

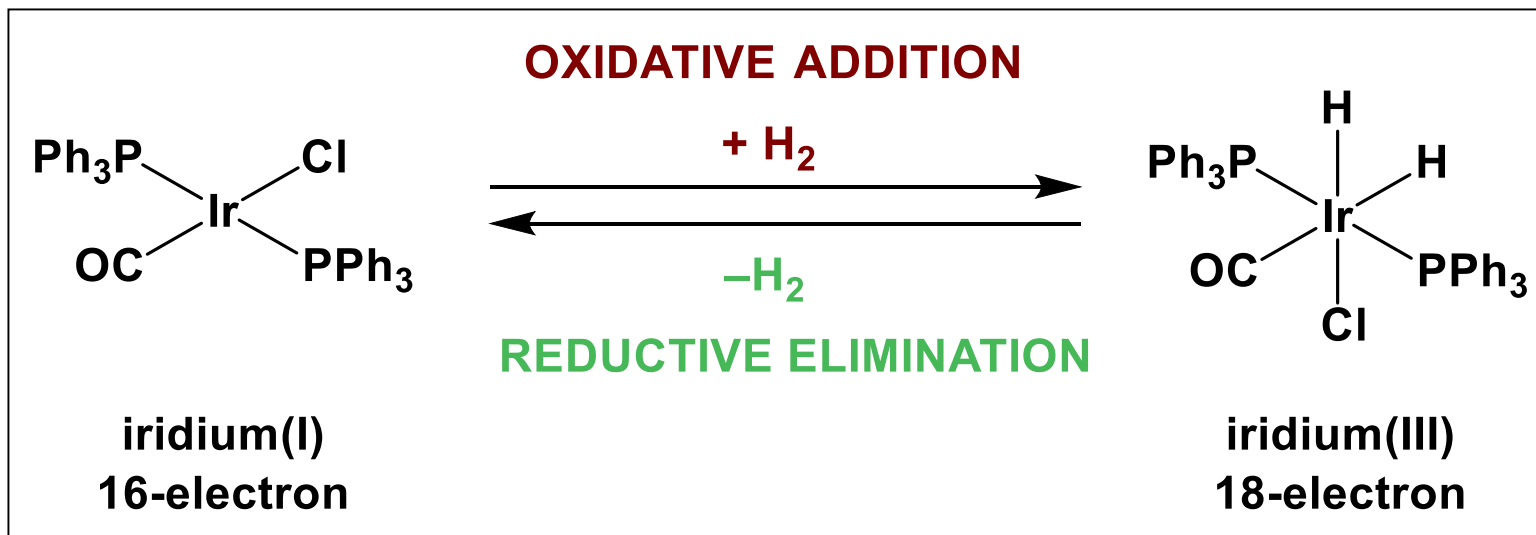
# Oxidative Addition/Reductive Elimination

