complexes bearing more electron withdrawing substituents on the axial ligand amines. This is most likely due to the tosyl amine arms binding less tightly to the nickel center, creating five- or four-coordinate conformations, which undergo reductive elimination more rapidly than a six-coordinate geometry.

Scheme 2.8 C–C bond formation reactivity of the $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{H}Me_{2}$ complexes with NFTPT, PhI(OAc)₂ and TDTT.

2.3.3 Catalytic Reactivity of (^RN4)NiIIBr2 Complexes

In addition to stoichiometric C–C and C–X bond formation studies, we also investigated the ability of the $({}^{R}N4)NiBr_2$ complexes to catalyze cross-coupling reactions (Scheme 2.9). These complexes are capable catalysts for Kumada cross-coupling between aryl iodides and aryl Grignard reagents. $(^{TsMe}N4)NiBr₂$ is the most optimal catalyst out of the three complexes that were analyzed, with a 94% yield for aryl-aryl coupling product (Table 2.1). Using $^{TsMe}N4$ as a ligand, we showed that it is the most optimal option in terms of reactivity and stability when utilized in cross-coupling reactions.

Scheme 2.9 Kumada cross-coupling reactions catalyzed by $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{I}Br_{2}$.

$$
R'-X + R''-MgBr \xrightarrow{\text{5 mol\% (^{KN4})Ni}} R'-R'-R''
$$

THF, 20 °C, 1 hr

$R' - X$	R''MgX	Yield ^a $(\%)$		
		$(^{Me}N4)NiIIBr2$	(TsMeN4)Ni ^{II} Br ₂	$(TsN4)NiIIBr2$
p -Tolyl-I	PhenylMgBr	73 ± 3	$94 + 4$	58 ± 1
p -Tolyl-I	HexylMgBr	35 ± 2 37 ± 3		18 ± 1
$Octyl-I$	PhenylMgBr	13 ± 2	$14 + 2$	$4 + 1$

Table 2.1 Kumada cross-Coupling reactions catalyzed by $(^{R}N4)Ni^{I}Br_{2}$.

^a Yields (%) were determined by GC-FID vs. decane as internal standard; no coupled products were observed in these reactions in the absence of $(^{R}N4)NiBr₂$.

2.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, we described the use of three different ligands that provide both stabilizing and destabilizing effects on high-valent nickel species. All isolated complexes were fully characterized, and their C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactivity tested. ^{TsMe}N4 and ^{Ts}N4 complexes make a less stable and more reactive Ni^{III} complex then the ^{Me}N4 complex.

 $(T^{5Me}N4)$ Ni^{II}Me₂ and $(T⁵N4)$ Ni^{II}Me₂ show no crossover reactivity, and therefore have much faster C–C bond formation than the $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{H}Me₂$ complex. O₂ or H₂O₂ could also be used to oxidize $(^{R}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$, leading to C–C bond formation, however, no C–O bond formation was detected. The $(^{R}N4)Ni^{I}Br_2$ complexes were also shown to be competent catalysts in Kumada coupling reactions. Future work will focus on stabilizing the complexes by adding a cycloneophyl group instead of the dimethyl substrates and probing the C-heteroatom bond formation reactivity.

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Chapter 3

Aerobic C–C and C–O Bond Formation Reactions Mediated by High-Valent Organometallic Nickel Species

3.1 Introduction

Nickel catalysts are commonly used for cross-coupling reactions such as Negishi, Kumada and Suzuki couplings.¹⁻¹¹ The most common oxidation states for these catalytic transformation are $Ni⁰$, Ni^I, and Ni^{II}, although more recent studies show that Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} oxidation states can also play a key role in catalysis.12-19 The formation of C–C and C–heteroatom atom bond formation play a fundamental facet in organic transformations. Today, C–C cross coupling is one of the most powerful tools for the construction of new C-C bonds.¹¹ However, limited examples exist of Nimediated C–heteroatom bond formation reactions, $18-29$ likely due to the difficulty of accessing high-valent organometallic Ni species that can undergo reductive elimination.

In the past several years we have employed tetradentate pyridinophane ligands to stabilize uncommon organometallic $Pd^{III/IV}$ and $Ni^{III/IV}$ complexes.³⁰⁻³⁷ These high-valent complexes are capable of C–C and C–heteroatom bond formations reactions. In addition, we have recently reported the use of the ligand 1,4,7-trimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane to stabilize high-valent Ni $^{III/IV}$ complexes that undergo C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions.²⁹ With this ligand, small amounts of C–O bond formation were observed upon oxidation of (Me₃tacn) $Ni^{II}(CH₂CMe₂$ o -C₆H₄) with oxygen.²⁹ Herein, we report the use of a modified pyridinophane ligand that directly affects that stability and reactivity of the corresponding Ni complexes. We tested the effect of the N substituents on the axial nitrogen by replacing the methyl groups with a more electronwithdrawing toluenesulfonate (tosyl, Ts) group or a bulkier *tert*-butyl group (*t*Bu). By employing a Ni metallacycle structure motif we have been able to isolate Ni^{III} species and also perform uncommon oxidatively-induced C–C and C–O bond formation reactions using O_2 or H_2O_2 as the oxidants. The ability to control the relative reactivity of C–C vs. C–heteroatom bond formation should have important implications in organic transformations.

3.2 Experimental Section

Reagents and Materials. All manipulations were carried out under a nitrogen atmosphere using standard Schlenk and glove box techniques if not indicated otherwise. All reagents for which the synthesis was not given are commercially available from Aldrich, Acros or STREM and were used as received without further purification. Solvents were purified prior to use by passing through a column of activated alumina using an MBRAUN SPS. N,N'-R-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (R= Me, TsMe, Ts and tBu) $(^{R}N4)$,³⁸⁻³⁹ $(Py)_2Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$,⁴⁰ $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{III}(cycloneophyl)$,⁴¹ ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate (FcPF₆),⁴² acetylferrocene tetrafluoroborate (^{Ac}FcBF₄)⁴² were prepared according to the literature procedures. Other abbreviations used throughout this chapter: silver hexafluoroantimony (AgSbF₆), 1-Fluoro-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT), 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT), metachloroperoxybenzoic acid (*m*CPBA), xenon difluoride (XeF₂) and (diacetoxyiodo)benzene $(PhI(OAc)₂).$

3.2.1 Synthesis of the Nickel Complexes

Preparation of $(^{Me}N4)$ **Ni^{II}**(cycloneophyl) (1). A slightly modified procedure was used to make the $(^{Me}N4)Ni(cycloneophyl)$ complex then reported by Mirica and co-worker in 2016.⁴¹ A solution of ^{Me}N4 (61.6 mg, 0.23 mmol) and $(Py)_2$ Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) (87.8 mg, 0.25 mmol) in tetrahydrofuran (THF) (5 mL) was stirred at 20 $^{\circ}$ C for 14 hours. The solution was evaporated and re-dissolved in a minimum amount of THF. After filtration the solution was evaporated to dryness and triturated with pentane five times. The solid was dried under vacuum to obtain an orangeyellow powder (76.1 mg, 0.17 mmol, 72%).

¹H NMR (300 MHz, MeCN-d₃), δ (ppm): 7.51 (m, 2H, I), 7.10 (m, 4H, H), 6.67 (m, 6H, G), 6.38 (t, *J* = 6.4 Hz, 1H, F), 5.88 (d, *J* = 5.9 Hz, 1H, E), 4.22 (m, 4H, D), 2.24 (s, 6H, C), 1.31 (s, 6H, B), 1.15 (s, 2H, A) (Figure 3.1).

Note: further characterization was reported by Mirica and co-workers in 2016.⁴¹

Figure 3.1 Proton structural assignments from NMR experiments for (^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl).

Preparation of (TsMeN4)NiII(cycloneophyl) (2). A solution of TsMeN4 (134.0 mg, 0.33 mmol) and $(Py)_{2}Ni^{II}(cycleloopbyl)$ (125.0 mg, 0.36 mmol) in THF (5 mL) was stirred at 20 °C for 14 hours. The solution was evaporated and re-dissolved in a minimum amount of THF. After filtration the solution was evaporated to dryness and triturated with pentane five times. The solid was dried under vacuum to obtain a yellow powder (159.5 mg, 0.27 mmol, 81%).

¹H NMR (600 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 7.95 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H, W), 7.90 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 1H, V), 7.83 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 1H, U), 7.78 (d, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 1H, T), 7.68 (d, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 1H, S), 7.65 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H, R), 7.44 (d, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 1H, Q), 7.40 (d, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 1H, P), 7.05 (m, 4H, O), 6.85 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 1H, N), 6.78 (d, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 1H, M), 6.52 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 1H, L), 5.68 (d, *J* = 14.4 Hz, 1H, K), 5.21 (d, *J* = 14.4 Hz, 1H, J), 5.15 (d, *J* = 14.5 Hz, 1H, I), 4.27 (d, *J* = 14.2 Hz, 1H, H), 4.22 (d, *J* = 14.2 Hz, 1H, G), 2.41 (s, 3H, F), 2.26 (s, 3H, E), 1.40 (s, 3H, D), 1.21 (d, *J* = 9.7 Hz, 1H, C), 1.15 (s, 3H, B), 1.10 (d, *J* = 9.7 Hz, 1H, A) (Figure 3.2).

¹³C NMR (600 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 170.02 (u), 159.17 159.24 159.34 159.45 159.57(t), 144.28 (s), 138.58 (r), 136.81 (q), 136.98 (q'), 135.45 (p), 130.57 (o), 127.75 (n), 125.68 (m), 125.79 (m'), 125.12 (l), 125. 28 (l'), 123.44 (k), 122.59 (j), 121.40(i), 63.85 (h), 63.90 (h'), 57.90 (g), 58.08 (g'), 48.51 (f), 41.17 (e), 38.05 (d), 24.95 (c), 33.35 (b), 21.26 (a) (Figure 3.2).

Elemental analysis: found C 61.63, H 6.04, N 8.58%; calculated $C_{32}H_{36}N_4NiO_2S\cdot1.5*H_2O$ C, 61.35, H 6.28, N 8.94%

Figure 3.2 Proton (left) and carbon (right) structural assignments from NMR experiments for (TsMeN4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl).

Preparation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}$ **(cycloneophyl) (3). A solution of ^{Ts}N4 (111.1 mg, 0.203 mmol) and** $(Py)_{2}Ni^{II}(cycleloopbyl)$ (77.6 mg, 0.224 mmol) in THF (5 mL) was stirred at 20 °C for 14 hours. The solution was evaporated and re-dissolved in a minimum amount of THF. After filtration the solution was evaporated to dryness and triturated with pentane five times. The solid was dried under vacuum to obtain a yellow powder (100.5 mg, 0.136 mmol, 67%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, THF-d8), δ (ppm): 7.74 (d, *J* = 8.2 Hz, 4H, M), 7.64 (m, 2H, L), 7.47 (dd, *J* = 17.7, 7.6 Hz, 4H, K), 7.37 (d, *J* = 8.2 Hz, 4H, J), 6.80 (dd, *J* = 14.8, 4.7 Hz, 4H, I), 6.55 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H, H), 6.48 (d, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 1H, G), 6.23 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H, F), 5.43 (d, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H, E), 5.23 (dd, *J* = 22.7, 14.7 Hz, 4H, D), 2.40 (s, 6H, C), 1.15 (s, 6H, B), 0.90 (s, 2H, A) (Figure 3.3).

APT (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 170.24 (v), 159.47 (u), 159.28 (t), 158.54 (s), 144.42 (r), 138.65 (q), 138.35 (p), 138.12 (o), 135. 24 (n), 130.73 (m), 127.92 (l), 126.21 (k), 126.12 (j), 123.81 (i), 123.03 (h), 121.68 (g), 58.62 (f), 58.48 (e), 48.58 (d), 42.38 (c), 34.21 (b), 21.43 (a) (Figure 3.3). Elemental analysis: found C 59.93, H 5.52, N 6.95%; calculated $C_{38}H_{40}N_4NiO_4S_2\bullet H_2O$ C, 60.25, H 5.59, N 7.40%

Figure 3.3 Proton (left) and carbon (right) structural assignments from NMR experiments for $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^{\text{II}}$ (cycloneophyl).

Preparation of (^{tBu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) (4). A solution of ^{tBu}N4 (100.7 mg, 0.200 mmol) and $(Py)_2Ni^{II}(cycleloopbyl)$ (69.8 mg, 0.200 mmol) in THF (5 mL) was stirred at 20 °C for 14 hours. The solution was evaporated and re-dissolved in a minimum amount of THF. After filtration the solution was evaporated to dryness and triturated with pentane five times. The solid was dried under vacuum to obtain a yellow powder (78.7 mg, 0.145 mmol, 73%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 7.44 (t, *J* = 7.7 Hz, 1H, L), 7.39 (t, *J* = 7.7 Hz, 1H, K), 7.05 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H, J), 7.00 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H, I), 6.65 – 6.56 (m, 5H, H), 6.53 (d, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H, G), 6.29 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 1H, F), 5.94 (d, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 1H, E), 4.59 (dd, *J* = 19.2, 13.8 Hz, 2H, D), 1.38 (s, 16H, C), 1.34 (s, 6H, B), 1.27 (s, 2H, A) (Figure 3.4).

APT (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 169.81 (s), 162.54 (r), 162.48 (g), 161.10 (p), 136.97 (o), 136.88 (n), 136.45 (m), 123.92 (l), 123.79 (k), 123.14 (j), 122.08 (i), 121.32 (h), 60.26 (g), 60.13 (f), 57.70 (e), 48.95 (d), 40.60 (c), 34.43 (b), 28.51 (a) (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 Proton (left) and carbon (right) structural assignments from NMR experiments for $({}^{tBu}N4)Ni^{II}$ (cycloneophyl).

3.2.2 Reactivity Studies

General procedure for the isolation of the NiIII complexes by EPR. An EPR tube was charged with a solution of $(T^{SMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$, $(T^SN4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ or (^{Bu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in acetonitrile (MeCN) or THF. A butyronitrile (PrCN) or 2-methyltetrahydrofuran (MeTHF) solution containing one equivalent of ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate (FcPF₆), silver hexafluoroantimonate (AgSbF₆) or acetylferrocenium tetrafluoroborate (^{Ac}FcBF₄) was then added. The resulting solution of 1:3 MeCN:PrCN or 1:3 THF:MeTHF was shaken for five seconds and then frozen in liquid nitrogen.

General procedure for the reactivity studies of $(\mathbb{R}N4)$ **Ni(cycloneophyl) complexes. In N₂-filled** glove box, a solution of 5-7 mg of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$, $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$, $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ or $({}^{tBu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ complex in MeCN (2 mL) was added into a 5 mL vial containing 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard. To this solution different oxidants were added (bubbled $O_2 + 10\%$ water, H_2O_2 , ^mCPBA, PhI(OAc)₂, NFTPT, TDTT and XeF_2) and stirred for 14 hours at 70 °C. The next day 1 mL of 14% perchloric acid was added and stirred for an additional four hours at 70 °C. To this solution 3 mL of a saturated potassium carbonate solution was added. The solution was then extracted three times with 1 mL of diethyl ether and dried over potassium carbonate for 30 minutes. The solution was filtered and the yield of product(s) were obtained by GC/FID using 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as the internal standard and the identity of the products was confirmed by GC/MS.

General procedure for the oxidation studies of (^RN4)Ni(cycloneophyl) intermediates by cryo-ESI-MS. A solution of 1mM ($^R\text{N4}$) Ni^{II} (cycloneophyl) complex in 10% H₂O/acetone was saturated with O_2 . To a second solution of 1mM (^RN4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) complex in acetone, 1mM of H_2O_2 was added. To both solutions perchloric acid was added and then the intermediates were analyzed at -80 \degree C by cryo-ESI-MS. All data is reported in Appendix F.

