

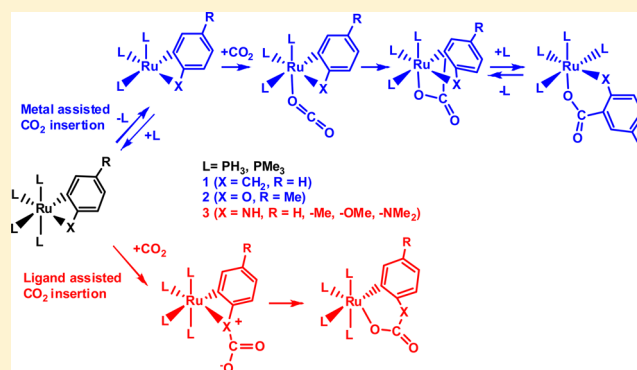
Metal- and Ligand-Assisted CO₂ Insertion into Ru–C, Ru–N, and Ru–O Bonds of Ruthenium(II) Phosphine Complexes: A Density Functional Theory Study

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The CO₂ insertion reactions of [L₄Ru(η²-CH₂C₆H₄)] (1), [L₄Ru(η²-OC₆H₃Me)] (2), and [L₄Ru(η²-NHC₆H₄)] (3), where L = PH₃ and PMe₃, are modeled using density functional theory methods. In 1 and 2, the metal-assisted CO₂ insertion occurs because of the favorable initial axial phosphine dissociation mechanism, whereas in 3, the ligand (NHC₆H₄)-assisted mechanism operates (ΔG[‡] = +19.0 kcal/mol), wherein the nucleophilic affinity of the –NHC₆H₄ moiety aids the CO₂ insertion process. The modeled mechanisms are consistent with the experimental findings by Hartwig et al. (*J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 1991, 113, 6499), in which the rate of the reactions of 1 and 2 depends on the added phosphine concentration, whereas the rate of the reaction of 3 is independent of the added phosphine concentration. In 1 and 2, CO₂ is preferably inserted into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond rather than the competitive Ru–CH₂ and Ru–O bonds, respectively. In 1, the π-type orbital interaction of the aryl ring with the metal center is found to stabilize the transition state for Ru–C_{aryl} bond insertion (ΔG[‡] = +25.7 kcal/mol). In 2, the Ru–C_{aryl} insertion (ΔG[‡] = +23.0 kcal/mol) is thermodynamically preferred, while the kinetically preferred Ru–O bond insertion (ΔG[‡] = +17.4 kcal/mol) is highly reversible. The more electron-donating and sterically bulky PMe₃ facilitates the CO₂ insertion of 1 and 2 because the initial dissociation of axial PMe₃ is easier than that of PH₃ by ca. +11.0 kcal/mol, whereas in the case of 3, the effect of PMe₃ slightly increases the ΔG[‡] value of 3. The increase in the nucleophilic affinity of amido nitrogen in 3 and the increase in the polarity of the solvent decrease the ΔG[‡] value of 3 by 48%. The inclusion of the chelating dimethylphosphinoethane ligand in 3 along with the electron-donating substituent at the –NHC₆H₄ moiety and the polar solvent further reduces the ΔG[‡] value of 3 by 62%, which demonstrates the role of the chelating ligand, electron-donating substituent, and polar solvent in the ligand-assisted CO₂ insertion reactions.



INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there is significant interest in the use of carbon dioxide (CO₂) as a chemical feedstock because of growing attention on environmental, legal, and social issues.¹ The activation and functionalization of CO₂ via a transition-metal center is well established and is of interest because of the possibility of utilizing CO₂ as an inexpensive 1-carbon fragment in synthesis.^{2,3} An important step in the functionalization of CO₂ is its insertion into the metal (M)–E (E = C, H, N, O, P, Si) bonds, which produces a range of different products including carboxylates, formates, carbamates, carbonates, etc.^{4–7} CO₂ insertion into an M–X bond (X = alkyl, alkoxide, amide, etc.) has been widely investigated with titanium,⁸ zirconium,⁸ niobium,⁸ chromium,⁹ tungsten,⁹ rhenium,¹⁰ palladium,¹¹ and copper.¹² However, examples of CO₂ insertion into the group 8 M–C, M–O, and M–N bonds are relatively rare.^{7,13–16}

Previously, coordinatively unsaturated acetylide complex [Cp*₂Ru(PPh₃)(C≡CPh)] has been reported to react with