## OXIDATIVE ADDITION

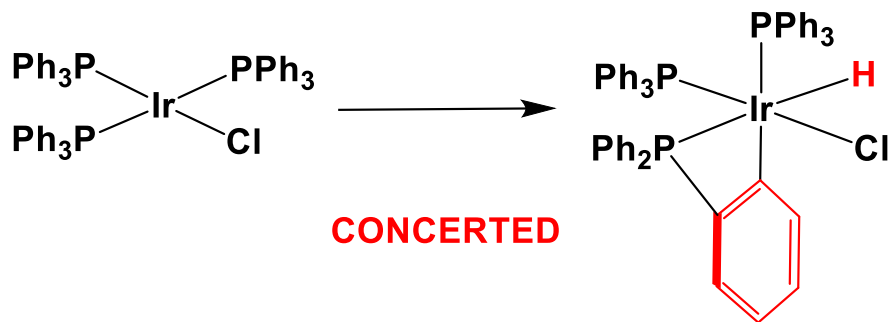
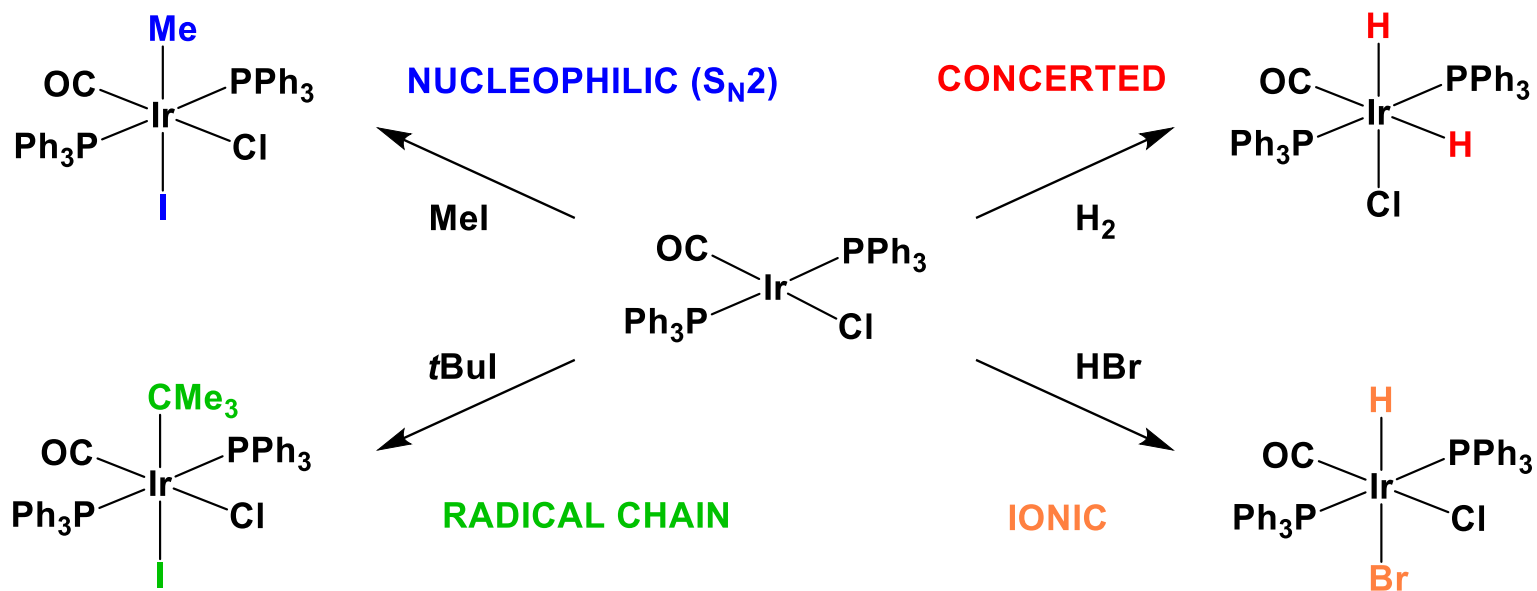
- Addition of R-X (e.g. H<sub>2</sub>, HSiR<sub>3</sub>, HBR<sub>2</sub>, ArI, HCl) to the metal.
- Metal oxidation state increases by 2 units (e.g. Ir<sup>I</sup> → Ir<sup>III</sup>).
- Various mechanisms possible (concerted, S<sub>N</sub>2, Radical x 2, Ionic – see later).
- Familiar main group example = Mg + ArBr → ArMgBr Grignard.

## REDUCTIVE ELIMINATION

- Opposite of Oxidative Addition



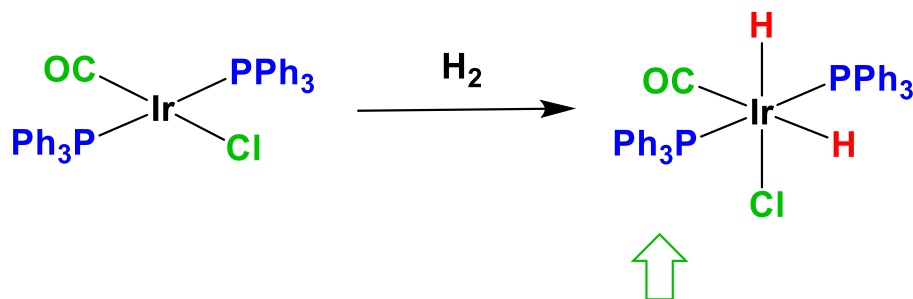
# Oxidative Addition Mechanisms



Intramolecular OA = Cyclometallation  
(or just metallation)

# Concerted Oxidative Addition (of H<sub>2</sub>)

- Concerted O.A. is typical for non-polar substrates (H<sub>2</sub>, H-C, H-Si, H-B)



**THERMODYNAMICS for O.A. of H<sub>2</sub> = OK**

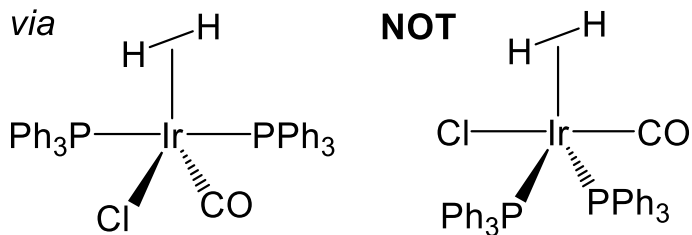
H<sub>2</sub> dissociation energy = 104 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>

