TRANSITION–METAL MEDIATED SMALL MOLECULE ACTIVATION AND SYNTHESIS OF ORGANOMETALLIC HOLMIUM BISMUTH COMPLEXES

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ABSTRACT

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is a potent greenhouse gas with over 310 times the warming power of CO₂ and accounts for 6% of global greenhouse gas emissions. The warming power and extended halflife of N₂O makes it a threat to the atmosphere and environment. To tackle the threat N₂O poses to the atmosphere, the chemistry of N₂O is being explored for applications as a substrate in oxygen atom transfer reactions due to its high thermodynamic oxidizing power ($\Delta G_f - 104.2 \text{ kJ/mol}$).

Herein, we report the first crystallographic characterization of the pincer iridium hydride (PNP)IrH₂ catalyst, PNP = $[N(2-P^{i}Pr_{2}-4-Me-C_{6}H_{3})_{2}]$ and the (PNP)Ir(H)Cl complex. Notably, (PNP)IrH₂ can perform selective α C–H activation of linear and cyclic ethers as demonstrated with the reported isolation of the (PNP)Ir=C(C_{3}H_{6}O) carbene complex.

The chemistry of dinitrogen is well-studied due to the significance of the nitrogen cycle and its relevance in the industrial Haber-Bosch process. By contrast, the chemistry of the heavier pnictogens is underexplored with the *d*- and *f*-block elements. Unlike lighter pnictogens, bismuth is intriguing due to significant relativistic effects that lead to interesting physical properties, like enhanced spin-orbit coupling and increased magnetic anisotropy.

Herein, we report the isolation of the molecular bismuth-bridged holmium lanthanide complex, $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$, where two holmium(III) centers are linked through a Bi_2^{2-} unit. This marks the first report of a holmium–bismuth bond in a molecular compound.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PNP	$H[N(4-Me-2-(P^{i}Pr_{2})C_{6}H_{3})_{2}]$	
THF	Tetrahydrofuran	
Ср	Cycloopentadienyl	
Cp*	Pentamethylcyclopentadienyl	
DCM	Dichoromethane	
NBS	<i>n</i> -bromosuccinimide	
Et ₂ O	Diethyl ether	
<i>n</i> BuLi	<i>n</i> -butyl lithium	
NaBEt ₃ H	Sodium triethyl borohydride	
KC ₈	Potassium graphite	
crypt-222	2.2.2 cryptand	
TEMPO	(2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-yl)oxyl)	
RE	Rare earth	
ТМ	Transition metal	
N_2O	Nitrous oxide	
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance	
SCXRD	Single-crystal X-ray diffraction	
IR	Infrared	

CHAPTER 1: TRANSITION–METAL MEDIATED SMALL MOLECULE ACTIVATION

1.1 Introduction to Small Molecule Activation

Exploration of the activation and reactivity of small molecules, such as N₂, NH₃, H₂, CO₂, etc. has been prominent over the past few decades due to their abundance and affordability. Small molecule activation is crucial as they are the building blocks used in the construction of larger organic molecules industrially and biologically.^{1,2} The Haber-Bosch process is a prevalent example of small-molecule activation that led to the widespread development of industrial fertilizer production in the early 20th century, which is a process that produces ammonia fertilizer by fixating N₂.³ Fixation is a critical process of the nitrogen cycle that converts dinitrogen to a bioavailable nitrogen source in the form of NH₃, Figure 1.1. This process is so important that it accounts for half of all nitrogen fixed globally, 2% of the global energy consumption, and 4% of global natural gas consumption.³ Beyond the Haber-Bosch process, small molecule activation is a captivating topic for scientists to explore and develop new renewable energies, modern fuel cells, or new pathways for sustainable organic synthesis.



Figure 1.1. Summary of nitrogen cycle

Interest in small molecule activation comes from a diverse range of perspectives, whether it is for investigating clean energy sources, utilizing greenhouse gases as synthons in forging C–N or C– O bonds, among other avenues of research. The difficulties of small molecule activation arises from their thermodynamic and kinetic stability owing to their substantial bond dissociation energies, Table 1.1.^{4,5} The nitrogen–oxygen bond in N₂O has a significantly decreased BDE compared to other small molecules because of its resonance structures, Figure 1.2, which leads to elongation of the N=O bond and a lower bond dissociation energy for that bond.

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Bond Dissociation Energies			
for Small Molecules			
Compound	BDE (kcal/mol)		
-			
NN–O	40.0		
CH ₄	102.7		
H ₂	104.2		
ON–N	114.9		
CO ₂	127.2		
N ₂	226.0		
CO	257.3		

 Table 1.1. Bond Dissociation Energies of Common Small

 Molecules.



Figure 1.2. Major resonance structures of N₂O.

Functionalization of small molecules often necessitate a transition metal catalyst due to their ability to access different oxidation states and act as an electron source.^{1,2} For example, NiBr₂(diglyme) can react with aryl halides to cause the metal to undergo oxidative addition followed by a single electron reduction to yield the corresponding phenol, while turning over the nickel catalyst, Figure 1.3A.⁶ Although transition metals are most commonly employed as catalysts in small molecule activation, main group elements and lanthanides have been demonstrated to activate small molecules at a much lower cost. An example of a main group element acting as a catalyst is depicted in Figure 3B, where a low-valent gallium (I) complex, GaAr (Ar = $1.6-(2.6-iPr_2C_6H_3)_2-4-(Me_3Si)C_6H_2)$ activates dihydrogen through cleavage of the H–H bond (104.2 kcal/mol).⁷ Figure 1.3C illustrates a sigma-bond metathesis reaction catalyzed by a lanthanide complex where isotopically labeled ¹³CH₄ exchanges with the methyl group of a decamethyllutenocene methyl complex.⁸

A





Figure 1.3. Examples of small molecule activation. (A) Catalytic N_2O activation using a nickel catalyst. (B) Activation of H_2 using gallium. (C) Methane activation via a lutetium metallocene complex

1.2 Significance of N₂O

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is a major greenhouse gas with over 310 times the warming power of CO₂ and an estimated half–life of 120 years.⁹ N₂O is also regarded as the most significant contributor to ozone depletion today, despite only accounting for 6% of global greenhouse gas emissions.^{9,10,11} The warming power, ozone depleting potential, and long half–life of N₂O makes nitrous oxide a significant threat to the atmosphere and the environment. It poses enough threat that N₂O is one of seven regulated chemical under the Kyoto Protocol that addresses global warming.^{10,12} Structurally, N₂O exists in two resonance structures where one nitrogen is positively charged with either the oxygen or the other nitrogen atom being negatively charged depending on the resonance form, Figure 1.2. These resonance forms result in the shortening of the N=N bond distance (1.13 Å) relative to a normal N₂ double bond (1.25 Å). Efforts to tackle N₂O emissions has focused on identifying chemical uses of N₂O and taking advantage of its favorable properties, which include high solubility in polar/nonpolar solvents, stability at most temperatures, high oxidizing power, and minimal toxicity.^{9,13}

The main challenges of N₂O activation arise from its kinetic inertness and poor ligand properties making it challenging for insertion of the entire N₂O structural motif into a complex.¹³ N₂O has two main coordination modes, Figure 1.4: end–on coordination of the nitrogen or side–on to both nitrogen atoms.¹³ Commonly, N₂O is used as an oxygen transfer reagent to deliver oxygen to metal centers and organic substrates liberating dinitrogen in the process. This process occurs due to the much lower BDE of the N–O bond (40 kcal/mol) and the strong thermodynamic driving force of releasing dinitrogen.



Figure 1.4. End-on (left) or side-on (right) coordination of N₂O

1.3 Transition–Metal Mediated Oxygen Atom Transfer via N2O

 N_2O oxygen atom transfer proves a challenge in ensuring that the target substrate is preferentially oxygenated over the metal center while maintaining regioselectivity. For N₂O catalytic oxygenations, there are two critical factors to consider when activating nitrous oxide while avoiding oxidation of the metal center. First, the selection of the appropriate metal center is crucial as some transition metals have higher affinity for oxygen, while other TMs have higher affinity for dinitrogen. Through literature, reactions of N₂O with early transition metals are commonly shown to result in oxidation of the metal to yield the metal-oxo species.¹⁴⁻¹⁷ This is a result of destabilization of the antibonding p_{π} - d_{π} molecular orbitals from strong π -donation of the oxygen lone pairs that are in proximity to the metal, causing it to be more energetically unfavorable to occupy those antibonding orbitals.¹⁵ For example, the addition of N₂O to a niobaziridine–hydride complex leads to generation of the niobium-oxo complex, which is undesirable for further reactivity due to the known stability of metal oxo complexes, Figure 1.5A.^{14,18} Therefore, a late transition metal is necessary to avoid oxidation of the metal center, such as the example shown in Figure 1.5B where the oxygen atom is inserted into the Ni–C bond while avoiding formation of the metal oxo derivative.¹⁸ Second, a robust ligand framework is needed that is stable upon complexation, is easily synthesized, occupies large number of coordination sites, and is viable for catalytic transformations.