CO₂ to produce the carboxylate complex [Cp*₂Ru(PPh₃)(η²-O₂CC≡CPh)], in which CO₂ is inserted into the Ru–C bond.¹⁷ Field et al. have also investigated the CO₂ insertion reactions into the Ru–C bonds of *cis*-[Ru(DMPE)₂Me₂] and *trans*-[Ru(DMPE)₂Me₂] complexes.¹⁸ They found that the stereochemistry of the starting material is a key factor in determining the rate of the CO₂ insertion reaction, wherein the *trans* isomer reacted much more readily with CO₂ than the *cis* isomer and formed *trans*-[Ru(DMPE)₂(OCOMe)Me] and *trans*-[Ru(DMPE)₂(OCOMe)₂], respectively. The *cis* isomer produced *cis*-[Ru(DMPE)₂(OCOMe)Me] and *cis*-[Ru(DMPE)₂(OCOMe)₂], respectively. These results also indicate that the stereochemical integrity at the metal center is retained as insertion occurs.

The CO₂ insertion reaction into the Ru–O bond is very rare. Mandal and co-workers¹⁹ found that the manganese(I) and

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rhenium(I) alkoxide complexes of *fac*-[M(CO)₃(P–P)(OR)] (M = Mn or Re; P–P = dppe or dppp; R = CH₃ or CF₃CH₂) undergo CO₂ insertion into the M–O bond at room temperature to form the carbonate complexes *fac*-[M(CO)₃(P–P)(O₂COR)].¹⁹ It is also found that benzene solutions of these alkoxide complexes are capable of absorbing CO₂ from the atmosphere. The insertion and deinsertion of CO₂ from these complexes are reversible under mild conditions.

The CO₂ insertion reactions with metal–amido species to form metal carbamate complexes are known,²⁰ particularly for the early transition metals. Only a few reports are available for such reactions in the case of late transition metals. A rare example involving the *trans*-[Pt(PCy₃)₂(Ph)(NH₂)] complex was found to undergo CO₂ insertion into the Pt–N bond.²¹ Early in 2012, Maseras et al.²² have investigated the CO₂ insertion reactions of nickel amido species supported by a PCP ligand and found that CO₂ insertion occurs in the Ni–N bond to form the N-bound carbamate species, which would rearrange to form the final O-bound product. The same group also carried out the CO₂ insertion reaction of cyclometalated [(κ²-N,N-2-NHC₃NH₄)IrH₂(PPh₃)₂] species and found that CO₂ insertion takes place in the Ir–N bond to form the carbamate [(κ²-O,N-2-OC(O)NHC₃NH₄)IrH₂(PPh₃)₂] species.²³ In this study, it was demonstrated that the rate of the reaction depends on the nucleophilicity of amide species; with more nucleophilic amides, much faster insertions were observed.

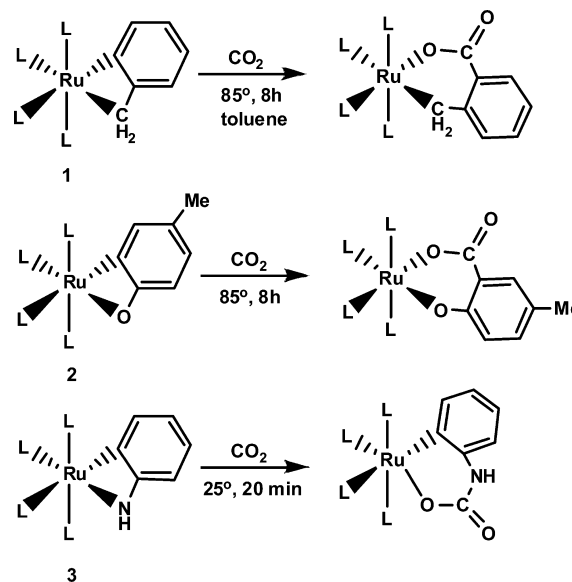
The theoretical studies on the mechanism of CO₂ insertion into an M–X bond (X = hydroxide, alkoxide, amide, etc.)^{24–27} are very limited, and these limited studies demonstrated that the CO₂ molecule is activated by the lone pair(s) of electrons of X. In 1995, Sakaki and Musashi²⁵ modeled the CO₂ insertion into the Cu–OH bond of [L₂Cu(OH)] (L = PH₃) complex and found that CO₂ insertion occurs because of the strong bonding interaction of the lone-pair p orbital of OH with one of the CO₂ π* orbitals. Recently, in 2012, Schmeier et al.²⁶ synthesized the [(PCP)Ni(X)] [X = NH₂ and OH; PCP = 2,6-C₆H₃(CH₂PMe₂)₂] complex and theoretically investigated the CO₂ insertion mechanism into the Ni–X bond. They showed that CO₂ insertion takes place by the nucleophilic attack of ligand X on the carbon atom of CO₂ followed by a rearrangement to the insertion product. The rearrangement was calculated to be the rate-determining step.