2 x Ir-H bonds = 120 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>

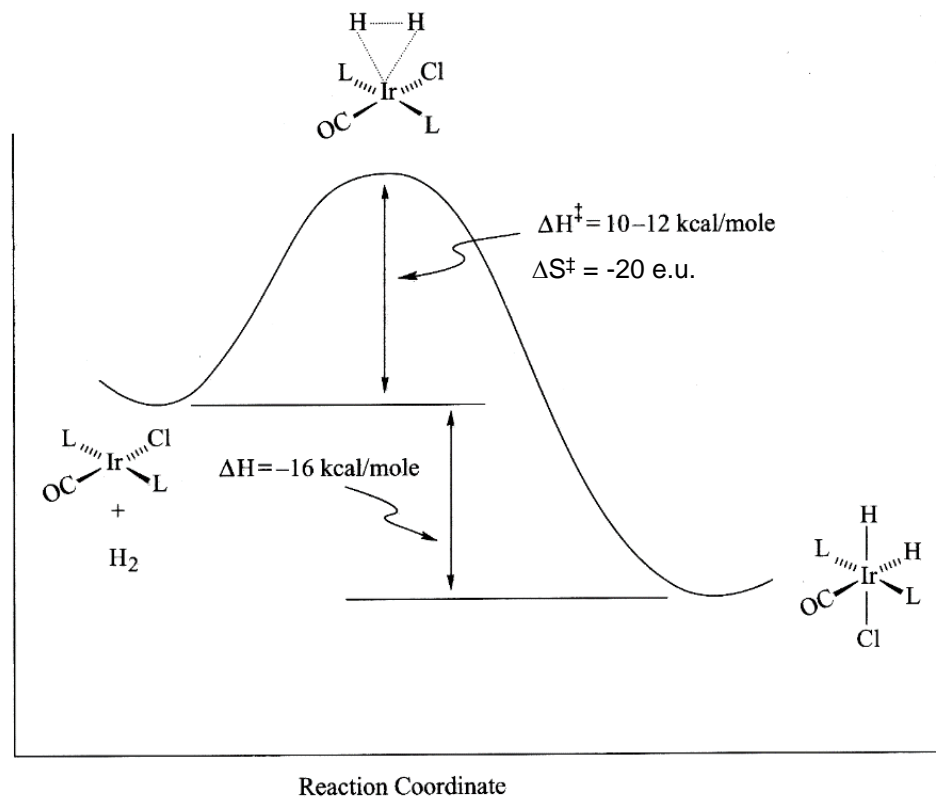
$\Delta S = -30$  e.u.

$\Delta G = -7$  kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> at 25 °C

Cl and CO are *cis* to one another

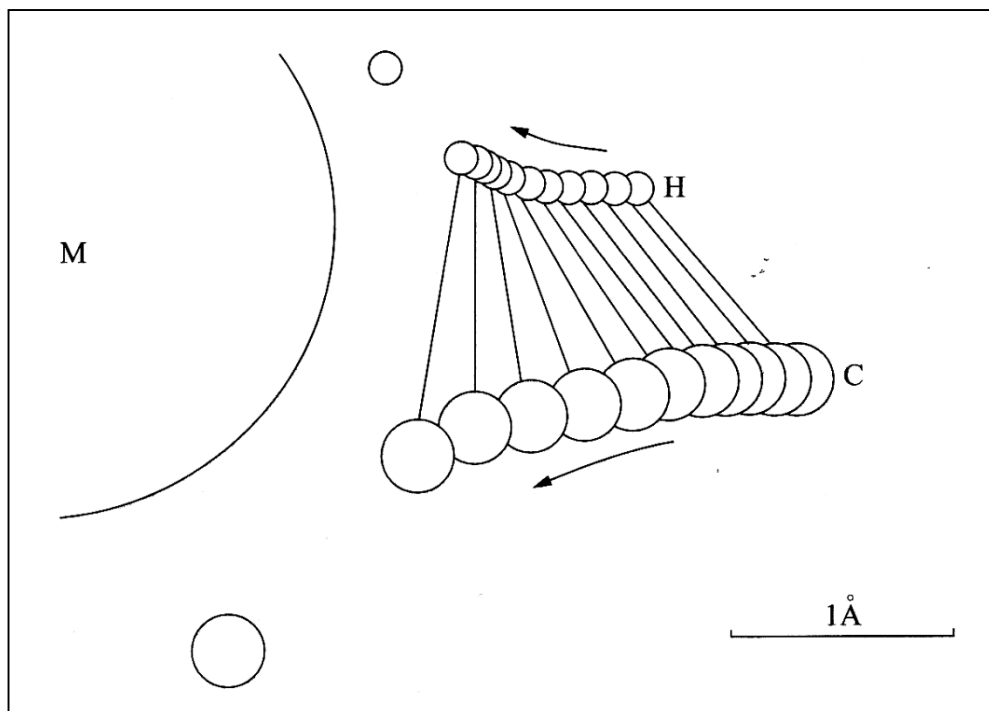


Lower energy TBP transition state if the strongest  $\pi$ -acceptor ligand is in the equatorial plane - very similar to the trans effect (for associated substitution in square planar complexes).