3.2.3 Physical Measurements

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance. ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, APT, gCOSY, NOESY, TOXY, HSQC and HMBC spectra were recorded on a Varian Mercury-300 spectrometer (300.121 MHz), Agilent DD2-500 spectrometer (499.885 MHz) or Agilent DD2-600 spectrometer (599.736 MHz). Chemical shifts are reported in ppm and referenced to residual solvent resonance peaks.⁴³⁻⁴⁴ Abbreviations for the multiplicity of NMR signals are s (singlet), d (doublet), dd (doublet of doublets), t (triplet), m (multiplet). All the NMR spectra are included in Appendix A.

UV-Vis, EPR and EA. UV-visible spectra were recorded on a Varian Cary 50 Bio spectrophotometer and are reported as λ_{max} , nm (ε , M^{-1*}cm⁻¹). Select UV-vis spectra are shown in Appendix C. EPR spectra were recorded on a Bruker EMX-PLUS EPR or a JEOL JES-FA EPR spectrometer at X-band (~9.2 GHz) frequency in frozen solution at 77 K. The purchase of the Bruker EMX-PLUS EPR spectrometer was supported by the National Science Foundation (MRI, CHE-1429711). Elemental analyses were carried out by the Intertek Pharmaceutical Services.

Electrochemical Measurements. Cyclic voltammetry experiments were performed with a BASi EC Epsilon electrochemical workstation or a CHI 660D Electrochemical Analyzer. The electrochemical measurements were taken in a glove box under nitrogen. A glassy carbon disk electrode $(d = 1.6 \text{ mm})$ was used as the working electrode for cyclic voltammetry. The auxiliary electrode was a Pt wire for cyclic voltammetry measurements. The non-aqueous references electrode used was a silver wire dipped in a bleach solution (Ag/AgCl). The reference electrodes were calibrated against Cp2Fe (Fc). Electrochemical-grade electrolytes from Fluka were used as the supporting electrolyte for electrochemical measurements. All CV spectra are included in Appendix B.

X–ray Crystallography. All X-ray crystallography experiments were performed by Dr. Nigam Rath. Suitable crystals were mounted on MiTeGen cryoloops in random orientations in a Bruker Kappa Apex-II CCD X-ray diffractometer equipped with an Oxford Cryostream LT device and a

fine focus Mo Κα radiation X-ray source ($\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). Preliminary unit cell constants were determined with a set of 36 narrow frame scans. Typical data sets consist of combinations of ω and φ scan frames with a typical scan width of 0.5° and a counting time of 15−30 s/frame at a crystal-to-detector distance of 4.0 cm. The collected frames were integrated using an orientation matrix determined from the narrow frame scans. Apex II and SAINT software packages (Bruker Analytical X-Ray, Madison, WI, 2008) were used for data collection and data integration. Analysis of the integrated data did not show any decay. Final cell constants were determined by global refinement of xyz centroids of reflections from the complete data sets. Collected data were corrected for systematic errors using SADABS (Bruker Analytical X-Ray, Madison, WI, 2008) based on the Laue symmetry using equivalent reflections. Structure solutions and refinement were carried out using the SHELXTL-PLUS software package. The structures were solved by direct methods and refined successfully in specified crystal systems and space groups. Full matrix leastsquares refinements were carried out by minimizing $\text{Zw}(\text{Fo}^2-\text{Fc}^2)^2$. The non-hydrogen atoms were refined anisotropically to convergence. Typically, the hydrogen atoms were treated using the appropriate riding model. The complete listings of X-ray diffraction parameters are included in Appendix G.

3.3 Results and Discussion

3.3.1 Synthesis and Characterization of NiII/III Complexes

The azomacrocycle ligands N,N'-dimethyl-2,11-diaza $[3.3](2,6)$ pyridinophane (^{Me}N4), N- $(p$ -toluenesulfonyl),N'-(methyl)-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{TsMe}N4) and N,N'ditoluensulfonyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (TsN4) and N,N'-di-*tert*-butyl-2,11 diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane ($BuN4$) were synthesized according to a literature procedure.³⁸⁻³⁹

With these ligands a series of cycloneophyl complexes were synthesized through a ligand exchange of $(py)_2$ Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl).^{40, 45} The orange Ni^{II} complex (^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl), **1** was prepared in a 72% yield (Scheme 3.1) giving a higher yield than what has previously been reported.⁴⁶

Scheme 3.1 Synthesis of $(^{R}N4)Ni$ (cycloneophyl) complexes.

The second complex, a yellow Ni^{II} complex $(^{TsMe}NA)Ni^{II}$ (cycloneophyl), 2 was prepared in a 81% yield and was fully characterized. The CV shows an oxidation potential at –990 mV vs Fc⁺/Fc, as well as a smaller oxidation wave at 70 mV and a second oxidation at 750 mV (Table 3.1). The two oxidations are tentatively assigned to the Ni^{III/II} and Ni^{IV/III} oxidation and the oxidation wave at 70 mV is proposed to correspond to a complex with a κ^3 ligand binging mode. The Ni^{III/II} oxidation observed at -990 mV likely corresponds to the conformation of 2 with a κ^4 binding mode.^{29, 47} The third complex, $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^{II}$ (cycloneophyl), 3 was prepared in a 67% yield and was fully characterized by ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR. The CV shows an oxidation potential at – 400 mV, which is tentatively assigned to the Ni^{III/II} couple. Finally, the yellow Ni^{II} complex

(^{Bu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl), 4 was prepared in a 73% yield and was also characterized by ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR. The CV of complex **4** shows a higher first oxidation potential then the previously mentioned complexes at 200 mV vs Fc⁺/Fc, this might be due to the steric effect that the *tert*-butyl group has, slowing down the reaction due to steric bulk.

Table 3.1 Cyclic voltammetry (CV) data for $({}^{R}N4)Ni$ (cycloneophyl) complexes.

Complex					
$E_{(Ni^{I\!I\!I\!I\!I\!I})}(mV)^{a,b}$	-1700	-990	-400	200	
. __ - - - $-$					

 $E(Ni^{II/III})$ values reported vs Fc⁺/Fc at RT. $\frac{b}{100}$ mV/s scan rate.

The oxidation potentials of complexes **1-4** observed via cyclic voltammetry, can easily be oxidized with one equivalent of acetylferrocenium tetrafluoroborate (${}^{Ac}FcBF_4$) or AgSbF₆ in THF at -50 °C to yield $[(T^{sMe}N4)Ni^{III}(cycloneophyl]BF_4, 2^+$ and $[(T^{s}N4)Ni^{III}(cycloneophyl)]SbF_6, 3^+$ and $[(^{tBu}N4)Ni^{III}(cycleoneophyl)]BF₄$, 4⁺. The X-ray structures of 2⁺ and 3⁺ show six-coordinate Ni^{III} centers in distorted octahedral geometries (Figure 3.5). In complex **2 +** the Ni-NTs (2.527 Å) bond is longer then Ni-N_{Me} (2.199 Å) bond, due to the tosyl group being electron withdrawing and the methyl-group being electron donating. The Ni-N₁ (2.182 Å) bond is longer than expected due to a trans effect of the sp³ carbon vs a sp² carbon. When comparing this to structure 3^+ , both Ni-N_{Ts} bonds are further away from the Ni^{III} center (2.360 Å and 2.436 Å).

Figure 3.5 ORTEP representation of 2^+ (left) and 3^+ (right) with 50% probability thermal ellipsoids. Selected bond distances (Å), **2 +** : Ni1-C1, 1.938; Ni1-C4, 1.938; Ni1-N1, 2.182; Ni1-N2, 1.867; Ni1-N3, 2.199; Ni1-N4, 2.527; **3 +** : Ni1-C1, 1.933; Ni1-C8, 1.982; Ni1-N1, 1.993; Ni1-N2, 2.010; Ni1-N3, 2.360; Ni1-N4, 2.436.

The EPR spectrum of complex 2^+ exhibits a rhombic signal with a superhyperfine coupling observed in the g_z direction due to one axial N donors (I=1) coupling to the Ni^{III} center (Figure 3.6). This suggests that the N_{Ts} does not coordinate in the axial direction at a Ni^{III} stage. Although it is not a well-defined triplet there might be some very weak N_{Ts} coupling. Complex 3^+ has a rhombic signal with a superhyperfine coupling to two nitrogen atoms in the g_z direction, suggesting that both N_{Ts} 's bind to the nickel center (Figure 3.6). Also, a small amount of unknown Ni^{III} impurity is present in complex **3 +** . Simulation 1 and 2 were added in a 19:1 ratio respectively to simulate the experimental spectra properly. The last complex **4 ⁺** also has a rhombic signal with a superhyperfine coupling observed in the g_z direction due to two axial N donors (I=1) coupling to the Ni^{III} center. Suggesting that both nitrogens bind in the axial direction with a strength of 11 G (Figure 3.6). With all the previously mentioned compounds in hand, we turned to probing their reactivity.

Figure 3.6 Experimental (1:3 MeCN:PrCN, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of **2 +** (left) using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.277$, $g_y = 2.235$, $g_z = 2.009$ (A_z (N) = 18.0 G). Experimental (1:3 MeCN:PrCN, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of 3^+ (middle) using the following parameters for sim 1: $g_x = 2.409$, $g_y = 2.318$, $g_z =$ 2.000 (A_z (2N) = 8.0 G) and sim 2: $g_x = 2.253$, $g_y = 2.220$, $g_z = 2.010$ (A_z (N) = 18.0 G). Simulation 1 and 2 were added in a 19:1 ratio respectively to simulate the experimental spectra properly. Experimental (1:3 MeCN:PrCN, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of 4^+ (right) using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.345$, $g_y =$ 2.273, $g_z = 2.006$ (A_z (2N) = 11.0 G)

3.3.2 C–C Bond Formation Reactivity of (^RN4)NiII(cycloneophyl) Complexes

With the new $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ complexes in hand, we set out to probe the reactivity for C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions. First, we studied the oxidation $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ with 1-Fluoro-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT), 5- $(tirifluoromethyl) dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT), xenon difluoride (XeF₂)$ and (diacetoxyiodo)benzene (PhI(OAc)₂) to observe any C–C and C–X bond formation. Previously these oxidants have been used for other high-valent transition metal chemistry including high-valent nickel chemistry.^{12, 19, 48-51} While no C–heteroatom bond formation was detected with complexes **1-4** we did observe high C–C bond formation. When comparing complex **1-4** with any of the oxidants stated above there is a noticeable trend. More electron withdrawing groups on the amine arm show higher C–C bond formation, with up to 99% conversion with XeF_2 as the oxidant using complex **3**. Although, when adding a *tert*-butyl group on the amine arm, a drop in C–C bond formation was observed, and we see an increase in unreacted cycloneophyl (Scheme 3.2 and Table 3.2). Most likely this is due to the coordination of the amine arms that creates a six-coordinate high-valent intermediate that is less reactive towards reductive elimination then the five- or four-coordinate intermediates.

Additionally, we studied the oxidation of complexes $1-4$ with O_2 and H_2O_2 . The use of O_2 and H_2O_2 as an oxidant obviates the requirement for strong/toxic oxidants which generate undesired stoichiometric byproducts, making O_2 and H_2O_2 "greener" reagents for carbon–carbon and carbon–oxygen bond formation. The addition of O_2 to complexes 1-4 gave different shades of orange/red solutions. Solutions were heated for 14 hours at 70 \degree C, followed by an acidic workup and analyzed by GC-MS FID. To our delight, complexes **1** and **3** showed up to 15% combined yield of C–O bond formation and complex **2** showed up to 41% combined yield of C–O products (Scheme 3.2 and Table 3.2). No C–O bond formation was formed for complex **4** likely due to the steric bulk of the *tert*-butyl group. The GC-MS analysis also confirmed the presence of C–C coupled product for all four complexes with up to ~70% for complex **3**. *meta-*chloroperoxybenzoic acid (*m*CPBA) and H₂O₂ are also capable oxidants for performing C–C and C–O bond formation, but to a lesser extent giving lower yields. For all four complexes, we observe some *tert*butylbenzene, indicating that some of the cycloneophyl groups immediately eliminates before undergoing oxidation. Complex **2** seems to be the sweet spot of stability vs reactivity to provide the best C–O bond formation results.
Scheme 3.2 General reaction for the formation of the different oxidation products.

Table 3.2 Yields of the products from the reaction of (RN4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) with a variety of oxidants.

^a Yields (%) were determined by GC-FID vs. 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as internal standard. n/a indicates that no other C–X products were observed.

To better understand the mechanism of the oxidation of O_2 and H_2O_2 , (^RN4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) was oxidized with O₂ at -50 °C in 9:1 acetone-d₆:D₂O. While no Ni^{IV} intermediates were observed by ${}^{1}H$ NMR, the formation of Ni^{III} species was confirmed by EPR spectroscopy. In addition, cryo-electrospray mass spectrometry (cryo-ESI-MS) was employed in an attempt to detect any high-valent Ni intermediates arising from oxidation of $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ complexes with O₂.^{25, 52} Interestingly, oxidation of 2 at -80 °C gives rise to two transient species that are tentatively assigned to a Ni^{IV} -hydroperoxo and a Ni^{IV} -hydroxo complex (**A** and **B**, Figure 3.7). The decay of the transient species leads to the formation of a persistent species that likely corresponds to a hydroxylated cycloneophyl (**C)** still bound to the Ni center (Scheme 3.3). The Ni^{III} hydroxylated cycloneophyl then undergoes reductive elimination to form a Ni^I complex and the desired C–O product. For the other two cycloneophyl complexes that form some C–O product (**1** and **3**), only a few high-valent Ni intermediates were observed although the final complexes were detected.

Figure 3.7 Cryo-ESI-MS spectra and simulations showing the isotopic patterns of cationic Ni^{III} and Ni^{IV} intermediates found during the oxidation of 2 with O_2 in 10% H₂O/acetone at -80 °C. From left to right: A, $[(T^{5Me}N4)Ni^{IV}(cycloneophyl)(OOH)]⁺$ m/z 631.1843 (transient species), **B**, [(TsMeN4)NiIV(cycloneophyl)(OH)]⁺ m/z 615.1940 (transient species) and **C**, [(TsMeN4)NiIII(-CH2CMe2-*o*- C_6H_4 -O)]⁺ m/z 614.1862 (persistent species).

Scheme 3.3 Proposed mechanism leading to C–C and C–O bond formation using complex 2 with O₂ as the oxidant.

3.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, we described the use of four different ligands that provide both stabilizing and destabilizing effects on high-valent $Ni^{III/IV}$ species. All isolated complexes were fully characterized, and their C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactivity tested. The $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{II}$ (cycloneophyl) derivatives have low redox potentials that can easily be oxidized with a variety of oxidants. When performing oxidation studies on $({}^{R}N4)Ni^H(cycloneophyl)$ with O₂ and H₂O₂, C–C and C–O bond formation was observed. (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) yielded up to 41% of C–O bond formation with the overall conversion at 94%. Using cryo-ESI-MS we detected highvalent Ni-oxygen species and propose a mechanism using O_2 and H_2O_2 as the oxidants. Overall, $(T₅MeN4)Ni^{II}(cycleoneophyl)$ is the sweet spot of stability vs reactivity for C–O bond formation, but $({}^{T_s}N4)Ni^{II}(cycleoneophyl)$ gives the highest C–C formation. All these results are promising, suggesting that the organometallic Ni complexes supported by multidentate ligands can also exhibit bioinspired aerobic oxidation chemistry.

3.5 Acknowledgements

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Chapter 4

Synthesis and Characterization of (RMe2TACN)Ni(cycloneophyl) Complexes and Their Reactivity

4.1 Introduction

The synthesis and characterization of high-valent nickel complexes is currently an active research area because of their role as proposed intermediates in various cross-coupling reactions.¹⁻ ⁴⁵ The reactivity observed from the nickel complexes depends on the stabilization or destabilization of the high-valent complexes leading to a faster or slower reactivity. Either of these outcomes may be desirable depending on the goal that is trying to be accomplished.