In fact, very few literatures studied the competitive reactivity of the M–H, M–C, M–O, and M–N bonds for CO₂ insertion reactions. In this context, Field et al.¹⁸ reported the CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C or Ru–H bonds of *trans*-[Ru(DMPE)₂MeH] species. Although the insertion reaction was more facile for the Ru–H bond than Ru–C, a thermodynamically stable Ru–C-inserted product *trans*-[Ru(DMPE)₂(O₂CMe)(H)] was observed, suggesting a rapid deinsertion of CO₂ from *trans*-[Ru(DMPE)₂(Me)(O₂CH)], the Ru–H-inserted product. In a similar study using a cyclometalated [RuH(η²-CH₂PMe₂)(PMe₃)₃] complex, Field et al. reported the relative reactivity of the Ru–H and Ru–C bonds with respect to CO₂ insertion.²⁸ They found that CO₂ inserts into the Ru–C bond with the apparent absence of any observable CO₂ insertion into the Ru–H bond. It again suggests that metal hydride insertions and subsequent decarboxylation are too fast to observe on the NMR time scale.²⁸

A comparative study for the insertion of CO₂ into the Ru–C, Ru–O, and Ru–N bonds has been carried out by Hartwig et al.²⁹ for three related complexes, [L₄Ru(η²-CH₂C₆H₄)] (1),

[L₄Ru(η²-OC₆H₃Me)] (2), [L₄Ru(η²-NHC₆H₄)] (3), where L = PMe₃. The reaction of 1 with 1 equiv of CO₂ at 85 °C in toluene led predominantly the Ru–C_{aryl}-inserted product (Scheme 1), whereas the Ru–C_{alkyl} insertion product was not

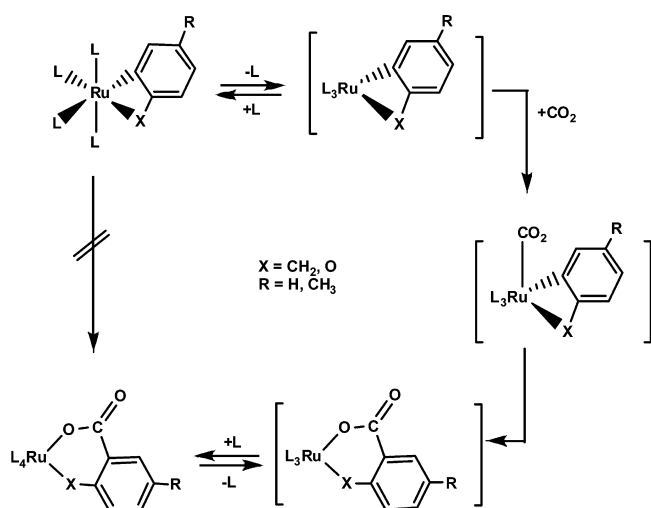
Scheme 1. CO₂ Insertion Reaction of 1–3, Where L = PMe₃



observed. The reaction is found to be very similar for 2 with 1 equiv of CO₂ at 85 °C because the resulting product was due to Ru–C_{aryl} bond insertion of CO₂. The Ru–O-bond-inserted product was conspicuous by its absence because one would expect that the mismatch of a soft late-transition-metal center and a hard phenoxide substituent would lead to the preferential Ru–O bond insertion rather than the Ru–C_{aryl} bond insertion.^{30–32} However, similar to 2, the preferential M–C bond over the M–O bond insertion was reported in the case of carbon monoxide insertion reactions.^{33,34} The rate of Ru–C_{aryl} bond insertions in both 1 and 2 showed a marked dependence on the added phosphine concentration. In contrast to 1 and 2, the reaction of 3 with CO₂ has led to the formation of a Ru–N-inserted product, wherein the Ru–C_{aryl} bond insertion does not exist. The preferred Ru–N bond insertion in 3 may be due to the weaker Ru–N bond than the Ru–C_{aryl} bond. Also, unlike 1 and 2, complex 3 exhibits no dependency of the rate on the added phosphine concentration. All of these suggested a different mechanism for the CO₂ insertion of 3 compared to that of 1 and 2.