Figure 1.5. **A**. Reaction of niobaziridine–hydride complex with N₂O leading to formation of the Nb oxo compound. **B**. Insertion of oxygen from N₂O into the Ni–C bond of a Ni metallocycle

Considering the two aforementioned factors, the investigation of an ^{Me}PNPIrH₂ complex (1), ^{Me}PNP = [N(2-PⁱPr₂-4-Me-C₆H₃)₂]⁻, for metal-mediated oxygen transfer reactions from N₂O. (^{Me}PNP)IrH₂ was selected as it is susceptible to reductive elimination of the dihydride moiety by a hydrogen acceptor. The generated Ir^{II} species is highly reactive, which can readily undergo oxidative addition to its more stable Ir^{III} oxidation state. Prominent examples of the effectiveness of Ir^I complexes at catalysis are Vaska's complex, (IrCl(CO)(PPh₃)₂), which readily undergoes reductive elimination or oxidative addition with small molecules, and Crabtree's catalyst, [Ir(cod)(py)(PCy₃)][PF₆], which is an exceptional hydrogenation catalyst.^{19,20} To support the iridium center, a pincer ligand scaffold is used, which is generally defined as any chelating agent that binds tightly to three coplanar meridional positions in a tridentate configuration.²¹ Pincer ligand scaffolds enhance the rigidity and thermal stability of the complex and thus, are commonly employed in catalysis. Furthermore, they offer significant such as tunability of the electronics, sterics, and chirality of the catalyst.²¹

It is envisioned that the double C–H activation of the linear ether induced by the reduction of **2** in an excess of norbornene, which acts as the sacrificial hydrogen acceptor, to afford the carbene complex (**II**), Scheme 1.1. Unlike other Fischer carbenes, **I** is nucleophilic at iridium rather than electrophilic at carbon due to the high lying d_z^2 orbital on iridium. Exposure of this carbene with the electrophilic nitrous oxide yields the iridium dinitrogen complex (**II**) while affording the oxygenated organic substrate. The labile N₂ of **II** can be readily displaced from the Ir center by exposure to another molar equivalent of organic substrate allowing for further turnover.²² The two types of reactions that will be investigated to interrogate the reactivity of **2** with various organic substrates and N₂O are illustrated in Scheme 1.1.



Scheme 1.1. Proposed synthetic pathway of alkyl esters, alkyl formates, and alcohols through oxygenation of Ir-carbene using N_2O .

It has been previously demonstrated that reaction of **2** with linear ethers, such as *sec*-butyl methyl ether, *n*-butyl methyl ether, etc., in the presence of norbornene affords the corresponding carbene, **I**, and following exposure to N₂O affords the organic formate and **II**.^{15,16} Hence, this work will investigate the synthesis of the (PNP)IrH₂ catalyst and explore its C–H activation of other alkyl ethers (Scheme 1.1A) and alkanes (Scheme 1.1B). This would then be followed by investigations into viable catalytic opportunities for either reaction scheme.

Alongside linear ethers, C–H activation of cyclic ethers will be investigated to liberate cyclic esters and **3**, as shown in Scheme 1.2 with THF as the cyclic ether. Similar to Scheme 1.1, norbornene is used as a sacrificial hydrogen acceptor to reduce **2** to an Ir(I) intermediate. The Ir(I) species then reacts with the THF solvent to form (^{Me}PNP)Ir=CC₃H₆O (**3**), which is known.²² However, the following step of reacting the THF carbene complex with N₂O to release γ -butyrolactone and **II** is unknown and will be investigated to see if there is possibility for catalytic turnover.^{23,24} This would be an invaluable catalytic process as the cyclic ester moieties are used in medicine, pharmaceuticals, solar cells, among other applications making them highly useful and desirable compounds.²⁵



Scheme 1.2. Proposed catalytic cycle for double α -C-H activation of THF and its following oxidation using N₂O.

1.4 Experimental

General Information. All manipulations below were conducted under inert N₂ atmosphere to exclude moisture or oxygen using Schlenk line and glovebox techniques. House nitrogen was purified with a MBraun HP–500–MO–OX gas purifier before use. *n*-hexane, *n*-pentane, dichloromethane, and fluorobenzene were dried by refluxing over calcium hydride and distilled before use. Ethanol, methanol, and DI water were degassed via freeze-pump-thaw cycles prior to use. Tetrahydrofuran, toluene, and diethyl ether were dried by refluxing over potassium and distilled before use. All solvents were tested for the presence of water and oxygen with a drop of sodium benzophenone radical solution in the glovebox. Norbornene was purified via sublimation at 22 °C under 0.03 mbar and was cooled with liquid nitrogen. Benzene–*d*₆ was purchased from Sigma–Aldrich and dried over 4 Å molecular sieves under inert nitrogen atmosphere. Di-*p*-tolylamine, **A**, 1,5-cyclooctadiene, *n*-bromosuccinimide, diisopropylchlorophosphine, *n*-butyl lithium (2.5 M in hexanes), 1.0 M solution of sodium triethylborohydride (NaBEt₃H) in toluene, hexamethyl disiloxane, and IrCl₃ x nH₂O were purchased from Aldrich and used as received.

All IR spectra were recorded with a Cary 630 diamond ATR–IR spectrometer in inert nitrogen atmosphere. A PerkinElmer 2400 Series II CHNS/O analyzer was used for CHN elemental analyses. All NMR spectra were taken on Varian or Bruker instruments located in the Max T. Rogers Instrumentation facility at Michigan State University. ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Avance Neo 600 MHz spectrometer with the residual solvent peak being used as the internal reference. ³¹P NMR were recorded without a reference. Chemical shifts are reported in δ (ppm). A PerkinElmer 2400 Series II CHNS/O analyzer was used for CHN elemental analyses.

X–ray Crystallography Data was collected at a XtaLAB Synergy, Dualflex, HyPix diffractometer equipped with an Oxford Cryosystems low-temperature device, operating at T = 100 K using MoK α radiation. Data for the (PNP)IrH₂ complex was collected at the diffractometer with the Oxford Cryosystems operating at T = 220K. Data were measured using omega and phi scans of 1.0° per frame for 30 s. Cell parameters were retrieved using CrysAlisPro (Rigaku, V1.171.41.90a, 2020) software and refined using CrysAlisPro (Rigaku, V1.171.41.90a, 2020). Data reduction was performed using the CrysAlisPro (Rigaku, V1.171.41.90a, 2020) software.

Synthesis of Bis(2-bromo-4-methylphenyl) amine, *B*. Compound **B** was synthesized according to the literature procedure.²⁶ Under dry nitrogen, di-*p*-tolylamine (3.61 g, 20 mmol) was dissolved in

20 mL of dichloromethane (DCM) in a 200 mL Schlenk flask while stirring. Once completely dissolved, *n*-bromosuccinimide (6.52 g, 40 mmol) was slowly added to the reaction mixture causing an immediate color change from pale yellow to dark black. The reaction mixture was stirred for 48 h at ambient temperature to yield a brown-black solution which was dried *in vacuo* to afford a black residue. The black residue was dissolved in pentane and filtered over silica. The clear filtrate was then dried *in vacuo*. White crystals of **B** were obtained from a concentrated hexane solution at -35 °C in 40% crystalline yield (2.58 g, 7.0 mmol). ¹H NMR (500 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C) δ : 7.40 (d, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.0 Hz), 7.11 (d, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.2 Hz), 7.00 (dd, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H} = 8.2 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 1.9 Hz), 6.18 (s, 1H, <u>H</u>–N), 2.28 (s, 6H, Ph–<u>Me</u>). ¹³C NMR (126 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C) δ : 137.83, (<u>C</u>–N) 133.30, (<u>Ph</u>), 132.09 (*Ph*), 128.60, (<u>Ph</u>), 117.95 (<u>Ph</u>), 113.99 (<u>Ph</u>), 20.23 (Ph–<u>Me</u>)

Synthesis of the PNP(H) ligand (PNP = $[HN(4-Me-2-(PiPr_2)C_6H_3)_2])$, C. Compound C was synthesized according to the literature procedure.²⁷ Under dry nitrogen, bis(2-bromo-4methylphenyl) amine (2.01 g, 10 mmol) was dissolved in 30 mL of diethyl ether (Et₂O) in a 200 mL Schlenk flask while stirring and then cooled in a Coldwell with dry ice. Once cooled, *n*-butyl lithium (6.78 mL of a 2.5 M hexane solution) was added dropwise to the stirring reaction mixture. Following the addition, the reaction was removed from the Coldwell and stirred at ambient temperature for 3 h. The reaction mixture was then transferred into the Coldwell, which was cooled with dry ice. Diisopropylchlorophosphine (1.79 mL, 10 mmol) was dispensed dropwise into the stirring reaction mixture causing the solution to turn from pale yellow to bright orange, and this reaction mixture was removed from the Coldwell and stirred at ambient temperature for 24 h. After 24 h of stirring, degassed water (0.31 mL, 20 mmol) was added to the reaction flask and stirred for 45 minutes causing the solution to turn from brown-yellow to an orange-yellow color. This was followed by filtration over silica. The filtrate was dried in vacuo and washed with 3 x 20 mL isooctane. White crystals of C were obtained from a concentrated hexamethyldisiloxane solution at -35 °C in 47% crystalline yield (1.14 g, 2.7 mmol) ¹H NMR (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)δ: 8.31 (t, 1H, H–N, ⁴J_{P-H}: 8.5 Hz), 7.40 (dd, 2H, H–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.4 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 4.1 Hz), 7.20 (d, 14 H, H–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 2.6 Hz), 6.92 (dd, 2 H, H–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.4 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.1 Hz), 2.19 (s, 6H, Ph–Me), 2.02 (m, 4H, <u>CH</u>Me₂), 1.13 (dd, 12 H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 15.1 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 7.0 Hz), 0.98 (dd, 12 H, CHMe₂, ³J_{H-H}: 11.7 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 6.9 Hz). ¹³C NMR (126 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ:147.37 (d, <u>C</u>-N, ²J_{C-P}: 20.4 Hz), 134.00 (<u>Ph</u>), 130.63 (<u>Ph</u>), 128.93 (<u>Ph</u>), 123.43(d, <u>Ph</u>, ¹J_{C-P}: 16.7), 117.26