Our group has used the 1,4,7-trimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane ($^{Me3}TACN$) ligand to stabilize high-valent Pd and Ni complexes.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ The C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation was also tested in these cases with aerobic oxidants, seeing that it is possible to oxidize nickel and palladium complexes with "greener reagents". We wanted to take a closer look at the inorganic Ni^{III} complex to determine how the stability was either enhanced or diminished by modification of the N-substituents of the TACN ligand. The modifications tested were the effects of increased steric bulk on one of the amines. One of the methyl substituents was substituted for an isopropyl or *p*-toluenesulfonyl group. This modification leads to the TACN ligand acting more as a bidentate ligand than as a tridentate ligand. The three ligands represented in this study are all TACN-derived ligands including: 1,4,7-trimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane, 1-isopropyl-4,7-dimethyl-1,4,7 triazacyclonane (i^{PrMe2}TACN) and 1-(*p*-toluenesulfonyl)-4,7-dimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane $(TsMe²TACN).$ ⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ This series of ligands can help determine what minor modifications ligands may undergo to increase or decrease their stability or reactivity of the corresponding nickel complexes.

4.2 Experimental Section

Reagents and Materials. All manipulations were carried out under a nitrogen atmosphere using standard Schlenk and glove box techniques if not indicated otherwise. All reagents for which the synthesis was not given are commercially available from Aldrich, Acros or STREM and were used as received without further purification. Solvents were purified prior to use by passing through a column of activated alumina using an MBRAUN SPS. $(Py)_2Ni^H(cycloneophyl)$,⁵¹ ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate $(FcPF_6)^{52}$ 1-(*p*-toluenesulfonyl)-4,7-dimethyl-1,4,7triazacyclononane⁵⁰ and 1,4-dimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclononane⁴⁹ were prepared according to the literature procedures. Other abbreviations used throughout this chapter: 1-Fluoro-2,4,6 trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT) and 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT).

4.2.1 Synthesis of the Ligands and Nickel Complexes

Preparation of 1-isopropyl-4,7-dimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclononane (iPrMe2TACN). HMe2TACN (120 mg, 0.76 mmol) and 2-bromopropane (86 µL, 0.92 mmol) were added together in a 50 mL round bottom flask. A suspension of potassium carbonate (422 mg, 3.1 mmol) in acetonitrile (7.5 mL) was added and the reaction was refluxed for 16 hours. The solution was filtered and the mother liquor was evaporated. The oil was redissolved in 20 mL of diethyl ether and the solution was extract three times with 10 mL of water. The organic layer was dried with potassium carbonate for 30 minutes and then filtered. The organic layer was evaporated and dried for several hours. The product was a clear oil (66.5 mg, 0.33 mmol, 44%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 2.88-2.83 (q, J = 6.6 Hz, 1H, iPr), 2.71 (s, 4H, N*CH2CH2*N), 2.64-2.62 (m, 4H, N*CH2CH2*N), 2.58-2.56 (m, 4H, N*CH2CH2*N), 2.31 (s, 6H, 2CH3), 0.95 (d, J = 6.6 Hz, 6H, iPr).

APT (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 58.76, 58.10, 55.97, 52.97, 46.76, 18.74.

Preparation of ^{iPrMe2}TACNNi(cycloneophyl). A solution of ^{iPrMe2}TACN (22.7 mg, 0.11 mmol) and $(Py)_2Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ (43.5 mg, 0.13 mmol) in THF (3 mL) was stirred at 20 °C for 14 hours. The solution was evaporated and redissolved in a minimum amount of THF. Pentane was added to crash out any leftover starting cycloneophyl precursor. The solution was filtered and the mother liquor was evaporated to dryness. The solid obtained was a yellow powder (17.3 mg, 0.041 mmol, 37%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 6.85-6.84 (d, J = 6.6 Hz, 2H, Ar-CH), 6.55-6.57 (m, 1H, Ar-CH), 6.47-6.43 (m, 2H, Ar-CH), 5.56 (b, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 4.36 (b, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 3.30- 3.27 (d, J = 15.6 Hz, 4H, NCH₂CH₂N), 3.03-2.98 (q, J = 6.2 Hz, 1H iPr), 2.71 (s, 3H, CH₃), 2.57 $(s, 6H, 2CH_3), 2.42-2.38$ (t, J = 12.1 Hz, 4H, NCH₂CH₂N), 2.31 (s, 3H, CH₃), 1.15-1.14 (d, J = 6.6 Hz, 1H, $-CH_2$ -), 1.08-1.07 (d, J = 6.6 Hz, 6H, iPr), 0.96-0.95 (d, J = 6.6 Hz, 1H, $-CH_2$ -).

APT (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 169.98, 161.45, 138.16, 122.48, 121.53, 120.42, 58.87, 58.22, 56.27, 53.09, 48.30, 46.89, 37.42, 19.30, 18.86, 14.54.

Note: Due to the fluxionality of the TACN ligand, broadening was observed for both the proton and carbon NMR spectra. This resulted in less accurate integrations for the spectra observed.

Preparation of ^{TsMe2}TACNNi(cycloneophyl). A solution of ^{TsMe2}TACN (24.5 mg, 0.081 mmol) and (Py)₂Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) (31.2 mg, 0.090 mmol) in THF (3 mL) was stirred at 20 °C for 14

hours. The solution was evaporated and redissolved in a minimum amount of THF. Pentane was added to crash out any leftover starting cycloneophyl precursor. The solution was filtered and the mother liquor was evaporated to dryness. The solid obtained was a yellow powder (18.3 mg, 0.026 mmol, 32%).

¹H NMR (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 7.77-7.75 (d, J = 8.3 Hz, 2H, Ts), 7.37-7.35 (d, J = 7.9 Hz, 2H, Ts), 6.77-6.76 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H, Ar-H), 6.58-6.55 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 1H, Ar-H), 6.48-6.43 (m, 2H, Ar-H), 6.21-6.15 (m, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 5.93-5.90 (m, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 4.04-3.92 (m, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 3.70-3.64 (m, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 3.12-3.02 (m, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 2.92-2.85 (m, 2H, N*CH2CH2*N), 2.66 (s, 3H, CH3), 2.59 (s, 3H, CH3), 2.39 (s, 3H, CH3),1.66 (s, 3H, CH3), 1.00 (s, $3H, CH_3$, 0.93-0.91 (d, J = 8.5 Hz, 1H, -CH₂-), 0.31-0.31 (d, J = 8.4 Hz, 1H, -CH₂-).

APT (500 MHz, THF-d₈), δ (ppm): 170.12, 160.30, 144.54, 137.76, 137.55, 130.73, 128.08, 122.75, 121.96, 120.69, 64.87, 63.47, 62.04, 60.21, 56.45, 55.01, 53.56, 50.57, 48.21, 38.07, 37.82, 31.12, 21.55.

4.2.2 Reactivity Studies

General procedure for the isolation of the NiIII complexes by EPR. An EPR tube was charged with a solution of $({}^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ or $({}^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ in acetonitrile (MeCN) or THF. A butyronitrile (PrCN) or 2-methyl-tetrahydrofuran (MeTHF) solution containing one equivalent of ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate ($FcPF₆$) was then added. The resulting solution of 1:3 MeCN:PrCN or 1:3 THF:MeTHF was shaken for five seconds and then frozen in liquid nitrogen.

General procedure for the reactivity studies of (^RTACN)Ni(cycloneophyl) complexes. In N2 filled glove box, a solution of 5-7 mg of $(^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cyclelooped byl)$ or

 $(i^{PrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) complex in MeCN (2 mL) was added into a 5 mL vial containing$ 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard. To this solution different oxidants were added (bubbled O_2 + 10% water, H₂O₂, NFTPT and TDTT) and stirred for 14 hours at 70 °C. The next day 1 mL of 14% perchloric acid was added and stirred for an additional four hours at 70 °C. To this solution 3 mL of a saturated potassium carbonate solution was added. The solution was then extracted three times with 1 mL of diethyl ether and dried over potassium carbonate for 30 minutes. The solution was filtered and the yield of product(s) was obtained by GC/FID using 1,3,5 trimethoxybenzene as the internal standard and the identity of the products was confirmed by GC/MS.

4.2.3 Physical Measurements

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance. ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, APT, gCOSY, NOESY, TOXY, HSQC and HMBC spectra were recorded on an Agilent DD2-500 spectrometer (499.885 MHz). Chemical shifts are reported in ppm and referenced to residual solvent resonance peaks.⁵³⁻⁵⁴ Abbreviations for the multiplicity of NMR signals are s (singlet), d (doublet), dd (doublet of doublets), t (triplet), q (quintet), m (multiplet), b (broad). All the NMR spectra are included in Appendix A.

EPR. EPR spectra were recorded on a Bruker EMX-PLUS EPR or a JEOL JES-FA EPR spectrometer at X-band (~9.2 GHz) frequency in frozen solution at 77 K. The purchase of the Bruker EMX-PLUS EPR spectrometer was supported by the National Science Foundation (MRI, CHE-1429711).

Electrochemical Measurements. Cyclic voltammetry experiments were performed with a BASi EC Epsilon electrochemical workstation or a CHI 660D Electrochemical Analyzer. The electrochemical measurements were taken in a glove box under nitrogen. A glassy carbon disk electrode $(d = 1.6 \text{ mm})$ was used as the working electrode for cyclic voltammetry. The auxiliary electrode was a Pt wire for cyclic voltammetry measurements. The non-aqueous references electrode used was a silver wire dipped in a bleach solution (Ag/AgCl). The reference electrodes were calibrated against Cp2Fe (Fc). Electrochemical-grade electrolytes from Fluka were used as the supporting electrolyte for electrochemical measurements. All CV spectra are included in Appendix B.

X–ray Crystallography. All X-ray crystallography experiments were performed by Dr. Nigam Rath. Suitable crystals were mounted on MiTeGen cryoloops in random orientations in a Bruker Kappa Apex-II CCD X-ray diffractometer equipped with an Oxford Cryostream LT device and a fine focus Μο Κα radiation X-ray source (λ = 0.71073 Å). Preliminary unit cell constants were determined with a set of 36 narrow frame scans. Typical data sets consist of combinations of ω and φ scan frames with a typical scan width of 0.5° and a counting time of 15−30 s/frame at a crystal-to-detector distance of 4.0 cm. The collected frames were integrated using an orientation matrix determined from the narrow frame scans. Apex II and SAINT software packages (Bruker Analytical X-Ray, Madison, WI, 2008) were used for data collection and data integration. Analysis of the integrated data did not show any decay. Final cell constants were determined by global refinement of xyz centroids of reflections from the complete data sets. Collected data were corrected for systematic errors using SADABS (Bruker Analytical X-Ray, Madison, WI, 2008) based on the Laue symmetry using equivalent reflections. Structure solutions and refinement were carried out using the SHELXTL-PLUS software package. The structures were solved by direct methods and refined successfully in specified crystal systems and space groups. Full matrix leastsquares refinements were carried out by minimizing $\text{Zw}(\text{Fo}^2-\text{Fc}^2)^2$. The non-hydrogen atoms were refined anisotropically to convergence. Typically, the hydrogen atoms were treated using the appropriate riding model. The complete listings of X-ray diffraction parameters are included in Appendix G.

4.3 Results and Discussion

4.3.1 Synthesis and Characterization of NiII/III Complexes

The three ligands represented in this study are all TACN-derived ligands, $^{Me3}TACN$ iPrMe2TACN and TsMe2TACN. The slight modification on the ligands was made to test their reactivity and high-valent nickel stability. Me³TACN and its corresponding nickel complexes were previously synthesized and characterized and used in this chapter as a comparison.^{48 iPrMe2}TACN was synthesized by adding 2-bromopropane and $^{HMe2}TACN$ together in a round bottom flask. To this solution a suspension of potassium carbonate in acetonitrile was added and refluxed for 16 hours. The reaction was followed by a work-up to give a clear oil. Lastly, ^{TsMe2}TACN was synthesized according to a literature procedure.⁵⁰ With these ligands, a series of cycloneophyl complexes were synthesized through a ligand exchange of $(py)_2Ni^{II}(cycleloop by)$ ^{51, 55} The yellow Ni^{II} complexes (^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl), 2 and (^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl), 3 were prepared in a 37% and 32% yield respectively (Scheme 4.1). The complexes were fully characterized by NMR and X-ray crystallography. The single X-ray crystal structure of **2** and **3** reveals a square planar geometry for the Ni center that is bound to two nitrogen atoms form the TACN ligand and two carbon groups form the cycloneophyl. The bond lengths for both nickel complexes **2** and **3** are very similar and compare well to the bond lengths of complex **1** (Figure 4.1).

Scheme 4.1 Synthesis of ($\frac{RMe}{TACN}$)Ni(cycloneophyl) complexes.

Figure 4.1 ORTEP representation of **2** (left) and **3** (right), with 50% probability thermal ellipsoids. Selected bond distances (Å), **2**: Ni1a-C1a, 1.909; Ni1a-C8a, 1.935; Ni1a-N1a, 2.052; Ni1a-N2a, 2.055 **3**: Ni1a-C1a, 1.920; Ni1a-C8a, 1.944; Ni1a-N1a, 2.077; Ni1a-N2a, 2.075.

The cyclic voltammogram (CV) of 2 in 0.1 M nBu₄NPF₆/MeCN shows an oxidation event at -1025 mV vs ferrocene (Fc), and the CV of complex **3** shows an oxidation event at -490 mV vs Fc (Figure 4.2). These events are tentatively assigned to the oxidation of Ni^{II} to Ni^{III} . When comparing these oxidation events to complex **1**, complex **1** shows a much lower oxidation potential (-1321 mV vs Fc). The difference in oxidation potential is attributed to the substituent on the nitrogen on the TACN ligand. Varying the substituent from a methyl to an isopropyl or to a tosyl group, we can see the difference in oxidation potential because of the added steric bulk; complex **2** and complex **3** have more electron withdrawing/bulky groups. We are unsure at this point if the steric effects or the electronic effects play the major role in increasing the oxidation potential for complex **3**, it is possible that both play a role in this case.

Figure 4.2 CV of 2 (left) in 0.1 M n Bu₄NPF₆/ MeCN at RT (100 mV/s scan rate). Redox potential: $E_{(Ni^{min})}$ = –1025 mV and CV of **3** (right) in 0.1 M *n*Bu4NPF6/MeCN at RT (100 mV/s scan rate). Redox potential: $E_{(Ni^{IIII})} = -490$ mV.

Both complexes **2** and **3** can be oxidized using one equivalent of ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate in THF at -50 \degree C to obtain $[(i^{PrMe2}TACN)Ni^{III}(cyclonecophy)]PF_6$, 2^+ **,** and $[(T^{sMe2}TACN)Ni^{III}(cycloneophyl)]PF_6$, 3^+ . The EPR of complex 2^+ exhibits a rhombic signal in a solvent mixture of THF and methyl-THF (MeTHF). A superhyperfine coupling was observed in the g_z direction due to one axial amine donors (I=1) coupling to the Ni^{III} center (Figure 4.3). The EPR spectrum of complex **2 +** looks very similar to the EPR spectrum of complex **1 ⁺** and only has one nitrogen binding. When changing solvent mixture to MeCN:PrCN, we still see a triplet

indicating that no acetonitrile is binding in the axial position. This was initially surprising to us because the Ni^{III} complexes we have studied previously prefer an octahedral geometry. Our initial thoughts were that the available MeCN would act as an additional ligand that would bind the complex, however this was not the case as shown in the EPR. There are two reasons why MeCN would not coordinate to the Ni^{III} center, the first of which is the steric interactions from the other two ligands. The ligands distort the complex and end up blocking the site were MeCN would coordinate. The other reason would be that there isn't any electron density required to stabilize **2 +** and would only serve to cause more steric interactions with ^{iPrMe2}TACN and cycloneophyl ligand. Whatever the cause may be, the result is a five-coordinate semi-stable Ni^{III} complex because the complex could not be isolated.