For complexes 1 and 2, the marked decrease in the rate observed for samples containing added phosphine prompted Hartwig et al. to suggest the mechanism in Scheme 2. This mechanism involves an initial reversible phosphine dissociation that creates a vacant site on the metal for CO₂ coordination. In the next steps, coordination of CO₂ followed by migration of the aryl group leads to the CO₂-inserted product. Finally, the reversible phosphine addition takes place to form the product. In contrast to 1 and 2, the reaction of 3 with CO₂ was found to occur without prior phosphine dissociation (due to labeling studies on phosphines and no dependency of the rate on the phosphine concentration), and it was postulated that the reaction involved a direct nucleophilic attack of a nitrogen atom on CO₂ to form an N-bound carbamate species, which would rearrange to form the final O-bound product (Scheme 3).

Scheme 2. Proposed Mechanism for CO₂ Insertion of 1 and 2, Where L = PMe₃



The experimental studies on the CO₂ insertion reactions of 1–3 clearly indicate the reactivity difference of the Ru–C_{aryl}, Ru–C_{alkyl}, Ru–O, and Ru–N bonds toward CO₂ insertion and also propose a different reaction mechanism for CO₂ insertion to 3 than 1 and 2. However, the detailed mechanistic insights of these reactions and the explanation for the different reactivities of the Ru–C, Ru–O, and Ru–N bonds are not well identified. The intriguing aspects are as follows: (i) Why is CO₂ preferably inserted into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond of 1 rather than the weaker Ru–C_{alkyl} bond. (ii) Although 2 has a weaker Ru–O bond, why is CO₂ preferably inserted into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond. (iii) Similar to 1 and 2, why is CO₂ not inserted into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond in 3. Is this due to the proposed nucleophilic attack mechanism of a nitrogen atom of 3 on CO₂ rather than the initial phosphine dissociation mechanism? Herein we use density functional theory (DFT) methods to gain mechanistic insights of the CO₂ insertion reactions of 1–3 in terms of their modeled intermediates and energetics. We also made an attempt to modify complexes 1–3 using various ligands, substituents, and solvents to improve their efficacy toward CO₂ insertion reactions.

■ COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

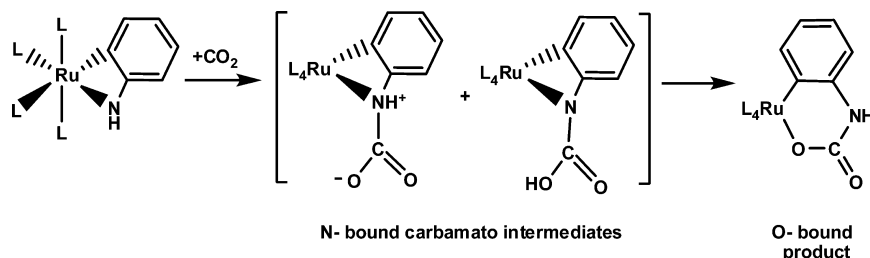
The structures of the complexes are fully optimized at the B3LYP level^{35–37} of DFT using the *Gaussian09* program.³⁸ Ruthenium and phosphorus centers were described with the Stuttgart RECPs and associated basis sets (SDDALL)³⁹ with a set of d-orbital polarization functions on phosphorus ($\zeta = 0.387$).⁴⁰ 6-31G** basis sets were used for all other atoms.^{41,42} All stationary points were fully characterized via analytical frequency calculations as either minima (all positive eigenvalues) or transition states (one imaginary eigenvalue), and IRC