(<u>*Ph*</u>), 23.52 (d, <u>*C*HMe₂</u>, ²*J*_{C-P}: 11.4), 20.91 (Ph–<u>*Me*</u>), 20.47 (d, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ¹*J*_{C-P}: 19.3), 19.27 (d, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ²*J*_{C-P}: 9.6). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (203 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ : –13.44.

Synthesis of $[Ir(COD)Cl]_2$. $[Ir(COD)Cl]_2$ was synthesized according to the literature procedure.²⁸ Under dry nitrogen, $IrCl_3 \bullet nH_2O$ (848 mg, 0.003 mol) was added to a 50 mL round bottom flask followed by 11 mL of ethanol and 7 mL of DI water. 3.4 mL of 1,5–cyclooctadiene was transferred to the reaction mixture, which was subsequently heated to 85 °C for 20 h overnight causing the reaction solution to go from dark blue to a light orange color. The solution volume was reduced to 20% volume, and then, the solution was washed with 4 x 5 mL of methanol. Volatiles were removed *in vacuo* and red crystals of $[Ir(COD)Cl_2]$ suitable for X–ray diffraction analysis were obtained at –35 °C from a concentrated toluene solution in 61% crystalline yield (0.39 g, 0.58 mmol). ¹H NMR (500 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C) δ : 4.24 (d, 8H, <u>CH</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 4.2 Hz), 2.26 (m, 8H, <u>CH</u>₂), 1.53 (d, 8H, <u>CH</u>₂, ³J_{H-H}: 8.1 Hz). ¹³C NMR (126 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C) δ : 62.62 (<u>C</u>H), 32.19 (<u>C</u>H₂).

Synthesis of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl, *1*. Compound **1** was synthesized according to the literature procedure.²⁹ Under dry nitrogen, [Ir(COD)Cl]₂ (0.21 g, 0.31 mmol) was added to a 20 mL scintillation vial with PNP(H) ligand (0.27 g, 0.62 mmol) and dissolved in 6 mL of fluorobenzene to yield a light orange solution. This solution was stirred overnight for 24 h where a color change to a dark green was observed, and then, the volatiles were removed *in vacuo*. Dark green crystals of **1** suitable for X–ray diffraction analysis was obtained at –35 °C from a concentrated toluene solution in 89% crystalline yield (0.31 g, 0.47 mmol). ¹H (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C): δ : 7.86 (d, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.8 Hz), 6.96 (s, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph), 6.73 (m, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph), 2.94 (m, 2H, <u>CH</u>Me₂), 2.44 (m, 2H, <u>CH</u>Me₂), 2.20 (s, 6H, Ph–<u>Me</u>), 1.40 (q, 6H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.6 Hz), 1.21 (q, 6H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.9 Hz), 1.07 (q, 6H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 6.9 Hz), 0.97 (q, 6H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.8 Hz), - 45.61 (t, 1H, Ir–<u>H</u>, J_{Ir-H}: 12.3 Hz). ¹³C NMR (126 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ : 163.74 (t, <u>C</u>–N, ²J_{C-P}: 9.52 Hz), 132.45 (<u>Ph</u>), 131.52 (<u>Ph</u>), 126.36 (t, <u>Ph</u>, ²J_{C-P}: 13.22 Hz), 24.59 (t, <u>CHMe₂</u>, ¹J_{C-P}: 22.20 Hz), 116.98 (t, <u>Ph</u>, ²J_{C-P}: 5.08 Hz), 27.14 (t, <u>CHMe₂</u>). ³¹P{¹H}</sup> NMR (203 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ : 44.23.

Synthesis of (PNP)IrH₂, **2**. Compound **2** was synthesized according to the literature procedure.³⁰ Under dry nitrogen, (PNP)Ir(H)Cl was dissolved in 5 mL of THF in a 20 mL scintillation vial. To

this solution, NaBEt₃H (0.15 mL of a 1.0 M hexane solution) was added dropwise. The reaction was stirred for 20 minutes to cause a color change from green to a dark red-orange solution. Volatiles were carefully removed *in vacuo*, and the resulting red residue was dissolved in fluorobenzene and filtered through Celite. The resulting red filtrate was dried *in vacuo*. Bright red crystals of **2** suitable for X–ray diffraction analysis was obtained at –35 °C from a concentrated pentane solution in 38% crystalline yield (0.03g, 0.05 mmol). ¹H (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) : 7.85 (dt, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.6 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.2 Hz), 7.00 (q, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ⁴J_{H-H}: 3.6 Hz), 6.90 (dd, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.7 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.1 Hz), 2.22 (s, 6H, Ph–<u>Me</u>), 2.13 (m, 4H, <u>CH</u>Me₂) 1.22 (q, 12H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.6 Hz), 1.00 (q, 12H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.1 Hz), -25.41 (t, 2H, Ir–<u>H</u>₂, J_{Ir-H}: 10.7 Hz). ¹³C NMR (126 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ : 164.59 (t, <u>C</u>–N, ²J_{C-P}: 10.76 Hz), 133.27 (<u>Ph</u>), 131.64 (<u>Ph</u>), 126.58 (t, <u>Ph</u>, ²J_{C-P}: 10.76 Hz), 126.22 (t, <u>Ph</u>, ¹J_{C-P}: 19.7 Hz), 115.03 (<u>Ph</u>), 25.19 (<u>C</u>HMe₂)), 22.54 (<u>C</u>HMe₂), 20.22 (Ph–Me), 20.01 (CH<u>Me₂</u>), 18.47 (CH<u>Me₂). ³¹P{¹H}</sup> NMR (203 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C): δ : 57.76.</u>

Synthesis of (PNP)Ir=C(C₃H₆O), *3*. Compound *3* was synthesized according to the literature procedure²⁴. Under dry nitrogen, Norbornene (0.04 g, 0.45 mmol) was weighed into a 4 mL scintillation vial with (PNP)IrH₂ (0.04 g, 0.06 mmol), and the mixture was dissolved in 0.3 mL of THF. The red solution was transferred to a J. young tube that was heated 60 °C for 20 h overnight causing no significant changes in color. The red solution was filtered through Celite, and the resulting dark red filtrate was dried *in vacuo*. Bright red crystals of *3* suitable for X–ray diffraction analysis was obtained at –35 °C from slow evaporation of a concentrated pentane solution in 50% crystalline yield (0.02 g, 0.03 mmol). ¹H NMR (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) : 7.90 (d, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph, ³*J*_{H-H}: 8.6 Hz), 7.26 (d, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph, ³*J*_{H-H}: 3.1 Hz), 6.87 (dd, 2H, *H*–Ph, ³*J*_{H-H}: 8.6 Hz, ⁴*J*_{H-H}: 4.4 Hz, ⁴*J*_{H-H}: 2.7 Hz), 2.30 (s, 6H, Ph–<u>*Me*</u>), 1.38 (qu, 2H, C₃H₆O, ³*J*_{H-H}: 7.3 Hz), 1.32 (q, 13H, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ³*J*_{H-H}: 7.4 Hz), 1.26 (q, 13 H, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ³*J*_{H-H}: 6.9 Hz), 0.39 (t, 2H, C₃H₆O, ³*J*_{H-H}: 7.6 Hz).

1.5 Results and Discussion

The synthesis of the PNP(H) pincer ligand, $(PNP = [N(4-Me-2-(P^iPr_2)C_6H_3)_2])$, and the $(PNP)IrH_2$ complex followed procedures published by Ozerov *et al*, as depicted in Scheme 1.3.