Figure 4.3 Experimental (1:3 THF:MeTHF, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of **2 +** (left) using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.311$, $g_y = 2.267$, $g_z = 2.011$ (A_z (N) = 17.0 G). Experimental (1:3 MeCN:PrCN, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of 3^+ (right) using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.327$, $g_y = 2.257$, $g_z =$ 2.012 (A_z (N) = 17.0 G and (A_z (P) = 10 G).

The EPR spectrum of complex 3^+ shows a rhombic signal in the g_z direction the observation of a quartet (Figure 4.3). The superhyperfine coupling in the g_z direction indicates that one axial

amine is binding ($A_{1N} = 17$ G, I = 1) and there is a second coupling of 10 G with I = $\frac{1}{2}$ which might be indicative of the hexafluorophosphate anion binding in the axial position. Also, it is not certain whether the N_{Ts} arm or a MeCN group is binding in the axial direction. Further studies would have to prove this concept because we were not able to obtain a Ni^{III} crystal structure because the complex was very short lived and decays within one minute at room temperature.

4.3.2 C–C Bond Formation Reactivity of (RMe2TACN)NiII(cycloneophyl)

Complexes

With the new $({}^{RMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ complexes in hand, we set out to probe the reactivity for C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions similar to chapter 3. First, we studied the oxidation $({}^{R}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ with 1-Fluoro-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT) and 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT) to observe any C–C and C–X bond formation. While no C–heteroatom bond formation was detected with complexes **2** and **3,** we did observe high C–C bond formation with up to 82% for complex **2** (Scheme 4.2 and Table 4.1). We then tested the oxidation of the cycloneophyl complexes with $O₂$ and H_2O_2 and we observed up to 9% of C–O bond formation for complex 2 using O_2 as the oxidant and 5% of C–O bond formation for complex **3**. Comparing these results with complex **1**, which gave 5% of hydroxylated product, complex **2** gives a slightly higher C–O bond formation.

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Starting Complex	Oxidants	Yields $(\frac{6}{6})^a$			
		A	в	C	Sum(%)
(iPrMe2TACN)Ni ^{II} (cycloneophyl)	O ₂	51	$\overline{4}$	5	60
(TsMe2TACN)Ni ^{II} (cycloneophyl)	O ₂	47	Ω	Ω	47
$(^{Me3}TACN)NiII(cycloneophyl)$	O ₂	40	5	Ω	45
$\overline{(^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}}$ (cycloneophyl)	2 eq. H_2O_2	59	3	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{L}}$	64
$(^{TsMe2}TACN) Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$	2 eq. H_2O_2	26	Ω	Ω	26
$\overline{(^{iPrMe2}TACN)}$ Ni ^{II} (cycloneophyl)	1 eq. NFTPT	82	n/a	n/a	82
(TsMe2TACN)Ni ^{II} (cycloneophyl)	1 eq. NFTPT	75	n/a	n/a	75
$\overline{(^{iPrMe2}TACN})Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$	1 eq. TDTT	65	n/a	n/a	65
(TsMe2TACN)Ni ^{II} (cycloneophyl)	1 eq. TDTT	58	n/a	n/a	58

Table 4.1 Yields of the products from the reaction of (RMe²TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) with a variety of oxidants in MeCN.

^a Yields (%) were determined by GC-FID vs. 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene as internal standard. n/a indicates that no other C–F products were observed.

4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, we have presented the synthesis and characterization of new Ni complexes with multidentate ligands. The TACN ligands described are very flexible and can accommodate metal ions in different oxidation states in a variety of conformations. The electrochemical properties of the Ni^{II} complexes were explored which suggest that all the complexes can easily be oxidized to Ni^{III}. In contrast, adding more steric effects on the amine arm increases the oxidation potential. The oxidation of complex 2^+ gave an EPR spectrum very similar to complex 1^+ . The EPR spectrum of complex 3 ⁺ shows a quartet in the g_z direction. This is not fully understood, and future studies will have to be performed to elucidate what causes this exact coupling. The reactivity studies performed on the new complexes gave high C–C bond formation but no C–heteroatom bond formation. The exception to this was when the complexes were oxidized with O_2 , resulting in a 5-9% of C–O bond formation. Current studies are focused on taking advantage of the ability of the TACN ligand to stabilize or destabilize the high-valent Ni species and employ such organometallic Ni complexes in transformations involving rapid oxidative addition and aerobic oxidation steps for catalytic C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation reactions.

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Chapter 5

Catalytic Oxidation Studies for Unactivated Alkanes Using Hypohalites as the Oxidant

5.1 Introduction

Halogenated organic compounds play an important role in organic chemistry, as they exhibit a wide range of biological and pharmacological activities.¹⁻² In organic synthesis, alkyl chlorides also find a use as versatile precursors in many transformations, including cross-coupling reactions.3-7 The development of new synthetic routes for alkyl halides remains an important challenge, especially for unactivated C-H bonds.^{2, 8-11} Recently an effort has been made to develop efficient catalyst for the alkane chlorination in synthetic organic chemistry and industrial chemistry. While several protocols for the conversion of $sp³$ C–H centers to C–N and C–O bonds are now available, $12-21$ fewer methods for the synthesis of C-halogen bonds have been described even though molecules bearing halogen functional groups are prevalent in nature.^{2, 22-25}

Here, we describe a reaction protocol for the oxidation of a C–H bonds to C–Cl bonds using sodium hypochlorite as the chlorine source, in the presence of catalytic amounts of ligand/salt and acetic acid as the additive. The reaction with sodium hypochlorite with different unactivated alkanes afforded alky chlorides as the major products with only trace amounts of dichlorinated products and no oxygenated products. Substrates with strong C-H bonds, such as cyclohexane (BDE = \sim 100 kcal/mol) or propane (BDE = \sim 99 kcal/mol) can also undergo chlorination with moderate to high yields.²⁶⁻²⁷ Bromination was also achieved by preparing a solution of NaOCl with a slight excess of NaBr.^{2, 22} All the reactions conveniently use hypohalites as a halogen source which are commercially available.

5.2 Experimental Section

Reagents and Materials. All chemicals were available from Aldrich or Fisher and were used as received without further purification. Solvents were purified prior to use by passing through a

column of activated alumina using an MBraun solvent purification system. Propionitrile, butyronitrile and 1,2-difluorobenzene were distilled and freeze-pump thawed before use. The ligands N,N'-dimethyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (MeN4), N-(p-toluenesulfonyl),N'-(methyl)-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane $($ ^{TsMe}N4), N , N '-ditoluensulfonyl-2,11diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (TsN4), N,N'-di-*tert*-butyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane $(^{Bu}N4)$, N,N'-dineopentyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane $(^{Np}N4)$, N-(2-methylpyridine),N'-(methyl)-2,11-diaza $[3.3](2,6)$ pyridinophane (^{PicMe}N4), N-(2-methylpyridine), N'-(ptoluenesulfonyl)-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane ($PicTsN4$), N,N'-di-(2-methylpyridine)-2,11 $diaza[3.3](2.6)$ pyridinophane (^{Pic}N4), N,N²-ditoluensulfonyl-2,11-diaza[3.3]-2-pyridinophane-6bromobenzene (TsN3CBr) and N,N'-di-*tert*-butyl-2,11-diaza[3.3]-2-pyridinophane-6 hydridobenzene (^{tBu}N3CH) were synthesized according to a literature procedure.²⁸⁻³⁰ Other abbreviations used throughout the chapter 1,4,7-trimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane ($^{Me3}TACN$), 1toluensulfonyl-4,7-dimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane (TsMe2TACN), 2,2'-bipyridine (bpy), 4,4'-di*tert*-butyl-2,2′-dipyridyl (dtbbpy) and 1,10-phenanthroline (phen).

5.2.1 General Catalytic Procedure for Unactivated Alkanes

Chlorination. All solids (salt and ligand) were added together and evacuated/flushed with nitrogen three times. Then degassed solvent was added, followed by degassed substrate, acetic acid (AcOH) and sodium hypochlorite (NaOCl) (Scheme 5.1). The reaction was stirred vigorously, and the temperature/length of the reaction time varied and are shown in the reaction schemes. Before GC-MS work up, one equivalent of dodecane was added to the solution. For the work-up 1 mL of 14% perchloric acid was added and stirred for an additional 15 min. To this solution 3 mL of a saturated potassium carbonate solution was added. The solution was then extracted three times with 1 mL of diethyl ether and dried over potassium carbonate for 30 minutes. The solution was filtered and

the yield of product(s) was obtained by GC/FID using dodecane as the internal standard. The yield was then converted to turnover numbers (TON) relative to 1 mol% of catalytic loading. The identity of the products was confirmed by GC-MS. All the reactions where performed in duplicate.

Scheme 5.1. General reaction scheme for the chlorination of unactivated C–H bonds.

Bromination. 1 mol % of ^{TsMe}N4 and $Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O$ were added together and evacuated/flushed with nitrogen three times. Then degassed propionitrile (EtCN) was added, followed by three equivalents of degassed substrate and acetic acid. Lastly, a mixture of three equivalents of NaOCl and 3.3 equivalents of NaBr was added as the bromination source (Scheme 5.2). The reaction was stirred vigorously for 24 hours at 20 \degree C. Before GC-MS work up one equivalent of dodecane was added to the solution. For the work-up 1 mL of 14% perchloric acid was added and stirred for an additional 15 min. To this solution 3 mL of a saturated potassium carbonate solution was added. The solution was then extracted 3 times with 1 mL of diethyl ether and dried over potassium carbonate for 30 minutes. The solution was filtered and the yield of product(s) was obtained by GC/FID using dodecane as the internal standard. The yield was then converted to turnover number (TON) relative to 1 mol% of catalyst loading. The identity of the products was confirmed by GC-MS, and all the reactions where performed in duplicate.

Scheme 5.2. General reaction scheme for the bromination of unactivated C–H bonds.

$$
\frac{\text{TsMe}_\text{N4} \text{ (1 mol\%)}}{\text{Ni(NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \text{ (1 mol\%)}}
$$
\n
$$
\text{R-H} \quad \frac{\text{NaOBr and AcOH} \text{ (3 eq)}}{\text{EtCN, 20 °C, 4 hr, N}_2} \quad \text{R–Br}
$$

5.2.2 Kinetic Isotope Effect Procedures

KIE Procedure Using a Ni-mediated Chlorination. 1 mol % of ^{TsMe}N4 and Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O were added together and evacuated/flushed with nitrogen three times. Then degassed propionitrile (EtCN) was added, followed by 1.5 equivalents of degassed cyclohexane-d¹² and 1.5 equivalents of degassed cyclohexane. Lastly, three equivalents of AcOH and NaOCl were added. The reaction was stirred vigorously and monitored over the course of 24 hours at 20 $^{\circ}$ C. Before GC-MS work up one equivalent of dodecane was added to the solution. For the work-up 1 mL of 14% perchloric acid was added and stirred for an additional 15 min. To this solution 3 mL of a saturated potassium carbonate solution was added. The solution was then extracted 3 times with 1 mL of diethyl ether and dried over potassium carbonate for 30 minutes. The solution was filtered and the yield of product(s) was obtained by GC/FID using dodecane as the internal standard. The identity of the products was confirmed by GC-MS, and all the reactions where performed in duplicate.

KIE Procedure Using Radical Chlorination.

Solutions of thionyl chloride (1 eq) and bezoylperoxide (1 eq) in cyclohexane (0.5 eq) and cyclohexane-d₁₂ (0.5 eq) was heated at 90 °C and monitored over the course of several days. Before GC-MS work up one equivalent of dodecane was added to the solution. For the work-up 1 mL of 14% perchloric acid was added and stirred for an additional 15 min. To this solution 3 mL of a saturated potassium carbonate solution was added, make sure to add the base slowly because the
reaction is very acidic. The solution was then extracted 3 times with 1 mL of diethyl ether and dried over potassium carbonate for 30 minutes. The solution was filtered and the yield of product(s) was obtained by GC/FID using dodecane as the internal standard. The identity of the products was confirmed by GC-MS, and all the reactions where performed in duplicate.

5.2.3 Physical Measurements

GC-MS. GC-MS was carried out on an Agilent 7890B using a J&W HP-5ms GC column, (30 m, 0.25 mm, 0.25 μ m, 7 inch cage). Method used: hold at 60 °C for 2 min, ramp (20 °C/min) to 300 C for 5 min. Note when detecting substrates that have a lower boiling point, the initial temperature was lowered to 40 $^{\circ}$ C.

5.3 Results and Discussion

5.3.1 Optimization of the Catalytic Chlorination Reaction

Initial optimization for the conditions of alkyl chloride formation was performed with cyclohexane. A variety of parameters were tested and compared. Beginning with the solvents, the catalytic reaction was performed in a variety of solvents (Scheme 5.3). Only trace amounts of halogenated products were obtained when either alcohols, tetrahydrofuran or N,Ndimethylformamide were used as solvents (Table 5.1, entries 1-6). Switching to 1,2 difluorobenzene (DFB) or EtCN as a solvent (Table 5.1, entries 7 and 8) afforded a higher TON. Some other nitrile solvents and acetone were also tested (Table 5.1, entries 9-11) giving moderate yields. Propionitrile was used as the main solvent because it gave the highest TON and was cheaper then 1,2-difluorobenzene. Despite these advantages of propionitrile, it still caused some chlorination of the solvent to occur. 1,2-difluorobenzene was used when no conversion occurred in propionitrile.

Scheme 5.3 Optimization for a variety of solvents.

Entry Solvents Temperature $({}^{\circ}C)$ **TON^a A B C D 1** 2-butanol -30 1 ± 0 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 2 N,N-dimethylformamide -30 2 ± 1 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 **3** Tetrahydrofuran -70 5 ± 1 1 ± 1 1 ± 1 1 ± 1 **4** Ethanol -70 1 ± 2 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 **5** 2,2,2-trichloroethanol 20 1 ± 1 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 0 ± 0 **6** 2,2,2-trifluoroethanol -30 20 ± 3 4 ± 1 8 ± 1 2 ± 1 **7** 1,2-difluorobenzene -30 62 ± 3 1 ± 1 5 ± 1 1 ± 1 **8** Propionitrile -70 $70 \pm 2, 3 \pm 1, 7 \pm 1, 2 \pm 1$ **9** Acetonitrile -30 43 ± 2 3 ± 1 8 ± 1 2 ± 1 **10** Butyronitrile -70 42 ± 2 2 ± 1 5 ± 1 1 ± 1 **11** Acetone -70 50 ± 2 2 ± 1 5 ± 1 1 ± 1

Table 5.1 Optimization for a variety of solvents.

 \sqrt{a} TON = turnover number of chlorinated products.

After testing the solvents, a variety of parameters were compared, including reaction time, temperature and the amount of solvent used in the general catalytic chlorination reaction (Scheme 5.4). The catalytic reaction was monitored for several hours and after four hours the TON's didn't increase further (Table 5.2, entries 1-4). Different temperatures were used to produce varied results. The TON was lower when the reaction was performed at 20 $^{\circ}$ C as opposed to -70 $^{\circ}$ C, indicating that unproductive reaction pathways were occurring at higher temperatures (Table 5.2, entries 3 and 5-7). Another parameter we monitored was the amount of solvent used. When we

used less solvent, we also had to increase the temperature of the reaction, resulting in a lower yield. Using twice the amount of solvent decreased the concentration of the substrate and it became too dilute, resulting in more chlorinated solvent and a lower TON (Table 5.2, entries 3, 8 and 9).

Scheme 5.4 Optimization for different reaction conditions.