calculations were used to confirm the minima linked by each transition state. Energies include a correction for zero-point energies, and free energies are quoted at 298.15 K. The single-point calculations of the B3LYP-optimized geometries were performed to incorporate the effect of various solvents such as toluene, tetrahydrofuran (THF), acetone, and acetonitrile via the polarized continuum model approach.^{43–45} In order to validate the B3LYP method, nine other methods, viz., BLYP, BP86,^{46,47} B3P86, PBEPBE,^{48,49} PBE1PBE,⁵⁰ B3PW91,^{51,52} M06,⁵³ M06L⁵⁴ and B97D,⁵⁵ have also been tested to find the activation barriers for complex 1. In addition, the effect of the basis set on the activation barrier of 1 is tested via the single-point calculations of the B3LYP-optimized geometries by employing the SDDALL basis set for ruthenium and phosphorus and the 6-311++G** basis set for the rest of the atoms [B3LYP(6-311++G**)/B3LYP(6-31G**)]. The nine different methods and higher basis set calculations consistently reproduced the B3LYP results that CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond of 1 is kinetically more preferred than that into the Ru–CH₂ bond (Table S1 in the Supporting Information, SI). The coordination mode of the CO₂ molecule with the ruthenium center is also confirmed by two other methods, viz., B3LYP-D and M06, along with the B3LYP method. MESP are calculated for selected complexes to quantify the nucleophilicity of the heteroatom.

■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Small Model Systems. i. CO₂ Insertion of 1. The CO₂ insertion reaction of 1 has been modeled via a phosphine dissociative mechanism, as shown in Scheme 2. The optimized intermediates and transition states located for this mechanism are shown in Figure 1. The computed energy profile, which contains the relative free energy and relative electronic energy, is shown in Scheme 4. The relative free energies and relative electronic energies are similar in cases where the numbers of reactant and product molecules are equal, for example, two-to-two transformation, but differ significantly for two-to-three or two-to-one transformations because of the entropic contribution. The first step of the mechanism is phosphine ligand dissociation, which creates a vacant site for CO₂ coordination. Three possibilities exist for phosphine dissociation. The first possibility is dissociation of one of the symmetrically equivalent phosphines from the axial position. The other two possibilities can be described in terms of dissociation of the equatorial phosphines. The axial phosphine dissociation giving 4a is energetically more favored than dissociation of the equatorial phosphines, by ca. +2.9 kcal/mol. In 1, the mutually trans phosphines are found to be distorted from the axial coordination plane (the torsion angles of P1–Ru–P2–P4 and P1–Ru–P3–P4 are 170°) in order to minimize the steric hindrance of four phosphine ligands. Distortion of the axial phosphine can be attributed to the energetically preferred dissociation of the axial phosphine rather than the equatorial phosphines. In a comparison of the geometries of 1 and 4a, the phenyl unit of the latter is more bent toward the metal center, giving rise to an additional Ru–C2 interaction (the Ru–C2