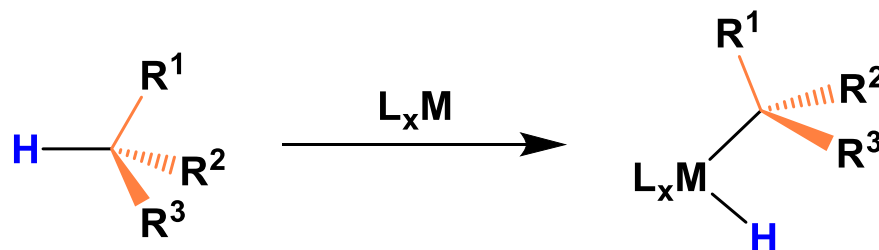


# Concerted Oxidative Addition (C–H bonds)

- C–H bond O.A. could be a very important means to convert abundant, cheap but unreactive hydrocarbons (*e.g.* methane, benzene) into more complex products.

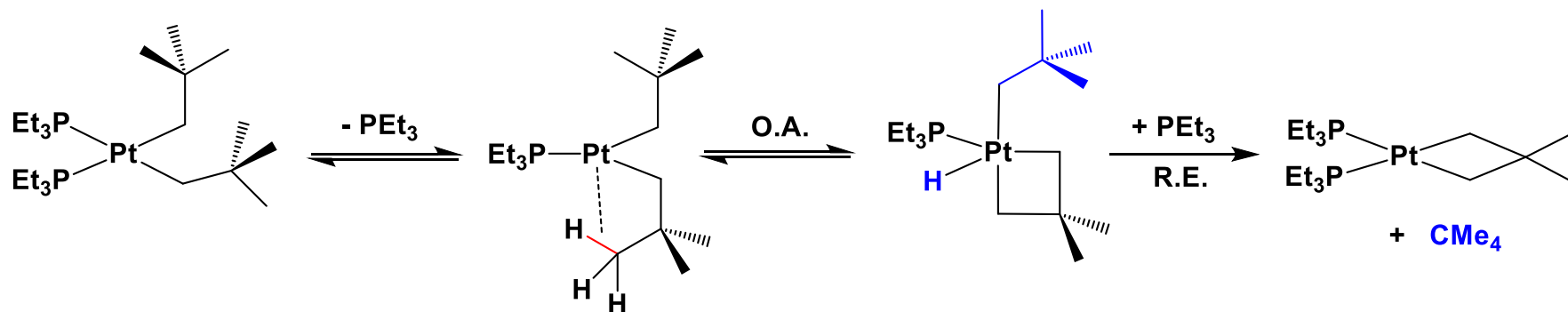


- Concerted Mechanism → retention of configuration

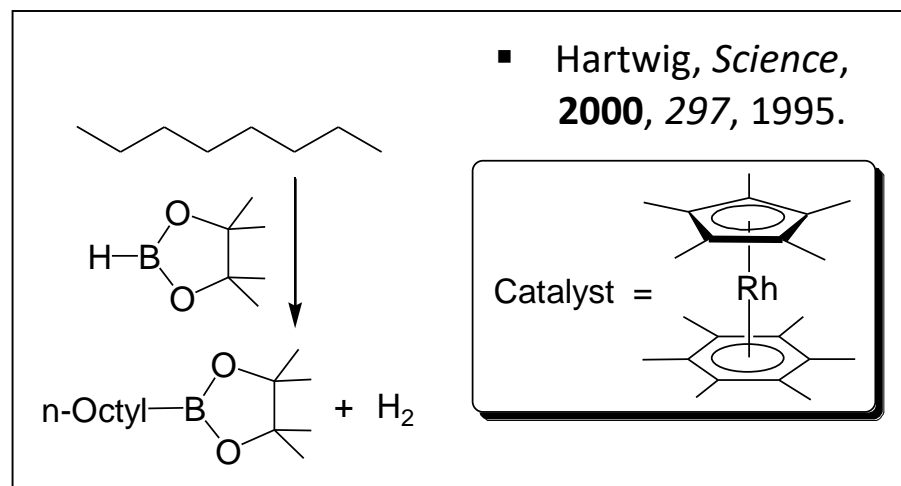
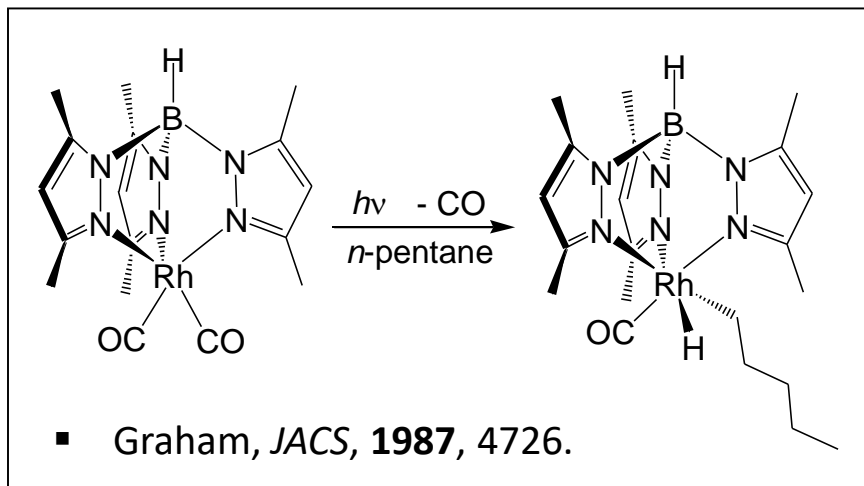