Entry	Solvent amount Temperature Time			TON ^a			
	(mL)	$(^{\circ}C)$	(hr)	A	B	C	D
	\overline{A}	-70	1	60 ± 2 2 ± 1 5 ± 1			$2 + 1$
$\mathbf{2}$	4	-70	2	67 ± 2 3 ± 1		6 ± 3	2 ± 1
3	4	-70	4	$70 \pm 2 \quad 3 \pm 1$		7 ± 1	2 ± 1
4	4	-70	24	71 ± 2 2 ± 1		9 ± 2	$2 + 1$
5	4	40	4	32 ± 2 2 ± 1 5 ± 2			2 ± 1
6		20	4	50 ± 2 3 ± 1		7 ± 1	$2 + 1$
7		-30	4	$59 + 3$	4 ± 1	$10 + 1$	$3 + 1$
8	2	-50	4	65 ± 2 4 \pm 1		11 ± 1	$3 + 1$
9	8	-70	4	$51 + 1$	2 ± 1	5 ± 1	$1 + 1$

Table 5.2 Optimization for different reaction conditions.

^aTON = turnover number of chlorinated products.

As shown in the general catalytic scheme below (Scheme 5.5), we also varied the catalyst loading, a combination of the ligand and the salt. Using a variety of catalysts loadings, the overall TON changed substantially. Lowering the catalytic loading resulted in the TON increasing up to 4300 when only 0.01 mol% of catalyst was added (Table 5.3). The TON dropped when we increased the catalytic loadings. We also performed a no-catalyst control where the reaction didn't proceed.

Scheme 5.5 Optimization of the catalyst loading.

Table 5.3 Optimization of the catalyst loading.

^aTON = turnover number of chlorinated products.

Optimization of the amount of substrate, oxidant and additive was tested next (Scheme 5.6). We used one equivalent of cyclohexane and observed that sodium hypochlorite and acetic acid gave a TON of 18 for monochlorocyclohexane plus a TON of 5 for dichlorinated cyclohexane, approximately a 4:1 ratio respectively (Table 5.4, entry 1). Increasing the amount of oxidant and acetic acid gave almost a racemic mixture but increasing the amount of substrate gave a 10:1 product ratio without increasing the amount of chlorinated product generated (Table 5.4, entry 2 and 3). Increasing all three parameters to three equivalents gave a higher yield with a product ratio of 6:1 (Table 5.4, entry 4). Changing oxidant to a crystallin bleach³¹ instead of a solution didn't increase the amount of TON, and the product ratio significantly dropped (Table 5.4, entry 5). Lastly no acetic acid was added as a control to see if this additive was necessary. In this case, the reaction doesn't proceed without acetic acid. We believe the importance of acetic acid is to help neutralize the reaction mixture, creating a suitable pH for the reaction to proceed (Table 5.4, entry

6).

Scheme 5.6 Substrate, oxidant and additive optimization.

Table 5.4 Amount of substrate, oxidant and additive optimization.

^aTON = turnover number of chlorinated products. ^bNaOCl·5H₂O (3 eq) was used in 0.4 mL ice water. ^c Product ratio of monochlorination vs dichlorination.

Finally, different ligands and salts were tested with the optimized reaction conditions (Scheme 5.7 and 5.8). Two control reactions were tested, one reaction with no ligand and the second with no salt (Table 5.5, entry 1 and Table 5.6, entry 1). Both reactions gave a negative response, showing that the salt and the ligand are needed for the catalytic reaction to work. A variety of ligands from the Mirica laboratory and commercially available ligands were tested. The ligand that showed the best ratio and the TON gave 70 chlorocyclohexane turnovers and 12 dichlorocyclohexane turnovers, with a respective ratio of 6:1 (Table 5.5, entry 2). Some other ligands gave higher TON but the ratio of monochlorinated product versus dichlorinated product was lower (Table 5.5, entry 8 and 9). The commercially available ligands (Table 5.5, entry 14-19) gave low to moderate TON.

Scheme 5.7 Ligand optimization.

Table 5.5 Ligand optimization.

 a^b TON = turnover number of chlorinated products. ^b 2 mol% of ligand was used.

A wide range of first and second row transition metals were tested (Table 5.6). Most salts gave moderate to high TON. Even metals such as zinc, which are less redox active than other metals, gave a high TON, indicating that the redox reactivity doesn't play an important role. The ratio of monochlorinated versus dichlorinated substrate were very similar in most cases, except when the TON drops (Table 5.6, entry 8, 17 and 21). The ratio between the two products increases, giving a higher selectivity towards the more monochlorinated substrate. The choice of the Ni salt (Table 5.6, entry 10) had a clear influence on the reaction performance giving a high TON and a good ratio between mono vs dichlorination.

Table 5.6 Metal salt Optimization.

^a TON = turnover number of chlorinated products.

Comparing Company and co-worker's system²⁵ with the one described here, there is an increase in TON from 44 to 70 with the new designed catalytic system and no oxygenated products are observed. The TON can be increased even further by lowering the catalytic loading allowing for high conversion of the cyclohexane substrate. Having the optimized procedure in hand we can now turn to several different types of substrates.

5.3.2 Substrate Scope

A wide range of unactivated alkanes was subjected to the optimized halogenation protocol. Different functional groups including cycloalkanes, alkanes and toluene were tested with the optimized protocol. When analyzing the cycloalkanes, we noticed that a larger ring size corresponded to a higher TON but a lower ratio of mono vs dichlorination (Table 5.7, entry 1-3). Although cyclohexane has a stronger bond dissociation energy than cyclopentane, a higher chlorination yield was obtained for the cyclohexane substrate (cyclopentane BDE = \sim 97 kcal/mol, (cyclohexane BDE = \sim 100 kcal/mol).²⁶ This wasn't the case when comparing cyclohexane vs cyclooctane, since we observed that cyclooctane gave a higher yield than cyclohexane (cyclooctane BDE = \sim 96 kcal/mol).⁹ When toluene was used as a substrate, the benzylic position was mainly chlorinated with only a small amount of dichlorination (Table 5.7, entry 4).

A variety of alkanes were tested as well. When hexane was used as the substrate, monochlorination mainly occurred to form the products 3-chlorohexane/2-chlorohexane and some 1-chlorohexane, and dichlorination was not observed (Table 5.7, entry 5),³² showing that secondary carbons chlorinate much easier than primary carbons. 2,2,3,3-tetramethylbutane was tested next due to its similarities to methane (Table 5.7, entry 6-8). Chlorination of this substrate occurred with 53 turnovers and no dichlorination is observed when using 1 mol% of catalyst. The

TON increased to 180 and 400 when the catalyst was lowered to 0.1 mol% and 0.01 mol% respectively, indicating that only small amounts of catalyst are needed for the reaction to proceed.

		TsMe _{N4} (1 mol%)	
		Ni(NO ₃) ₂ 6H ₂ O (1 mol%)	
	$R - H$	NaOCI and AcOH (3 eq) $-R-CI$ EtCN, -70 $^{\circ}$ C, 4 hr, N ₂	
Entry	Substrates	Products	TON^a
1		СI .CI СI	70, 12
$\mathbf 2$.CI СI ĊΙ	44, 4
3		-CI اC- СI CI	80, 15
4		СI СI	56, 7, 2
5		CI СI	45, 5
6 ^b			53
7 ^{b, c}			180
8 ^{b, d}		Ćl	400
9 ^b		CI- ,CI ςı	25, 20, 7, 5
10 ^b	4:96	이 人 СI ά	44, 23, <1
11 ^b		이 나 .CI	13, < 1
12 ^e		Br Br Br	20, 2
13 ^e		Br Br Вr	13, < 1
14^e		Br Br	12, < 1

Table 5.7 Substrate scope investigation.

^aTON = turnover number of chlorinated products. ^bDFB was used as solvent at -30 °C. ^c Catalyst loading was decreased to 0.1 mol%. ^d Catalyst loading was decreased to 0.01 mol%. ^e NaOBr, prepared by treatment of NaOCl with a slight excess of NaBr, was used as oxidant at 20 °C.

The following three substrates are gasses at 20 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ but at -70 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ they become liquids, so a known amount was added to the reaction mixture in 1,2-difluorobenzene because no reaction occurs in propionitrile (Table 5.7, entry 9-11). 2-Methylbutane was tested because it has primary, secondary and tertiary carbons to determine if the catalyst plays a significant role or if it is mostly radical chemistry. In the chlorination of 2-methylbutane with the catalyst, the reactivity ratio of the different hydrogen types is tertiary : secondary : primary $= 18.8:7.5:1$. If we look at radical chlorination of 2-methylbutane the selectivity ratio is 5:4:1, indicating the catalyst plays a significant role in the selectivity of the products.³³⁻³⁴

A mixture of isobutane and butane (96:4) was used for the catalytic chlorination reaction. The tertiary carbon of isobutane was chlorinated predominately which makes sense because tertiary carbons are the most reactive. Butane, which was also present in the reaction mixture, chlorinated predominantly at the secondary carbon. The selectivity of radical chemistry for butane is 3:7 ratio^{32, 35-37} of primary vs secondary carbons and when comparing this to how the catalyst performs primary secondary carbons get chlorinated. In this case the nickel catalyst plays a significant role in the formation of 2-chlorobutane predominately.

We also tested propane. For propane, mainly the primary C–H bonds were chlorinated, and the secondary C–H bond were chlorinated only in a trace amount. The theoretical calculation would be a 3:1 ratio of primary vs secondary carbons, and for radical chemistry at 25 \degree C an almost equimolar mixture was observed $(43:57)$.^{35-36, 38-41} This means that when the Ni catalyst is used, the product observation drastically changes when compared to a reaction performing pure radical chemistry. Using the Ni catalyst, primary 1-chloropropane with a trace amount of 2-chloropropane was observed. In general, the reactivity ratios for primary, secondary and tertiary carbon-hydrogen bonds are 1:3.8:5 for radical chlorination, indicating that the nickel catalyst plays a significant role in the selectivity of primary, secondary and tertiary carbon-hydrogen bond formation.³⁵⁻³⁶

Lastly, the bromination reaction was tested for three different substrates (Table 5.7, entry 12-14). Sodium hypobromite was prepared by a treatment of NaOCl with a slight excess of NaBr and the reaction was performed at 20 $^{\circ}$ C. For all three substrates the TON for bromination decreased but the reaction still occurs, and for all the substrates tested no oxygenated products were observed.

5.3.3 Kinetic Isotope Effect Determination

Preliminary studies were performed to determine the Kinetic Isotope Effect (KIE) for the chlorination reaction to observe if the reaction goes thru a radical mechanism or thru a different mechanism. KIE's were determined using an equimolar mixture of cyclohexane and cyclohexane d_{12} as the substrates.⁴²⁻⁴³ The KIE for the chlorination by the catalyst was found to be 1.9 ± 0.1 . By comparison, performing the chlorination using a known radical chlorination, a KIE of 1.0 ± 0.1 was obtained, ⁴⁰ indicating that there is a difference between radical chemistry and the Ni-mediated chlorination catalytic process.

There are two possible mechanisms for this new transformation which are outlined in schemes below (Scheme 5.9 and 5.10). While the details are yet to be elucidated, similar catalytic cycles have been described in the literature.^{2, 25, 44} In the first catalytic cycle the hypochlorite anion adds to the Ni^{II} starting material to generate a $Ni^{II}(OCI)$ intermediate (Scheme 5.9). The $Ni^{II}(OCI)$ loses Cl generating a Ni^{IV}(=O) intermediate and rebinding of the chlorine produces a Ni^{IV}(=O)Cl species, which can also be written as a $Ni^{III}(O^{\bullet})Cl$ species. This intermediate undergoes a hydrogen atom abstraction (HAA) to generate a $Ni^{III}(OH)Cl$ intermediate which then helps produce the

chlorinated product. In the final step the Ni^{II}(OH) intermediate gets protonated and loses water to regenerate the starting Ni^{II} complex.

Scheme 5.9 Proposed C–H chlorination mechanism.

For the second proposed catalytic cycle the Ni^{II} undergoes an oxidative addition to form a $Ni^{IV}(OH)Cl$ intermediate (Scheme 5.10). From the Ni^{IV} intermediate, a hydrogen atom abstraction is performed to generate a $Ni^{III}Cl$ intermediate. Lastly, for the product forming step we suggest a chlorine atom transfer from the Ni^{III}Cl complex to the carbon radical center and regeneration of the Ni^{II} starting complex. When looking at the second step in this mechanism the OH group is cis to the Cl group which might explain why we only see chlorination and no hydroxylation.

Scheme 5.9 Alternative C–H chlorination mechanism.

5.4 Conclusion

A catalytic method for unactivated alkane bonds using sodium hypohalites was presented. The results demonstrate a high TON and a good selectivity of mono vs di-chlorination. The substrates have strong C–H bonds, such as cyclohexane (BDE = \sim 100 kcal/mol), which might indicate that in the future, methane could be chlorinated (BDE $=$ \sim 104 kcal/mol). For all substrates tested, no oxygenated products were observed. The halogenation agents are as simple as sodium hypochlorite or hypobromite which are readily available commercially. Substrates similar to methane were also tested such as 2,2,3,3-tetramethylbutane and gasses such as propane and isobutane/butane and 2-methylbutane. Using 2-methylbutane as a substrate provided a direct comparison of primary, secondary and tertiary carbons, by comparing the ratios of products observed. The result indicated that we were not observing radical chemistry and that the catalyst was helping the selectivity of the products. The KIE determinations showed a significant difference in radical vs non-radical chemistry. Further exploration of this catalytic halogenation reaction will focus on light alkane activation and using a chiral substrate and catalyst one could probe enantioselective transformations.

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Chapter 6

Catalytic Hydroxylation Studies using *m***CPBA as the Oxidant**

6.1 Introduction

In nature, a variety of biologically essential transformations are catalyzed by iron containing enzymes such as methane monooxygenases, cytochrome P450 and bleomycin. In particular, the soluble methane monooxygenases are widely investigated metalloenzymes that catalyze the oxidation of methane to methanol using dioxygen.¹⁻¹¹ These enzymes inspired us to put significant efforts into reproducing the functional aspect of the non-heme diiron enzymes by designing model complexes that catalyzed unique selective chemical transformations such as methane oxidation using dioxygen or peroxide. The conventional hydroxylation processes usually require high temperatures and high pressures, and will give only a mixture of alcohol and aldehyde/ketone as the over-oxidized product. In recent years, catalytic oxidation of saturated hydrocarbons under mild conditions has become an exciting and challenging scientific goal and has received greater attention.¹²⁻¹⁶ Although iron complexes are considered to be one of the most promising catalysts for this transformation, a variety of metal-based homogeneous catalysts have been reported by replacing iron with different transition metals such as Mn, Co, Cu, Ru and Os.¹⁷⁻ ³⁰ The recent development of the nickel dioxygen complexes, which exhibit hydrogen abstraction from aliphatic carbon atoms in a similar manner to the high-valent iron and copper complexes, ³¹⁻ 37 indicates the ability of nickel complexes to act as the oxidizing agents.

Additional challenges are encountered in enantioselective C-H oxidations.³⁸⁻³⁹ Firstly, facile overoxidation of secondary alcohols with respect to the C–H precursor usually eliminates the chirality. Secondly, reagents that are both chiral and are capable of oxygenating aliphatic C-H bonds thru mechanisms that induce enantioselectivity are scarce. Instead, enantioselective C-H oxidation is common in enzymes, where the combination of subtle interaction in the active site helps substrate orientation and the formation of the oxidized product. Not surprisingly, example

of enantioselective sp^3 C–H oxidation with nonenzymatic systems are rare and limited to relatively weak C–H bonds.⁴⁰⁻⁴⁹

Herein we describe the development of a catalytic hydroxylation reaction using *m*CPBA as the oxidant. We aim to construct more efficient and alcohol selective catalysts for alkane hydroxylation. A reaction protocol for the oxidation of cyclohexane and later for *tert*butylcyclohexane was described using a catalytic amount of ligand and salt to form hydroxylated products and limiting overoxidized products.