Scheme 3. Proposed Mechanism for CO₂ Insertion of 3, Where L = PMe₃



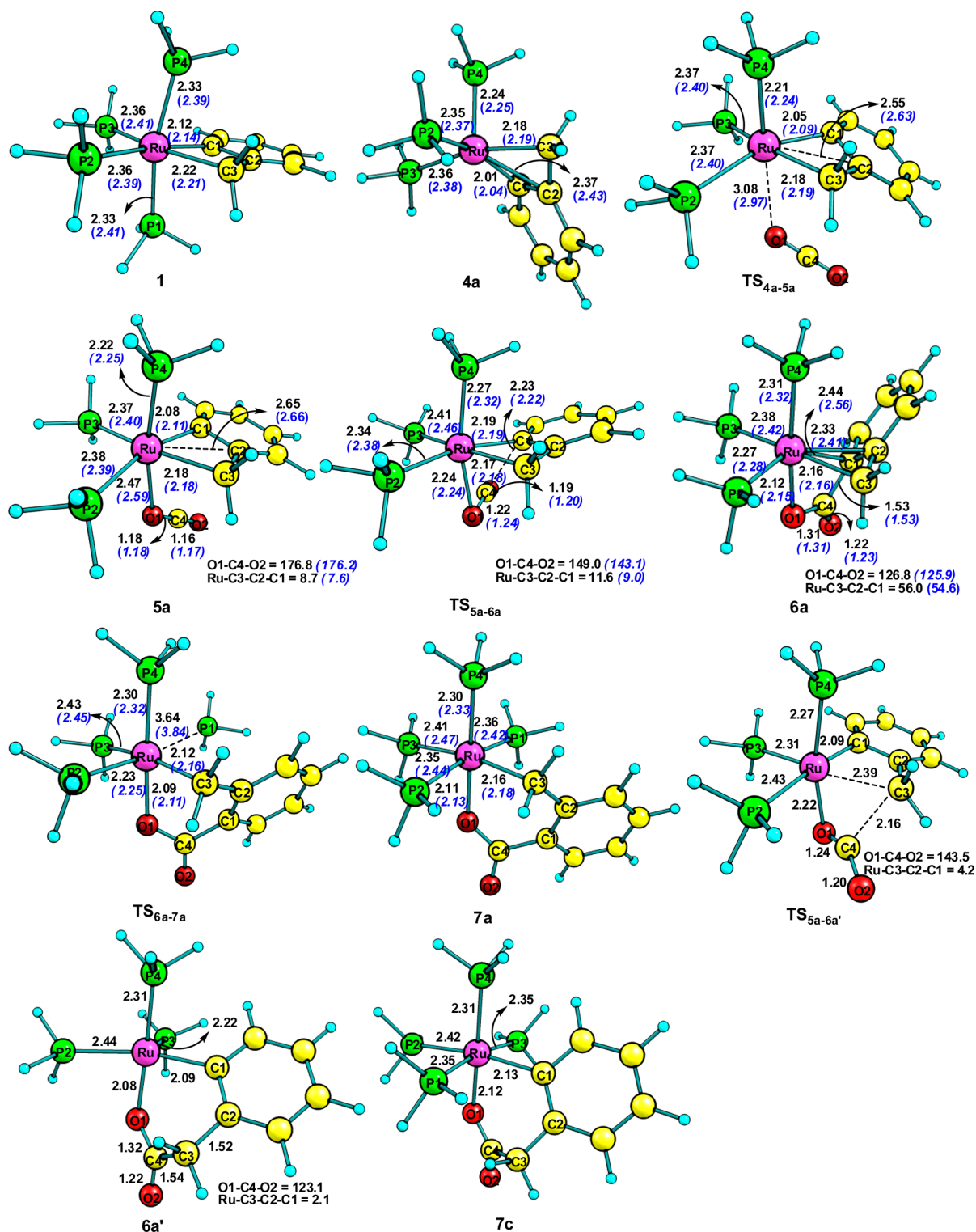
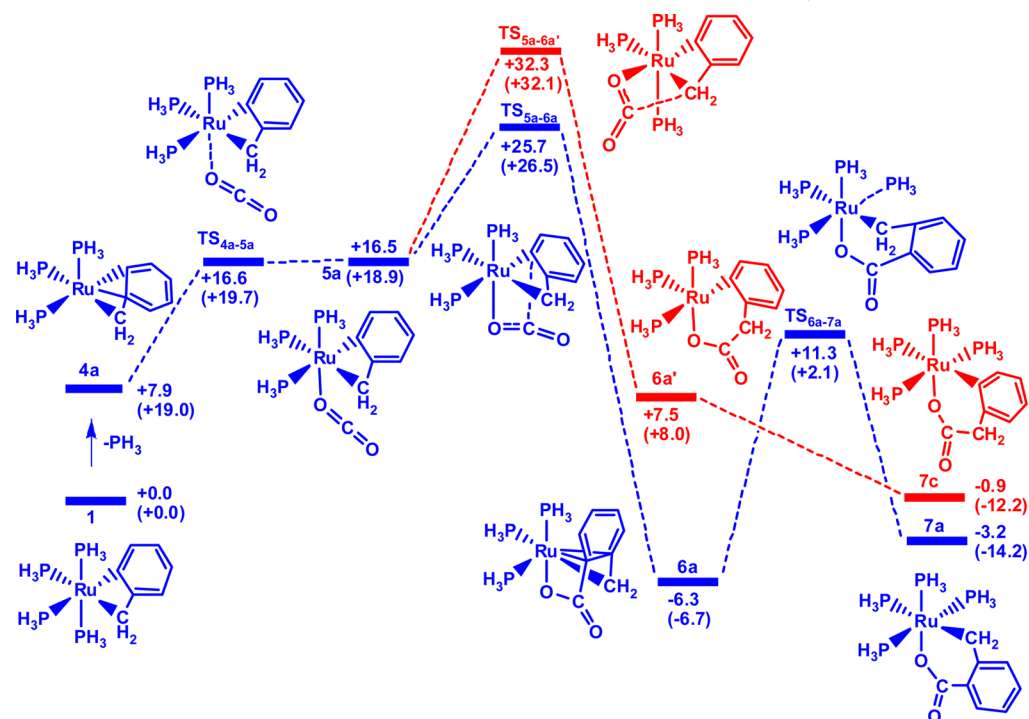