# Concerted Oxidative Addition (C–H bonds)

- **Intramolecular** C–H bond activation → abundant



- **Intermolecular** C–H bond activation → rare

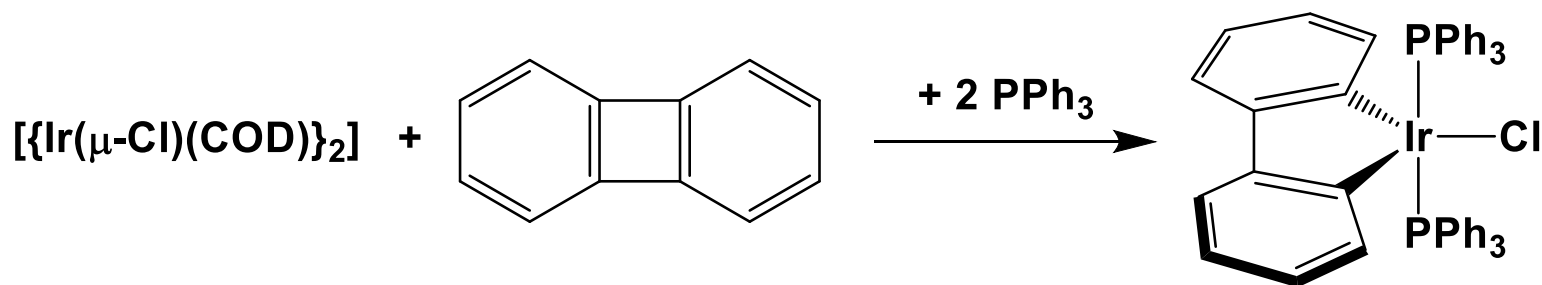
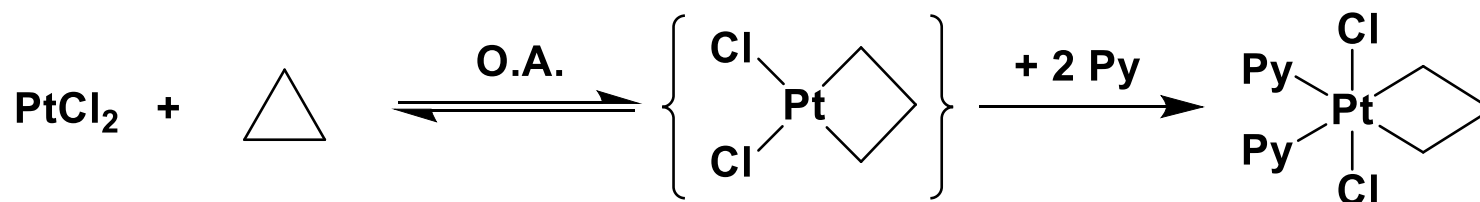


# Concerted Oxidative Addition (C–H bonds)

- Problem with **Intermolecular** C–H bond activation: THERMODYNAMICS
  - C–H bond  $\sim 95 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , M–H  $\sim 60 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , M–C = 30-45  $\text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$
  - $\Delta S = \text{negative}$  ( $L_x M + H-CR_3 \rightarrow L_x MH(CR_3)$ )
  - $\Delta G = \text{usually positive}$
- **General Trends for C–H bond O.A.:**
  - H–Aryl > H–Alkyl [because M–Aryl is stronger than M–Alkyl (thermodynamic) and perhaps because prior  $h^2$ -arene coordination is possible (kinetic)]
  - 3<sup>rd</sup> row > 2<sup>nd</sup> row > 1<sup>st</sup> row (because M–C and M–H bond strengths increase down a group and higher oxidation states also become more accessible)
- **Intermolecular C–H bond O.A. is also more likely to be favorable when:**
  - Metal complex is coordinatively unsaturated
  - Metal complex is sterically uncongested
  - R-groups on the metal are themselves resistant to metallation
  - Metal has a filled orbital capable of interacting with the  $\sigma^*$ -orbital of the C–H bond