6.2 Experimental Section

Reagents and Materials. All chemicals were available from Aldrich or Fisher and were used as received without further purification. Solvents were purified prior to use by passing through a column of activated alumina using an MBraun solvent purification system. 1,2-difluorobenzene were distilled and freeze-pump thawed before use. The ligands N,N'-dimethyl-2,11 $diaza[3.3](2,6)$ pyridinophane (MeN4), N-(p-toluenesulfonyl),N'-(methyl)-2,11 $diaza[3.3](2,6)$ pyridinophane (^{TsMe}N4), N,N'-ditoluensulfonyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{Ts}N4), N,N'-di-tert-butyl-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{tBu}N4), N-(2-methylpyridine),N'-(methyl)-2,11-diaza $[3.3](2,6)$ pyridinophane (^{PicMe}N4), $N-(2-methylpyridine)$, N' -(ptoluenesulfonyl)-2,11-diaza[3.3](2,6)pyridinophane (^{PicTs}N4), N,N'-di-(2-methylpyridine)-2,11 $diaza[3.3](2,6)$ pyridinophane ($P^{\text{ic}}N4$), and N , $N^{\text{-}}di-(R,S)-1$ -phenylethyl)-2,11-diaza $[3.3]-2$ pyridinophane-6-hydridobenzene (racPEN3CH) were synthesized according to a literature procedure.50-52 Other abbreviations used throughout the chapter meta-chloroperoxybenzoic acid (*m*CPBA) 1,4,7-trimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane (^{Me3}TACN) and 1-toluensulfonyl-4,7-dimethyl-1,4,7-triazacyclonane (^{TsMe2}TACN).

6.2.1 General Catalytic Procedure for Unactivated Alkanes

Hydroxylation. All solids (salt, ligand and oxidant) were added together and evacuated/flushed with nitrogen three times. Then degassed solvent was added (0.5 mol/L), followed by degassed substrate. The reaction was stirred vigorously, and the temperature/length of the reaction time varies as shown in the reaction schemes. Before GC-MS work up, one equivalent of dodecane was added to the solution. For the work-up 1 mL of 14% perchloric acid was added and stirred for an additional 15 min. To this solution 3 mL of a saturated potassium carbonate solution was added. The solution was then extracted three times with 1 mL of diethyl ether and dried over potassium carbonate for 30 minutes. The solution was filtered and the yield of product(s) were obtained by GC/FID using dodecane as the internal standard. The identity of the products was confirmed by GC-MS. All the reactions were performed in duplicate.

Catalyst. A solution of Ni(ClO₄)₂·6H₂O in methanol (1 mL) and a solution of ligand in methanol (1 mL) were added together. The reaction was stirred at 20 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 minutes and the solution turns pink. Then acetonitrile (1.5 mL) was added and stirred for another 30 minutes at 20 °C. Next a solution of NaBPh4 was added and pink solid crashed out. The solid was filtered and washed with cold methanol and dried for a day on the schlenk line.³⁵

6.2.2 Physical Measurements

GC-MS. GC-MS was carried out on an Agilent 7890B using a J&W HP-5ms GC column, (30 m, 0.25 mm, 0.25 μ m, 7 inch cage). Method used: hold at 60 °C for 2 min, ramp (20 °C/min) to 300 C for 5 min. Note when detecting substrates that have a lower boiling point, the initial temperature was lowered to 40 $^{\circ}$ C.

6.3 Results and Discussion

6.3.1 Optimization of the Catalytic Hydroxylation Reaction

Initial hydroxylation studies were performed on cyclohexane, and a variety of parameters were tested and compared with each other. The first parameter was solvent. The catalytic reaction was performed in a variety of solvents (Scheme 6.1).

Scheme 6.1 Optimization for a variety of solvents.

All the solvents tested performed similarly (Table 6.1, entry 1-5). Although small adjustments and a mixture of dichloromethane and acetonitrile (3:1) gave the best conversion for hydroxylated product, it wasn't the highest yield. The reaction was completed in four hours, so there was no need to let the reaction run for 24 hours (Table 6.1, entry 5-6). Next the catalytic loading was increased to observe any changes in hydroxylated product formation. Using a higher catalytic loading decreased the hydroxylated product formation to only 7% (Table 6.1, entry 7). Next the oxidant was changed to hydrogen peroxide instead of *m*CPBA (Table 6.1, entry 8). Observations show that almost no conversion was detected using hydrogen peroxide as the oxidant, which differs from Costas and co-workers who performed the catalytic reaction with H_2O_2 using a manganese catalyst resulting in up to 85% ketone formation.³⁹ Lastly, the catalyst was premade and then used in the oxidation reaction, instead of forming the catalyst *in situ* (Table 6.1, entry 9). The pre-made catalyst has an octahedral geometry with two MeCN molecules and the

multidentate ligand attached to the nickel center (Appendix G). Results show that similar conversions were obtained when using the pre-made catalyst vs. forming the catalyst *in situ*. From these results, we decided to always make the catalyst in-situ instead of pre-making the catalyst.

Entry	Solvents	Time		Yields ^a $(\%)$		
		(hr)	A	B	C	D
	Acetonitrile	24	$27 + 3$	4 ± 1	4 ± 1	$4 + 1$
$\overline{2}$	Dichloroethane	24	20 ± 2 2 ± 1		3 ± 1	$3 + 1$
3	Dichloromethane: acetonitrile (3:1)	24	$24 + 3$	1 ± 1	3 ± 1	$4 + 1$
4	1,2-diflourobenzene	24	19 ± 2 2 ± 1		2 ± 1	$5 + 1$
5	Dichloromethane: acetonitrile (3:1)		$15 + 2$	1 ± 1	1 ± 1	$2 + 1$
6	Dichloromethane: acetonitrile (3:1)	4	25 ± 2 1 ± 1		3 ± 1	$3 + 1$
7	Dichloromethane: acetonitrile $(3:1)^b$	\overline{A}	$7 + 2$	$1 + 1$	1 ± 1	$1 + 1$
8	Dichloromethane: acetonitrile $(3:1)^c$	$\overline{4}$	$2 + 2$	$1 + 1$	$1 + 1$	$1 + 1$
9	Dichloromethane: acetonitrile $(3:1)^d$	$\overline{4}$	$20 + 2$	$2 + 1$	$2 + 1$	$3 + 1$

Table **6.1** Optimization for a variety of solvents.

^aYield based on one equivalent of internal standard, yield determined by GC-MS FID. ^b 1 mol% ligand and Ni salt. ^c H2O² was used as the oxidant instead of *m*CPBA. ^d using a pre-made catalyst instead of adding everything in-situ.

After testing a variety of parameters, we tested different ligands with the optimized reaction conditions (Scheme 6.2). The first two control reactions were performed containing one without ligand and one without nickel salt. The results indicate that both the ligand and salt are needed for the reaction to proceed (Table 6.2, entry 1-2). A variety of pyridinophane ligands were tested (Table 6.2, entry 3-9), and most of these ligands gave between 21-31% of hydroxylated product. Some outliers were detected which didn't give any conversion at all (table 6.2, entry 8-9). The next couple of ligands are TACN-type ligands, which were tested using 0.1 mol% and 0.2 mol% of ligand. The results produced gave negative results, giving no hydroxylated product (Table 6.2, entry 10-13). Lastly a chiral N3CH ligand was tested, which gave 5% hydroxylated product (Table 6.2, entry 14). This indicates that N4-type ligands perform the best in these hydroxylation studies,

also when looking at the selectivity of the products we get relatively high selectivity for alcohol vs. ketone formation, in comparison to Palaniandavar and co-workers. 34-35

Scheme 6.2 Optimization for a variety of ligands.

Table 6.2 Optimization for a variety of ligands.

			Yields ^a $(\%)$				
Entry	Ligand	A	B	C	D		
$\mathbf{1}$	No ligand	2 ± 1	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0 ± 0		
$\overline{2}$	TsMe _{N4b}	3 ± 1	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	0 ± 0		
3	TsMe _{N4}	31 ± 2	4 ± 1	5 ± 1	5 ± 1		
4	tBuN4c	30 ± 2	1 ± 1	2 ± 1	3 ± 1		
5	Me N4	$21 + 2$	1 ± 1	6 ± 1	3 ± 1		
6	TsN4c	21 ± 1	1 ± 1	4 ± 1	3 ± 1		
7	PicMe _{N4}	25 ± 2	1 ± 1	3 ± 1	3 ± 1		
8	PicTs _{N4}	1 ± 1	0 ± 0	3 ± 0	0 ± 0		
9	Pic ² N4	2 ± 1	1 ± 1	0 ± 0	1 ± 1		
10	Me3TACN	2 ± 1	1 ± 1	3 ± 1	1 ± 1		
11	Me3TACN ^d	$1 + 1$	0 ± 0	3 ± 1	1 ± 1		
12	TsMe2TACN	1 ± 1	$1 + 1$	1 ± 1	0 ± 0		
13	TsMe2TACN ^d	1 ± 1	1 ± 1	2 ± 1	1 ± 1		
14	racPEN3CH	5 ± 1	1 ± 1	1 ± 1	2 ± 1		

^a Yield based on one equivalent of internal standard, yield determined by GC-MS FID. ^b No nickel salt. ^c solvent was changed to MeCN. ^d0.2 mol% of ligand was used.

6.3.2 Hydroxylation of *tert***-Butylcyclohexane**

The next substrate of focus is *tert*-butylcyclohexane which was used to test potential enantioselective oxidation with *m*CPBA (Scheme 6.3). We decided to first use the N4-type ligands

because of the promising results shown above. Standard conditions involved a solvent mixture of dichloromethane and acetonitrile $(3:1)$ at 40 °C under nitrogen. The pyridinophane ligands showed promising results (Table 6.3, entry 1-5). The results show that we obtain a mixture of cis and trans 4-*tert*-butylcyclohexanol, 3*-tert*-butylcyclohexanol and 5-(*tert*-butyl)oxepan-2-one. We were not able to determine whether 3-*tert*-butylcyclohexanol was cis or trans. Contrasting to this, we were able to observe both cis and trans 4-*tert*-butylcyclohexanol, with a slight increase of observed trans over cis version. trans-4-*tert*-butlcyclohexanol is more stable due to the substituents existing in the equatorial positions resulting in less steric hindrance. PicMeN4 ligand showed almost full selectively towards 3-*tert*-butylcyclohexanol (Table 6.3, entry 5). Lastly, we did test on chiral pyridinophanetype ligand, , in which case 5% of 3-*tert*-burylcyclohexanol was obtained. Ongoing work in the Mirica laboratory is focusing on the synthesis of chiral N4 ligands to be employed in enantioselective transformations.

Scheme 6.3 Oxidation of *tert*-butylcyclohexane with *m*CPBA.

Table 6.3 Oxidation of *tert*-butylcyclohexane with *m*CPBA.

^aYield based on one equivalent of internal standard, yield determined by GC-MS FID. ^b The ligand is chiral.

6.4 Conclusion

In conclusion we described a catalytic hydroxylation reaction using *m*CPBA as the oxidant. The initial optimization was performed on cyclohexane and then later tested on *tert*butylcyclohexane. The nickel complexes made in-situ adapts most likely an octahedral coordination geometry around the nickel center to catalyze the hydroxylation of the alkanes. We believe this because an X-ray quality crystal was obtained when pre-making the catalyst, showing two acetonitrile's and the pyridinophane binding to the nickel center. The observed variation in alcohol selectivity for *tert*-butyl-cyclohexane oxidation suggest the involvement of a metal-based oxidant rather than a freely diffusing radical in the reaction. The proposed mechanism of the Ni catalyzed alkane oxidation involves *m*CPBA binding to the Ni^{II} center, by replacing an acetonitrile molecule. Next homolytic or heterolytic O–O bond cleavage of mCPBA generated the Ni^{III}–O(H) or $Ni^{IV}-O(H)$ intermediate and lastly oxidation of the alkane occurs by the intermediate. A more detailed mechanistic study would need to be performed to investigate the mechanism of the catalytic oxidation of the alkanes with *m*CPBA.

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Chapter 7

Future Directions
7.1 A New (TsMe2TACN)NiMe² Complex and its Reactivity

In chapter 2, Ni-dimethyl complexes were introduced, and in chapter 4 a new TACN ligand was introduced. By combining both aspects, a new complex was created to test the C–C and C– heteroatom bond formation (Scheme 7.1). Preliminary studies were performed on complex **1**.

Scheme 7.1 Synthesis of (^{TsMe2}TACN)NiMe₂ complexes.

The light orange complex (TsMe2TACN)NiMe2, **1,** was prepared in a 10% yield from the precursor $({}^{TsMe2}TACN)NiCl₂ via transmetalation with methylmagnesium chloride. Complex 1, was$ very unstable and decomposed rapidly at room temperature, especially in solution. The cyclic voltammetry (CV) of 1 exhibits an oxidation at -310 mV and 620 mV vs Fc^+/Fc which are tentatively assigned to the $Ni^{III/II}$ and $Ni^{IV/III}$ oxidation peak (Figure 7.1).

Complex **1** can easily be oxidized with one equivalent of acetylferrocenium tetrafluoroborate (Ac FcBF₄) in tetrahydrofuran at -50 °C to obtain $[({}^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{III}Me2]BF_4$, 1⁺. The EPR spectrum of complex **1 ⁺** exhibits an inverse axial spectrum in a solvent mixture containing THF and methyl-THF, indicating that $g_x = g_y < g_z$ (Figure 7.2). The Ni^{III} complex is very short lived and decays within ten seconds at room temperature.

Figure 7.1 CV of 1 in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT (100 mV/s scan rate). Redox potentials: $E_{\text{ONI}} = -330$ mV and $E_{\text{Ni}^{\text{IVM}}} = 620$ mV.

Figure 7.2 Experimental (1:3 THF:MeTHF, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of **1 ⁺** using the following parameters: $g_x = 2.070$, $g_y = 2.055$, $g_z = 2.274$.

The organometallic reactivity of complex **1** was investigated. The reductive elimination of complex 1 was observed upon oxidation with one equivalent of Ac FcBF₄ in CD₃CN, and the product formation was monitored via ¹H NMR. The reaction was monitored over the course of 24 hours; after analyzing the data, we determined that the reaction was finished in one hour with an

observed 50% ethane formation and almost no methane formation (Scheme 7.2). Addition of two equivalents of ${}^{Ac}FcBF_4$ showed an even faster reductive elimination, reacting completely in 30 minutes with a slight increase in ethane yield and a decrease in methane formation. These reactions were performed at -20 \degree C due to the fast decomposition of the starting material. Future studies will need to be performed on C-heteroatom bond formation, one example of which is dioxygen and hydrogen peroxide for any C–O bond formations or with 1-Fluoro-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium triflate, 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate, or xenon difluoride for any C–F or C-CF₃ bond formation reactivity.¹ Also, a detailed mechanistic study will need to be performed for these transformations, especially since (TACN)NiMe₂ complexes have not been synthesized previously.

Scheme 7.2 C–C bond formation reactivity of the $({}^{\text{TsMe2}}\text{TACN})$ Ni^{II}Me₂ complex with ^{Ac}FcBF₄.

 $({}^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{||}Me_2 \xrightarrow{1 \text{ hr, } -20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}} CH_3-CH_3 + CH_3+CH_3 + CH_3-H/D$
 $50 \pm 2 \% \xrightarrow{6} 4 \pm 1 \%$
 $50 \pm 2 \% \xrightarrow{6} 4 \pm 1 \%$

7.2 A New (iPr3TACN)Ni(cycloneophyl) Complex

In chapter 4 we saw a variety of triazacyclononane ligands that were able to stabilize highvalent nickel complexes, and we observed C‒C and C‒O bond formation. We were able to show that adding a slightly larger group on the axial amine can increase the reactivity. Preliminary studies are shown here for the characterization of $({}^{iPr3}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycleloopophyl)$, 2, and (iPr3TACN)NiII(cycloneophyl), **2 +** (Scheme 7.3). Complex **2** was synthesized through a ligand exchange reaction.²⁻³ The X-ray structure shows a square planer geometry for complex 2 (Figure 7.3). The CV of complex **2** exhibits two oxidation potentials one at -310 mV and one at 620 mV vs Fc⁺/Fc (Figure 7.3), which are tentatively assigned to the Ni^{III/II} and Ni^{IV/III} oxidation peak.