Scheme 1.3. Synthetic Scheme for the (PNP)IrH₂ complex

Bromination of di-*p*-tolylamine (**A**) with *n*-bromosuccinimide is expected to brominate at both ortho positions to the nitrogen because the amine group acts as a stronger ortho director than the methyl group. This is confirmed via ¹H NMR by a singlet peak at 7.40 ppm, suggesting an aromatic proton in a highly de-shielded environment that is induced by a neighboring heteroatom, such as bromine. In the ¹H NMR of **A**, each chemical shift is shifted 0.02 ppm higher compared to what is reported in literature, and this likely resulted from differences in how the solvent or instrument was referenced. The doublet at 7.4 ppm corresponding to an aromatic proton is reported as a singlet in literature, and this could be a result of 4-bond coupling to the meta proton giving rise to a 2.0 Hz coupling. This is corroborated by an aromatic signal at 7 ppm that also has 1.9 Hz coupling likely back to the proton with the 7.4 chemical shift. 2 Hz couplings are also commonly designated as meta couplings with a methyl substituent between them in aromatic molecules. A higher sample concentration or higher field strength instrument could be responsible for why this peak was observed as a doublet rather than a singlet, as reported in literature.

Following bromination, a phosphine–halide exchange reaction was completed to exchange the bromine with phosphine groups precipitating LiCl. The structure was confirmed via ¹H NMR spectrum where the singlet N–H peak becomes significantly de-shielded to 8.5 ppm, resulting from the de-shielding induced by the phosphines at the ortho positions. The doublet at 7.2 ppm corresponding to an aromatic proton is reported as a singlet in literature, and similar to **A**, this could be due to 4-bond coupling to a meta proton. This is further suggested due to the aromatic proton at 6.92 ppm having a 2.0 Hz coupling, which could be meta coupling back to the proton at 7.2 ppm. The peaks at 7.40 and 6.92 ppm are reported to be doublets, but in the obtained spectrum,

they are reported as doublet of doublets, which likely results from the higher resolution enabled by the higher field strength of the instrument used for the experiment (500 MHz) compared to the literature (400 MHz). The ³¹P NMR spectrum of the ligand indicates presence of phosphorus in the sample with a chemical shift at -13.44 ppm, like what is reported in literature. (-12.9 ppm) ²⁷



Figure 1.6. IR spectrum of [Ir(COD)Cl₂] (in black), PNP(H) ligand (in orange), and (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (in blue).

[Ir(COD)Cl₂] was synthesized through the reduction of IrCl₃•nH₂O with ethanol followed by complexation to 1,5 cyclooctadiene (COD). The (PNP)H is metalated with [Ir(COD)Cl]₂ in fluorobenzene to release cyclooctadiene. Dark green crystals of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl, **1**, suitable for single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis complex were grown from a concentrated toluene solution at –35 °C. The molecular structure of **1** was confirmed via single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis, Figure 1.7A, and to the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of a crystal structure for **1**, although its synthesis is known. The complex crystallizes in the *P2/n* space group with free toluene molecules in the lattice. The Ir–Cl, Ir–P, and Ir–N distances are 2.370(2), 2.295(1), and 2.051(3) Å, respectively, which are well within observed Ir–Cl, Ir–P, and Ir–N distances in other Ir–PNP compounds.³¹⁻³⁴ The P–Ir–P angle is 163.8(1)° which is well within observed P–Ir–P angles reported in other Ir–PNP compounds.^{33, 34} The crystal structure shows the flexibility of the pincer ligand backbone since after coordination, the ligand is nonplanar. The chlorine atom is slightly out of plane relative to the iridium center and the ligand backbone, which could suggest the presence of an equatorial hydride that pushes the chlorine atom out of plane. However, hydrides cannot be

confirmed through SCXRD analysis as hydrogen atoms have minimal electron density. Instead, the presence of the hydride was proven via ¹H NMR spectroscopy with a triplet occurrence at –46 ppm that integrates to one, and the negative chemical shift is characteristic for a metal hydride. The IR spectrum clearly indicates a reaction of the N–H bond on the pincer ligand because the diagnostic IR stretching mode for the N–H bond is absent in the product, Figure 1.6. The IR spectrum of the product also shows new peaks at around 2000–2200 cm⁻¹, which could signify the Ir–H stretch.

NMR spectroscopy of compound **1** is very similar to what has been reported in literature with some slight differences. In ¹H NMR, the peak at 6.73 ppm is a multiplet rather than a singlet, which is what is reported in literature. This could be a result more resolved aromatic coupling of this proton to other aromatic protons due to the higher field strength of the instrument used for the experiment (500 MHz) compared to the literature (400 MHz). In ¹³C NMR, the peaks at 122.2 and 24.59 ppm have slightly larger coupling (1.2 and 1.09 Hz, respectively) compared to what is reported in literature, and this small difference could arise from differences in how the coupling constants were calculated. Heteronuclear coupling between carbon and phosphorus throughout the experiment could have also led to distortions in the spectrum that can lead to slight changes in the coupling constant.

Sodium triethyl borohydride was reacted with (PNP)Ir(H)Cl, **1**, in a salt metathesis reaction to yield (PNP)IrH₂, **2**, and the byproducts NaCl and triethyl boron. Red-orange crystals of **2** suitable for single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis were grown from a concentrated pentane solution at – 35 °C. The molecular structure of **2** was confirmed via single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis, Figure 1.7B, and is to the best of our knowledge, the first report of a crystal structure for **2**, although its synthesis is known. The complex crystallizes in the highly symmetric and unusual Ia3d space group. The Ir–P and Ir–N distances are 2.2260(2), and 2.047(5) Å, respectively, which are well within observed Ir–P and Ir–N distances in other Ir–PNP compounds.³¹⁻³⁴ The P–Ir–P angle is 167.1(1)° which is well within observed P–Ir–P angles reported in other Ir–PNP compounds.^{33, 34} Compared to **1**, Figure 1.7A, the Ir–N and Ir–P distances are slightly shorter in **2**, while the P–Ir–P angle increases slightly by 3.3°.



Figure 1.7. Structures of **1** and **2** in crystals of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (A) and (PNP)IrH₂ (B), respectively. Green, pink, gray, blue, and teal ellipsoids represent chlorine, phosphorus, carbon, nitrogen, and iridium atoms, respectively. H atoms have been omitted for clarity. Selected distances (Å) and angles (deg) for (PNP)Ir(H)Cl and (PNP)IrH₂, respectively: Ir–Cl = 2.370(2); Ir–P = 2.295(1), 2.260(2); Ir–N = 2.051(3), 2.047(5); P–Ir–P = 163.8(1), 167.1(1)

IR data of crystalline 2 resembles the 1 with peaks at similar wavenumbers but with changes in the peak intensity. This further suggests that the stretches at 2000–2200 cm⁻¹ may be the Ir–H stretch. The presence of hydrides was confirmed via ¹H NMR spectroscopy through the triplet occurrence at -25.41 ppm that integrates to two. The ¹H NMR also closely aligns with the reported literature spectrum for 2 with slight differences. The doublet of triplets at 7.85 ppm is reported as a doublet in literature. The peak at 7.00 ppm is a quartet instead of the reported singlet in literature, and the doublet of doublet at 6.9 ppm is reported as a doublet in literature. These multiplicity differences likely arise from the stronger field strength of the instrument used (500 MHz) compared to the field strength of the literature spectrum (400 MHz). This along with differences in sample concentrations could allow for the better resolution of the spectrum to fully elucidate the ortho and meta couplings of these protons and cause changes in multiplicities observed compared to literature. The ¹³C NMR is similar to what is reported but the peak at 126.78 ppm has a significantly larger coupling of 10.76 Hz compared to the reported 3 Hz coupling for this peak in literature. This large difference is likely a result of distortions caused by heteronuclear carbon - phosphorus coupling that evolves through the experiment which can lead to significant changes in the spectrum or in coupling constants. Despite those differences, the other characterization techniques and the rest of the NMR spectrum support the isolation of 2.



Figure 1.8. IR spectrum of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (light blue) and (PNP)IrH₂ (pink).

The (PNP)IrH₂, **2**, complex was reacted with norbornene, which acts as a sacrificial hydrogen acceptor, in a solution of THF over 24 h to afford the (PNP)Ir= $C(C_3H_6O)$ carbene complex, **3**. Dark red crystals of **3** suitable for single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis were grown from a



Scheme 1.4. Synthesis of the (PNP)Ir=C(C₃H₆O), 3, carbene from 2

concentrated pentane solution at -35 °C. The molecular structure of **3** was proven through singlecrystal X-ray diffraction analysis, Figure 1.8. The complex crystallizes in the *Pbcn* space group. The Ir–P, Ir–N, and Ir–C distances are 2.286(1), 2.078(2), and 1.904(3) Å, respectively, which are well within observed Ir–P and Ir–N distances in other Ir–PNP compounds.^{31-34,} The P–Ir–P angle is 163.1(1)°, which is well within observed P–Ir–P angles reported in other Ir–PNP compounds.^{33,} ³⁴ The shortened Ir–C bond distance of 1.904 Å falls in the range expected for iridium carbene complexes.³⁵ The ¹H NMR spectrum of the complex confirms that a hydride abstraction occurred as there are no protons in the negative ppm region, and the THF coordination is supported by the appearance of three new peaks corresponding to the three methylene groups on THF. The ¹H NMR of **3** is similar to what is reported in literature with slight differences in peak multiplicities, similar to **1**. The doublet at 7.26 ppm is reported as a singlet in literature, and the peak at 6.87 ppm is a doublet of doublet instead of the doublet reported in literature. Finally, the doublet of doublet of doublet at 2.68 ppm is reported as a multiplet in literature. These differences likely result from differences in sample concentration or in instrument field strength, but the latter cannot be confirmed as the literature does not specify if the instrument used to measure **3** was 400 or 500 MHz.