Figure 1. Optimized intermediates and transition states for CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} and Ru–CH₂ bonds of **1**, where L = PH₃/PMe₃. Selected distances are given in angstroms.

bond distance is 2.37 Å; cf. Figure 1). It is worth noting that a direct coordination of CO₂ to the vacant site of **4a** does not occur and instead it passes through the transition state TS_{4a-5a} with an activation free energy (ΔG^\ddagger) of +16.6 kcal/mol to form **5a**. The moderately high ΔG^\ddagger again suggests that in **4a** the Ru–C2 interaction is significant and it has to be broken in order to accept the η^1 coordination of oxygen from CO₂ to the metal. The η^2 coordination of CO₂ with the ruthenium center

and the η^1 coordination of CO₂ via the carbon atom are also tested in **5a** with two different methods, viz., B3LYP-D and M06, along with the B3LYP method, and all attempts to optimize such coordination geometries always led to **5a**.

From **5a**, CO₂ can be inserted either into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond or into the Ru–CH₂ bond. The CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond is associated with a transition state (TS_{5a-6a'}; ΔG^\ddagger = +25.7 kcal/mol) which is +6.6 kcal/mol lower in energy than

Scheme 4. Computed Free Energy Profile (kcal/mol) for CO₂ Insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} and Ru–CH₂ Bonds of 1^a

^aElectronic energies (kcal/mol) are given in parentheses.

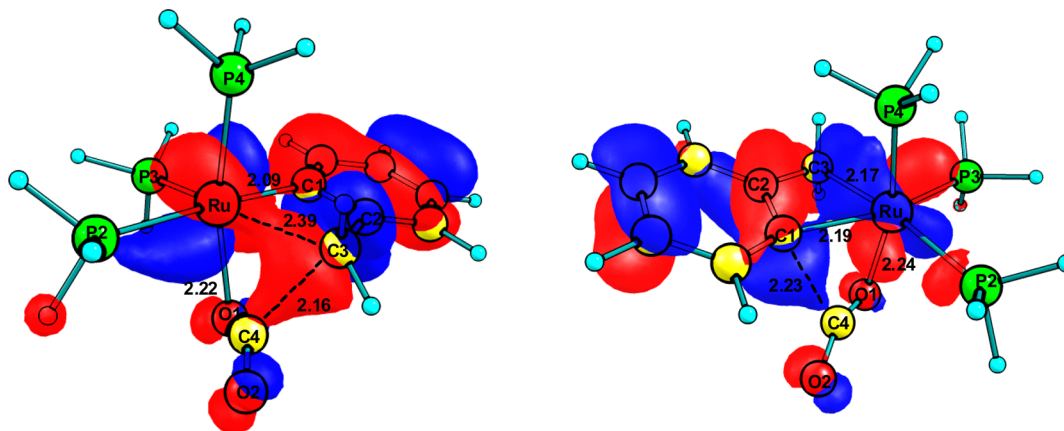
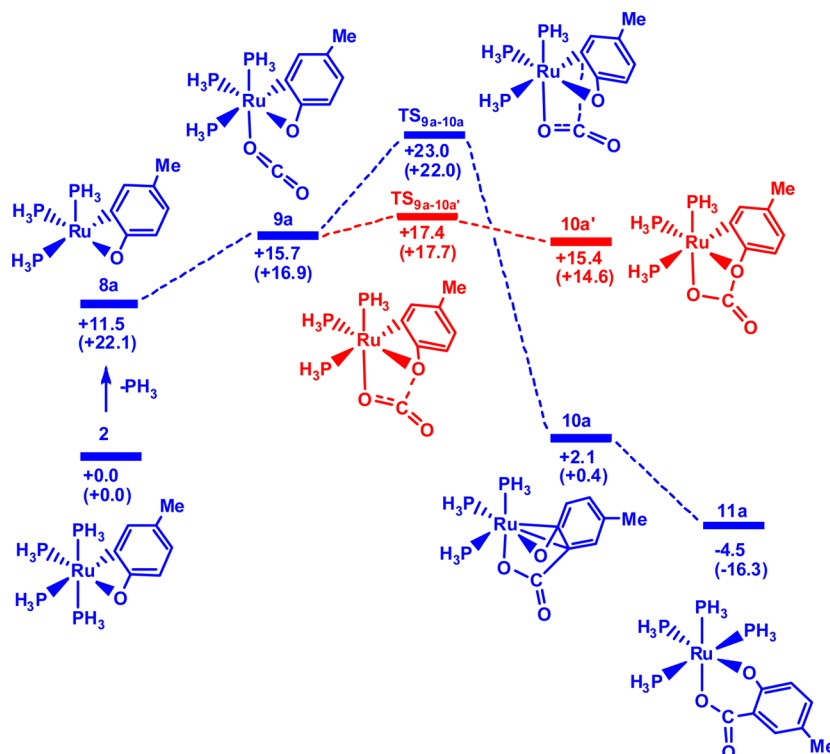