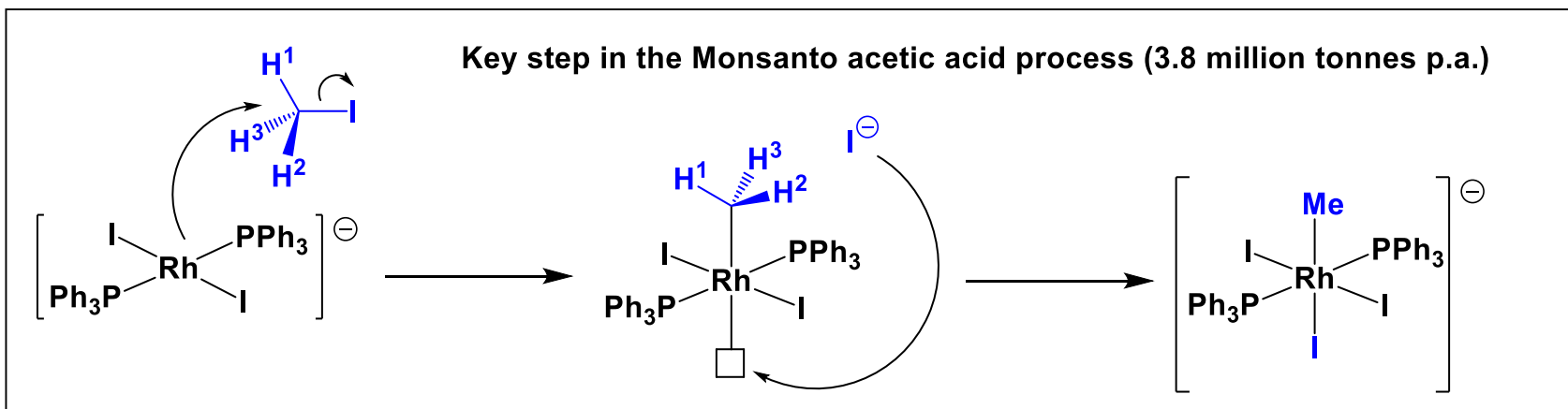
# Concerted Oxidative Addition (C–C bonds)

- **C–C bond O.A. could be a very significant reaction** → turn long-chain hydrocarbons into useful molecules (equivalent to the 'cracking' process)
- **Unstrained C–C bonds do not react with TM complexes for thermodynamic reasons**
- **Generally ONLY get C–C bond O.A. in strained molecules**



# Nucleophilic ( $S_N2$ ) Oxidative Addition

- Always get inversion of configuration at X-CRR'R''
- Typical R groups = Benzyl, Allyl, Acyl, Methyl, Ethyl
- Dependence on leaving group ability:  $CF_3SO_3 > I > Tosylate \sim Br > Cl$
- Rate =  $k[RX][Complex]$ ,  $\Delta S^\ddagger = -40$  to  $-50$  e.u.
- Rate:  $PhCH_2Br > PhCHBrMe$  (i.e.  $I^\circ > II^\circ$ )
- Faster in more polar solvents due to polar transition state

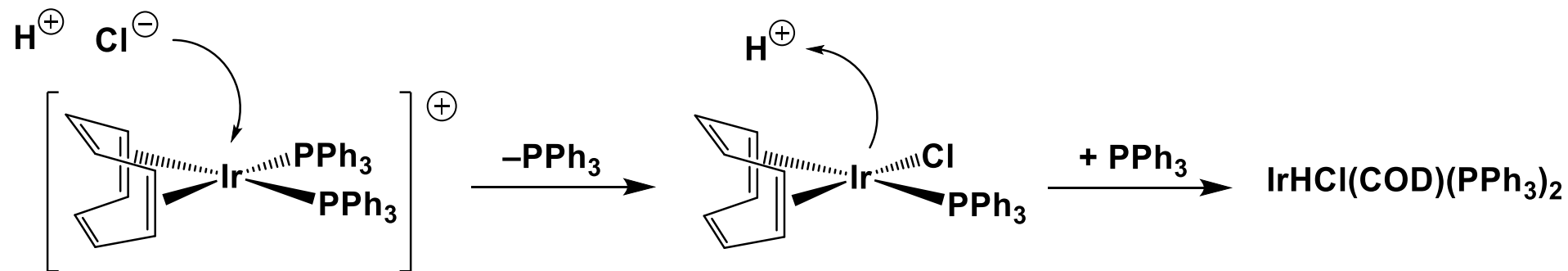
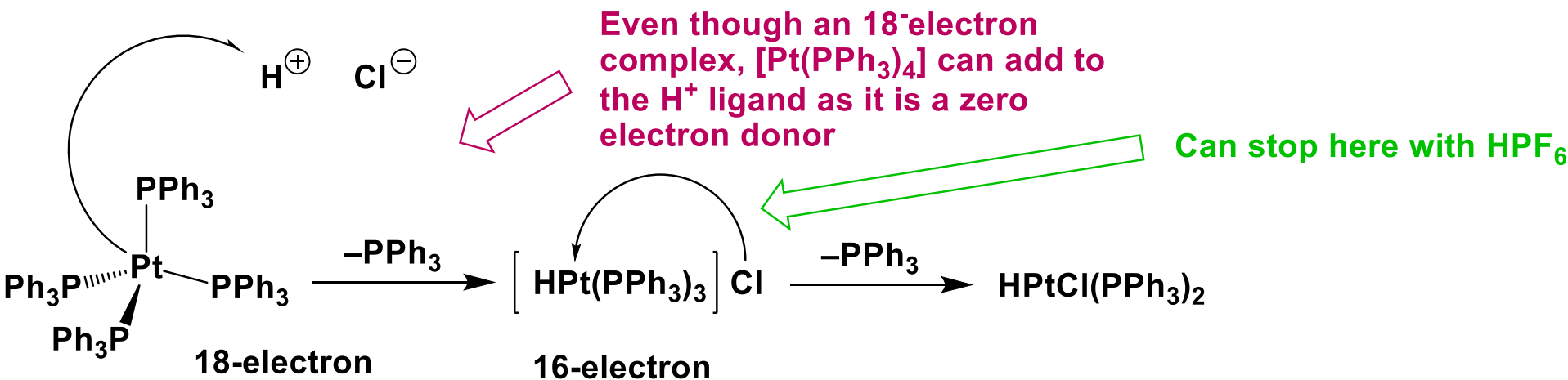