Scheme 7.3 Synthesis of ($PⁱTACN$)Ni(cycloneophyl) complexes.

Figure 7.3 ORTEP representation of **2** (left) with 50% probability thermal ellipsoids. Selected bond distances (Å), **2**: Ni1-C1, 1.933; Ni1-C2, 1.919; Ni1-N1, 2.102; Ni1-N2, 2.098, and CV of **2** (right) 0.1 M *n*Bu₄NPF₆/ MeCN at RT (100 mV/s scan rate). Redox potentials: $E_{(Ni^{III})} = -450$ mV and $E_{(Ni^{IVIII})} = -10$ mV vs. Fc/Fc^+ .

Complex **2** can easily be oxidized with one equivalent of ferrocenium hexafluorophosphate (FcPF₆) in tetrahydrofuran at -50 °C to obtain complex 2^+ . The EPR spectrum of complex 2^+ was taken in two different solvent mixtures with the first being a mixture of THF and methyl-THF (Figure 7.4). The EPR spectrum shows a rhombic signal with triplet in the gz. The superhyperfine coupling observed in the g_z direction is due to one axial amine arm binding to the Ni^{III} center with 16.5 gauss. The EPR spectrum looks very similar to the $(^{Me3}TACN)Ni^H(cycloneophyl)$ except for some impurities that we suspect is a hydroxylated species. We have derived this conclusion based

on similar observations made by Mirica and co-workers in 2016.⁴ The second spectrum was taken in a mixture of acetonitrile and butyronitrile. The EPR spectrum shows an axial signal with a quintet in the g_z direction due to two nitrogens binding (17 G each). The first nitrogen is from the axial amine arm and the second is from acetonitrile giving a much cleaner spectrum than in the tetrahydrofuran solvent mixture.

Figure 7.4 Experimental (1:3 THF:MeTHF, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of **2 ⁺** using the following parameters (left): $g_x = 2.353$, $g_y = 2.297$, $g_z = 2.007$ (A_z (N) = 16.5 G) and experimental (1:3 MeCN:PrCN, 77K) and simulated EPR spectra of 2^+ using the following parameters (right): $g_x = 2.353$, $g_y = 2.297$, $g_z =$ 2.007 (A_z (2N) = 17.0 G).

Future studies will focus of the C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation from the Ni^{II} . Ni^{III} and possibly the Ni^{IV} complexes and propose a mechanism. Another option is to synthesize the dimethyl complex and test the C–C and C–heteroatom bond formation.

7.3 Reductive Dimerization of Alkyl Halides

In chapter 5 we were able to make alkyl halides through the chlorination of bleach and a catalytic amount of catalyst. Using the alkyl halide, we now wanted to couple two of these

substrates Methods for the mild, direct dimerization of carbonyls (pinacol coupling), and aryl halides (Ullmann reaction) are available, yet a general, mild method for the direct dimerization of alkyl halides has been limited.⁵⁻¹² Successful sp³-carbon-to-sp³-carbon coupling are generally limited to halides that are activated towards oxidative addition, and lack β -hydrogen atoms (for example, allylic and benzylic chlorides).¹³⁻¹⁴ There have been recent reports about the coupling of unactivated alkyl halides with alkyl organometallics under mild conditions using highly reactive palladium and nickel catalyst.15-16 Using a published protocol for the coupling of alkyl halides by Weix and co-workers,¹² we were able to perform a control reaction with 1-chlorooctane resulting in a 95% product yield (Table 7.1). Using a smaller alkyl chain or chlorocyclohexane, we observe a significant drop in yield. Further optimization needs to be performed to increase the yields. Our ideas for optimization include changing from a manganese metal to a zinc metal, using alkyl bromides instead of alkyl chlorides, and using a solvent mixture of tetrahydrofuran and N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) instead of N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF). With regards to the change in solvent mixtures, we aren't sure how much more optimized it can get because a large amount of solvents has already been tested by Weix and co-workers.¹¹⁻¹²

$R - C I$	3 mol % (DME)NiCl ₂ 3 mol % terpyridine 0.5 eq Nal, 1 eq Mn DMF, 80 °C, 36hr	$R - R$
Substrate	Product	Yield (%)
1-Chlorooctane	Hexadecane	95
1-Chlorobutane	Octane	10
		12

Table 7.1 Reductive dimerization of alkyl halides substrate scope.

7.4 References

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Appendix A

Select NMR Spectra of Ligands and Metal Complexes

Figure A1. ¹H NMR spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{I}Me_2$ in THF-d₈ (300 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈, THF and pentane).

Figure A2. APT spectrum of $(TsMeN4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈ and THF).

Figure A3. ²H NMR spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^H(CD₃)₂$ in MeCN with benzene-d₆ as standard (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (benzene-d₆ and MeCN).

Figure A4. ¹H NMR spectrum of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈, THF and diethyl ether).

Figure A5. ¹³C NMR spectrum of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{H}Me_2$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈).

Figure A6. ¹H NMR spectrum of (^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in MeCN-d₃ (300 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (MeCN-d³ and diethyl ether).

Figure A7. ¹H NMR spectrum of (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (600 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d8, THF and pentane).

Figure A8. ¹³C NMR spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^H(cycloneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (600 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈, THF and pentane).

Figure A9. ¹H-¹H gCOSY spectrum of $({}^{\text{TsMe}}N4)Ni^{\text{II}}$ (cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (600 MHz).

Figure A10. ¹H-¹H TOXY spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^H(cycleoneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (600 MHz).

Figure A11. ¹H-¹H NOESY spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cyclonecophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (600 MHz).

Figure A12. ¹H-¹³C HSQC spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^H(cycloneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (600 MHz).

Figure A13. ¹H-¹³C HMBC spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cyclonecophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (600 MHz).

Figure A14. ¹H NMR spectrum of (^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈ and pentane).

Figure A15. APT spectrum of (^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF- d_8 and pentane).

Figure A16. ¹H-¹H gCOSY spectrum of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(cycleloopbyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A17. ¹H-¹H TOXY spectrum of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^H(cycleloneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A18. ¹H-¹³C HSQC spectrum of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A19. ¹H-¹³C HMBC spectrum of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(cycleloopbyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A20. ¹H NMR spectrum of (^{tBu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈).

Figure A21. APT spectrum of (^{tBu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (THF-d₈).

Figure A22. ¹H-¹H gCOSY spectrum of $(^{IBu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycleoneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A23. ¹H-¹H TOXY spectrum of $(^{Bu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A24. ¹H-¹³C HSQC spectrum of $(^{Bu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A25. ¹H-¹³C HMBC spectrum of $(^{IBu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycleoneophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A26. ¹H NMR spectrum of $^{TsMe2}TACN$ in THF-d $_8$ (500 MHz).

Figure A27. APT spectrum of ^{TsMe2}TACN in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A28. ¹H NMR spectrum of $({}^{\text{TsMe2}}\text{TACN})$ Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A29. APT spectrum of (^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A30. ¹H-¹H gCOSY spectrum of (^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A31. ¹H-¹H TOXY spectrum of $({}^{\text{TsMe2}}TACN)Ni^{II}$ (cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A32. ¹H-¹³C HMBC spectrum of $(^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cyclonecophyl)$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A33. ¹H NMR spectrum of $iPrMe2TACN$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A34. APT spectrum of $iPrMe2TACN$ in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A35. ¹H NMR spectrum of $($ ^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A36. APT spectrum of ($i^{PrMe2}TACN$)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A37. ¹H-¹H gCOSY spectrum of (^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A38. ¹H-¹H TOXY spectrum of $($ ^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Figure A39. ¹H-¹³C HMBC spectrum of (^{iPrMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in THF-d₈ (500 MHz).

Appendix B

Select Cyclic Voltammetry (CV) Spectra

Figure B1. CVs of (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂ in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Figure B2. CVs of (^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂ in 0.1 M *n*Bu₄NPF₆/MeCN at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Figure B3. CVs of (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Figure B4. CVs of (^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Figure B5. CVs of (^{tBu}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Figure B6. CVs of (iPrMe²TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Figure B7. CVs of (^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Figure B8. CVs of (^{iPr3}TACN)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl) in 0.1 M $nBu_4NPF_6/MeCN$ at RT, at 100 mV/s scan rate (left) and variable scan rates (right).

Appendix C

Select Ultraviolet-Visible Spectroscopy (UV-Vis) Spectra

Figure C1. UV-visible spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ in THF $(3.125*10⁻⁵ M)$.

Figure C2. UV-visible spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}$ (cycloneophyl) in THF (1.25*10⁻⁴ M).

Figure C3. UV-visible spectrum of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{III}(cycloneophyl)$ in THF $(6.25*10⁻⁵ M)$.

Appendix D

Supplemental Reactivity Data

Reactivity of (^RN4)NiIIMe² with AcFcBF⁴

Table D1. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{I}Me_2$ with one equivalent of ^{Ac}FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	25 ± 3	3 ± 1
	34 ± 2	6 ± 1
2	41 ± 3	$7 + 2$
4	60 ± 1	10 ± 2
8	67 ± 1	11 ± 2
24	72 ± 2	$9 + 1$

Table D2. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(MeN4)Ni^HMe₂$ with two equivalents of $^{Ac}FcBF₄$ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	88 ± 1	1 ± 1
	87 ± 2	1 ± 1
2	89 ± 1	$2 + 1$
	86 ± 3	1 ± 2
8	85 ± 1	3 ± 2
24	85 ± 2	$1 + 1$

Table D3. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $({}^{\text{TsMe}}N4)Ni^{\text{II}}Me_2$ with one equivalent of ${}^{\text{Ac}}$ FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3-H/D $(\%)$
0.25	71 ± 1	2 ± 1
0.5	75 ± 1	2 ± 1
1	77 ± 2	3 ± 1
2	80 ± 3	3 ± 2
	80 ± 4	2 ± 2
8	79 ± 2	3 ± 1
24	$81 + 1$	$1 + 1$

Table D4. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{I I}Me_2$ with two equivalents of ^{Ac}FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Table D5. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $({}^{T_s}N4)N_i{}^{I}Me_2$ with one equivalent of ${}^{Ac}FcBF_4$ in MeCN-d₃ at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	40 ± 1	0 ± 0
	45 ± 1	0 ± 0
2	51 ± 2	0 ± 0
	49 ± 1	0 ± 0
8	$51 + 1$	0 ± 0
2Δ	49 + 2	$1 + 1$

Table D6. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{H}Me₂$ with two equivalents of $^{Ac}FcBF₄$ in MeCN-d₃ at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	43 ± 1	$2 + 1$
	50 ± 1	4 ± 1
2	$47 + 2$	3 ± 1
	49 ± 1	$4 + 1$
х	50 ± 1	2 ± 1
24	$49 + 2$	$4 + 1$

Table D7. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with one equivalent of ^{Ac}FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Table D8. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{TsMe2}TACN)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with two equivalents of ^{Ac}FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3-H/D $(\%)$
0.5	55 ± 1	$1 + 1$
	56 ± 1	$1 + 1$
2	54 ± 2	$1 + 1$
	56 ± 1	$1 + 1$
8	55 ± 1	$1 + 1$
24	55 ± 2	$1 + 1$

Reactivity of (^RN4)NiIIMe² with O²

Table D9. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with O₂ bubbled through a solution of MeCN-d₃ for 5 min at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	27 ± 3	26 ± 3
	28 ± 1	$25 + 1$
2	30 ± 2	29 ± 2
4	35 ± 2	35 ± 3
8	41 ± 1	42 ± 2
24	$41 + 2$	$41 + 1$

Table D10. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $({}^{\text{TsMe}}N4)Ni^{\text{II}}Me_2$ with O_2 bubbled through a solution of MeCN-d₃ for 5 min at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	34 ± 1	10 ± 2
1	39 ± 2	15 ± 3
2	43 ± 2	17 ± 2
	47 ± 3	19 ± 2
8	48 ± 1	20 ± 1
24	53 ± 4	19 ± 3

Table D11. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with O₂ bubbled through a solution of MeCN-d₃ for 5 min at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Reactivity of (^RN4)NiIIMe² with H2O²

Table D12. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with five equivalents of $H₂O₂$ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	$41 + 2$	5 ± 2
	54 ± 3	6 ± 2
2	59 ± 2	$7 + 1$
	65 ± 1	$8 + 2$
8	69 ± 3	$7 + 2$
24	70 ± 2	$7 + 1$

Table D13. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{I}Me_2$ with five equivalents of H_2O_2 in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	54 ± 2	10 ± 2
	61 ± 2	16 ± 1
2	65 ± 2	13 ± 2
	68 ± 1	13 ± 2
8	70 ± 1	13 ± 1
24	$72 + 2$	$11 + 2$

Table D14. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ with five equivalents of H_2O_2 in MeCNd₃ at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

	Reactivity of (RN4)Ni ^{II} Me ₂ with 1-Fluoro-2,4,6-trimethylpyridinium triflate (NFTPT)		
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Table D15. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with three equivalents of NFTPT in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
$0.5\,$	37 ± 2	5 ± 2
	40 ± 1	6 ± 2
2	45 ± 2	$7 + 1$
5	49 ± 3	$9 + 2$
8	48 ± 1	8 ± 2
24	49 + 2	$9 + 1$

Table D16. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{I I}Me₂$ with three equivalents of NFTPT in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	$CH_3-CH_3(\%)$	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	84 ± 2	5 ± 1
	84 ± 2	6 ± 1
2	87 ± 1	6 ± 1
	$87 + 1$	6 ± 2
8	85 ± 3	5 ± 3
24	$87 + 1$	$5 + 2$

Table D17. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with three equivalents of NFTPT in MeCN-d₃ at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Reactivity of (^RN4)NiIIMe² with PhI(OAc)²

Table D18. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with one equivalent of PhI(OAc)₂ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.5	54 ± 1	$9 + 1$
	58 ± 3	$11 + 2$
2	60 ± 1	10 ± 2
4	68 ± 2	$12 + 1$
8	74 ± 2	$11 + 1$
24	$75 + 1$	$12 + 2$

Table D19. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with one equivalent of PhI(OAc)₂ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.25	66 ± 2	10 ± 1
	$81 + 2$	10 ± 1
3	$82 + 2$	8 ± 1
	$85 + 1$	6 ± 2
24	$85 + 1$	$7 + 2$

Table D20. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{I I}Me_2$ with one equivalent of PhI(OAc)₂ in MeCN-d₃ at -20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Reactivity of (^RN4)NiIIMe² with 5-(trifluoromethyl)dibenzothiophenium trifluoromethanesulfonate (TDTT)

Table D21. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me₂$ with one equivalent of TDTT in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	$CH3-H/D$ (%)
0.25	$44 + 2$	15 ± 3
	60 ± 3	18 ± 1
3	69 ± 1	19 ± 2
5	73 ± 2	18 ± 2
8	$79 + 1$	20 ± 2
24	$77 + 2$	$19 + 2$

Table D22. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{I}Me₂$ with one equivalent of TDTT in MeCN-d₃ at 20 $^{\circ}$ C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3-H/D $(\%)$
0.25	48 ± 2	12 ± 1
	62 ± 2	12 ± 2
3	77 ± 1	14 ± 1
5	84 ± 1	14 ± 2
	86 ± 2	13 ± 1
24	$88 + 1$	$12 + 1$

Table D23. Yields of the products upon oxidation of $({}^{T_s}N4)N_i^{II}Me_2$ with one equivalent of TDTT in MeCN d_3 at -20 °C.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3 -CD ₃ $(\%)$	CH_3-H/D $(\%)$	$[CD_3$ -CD ₃ $]$ (%)
0.5	$14 + 2$	14 ± 2	7 ± 3	
	$17 + 1$	16 ± 2	8 ± 2	
	$21 + 1$	22 ± 2	10 ± 2	21
4	23 ± 2	$21 + 1$	$11 + 1$	23
	25 ± 2	25 ± 2	$11 + 1$	25
24	$24 + 1$	$24 + 2$	$11 + 2$	24

Table D24. Yields of the products from the crossover experiments of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ and $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}(CD_3)_2$ with one equivalent of ${}^{Ac}FcBF_4$ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 °C analyzed by ¹H NMR.