Figure 1.9. Structure of **3** in a crystal of (PNP)Ir=C(C₃H₆O). Red, pink, gray, blue, and teal ellipsoids represent oxygen, phosphorus, carbon, nitrogen, and iridium atoms, respectively. H atoms have been omitted for clarity. Selected distances (Å) and angles (deg) for of (PNP)Ir=C(C₃H₆O): Ir–P = 2.286(1); Ir–N = 2.078(2); Ir–C = 1.904(3); P–Ir–P = 163.1(1).

1.6 Conclusion

Herein, the synthesis of the (PNP)IrH₂ complex was accomplished using a multistep synthetic protocol published in literature. The (PNP)Ir(H)Cl and (PNP)IrH₂ complexes were characterized for the first time through single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis. The dihydride complex was subjected to double α -C–H activation of tetrahydrofuran to afford the THF-activated (PNP)Ir=C(C₃H₆O) complex. In the future, the goal is the oxidation of the cyclic carbene using N₂O to oxygenate the substrate while coordinating dinitrogen to the iridium complex. Such functionalizations are not yet known and would be a major step in using N₂O as an oxygen atom transfer reaction to oxygenate cyclic ethers. If N₂O can cleanly oxygenate the cyclic carbene, it could lead to possible catalytic opportunities to catalytically generate cyclic esters from cyclic ethers using N₂O with the iridium dihydride complex, and this could be monumental in being able to generate cyclic esters that have a large array of industrial uses. Furthermore, if this is successful, this strategy could also be applied to the oxygenation of alkanes and ethers to generate other value-added products from this greenhouse gas.

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CHAPTER 2: INTRODUCTION OF DIATOMIC BISMUTH UNITS INTO RARE EARTH CHEMISTRY

2.1 Importance and Significance of Bismuth

The chemistry of nitrogen is well studied due to its prevalence in the nitrogen cycle, but the chemistry of the heavier pnictogens is much less explored, especially in the form of metal complexes with the d- and f- block elements. This is especially noticeable with the f- block elements whereas of August 2023, there are almost 30,000 known f- block nitrogen complexes which is over 30 times the number of heavier pnictogen f- element complexes. This trend remains true with the d- block elements although to a lesser extreme with bismuth having the least known number of complexes with the f- and d- block elements.¹

Bismuth is slightly radioactive with a half-life of 2.01 x 10¹⁹ years, and the heaviest period 6 main group element that is relatively non-toxic unlike its neighbors, thallium, lead, and polonium.^{1,2} As bismuth is a heavy element, it experiences significant 6s orbital contraction and radial expansion of the 6p orbitals due to relativistic effects, and this can enable enormous spin–orbit coupling.^{2,3} Bismuth is also able to adopt a wide variety of coordination numbers, coordination modes, and formal oxidation states.² Commonly, bismuth exists predominantly in its Bi^{III} oxidation state due to the inert-pair effect (relativistic effects) of the 6s² electrons that makes the Bi^V oxidation state less stable.³ However, bismuth has also been shown to exist in lower oxidation states such as Bi^{-I} compounds.² Bismuth also exhibits highly variable coordination numbers ranging from 3-coordinate to 9-coordinate complexes.⁵

The unique properties of bismuth have caused researchers to explore its uses in functional and sustainable materials. One such example is the use of bismuth in materials chemistry as a replacement for lead in photovoltaic perovskite materials due to its lower toxicity.² Bi^{III} compounds have also seen use in organic synthesis in the oxidation of alcohols, epoxides, sulfides, etc. due to their strong Lewis acidity, low toxicity, and tolerance towards moisture.⁶ Furthermore, bismuth has seen extensive use in radical chemistry and photoredox catalysis via accessing the Bi^{II} radical by performing single electron reduction of common Bi^{III} compounds, and these radicals can undergo radical–radical coupling with reagents like TEMPO (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-yl)oxyl).^{7,8} The most well-known application of bismuth compounds is in the medicinal field as stomach remedies in the forms of bismuth subsalicylate (Pepto-Bismol) and colloidal bismuth subcitrate (De-Nol).⁹

2.2 Rare Earth Metal-Mediated Activation

Although bismuth chemistry is underexplored with both transition metals and rare earth metals, the rare earth elements have intrinsic properties that allow for the isolation of molecules that would normally be unattainable in molecular systems with transition metals. The reactivity of the rare earth elements is fundamentally different from the transition metals in that they are commonly trivalent and rarely seen in the +I or +IV oxidation state in metal complexes. The lanthanides also have their coordination geometries almost entirely dictated by steric attributes rather than the ligand field. Another crucial difference between the lanthanides and the transition metals is the presence of the 4f orbitals which are deeply buried and contracted causing them to not participate in bonding. The result is that chemical bonds with the lanthanides and the other rare earth elements are predominantly ionic.¹⁰ The strong ionic interactions of the lanthanides with other elements allow for the isolation of molecular compounds containing unique chemical motifs, such as the first ever isolation of the N₂³⁺⁻ and the (NO)²⁺⁻ radical anions in 2009 and 2010, respectively, Figure 2.1^{11,12} Prior to these publications, these ions had never been observed in any reported isolated complex. Rare-earth elements facilitated the isolation of these radical complexes due their ionic nature that can trap the radical and prevent it from communicating with the external environment.¹³



Rare earth elements have been shown to be able to activate small molecules and generate chemical motifs unprecedented with transition metal-based complexes, but to accomplish such, the nature of the ligand is crucial for the desired reactivity. One of the most important ligands in rare earth chemistry is the cyclopentadienyl (Cp) ligand and its derivatives. The latter are prevalent in rare earth chemistry due to several reasons: (a) impart higher solubility in aprotic non-polar solvents and prevent oligomerization, (b) can access high coordination numbers, (c) high tunability through

addition of sterically demanding organic groups onto the carbon ring atoms, (d) anionic charge of the Cp ring leads to strong electrostatic interaction with the rare earth metal cation. Rare earth metal cyclopentadienyl complexes have been utilized in the activation of small molecules, as shown in Figure 2.2. Figure 2.2A demonstrates the RE-mediated reduction of dinitrogen via addition of KC₈ to the $((Cp^{Me4H})_2RE(BPh_4)$ complex to yield the $(Cp^{Me4H}_2RE(THF))_2(\mu-N_2)$ complex, RE = Tb, Dy. These dinitrogen complexes can then be further reduced with another molar equivalent of KC₈ in the presence of 2.2.2 cryptand (crypt-222) to yield [K(crypt-222)(THF)][($Cp^{Me4H_2}RE(THF)$)₂(μ -N₂·)]. The latter were treated with 2-Me-THF and crystallized from concentrated solutions to yield the [K(crypt-222)][(Cp^{Me4H}_2RE)₂(μ -N₂·)], (where RE = Tb, Dy).¹⁴ Rare earth elements were also used to isolate the first ever example of a Bi2³⁻ radical unit in a metal complex for any d- or f- block element using the procedure shown in Figure 2.2B. This was achieved via reaction of 8 molar equiv. of $(Cp^*)_2RE(BPh_4)$, where $Cp^* = CpMe_5$, with 2 molar equiv. KC₈ under Ar to yield a bismuth bridging dilanthanide complex containing the Bi_2^{2-} bridging moiety. These complexes can then be further reduced with another molar equivalent of KC₈ in THF in the presence of 2.2.2 cryptand to yield the corresponding [K(crypt-222)][(Cp*₂RE)₂(μ - η^2 : η^2 -Bi₂)]·2 THF complexes.³ These few examples demonstrate the potential for reactivity and activation of small molecules using rare earth metal complexes that are supported by cyclopentadienyl ligand scaffolds.



Figure 2.2. (A) Synthesis of the N_2^{3-} radical bridged complex from the $(Cp^{Me4H})_2RE(BPh_4)$ complex. (B) Synthetic route towards the first isolation of an activated Bi_2^{3-} radical bridged complex.

2.3 Bismuth Activation in Rare Earth Metal Complexes

Activation of elemental bismuth and reactivity studies on small bismuth species using the *d*- and *f*- block elements have been a growing field of research due to aforementioned electronic properties of bismuth. The second chapter will focus on the isolation and investigation of the bismuth analogues of dinitrogen in organometallic complexes in multiple oxidation states as shown in Figure 2.3. Diatomic bismuth moieties have been isolated in various metal or main group element complexes in oxidation states similar to what has been reported for analogous dinitrogen complexes. However, the Bi_2^{1-*} radical anion remains yet to be isolated in any molecular compound and is a therefore sought-after goal in the research of diatomic bismuth.



Figure 2.3. Diatomic bismuth moieties in oxidation states of 1- to 4- analogous to d N₂. The light shade of purple indicates units not previously isolated in a main group element complex. Dark purple indicates its isolation in a main group element complex.