- Fastest for: more electron rich metals, low oxidation state metals,  $e^-$ -donating ligands [ $PMe_3 > P(OMe)_3$ ], small ligands on the metal ( $PMe_3 > P^tBu_3$ )

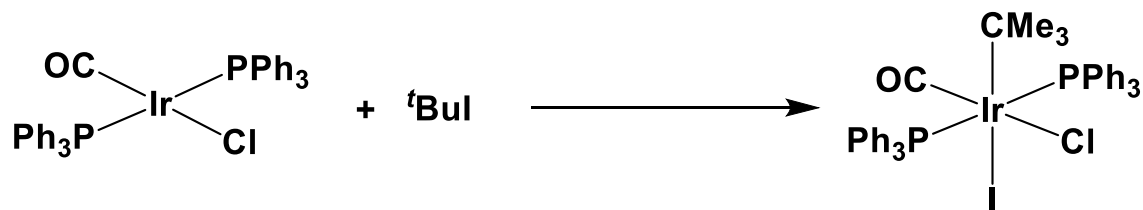


# Ionic Mechanism of Oxidative Addition

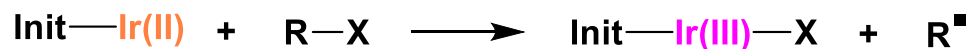
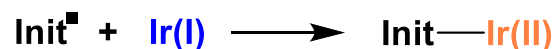
- For HX that are largely ionized in solution (e.g. HCl, HBr)
- Either nucleophilic attack of  $X^-$  on the metal, or electrophilic attack of  $H^+$  on the metal can occur as the 1<sup>st</sup> step.



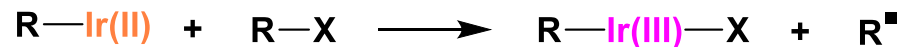
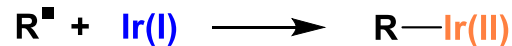
# Radical Chain Oxidative Addition



Initiation  $\Rightarrow$

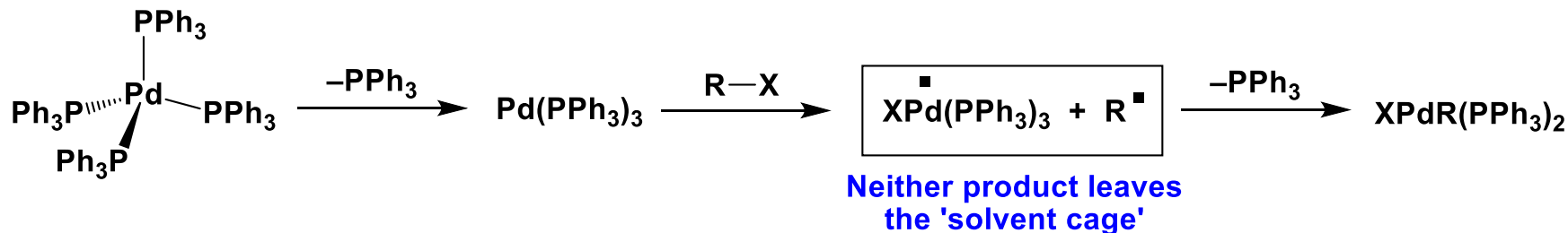


Propagation  $\Rightarrow$



- R-I > R-Br > R-Cl
- III<sup>o</sup> > II<sup>o</sup> > I<sup>o</sup> (correlates with the stability of the R• radicals)
- Accelerated by radical initiators (e.g. O<sub>2</sub> or peroxides)
- Retarded by radical inhibitors (e.g. duroquinone, galvinoxyl, tri-*tert*-butylphenol)
- **RACEMIZATION**