Table D25. Yields of the products from the crossover experiments of $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ and $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}(CD_3)_2$ with two equivalents of Ac FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 °C analyzed by ¹H NMR.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3 -CD ₃ $(\%)$	$CH3-H/D$ (%)	$[CD_3$ -CD ₃ $]$ (%)
0.5	$34 + 1$	6 ± 1	5 ± 1	34
	35 ± 2	7 ± 2	6 ± 2	35
7	35 ± 2	9 ± 1	6 ± 2	35
	34 ± 1	8 ± 2	7 ± 2	34
	36 ± 1	7 ± 1	6 ± 1	36
24	$35 + 2$	$' + 1$	$5 + 2$	35

Crossover Experiment between (TsMeN4)NiIIMe² and (TsMeN4)NiII(CD3)² with AcFcBF⁴

Table D26. Yields of the products from the crossover experiments of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{T}Me₂$ and $(T^{5Me}N4)Ni^{II}(CD₃)₂$ with one equivalent of ^{Ac}FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 °C analyzed by ¹H NMR.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3 -CD ₃ $(\%)$	$CH3-H/D$ (%)	$[CD_3$ -CD ₃ $]$ (%)
0.5	20 ± 2	0 ± 0	$1 + 1$	20
	32 ± 3	0 ± 0	$2 + 1$	32
\mathcal{D}_{\cdot}	48 ± 2	0 ± 0	$1 + 1$	48
4	47 ± 2	0 ± 0	$1 + 1$	47
8	45 ± 3	0 ± 0	$2 + 1$	45
24	$+$ 1	$() \pm ()$	$+$ 1	

Table D27. Yields of the products from the crossover experiments of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{T}Me₂$ and $({}^{\text{TsMe}}\text{N4})\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}(\text{CD}_3)_2$ with two equivalents of ${}^{\text{Ac}}\text{FcBF}_4$ in MeCN-d₃ at 20 °C analyzed by ¹H NMR.

Figure D1. ¹H NMR of $\frac{1}{2}$ equivalent of (^{TsMe}N4)NiMe₂ and $\frac{1}{2}$ equivalent of (^{TsMe}N4)Ni(CD₃)₂ plus one equivalent of Ac FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃. ²H NMR spectrum show of the two-hour time point. No cross-over product is visible (CD₃-CH₃). Peaks marked with an asterisk correspond to a trace amount of solvent (MeCN-d3, diethyl ether and 1,4-dioxane (3.60 ppm)).

Time (hr)	CD_3 - CD_3 (%)	CH_3 -CD ₃ $(\%)$	CH_3-H/D (%)	[CH_3-CH_3] (%)	
0.5	22 ± 3	0 ± 0	1 ± 1	22	
	34 ± 2	0 ± 0	1 ± 1	34	
$\overline{2}$	45 ± 3	0 ± 0	1 ± 1	45	
$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	46 ± 2	0 ± 0	1 ± 1	46	
8	45 ± 1	0 ± 0	2 ± 1	45	
24	44 ± 1	0 ± 0	2 ± 1	44	
Benzene-d ₆			CH2DCN	$CD3-CD3$	
7.0 7.5	6.5 6.0 5.5	4.5 5.0 4.0 3.5 $f1$ (ppm)	3.0 2.5 2.0	0.5 0.0 1.5 1.0	-1.0 -0.5

Table D28. Yields of the products from the crossover experiments of $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{T}Me₂$ and $({}^{\text{TsMe}}\text{N4})\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}(\text{CD}_3)_2$ with one equivalent of ^{Ac}FcBF₄ in acetonitrile at 20 °C analyzed by ²H NMR.

Figure D2. ²H NMR of $\frac{1}{2}$ equivalent of (^{TsMe}N4)NiMe₂ and $\frac{1}{2}$ equivalent of (^{TsMe}N4)Ni(CD₃)₂ plus one equivalent of Ac FcBF₄ in acetonitrile. ²H NMR spectrum show of the 2-hour time point. No cross-over product is visible (CD_3-CH_3) .

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3 -CD ₃ $(\%)$	$CH3-H/D$ (%)	$[CD_3-CD_3]$ (%)
0.5	15 ± 2	0 ± 0	$0 + 0$	
	25 ± 2	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	25
$\mathbf{2}$	$30 + 1$	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	30
4	32 ± 3	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	32
8	$31 + 1$	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	31
24	32 ± 2	$0 + 0$	$(1 + 0)$	32.

Table D29. Yields of the products from the crossover experiments of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ and $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(CD_3)_2$ with one equivalent of ${}^{Ac}FcBF_4$ in MeCN-d₃ at -20 °C analyzed by ¹H NMR.

Table D30. Yields of the products from the crossover experiments of $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Me_2$ and $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(CD_3)_2$ with two equivalents of Ac FcBF₄ in MeCN-d₃ at -20 °C analyzed by ¹H NMR.

Time (hr)	CH_3-CH_3 (%)	CH_3 -CD ₃ $(\%)$	CH_3-H/D $(\%)$	$[CD_3$ -CD ₃ $]$ (%)
0.5	19 ± 2	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	19
	29 ± 2	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	29
$\mathbf{2}$	36 ± 1	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	36
$\boldsymbol{4}$	37 ± 2	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	37
	36 ± 2	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	36
24	37 ± 1	$() \pm ()$	$() + ()$	37

Appendix E

Supplemental Kumada Cross-Coupling Reactions Data

Kumada Cross-Coupling of *p***-Iodotoluene and PhenylMgBr:**

Table E1. Products and yields for the Kumada cross-coupling reaction of *p*-iodotoluene and phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

			Yield $(\%)$		
Product	Structure	1 hour	2 hours	24 hours	
Toluene	Me	10 ± 1	11 ± 1	11 ± 2	
Biphenyl		17 ± 5	16 ± 3	16 ± 2	
Phenyl-THF	THF	4 ± 1	3 ± 1	3 ± 1	
4-Methyl-1,1'-biphenyl	-Me	94 ± 4	95 ± 2	95 ± 2	
4,4'-Dimethyl-1,1'-biphenyl	Me- Me	2 ± 1	2 ± 1	2 ± 1	

Table E2. Products and yields for the Kumada cross-coupling reaction of *p*-iodotoluene and phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Table E3. Products and yields for the Kumada cross-coupling reaction of *p*-iodotoluene and phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Figure E1. Representative GC chromatogram for the Kumada cross-coupling of *p*-iodotoluene with phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol% $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$ at one hour.

Kumada Cross-Coupling of *p***-Iodotoluene and HexylMgBr:**

Table E4. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of *p*-iodotoluene and hexylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Table E5. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of *p*-iodotoluene and hexylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Table E6. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of *p*-iodotoluene and hexylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Figure E2. Representative GC chromatogram for the Kumada cross-coupling of *p*-iodotoluene with hexylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol% $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{I}Br_2$ at one hour.

Kumada Cross-Coupling of 1-Iodooctane and PhenylMgBr:

Table E7. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of 1-iodooctane and phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Product	Structure	Yield $(\%)$		
		1 hour	2 hours	24 hours
Octane		65 ± 4	64 ± 2	61 ± 2
Phenyl-THF	THF	15 ± 3	15 ± 2	16 ± 1
Biphenyl		35 ± 2	36 ± 1	36 ± 1
Octylbenzene		14 ± 2	15 ± 2	15 ± 1

Table E8. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of 1-iodooctane and phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Table E9. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of 1-iodooctane and phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Figure E3. Representative GC chromatogram for the Kumada cross-coupling of 1-iodooctane with phenylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol% (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Br₂ at one hour.

Kumada Cross-Coupling of 1-Iodooctane and HexylMgBr:

Product	Structure	Yield $(\%)$		
		1 hour	2 hours	24 hours
Octane		47 ± 2	43 ± 2	44 ± 1
Dodecane	$C_{12}H_{26}$	5 ± 1	5 ± 2	5 ± 1
1-Iodooctane			20 ± 1 19 ± 1	19 ± 1
Tetradecane	$C_{14}H_{30}$	$6 + 1$	6 ± 1	$7 + 1$

Table E11. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of 1-iodooctane and hexylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$.

Table E12. Products and yields from the Kumada cross-coupling reactions of 1-iodooctane and hexylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol % $(^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}Br₂$.

Figure E4. Representative GC chromatogram for the Kumada cross-coupling of 1-iodooctane with hexylMgBr catalyzed by 5 mol% $(^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}Br_2$ at one hour.

Appendix F

Supplemental Cryo-ESI-MS Data

Table F1. Cryo-ESI-MS results for the oxidation of (^{Me}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl).

Table F2. Cryo-ESI-MS results for the oxidation of (^{TsMe}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl).

Table F3. Cryo-ESI-MS results for the oxidation of (^{Ts}N4)Ni^{II}(cycloneophyl).

Appendix G

X-ray Crystal Structure Data

Table G1. ORTEP representation with 50% probability thermal ellipsoids.

Table G3. Select bond lengths [Å] and angles [°] for lm614.

Table G5. Select bond lengths [Å] and angles [°] for lm9716.

Table G7. Select bond lengths [Å] and angles [°] for l13816_sq.

Projection view with 30% probability ellipsoids- H atoms omitted for clarity:

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids- disorder components omitted for clarity:

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids- Only one of the Ni complexes shown for clarity:

Table G13. Select bond lengths [Å] and angles [°] for lm2216.

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids- disorder components omitted for clarity:

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids- H atoms omitted for clarity:

Table G19. Select bond lengths [Å] and angles [°] for lm8417.

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids- disorder components of the anion omitted for clarity:

Table G21. Select bond lengths [Å] and angles [°] for lm2418.

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids- H atoms and disordered solvent components omitted for clarity:

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids: one of the two unique molecules and solvent

Projection view with 50% probability ellipsoids- solvents omitted for clarity:

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PROFESSIONAL SUMMARY

Ph.D. in chemistry with extensive knowledge and experience in organometallic synthesis and characterization. Supervisory experience as senior laboratory safety officer responsible for optimizing safety protocols and conducting safety inspections. Received the WUSTL Chemistry Department Teaching Assistant Award. Diverse leadership experience in university committees and participation in recruitment, onboarding, and mentoring of new students in chemistry. Fluent in English, Dutch and Italian.

EDUCATION

Ph.D. in Chemistry, Washington University in St. Louis, USA *May 2019* Dissertation: Oxidative C–C and C–heteroatom Reactivity of High-Valent Nickel Complexes.

B.A.Sc. in Chemistry, Rotterdam University of Applied Sciences, NL *2014*

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Graduate Research Assistant, Washington University in St. Louis, USA *2014 – May 2019* Advisor: Professor Liviu M. Mirica

- Discovered and characterized rare high-valent organometallic nickel complexes.
- Explored the oxidative reactivity of organometallic nickel complexes towards C–C and C– heteroatom bond formation.
- Investigated ligand modifications on nickel centers to observe changes in reactivity.
- Performed catalytic oxidation studies on unactivated alkanes using hypohalites as the oxidant.

Internship, Washington University in St. Louis, USA (6 months) *2014* Advisor: Professor Vladimir B. Birman

• Explored asymmetric catalytic approaches to axially chiral N-aryl-thiazoline-2-thiones.

Internship, SABIC, Bergen op Zoom, NL (6 months) *2012*

Advisors: Dr. Cristian Wold and Dr. Elena Uliyanchenko

• Development and optimization of separation methods for analysis of novel polymeric materials for anti-fog applications. Techniques used include, Size Exclusion Chromatography (SEC), Gradient Polymer Elution Chromatography (GPEC), Two-dimensional Liquid Chromatography (2D LC) and Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR).

SKILLS AND INTERESTS

Laboratory

• Inorganic and organic synthesis, NMR $(^1H, ^{13}C, ^{19}F, 2D)$, GC-MS, ESI-MS, HPLC, electrochemistry, Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) spectroscopy and UV-vis.

Programs

• Microsoft Office, OriginLab Graphing and Analysis, Chemdraw, MestReNova, Mercury and POV-Ray.

HONORS AND AWARDS

LEADERSHIP

Senior Laboratory Safety Officer *2015 – 2019*

- Directed regular safety checks and all necessary safety procedures.
- Improved lab safety by creating new organizational methods.
- Trained all new incoming students on the safety regulations required in lab.

Mentor for "Catalysts for Change: Women in STEM" *2014 – 2019*

• Catalyst for Change is an outreach program for St. Louis high-school girls, organized by the Women, Gender, and Sexuality Studies (WGSS) Program, the Teaching Center and the Department of Chemistry at Washington University in St. Louis.

Chair, Marcus Lecture Committee *2015 – 2017*

Led the committee organizing the Marcus Lecture Series, with visiting Prof. Richard Eisenberg (2016) and Prof. Jennifer A. Lewis (2017). The Marcus Lecture committee is a student governed lecture series at Washington University in St. Louis.

Teaching Assistant *2014 – 2017*

Courses: General Chemistry Laboratory I and II (80 students), General Chemistry I and II (90 students) and Organic Chemistry (60 students) at Washington University in St. Louis.

- Organized recitation sections, covered lecture material, facilitated discussions, graded exams and quizzes in General Chemistry and Organic Chemistry.
- Facilitated POGIL (Process-Oriented Guided Inquiry Learning) sessions designed to teach challenging concepts through social learning styles in General Chemistry.
- Supervised individual General Chemistry Laboratories insuring a safe environment, demonstrating relevant techniques and providing trouble shooting.

Co-president and Treasurer, WUSTL Ballroom Club *2017 – 2019*

• Initiated the WUSTL ballroom club in August 2017 at Washington University in St. Louis. Providing ballroom lessons in many styles including Waltz, Tango, Cha Cha and Rumba. Now the club has expanded to approximately 50 members.

PUBLICATIONS

- 1. **Sofia M. Smith**, Nigam P. Rath, and Liviu M. Mirica* "High-Valent Organometallic Nickel Complexes Relevant to Carbon–Carbon Bond Formation Reactions." **Organometallics** *To be submitted*
- 2. **Sofia M. Smith**, Oriol Planas, Laura Gómez, Nigam P. Rath, Xavi Ribas, and Liviu M. Mirica* "Aerobic C–C and C–O Bond Formation Reactions Mediated by High-Valent Organometallic Nickel Species." **J. Am. Chem. Soc.** *To be submitted*
- 3. **Sofia M. Smith** and Liviu M. Mirica* "Catalytic Oxidation Studies for Unactivated Alkanes Using Hypohalites as the Oxidant." *To be submitted*
- 4. **Sofia M. Smith**, Leonel Griego and Liviu M. Mirica* "High-Valent Ni(III/IV) Chemistry." Book chapter. *To be submitted*

PRESENTATIONS

- 1. **Sofia. M. Smith**, Nigam P. Rath and Liviu M. Mirica* "Synthesis and Reactivity of Organometallic Ni^{II} and Ni^{III} Compounds", 30th Missouri Inorganic Day, St. Louis, MO, May 2017. **(Oral)**
- 2. **Sofia. M. Smith** and Liviu M. Mirica* "Aerobic C–C and C–O Bond Formation Reactions Mediated by High-Valent Organometallic Nickel(III/IV) Species", 256th ACS National Meeting & Exposition, Boston, MA, August 2018. **(Oral)**
- 3. **Sofia. M. Smith** and Liviu M. Mirica* "Bioinspired Aerobic Oxidation Chemistry using High-Valent Nickel Species" Graduate Research Symposium at Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, Missouri, March 2019. **(Poster)**