The challenge with isolation of these diatomic bismuth species is that, unlike dinitrogen, diatomic bismuth does not exist in ambient conditions. However, diatomic bismuth can be obtained at extremely high temperatures and has previously been isolated through vaporization of elemental bismuth in an evacuated quartz tube at 1200 °C.¹⁵ Stabilization of the fleeting diatomic bismuth unit can be achieved in the presence of metal atoms in organometallic molecular compounds. The rare earth elements serve as excellent candidates to stabilize these anionic bismuth units due to their high electropositivity and tendency to form complexes of high coordination number.¹⁰ Examples of rare earth metal complexes being able to stabilize anionic bismuth bridges are shown in Figure 2.B and in Figure 2.4. Figure 2.4A shows the seminal work by Evans et al. where the first side-on coordinated Bi₂ moiety between two metals was isolated using the decamethyl samarocene complex.¹⁶ Figure 2.4B demonstrates the successful use of rare earth metal complexes to isolate the first lanthanide complex where the lanthanide centers are bridged by a anionic Bi₆⁶⁻ core.¹⁷ It is known in literature that the unique bonding properties of the rare earth elements allow for the isolation of seldom seen chemical motifs in molecular complexes, as shown by their use in

the first isolations of the N_2^{3-} , $(NO)^{2-}$, and Bi_2^{3-} radical anions for any *d*- or *f*- block element.



Figure 2.4. Examples of bismuth bridging rare earth metal complexes. (A) First published example of a dibismuth complex in which the diatomic bismuth unit is coordinated side-on in a planar bonding mode to two metals (B) Isolation of the first dilanthanide complex where the two lanthanide centers are bridged by a Bi_6^{6-} core.

Fifteen lanthanides alongside scandium and yttrium comprise the rare earth elements, and as such, selection of the appropriate rare earth element is an important choice when deciding which element should be used to isolate the diatomic bismuth units in metal complexes. Shown in Figure 2.2B are the rare elements used in the synthesis of the [K(crypt-222)][(Cp*₂RE)₂(μ - η^2 : η^2 -Bi₂*)]·2THF complex, which were gadolinium, terbium, dysprosium, and yttrium in order of decreasing ionic radii. Hence, the next lanthanide in this series would be holmium, with an ionic radii of 1.155 Å, to determine if the Bi₂ moiety is accessible with each rare earth element.¹⁸ If that proves successful, the chemical oxidation and reduction of the Bi₂²⁻ unit would be attempted with the goal of isolating Bi₂ motifs with charges spanning –1 to –4. Monooxidation of Bi₂²⁻ in the systems would afford a currently unknown Bi₂¹⁻ complex, a result which will be of great interest to both the main-group and organometallic community. In all cases, investigation of the influence of the charge of the Bi₂ⁿ (n = 1, 2, 3, 4) unit will be of fundamental interest. Thus, the synthesis of the Ho analog of Bi₂²⁻ complexes and its selective mono-oxidation and -reduction to give Bi₂¹⁻ and Bi₂³⁻ complexes, as illustrated in Figure 2.5, is an exciting aim.



Figure 2.5. Diatomic bismuth compounds where the Bi_2 moiety exists in oxidation states from -1 to -4, which are obtained through oxidation and reduction reactions.

In addition to using the next smallest, rare earth element in the series following yttrium and dysprosium, holmium itself has interesting physical properties that make it an interesting choice for this synthetic strategy. The Ho^{III} ion shows interesting spectroscopic applications as it can have up-conversion of its luminescence in the presence of 4f metal ions owing to its weak f-f transition. Holmium also exhibits an efficient luminescent re-absorption effect due to its many absorption peaks in the visible range. These absorption peaks can strongly be influenced by temperature leading to hot bands that are thermally dependent. This allows for opportunities to probe the holmium bismuth complexes using luminescence or the temperature dependence of its absorptions.¹⁹ Aside from these spectroscopic properties, holmium also has historically been one of the most important rare earth magnetic elements used industrially in the form of holmium intermetallic compounds.²⁰ Interestingly, there are also no molecular compounds known containing a holmium–bismuth bond, so the isolation of such would be monumental.

2.4 Experimental

General Information All manipulations mentioned herein were conducted under inert argon atmosphere to exclude moisture or oxygen using Schlenk line and glovebox techniques. House nitrogen was purified through a MBraun HP–500–MO–OX gas purifier prior to use. *n*-hexane was dried by refluxing over calcium hydride and distilled before use. Tetrahydrofuran and toluene were dried by refluxing over elemental potassium. All solvents were tested for the presence of water and oxygen with a drop of sodium benzophenone radical solution in the glovebox. Potassium bis(trimethylsilyl)amide (KN(SiMe₃)₂) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, dissolved in toluene, centrifuged, filtered, and recrystallized at –35 °C. Pentamethylcyclopentadienyl (CpMe₅H) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and dried over 4 Å molecular sieves. Triphenylbismuth and 2.2.2-cryptand (crypt-222) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and recrystallized from hexane. Allyl magnesium chloride (2.0 M in THF) and anhydrous HoCl₃ were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. Potassium graphite was prepared according to literature procedures.²¹ IR spectra were recorded with an Cary 630 diamond ATR–IR spectrometer in a nitrogen atmosphere. A PerkinElmer 2400 Series II CHNS/O analyzer was used for CHN elemental analyses.

X–ray Crystallography Data was collected at a XtaLAB Synergy, Dualflex, HyPix diffractometer equipped with an Oxford Cryosystems low-temperature device, operating at T = 100 K using MoK α radiation. Data were measured using omega and phi scans of 1.0° per frame for 30 s. Cell parameters were retrieved using CrysAlisPro (Rigaku, V1.171.41.90a, 2020) software and refined using CrysAlisPro (Rigaku, V1.171.41.90a, 2020). Data reduction was performed using the CrysAlisPro (Rigaku, V1.171.41.90a, 2020) software.

Synthesis of KCpMe₅. KCpMe₅ was synthesized according to the literature procedure.²¹ Under dry argon atmosphere, CpMe₅H (2.91 g, 0.02 mol) was dissolved in 20 mL toluene in a 200 mL Schlenk flask. While stirring, a solution of KN(SiMe₃)₂ (4.993 g, 0.03 mol) in 20 mL toluene was added to the reaction flask, and this was stirred for 2 h. The solution was then filtered through a glass frit, and the solid washed with 20 mL hexane. The solid was then dried *in vacuo* to afford a white solid in 76% yield (2.89 g).

Synthesis of $Cp^*_2Ho(\mu-Cl_2)K$, *A*. Compound **A** was synthesized according to the literature procedure.^{21, 22} Under dry argon atmosphere, HoCl₃ (1.96 g, 0.01 mol) and KCp^{*} (2.45 g, 0.01 mol) was dissolved in 80 mL of THF in a 100 mL round bottom flask. The reaction mixture was

stirred for 12 h resulting in a color change from reddish pink to orange. The solution was filtered through a glass frit to remove the white insoluble solids. The filtrate was then dried *in vacuo*. This solid was then washed with 4 x 40 mL of toluene to remove any toluene-soluble impurities. After toluene washes, the solid was then dried *in vacuo* for 1 hour at ambient temperature followed by during under vacuum at 70°C for 2 h to remove any coordinating THF. This affords $Cp_{2}^{*}Ho(\mu-Cl_{2})K$ as a pale red solid in 85% yield (3.32 g)

Synthesis of Cp*2Ho(η^3 -C₃H₅), **B**. Compound **B** was synthesized according to the literature procedure.^{21,22} Under dry argon atmosphere, Cp*₂Ho(μ -Cl₂)K (3.26 g, 0.01 mol) was added to a 250 mL round bottom flask with 20 mL toluene to form a slurry. To this mixture, allylmagnesium chloride (2.84 mL of a 2.0 M solution in THF) was added dropwise over the course of 10 minutes while stirring, which turned the solution from pale red to an orange-brown color. Solution was stirred for 2 h before volatiles were removed *in vacuo*. Once dried, the solid was triturated with 3 x 20 mL of 1,4 dioxane in hexane mixture (1:10). The solids were filtered through celite into another 250 mL round bottom flask where the volatiles were removed *in vacuo*. Bright orange crystals of B suitable for X–ray analysis were obtained at –35 °C from a concentrated toluene solution in 76% crystalline yield (2.84 g).