# Non-chain Radical Oxidative Addition



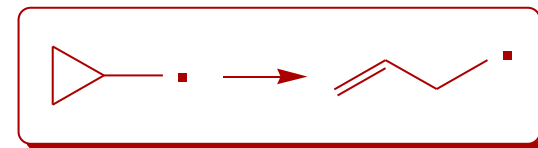
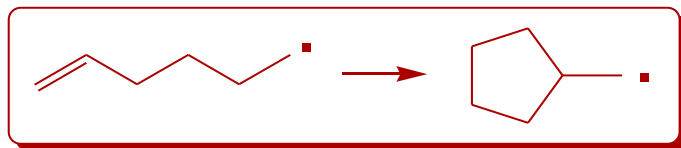
## ▪ RACEMIZATION

- R-I > R-Br > R-Cl
- III° > II° > I° (correlates with the stability of the R• radicals)
- **Unaffected** by radical initiators (e.g. O<sub>2</sub> or peroxides)
- **Unaffected** by radical inhibitors
- Common for Ni<sup>0</sup>, Pd<sup>0</sup>, Pt<sup>0</sup>

## Useful Mechanistic Probes for O.A. of R-X

- Diastereomeric R-X → can probe the stereochemistry of the α-carbon by NMR spectroscopy
- R-X Substrates that rearrange rapidly if R• is involved:

<sup>4</sup>BuDHC—CHD—I



# Oxidative Addition Mechanisms - Overview

OA Mechanism	Type of $L_xM$	Type of X-Y	Features
<b>Concerted</b> (3-centre addition)	(1) coord. Unsat., (2) sterically uncongested, (3) $3^{rd} > 2^{nd} \gg 1^{st}$ row TM, (4) filled orbital capable of interacting with the $s^*$ orbital of incoming X-Y → Often $d^8$ complexes [e.g. $IrCl(CO)(PR_3)_2$ ].	Fairly non-polar substrates: $H-H$ , $R_3C-H$ , $R_3Si-H$ strained $R_3C-CR_3$ , $Ar-X$ not very common	(1) <i>cis</i> -addition (2) retention of config. at $RR'R''C-Y$ (3) $2^{nd}$ order, $\Delta S^\ddagger \sim -30$ e.u., rate <i>not</i> greatly affected by solvent polarity.
<b>Nucleophilic</b> ( $S_N2$ )	Nucleophilic metals e.g. $IrCl(CO)(PR_3)_2$ , $Ni(PR_3)_4$ , $Pd(PR_3)_n$	Polarized substrates: $R_3C-X$ ( $1^\circ > 2^\circ > 3^\circ$ ) ( $MeI > EtI > iPrI$ ), Also $Cl_2$ , $Br_2$ , $I_2$	(1) <i>cis</i> - or <i>trans</i> -addition (2) inversion of config. at $RR'R''C-Y$ (3) $2^{nd}$ order, $\Delta S^\ddagger \sim -40$ to $-50$ e.u., rate accelerated in polar solvents.
<b>Radical</b> (chain or non-chain mechanisms)	Non-chain = $Ni(PPh_3)_3$ , $Pt(PPh_3)_3$ Chain = $IrCl(CO)(PMe_3)_2$ Binuclear = $Mn_2(CO)_5$ , $Co(CN)_5^{3-}$	$R_3C-X$ , $R_3Sn-X$ ( $3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ$ )	(1) <i>cis</i> - or <i>trans</i> -addition (2) racemization of $RR'R''C-Y$ (3) <i>only the radical chain mechanism is accelerated by radical initiators and retarded by radical inhibitors</i>
<b>Ionic</b> ( $H^+$ or $X^-$ attacks first)	(a) $18 e^- Pt(PPh_3)_4 + H^+Cl^-$ ( $H^+$ attacks first) (a) $16 e^- Ir(COD)(PR_3)_2^+ + H^+Cl^-$ ( $Cl^-$ attacks first)	$H-X$ (largely dissociated in solution)	

# Oxidative Addition Mechanisms - Overview

- **In general :** Non polar substrates (*e.g.* H–H, C–H, Si–H) → Concerted  
Halogens (Cl<sub>2</sub>, Br<sub>2</sub>, I<sub>2</sub>) → Nucleophilic  
Alkyl halides → Nucleophilic (S<sub>N</sub>2) or Radical  
Acids (HCl, HBr, HI) → Ionic
- For Alkyl Halides, distinguish a S<sub>N</sub>2 or radical mechanism by determining whether 3°, 2° or 1° R–X react faster, whether the reaction leads to racemization or inversion at RR'R''C–X, and whether the reaction is accelerated by radical initiators and retarded by radical inhibitors.
- For a radical mechanism, distinguish between a chain or non-chain process by whether the reaction is affected by radical initiators or inhibitors.
- If it is necessary to distinguish between a concerted or S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism, determine whether X and Y are *cis*- or *trans*-disposed in the product, whether the reaction leads to retention or inversion of stereochemistry in RR'R''C–X, and whether the reaction is accelerated in polar solvents.