Synthesis of $[Cp*_{2}Ho][(\mu-Ph_{2})BPh_{2}]$, *C*. Compound C was synthesized according to the literature procedure.^{21, 22} Under dry argon atmosphere, $Cp*_{2}Ho(\eta^{3}-C_{3}H_{5})$ (2.93 g, 0.01 mol) was dissolved in 40 mL toluene in a 250 mL Schlenk flask. Once fully dissolved, $[HNEt_{3}][BPh_{4}]$ (2.20 g, 0.01 mol) was transferred to the reaction flask. The reaction was stirred for 1 hour with the glass stopper off to allow for release of propene gas and then stirred for another hour with the glass stopper on. After stirring, the colorless solid was removed via filtration to yield a yellow filtrate. The solid was dried *in vacuo* to produce $[Cp*_{2}Ho][(\mu-Ph_{2})BPh_{2}]$ as a yellow powder in 67% yield (4.10 g). Synthesis of $(Cp*_{2}Ho)_{2}(\mu-\eta^{2}:\eta^{2}-Bi_{2})$, *1*. Under dry argon atmosphere, $[Cp*_{2}Ho][(\mu-Ph_{2})BPh_{2}]$ (0.17 g, 0.22 mmol) was dissolved in 4 mL THF followed by the addition of a solution of triphenylbismuth (0.02 g, 0.06 mmol) dissolved in 2 mL THF. A suspension of potassium graphite (0.03 g, 0.22 mmol) in 1 mL THF was transferred to the reaction mixture causing an immediate color change of the solution from light yellow to maroon. The reaction was stirred at ambient temperature for 15 minutes to yield a dark, maroon-colored solution. The reaction vial was then cooled in a Coldwell with dry ice. Once the reaction cooled for 20 minutes, the red solution was

filtered to remove the insoluble graphite and KBPh₄ precipitates. The filtrate was then dried *in vacuo* in the Coldwell over 3 h. The resulting solid was then washed with 3 x 2 mL hexane to remove the hexane soluble Cp*₂Ho(Ph)(THF) byproduct to yield a reddish–brown residue in 54% yield (0.053 g). Dark red crystals of **1** suitable for X–ray analysis were grown at -35 °C from layering hexane over a concentrated toluene solution in 8% crystalline yield (0.003 g) based on elemental bismuth analysis. Anal. Calcd for C₄₀H₆₀Ho₂Bi₂: C 37.27, H 4.69, N 0. Found: C 37.14, H 4.13, N 0.19.

2.5 Results and Discussion

The $Cp^{*}_{2}Ho(BPh_{4})$ complex, where Cp^{*} = pentamethylcyclopentadienyl, was synthesized via literature procedures, as is shown in Scheme 2.1. The first step involves the complexation of KCp^{*} to HoCl₃ in THF through a salt metathesis reaction to yield the "salt-like" compound, $Cp_{2}^{*}Ho(\mu -$ Cl₂)K (A). A was then reacted with allyl magnesium chloride to obtain the Cp*2Ho(η^3 -C₃H₅) (B) alkyl complex through another salt metathesis reaction. Lastly, displacement of the allyl is completed through reaction with [HNEt₃][BPh₄] to yield the $Cp^*_{2}Ho(BPh_4)$ compound (C). The utility of using Cp^{*}₂Ho(BPh₄) complex comes from the weakly coordinating tetraphenylborate ligand that is bound to the lanthanide center through agostic interactions. This allows it to be easily displaced by any incoming ligands, while also being a sterically bulky ligand that occupies a large amount of equatorial space in the coordination sphere of the lanthanide.



Scheme 2.1. Synthesis for the [Cp*₂Ho][(µ-Ph₂)BPh₂] complex from HoCl₃

As shown in scheme 2.2, eight molar equivalents of Cp^{*}₂Ho(BPh₄) is then allowed to react with two molar equivalents triphenyl bismuth at -78 °C in THF solution, followed by addition of eight molar equivalents of potassium graphite (KC8) as a reductant to reduce Bi^{III} to Bi^{-I} to vield the hexane soluble $Cp_{2}^{*}Ho(Ph)(THF)$, **2**, and toluene soluble $(Cp_{2}^{*}Ho)_{2}(\mu-\eta^{2}:\eta^{2}-Bi_{2})$, **1**, complexes in addition to graphite and potassium tetraphenylborate precipitate. Solubility differences are utilized to separate the two complexes from each other through fractional recrystallization. Dark red crystals of 1 were grown from a concentrated toluene solution at -35 °C. The molecular structure of the synthesized compound was confirmed via single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis, as shown in Figure 2.6. To my knowledge, this is the first molecular holmium-bismuth compound characterized.



Scheme 2.2. Synthesis of $(Cp*_{2}Ho)_{2}(\mu-\eta^{2}:\eta^{2}-Bi_{2})$ from $Cp*_{2}Ho(BPh_{4})$.

The $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ crystallizes in the $P2_1$ space group and is isostructural to similarly reported $(Cp*_2RE)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ complexes.³ As shown in Figure 2.6, each lanthanide ion is eightfold coordinated to the two η^5 -Cp* and each bismuth atom of the Bi₂^{2–} bridge. There is a nearly coplanar arrangement of the Bi₂^{2–} bridge with the two lanthanide ~nters. The Bi–Bi distance is 2.842(1) Å, which is in accordance with a Bi=Bi double borst observed in other compounds.^{16, 23} The mean Ho–Bi distance is 3.191(1) Å, which is shorter than the analogous yttrium complex, due to lanthanide contraction.³ The mean Cp*_{centroid}–Ho–Cp*_{centroid} angle is 135.9° similar to other complexes with the Cp*₂RE moieties.³



Figure 2.6. Structure of **1** in a crystal of $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$. Green, purple, and gray ellipsoids represent holmium, bismuth, and carbon atoms, respectively. H atoms have been omitted for clarity. Selected distances (Å) and angles (deg) are as follows: Bi–Bi = 2.842(1), mean Ho–Bi = 3.191(1), Ho–Ho = 5.772(2), mean Cp^*_{cent} –Ho– Cp^*_{cent} = 135.9(1).

The main features of the IR spectrum of **1** are stretching modes around $2800 - 3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the CH₂ groups of the cyclopentadienyl ring and around 1370 cm^{-1} corresponding to the methyl groups on Cp^{*}, Figure 2.7. Compared to other (Cp*₂RE)₂(μ - η ²: η ²-Bi₂) species there are minimal differences in spectrum as the RE used is changed.



Figure 2.7. IR spectrum of $(Cp*_2RE)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ (RE = Y, pink), (RE = Tb, blue), (RE = Ho (1), green), (RE = Gd, orange), (RE = Dy, black)

Crystals of the hexane soluble $Cp^*_2Ho(Ph)(THF)$ complex were grown from a concentrated hexane solution at -35 °C. The molecular structure of the synthesized compound was confirmed via single crystal X-ray diffraction analysis and is shown in Figure 2.8, which is to the best of our knowledge, the first report of a crystal structure for **2**. $Cp^*_2Ho(Ph)THF$) crystallizes in the $P2_1/c$ space group and is isostructural to similarly reported $Cp^*_2RE(Ph)(THF)$ complexes.³ As shown in Figure 2.8, each lanthanide is eightfold coordinated to the two η^5 - Cp^* , the oxygen atom in THF, and η^1 -Ph.



Figure 2.8. Structure of **2** in a crystal of $Cp*_{2}Ho(Ph)THF$). Green, red, and gray ellipsoids represent holmium, oxygen, and carbon atoms, respectively. H atoms have been omitted for clarity. Selected distances (Å) and angles (deg) are as follows: Ho–O = 2.387(2), Ho–Ph = 2.444(3), Ho–centroid = 2.390(1), Cp^*_{cent} –Ho– Cp^*_{cent} = 135.8(1).

The Ho–O, Ho–Ph, and mean Ho centroid distance (Å) is 2.387, 2.444, and 2.390, respectively. The Cp^*_{cent} –Ho– Cp^*_{cent} (cent = centroid) angle is 135.8(1) ° similar to other complexes with the Cp^*_2RE moieties.

Synthesis of **1** is challenging due to the strong oxophilicity of the lanthanides that cause lanthanide complexes to be highly susceptible ro reactions with trace moisture and air. This was evidenced by the decomposition of $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ to the $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^1-O)$, **3**, complex when left at ambient temperature, where $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ reacts with trace moisture or oxygen in the glovebox. This complex was crystallographically characterized via single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis and shown in Figure 2.9, which is to the best of our knowledge, the first report of a crystal structure for **3**. It crystallizes in the $I\overline{4}2m$ space group and each lanthanide is sevenfold coordinated to the two η^5 -Cp* and the bridging oxygen atom, Figure 2.9. The Ho–O–Ho, Ho–O and mean Ho–centroid distance (Å) are 4.107(1), 2.054(1), and 2.390(3), respectively. The much shorter Ho–O–Ho distance forces one of the metallocene moieties to rotate out of plane due to the much closer proximity of the metallocenes that is induced from the much smaller bridging oxygen atom. The Cp^*_{cent} -Ho– Cp^*_{cent} angle (cent = centroid) is 135.8(1) ° similar to other complexes with the Cp^*_2RE moieties.



Figure 2.9. Structure of **3** in a crystal of $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^1-O)$. Green, red, and gray ellipsoids represent holmium, oxygen, and carbon atoms, respectively. H atoms have been omitted for clarity. Selected distances (Å) and angles (deg) are as follows: Ho–O –Ho = 4.107(1) mean Ho–O = 2.054(1), mean Ho–centroid = 2.390(1), mean Cp*_{cent}–Ho–Cp*_{cent} = 135.8(1).

2.6 Conclusion

The multistep synthesis of the Cp^{*}₂Ho(BPh₄) complex was completed and was then followed by a reaction with triphenyl bismuth and KC₈ to generate the novel $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ complex. This compound was then crystallographically characterized with single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis and represents the first Ho-Bi bond characterized in a molecular compound. Following this synthesis, the next step going forward is the reduction of oxidation of this complex to generate a series of complexes with identical topologies where only the oxidation state of the bismuth bridge changes. Oxidation of the $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ complex is expected to yield a similar complex but with a radical Bi2¹⁻ bridge, which would be the first time such an oxidation state would be isolated for a diatomic bismuth bridge, and this result would be of great interest to both main group and organometallic chemists. Similarly, reduction of the $(Cp*_2Ho)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ should yield the radical Bi2³⁻ bridged complex, which could bear interesting magnetic properties such as single molecule magnetism exhibited by other rare earth analogue of such a complex. This could then be followed by another electron reduction to yield a complex with a Bi2⁴⁻ bridge, and this would be the first time such a complex would have been isolated for any lanthanide or transition metal making the result very exciting for organometallic chemists. Finally, another avenue that could be explored is how the properties of these $(Cp*_2RE)_2(\mu-\eta^2:\eta^2-Bi_2)$ changes from one rare earth to another and how their physical properties change when the oxidation state of the bismuth bridge is altered. This would allow for greater understanding of the interaction between bismuth with the rare earth elements and could be an important step in making novel organometallic bismuth complexes that bear intriguing physical properties owing to the unique properties of bismuth itself and its interaction with the rare earth elements.

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APPENDIX



Figure S1. ¹H NMR of Bis(2-bromo-4-methylphenyl) amine (500 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C) δ: 7.40 (d, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph, ⁴*J*_{H-H}: 2.0 Hz), 7.11 (d, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph, ³*J*_{H-H}: 8.2 Hz), 7.00 (dd, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph, ³*J*_{H-H} = 8.2 Hz, ⁴*J*_{H-H}: 1.9 Hz), 6.18 (s, 1H, <u>*H*</u>–N), 2.28 (s, 6H, Ph–<u>*Me*</u>).



Figure S2. ¹³C NMR of Bis(2-bromo-4-methylphenyl) amine (126 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C) δ : 137.83, (<u>C</u>–N) 133.30, (<u>Ph</u>), 132.09 (Ph), 128.60, (<u>Ph</u>), 117.95 (<u>Ph</u>), 113.99 (<u>Ph</u>), 20.23 (Ph–<u>Me</u>)



Figure S3. ¹H NMR of PNP(H) (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ : 8.31 (t, 1H, <u>H</u>–N, ⁴J_{P-H}: 8.5 Hz), 7.40 (dd, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.4 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 4.1 Hz), 7.20 (d, 14 H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 2.6 Hz), 6.92 (dd, 2 H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.4 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 7.0 Hz), 0.98 (dd, 12 H, CH<u>Me</u>₂, ³J_{H-H}: 11.7 Hz, ⁴J_{H-}

_н: 6.9 Hz).



Figure S4. ¹³C NMR of PNP(H) (126 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ :147.37 (d, <u>C</u>–N, ²J_{C-P}: 20.4 Hz), 134.00 (<u>*Ph*</u>), 130.63 (<u>*Ph*</u>), 128.93 (<u>*Ph*</u>), 123.43(d, <u>*Ph*</u>, ¹J_{C-P}: 16.7), 117.26 (<u>*Ph*</u>), 23.52 (d, <u>*C*HMe₂</u>, ²J_{C-P}: 11.4), 20.91 (Ph–<u>Me</u>), 20.47 (d, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ¹J_{C-P}: 19.3), 19.27 (d, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ²J_{C-P}: 9.6).





Figure S6. PNP(H) FTIR spectrum, C.



Figure S7. ¹H–¹³C gHSQC of PNP(H) (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S8. ¹H–¹H gCOSY of PNP(H) in C₆D₆ (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)







Figure S11. ¹H–¹³C HSQC of [Ir(COD)Cl]₂ (500 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C)



Figure S12. ¹H–¹H gCOSY of [Ir(COD)Cl]₂ (500 MHz, ppm, CDCl₃, 25 °C)



10 5 0 -5 -10 -15 -20 -25 -30 -35 -40 -45 -50 -55 -60 -65 -70 -75 -80 -85 -90 -95 f1 (ppm)

Figure S13. ¹H NMR of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C): δ : 7.86 (d, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph, ³*J*_{H-H}: 8.8 Hz), 6.96 (s, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph), 6.73 (m, 2H, <u>*H*</u>–Ph), 2.94 (m, 2H, <u>*CH*Me₂), 2.44 (m, 2H, <u>*CH*Me₂), 2.20 (s, 6H, Ph–<u>*Me*</u>), 1.40 (q, 6H, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ³*J*_{H-H}: 7.6 Hz), 1.21 (q, 6H, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ³*J*_{H-H}: 7.9 Hz), 1.07 (q, 6H, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ³*J*_{H-H}: 6.9 Hz), 0.97 (q, 6H, CH<u>*Me*</u>₂, ³*J*_{H-H}: 7.8 Hz), -45.61 (t, 1H, Ir–<u>*H*</u>, *J*_{Ir-H}: 12.3 Hz).</u></u>



Figure S14. ¹³C NMR of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (126 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ : 163.74 (t, <u>C</u>–N, ²J_{C-P}: 9.52 Hz), 132.45 (<u>*Ph*</u>), 131.52 (<u>*Ph*</u>), 126.36 (t, <u>*Ph*</u>, ²J_{C-P}: 3.4 Hz), 121.53 (t, <u>*Ph*</u>, ¹J_{C-P}: 22.20 Hz), 116.98 (t, <u>*Ph*</u>, ²J_{C-P}: 5.08 Hz), 27.14 (t, <u>C</u>HMe₂, ¹J_{C-P}: 13.22 Hz), 24.59 (t, <u>C</u>HMe₂, ¹J_{C-P}: 16.09 Hz), 20.33 (Ph–<u>*Me*</u>), 18.64 (CH<u>*Me*</u>₂), 18.18 (CH<u>*Me*</u>₂).



Figure S15. ³¹P{¹H} NMR of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (203 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ: 44.23.



Figure S16. ¹H–¹H gCOSY of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S17. ¹H–¹³C gHSQC of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S18. ¹H–¹³C gHMBC of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S19. $^{1}H-^{1}H$ NOESY of (PNP)Ir(H)Cl (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S20. ¹H NMR of (PNP)IrH₂ (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) : 7.85 (dt, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.6 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.2 Hz), 7.00 (q, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ⁴J_{H-H}: 3.6 Hz), 6.90 (dd, 2H, <u>H</u>–Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.7 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.1 Hz), 2.22 (s, 6H, Ph–<u>Me</u>), 2.13 (m, 4H, <u>CH</u>Me₂) 1.22 (q, 12H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.6 Hz), 1.00 (q, 12H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.1 Hz), -25.41 (t, 2H, Ir–<u>H</u>₂, J_{Ir-H}: 10.7 Hz).



Figure S21. ¹³C NMR of (PNP)IrH₂ (126 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ : 164.59 (*C*–N, ²*J*_{C-P}: 10.76 Hz), 133.27 (*Ph*), 131.64 (*Ph*), 126.58 (*Ph*, ²*J*_{C-P}: 10.76 Hz), 126.22 (*Ph*, ¹*J*_{C-P}: 19.7 Hz), 115.03 (*Ph*), 25.19 (*C*HMe₂)), 22.54 (*C*HMe₂), 20.22 (Ph–*Me*), 20.01 (CH*Me*₂), 18.47 (CH*Me*₂).



Figure S22. ³¹P{¹H} NMR of (PNP)IrH₂ (203 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C): δ: 57.76.



Figure S23. $^{1}H-^{1}H$ gCOSY of (PNP)IrH₂ (500 MHz ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S24. ¹H–¹³C gHSQC of (PNP)IrH₂ (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S25. $^{1}H-^{13}C$ gHMBC of (PNP)IrH₂ (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C)



Figure S26: ¹H NMR of (PNP)Ir=C(C₃H₆O) (500 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) : 7.90 (d, 2H, <u>*H*</u>-Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.6 Hz), 7.26 (d, 2H, <u>*H*</u>-Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 3.1 Hz), 6.87 (dd, 2H, *H*-Ph, ³J_{H-H}: 8.6 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.1 Hz), 3.51 (t, 2H, C₃H₆O, ³J_{H-H}: 7.0 Hz), 2.68 (ddd, 4H, <u>*CH*</u>Me₂, ³J_{H-H}: 7.1 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 4.4 Hz, ⁴J_{H-H}: 2.7 Hz), 2.30 (s, 6H, Ph-<u>Me</u>), 1.38 (qu, 2H, C₃H₆O, ³J_{H-H}: 7.3 Hz), 1.32 (q, 13H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 7.4 Hz), 1.26 (q, 13 H, CH<u>Me₂</u>, ³J_{H-H}: 6.9 Hz), 0.39 (t, 2H, C₃H₆O, ³J_{H-H}: 7.6 Hz).



Figure S27. ³¹P{¹H} NMR of (PNP)Ir=C(C₃H₆O) (203 MHz, ppm, benzene-d₆, 25 °C) δ: 42.11.