Figure 2. HOMO of transition states TS_{5a-6a'} (left) and TS_{5a-6a} (right). The isosurface with the value of 0.035e is plotted.

the transition state (TS_{5a-6a'}) corresponding to the CO₂ insertion into the Ru–CH₂ bond. In TS_{5a-6a'}, the Ru–CH₂ σ bond (Ru–C3 = 2.39 Å) has to be almost completely broken to establish an interaction with the carbon of CO₂, whereas in TS_{5a-6a}, the Ru–C_{aryl} bond (2.19 Å) is almost intact because the interaction to the carbon of CO₂ is easily established from the π -type orbital of the phenyl ring (Figure 2). In other words, compared to TS_{5a-6a'}, TS_{5a-6a} shows an enhanced π -type orbital interaction of the phenyl ring with the metal center, and this results in an earlier transition state and lower ΔG^\ddagger for the CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond than that into the Ru–CH₂ bond. The CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond leads to an exothermic intermediate **6a**, while that into the Ru–CH₂ bond leads to an endothermic intermediate **6a'**. The higher stability of **6a** than **6a'** (by +13.8 kcal/mol) is due to the η^3 coordination of the aryl ring, and this coordination mode is not found in **6a'**. In the next step, the phosphine association to **6a**

formed the thermodynamically more stable product **7a** ($\Delta G = -3.2$ kcal/mol) via the transition state (TS_{6a-7a}; $\Delta G = +11.3$ kcal/mol), whereas **6a'** leads directly to **7c** ($\Delta G = -0.9$ kcal/mol). The computed energetics of **1** show that the CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond is kinetically and thermodynamically more preferred than that into the Ru–CH₂ bond. This is mostly because of the stabilizing π -type orbital interaction of the phenyl ring found for the Ru–C_{aryl} insertion, which stabilizes the intermediates and transition states associated with the Ru–C_{aryl} insertion.

There are instances in which the energetically preferred mechanism commences with the less stable intermediate species.^{56–58} Thus, the CO₂ insertion mechanisms from less stable equatorial phosphine-dissociated intermediates **4b** and **4c** are also modeled, and details of the intermediates and energetics are shown in Figure S1 and Scheme S2 in the SI. The modeled pathways from these species are associated with the

Scheme 5. Computed Free Energy Profile (kcal/mol) for CO₂ Insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} and Ru–O Bonds of 2^a

^aElectronic energies (kcal/mol) are given in parentheses.

high-lying rate-determining transition states, higher by +13.0 to +18.0 kcal/mol than TS_{5a-6a'}, and also they lead to thermodynamically more unstable CO₂ insertion products. Hence, it is clear that the initial axial phosphine dissociation from **1** proceeds via the more preferred CO₂ insertion mechanism to the Ru–C_{aryl} bond, while the equatorial phosphine dissociation does not lead to a favorable CO₂ insertion mechanism.

ii. *CO₂ Insertion of 2.* Similar to **1**, the axial phosphine dissociation of **2** giving **8a** (Scheme 5) is energetically more preferred than the equatorial phosphine dissociation by +1.0 kcal/mol for the phosphine cis to the Ru–O bond and by +10.0 kcal/mol for the phosphine cis to the Ru–C_{aryl} bond. Again, the energetically preferred dissociation of the axial phosphine in **2** is due to distortion of the axial phosphine ligand from the axial coordination plane (Figure 3). Unlike **4a**, the η³-type interaction of the aryl ring into the metal is not observed in **8a** and the orientation of the –OC₆H₃Me moiety in **8a** is very similar to that in **2** (Figure 3). The coordination of the oxygen of CO₂ to **8a** leading to **9a** is a barrierless process (Scheme 5), which can be attributed to the fully developed vacant coordination site in ruthenium, whereas the same process in **4a** required ΔG[‡] = +16.6 kcal/mol, mainly to break the η³ coordination of the aryl ring to the metal. From **9a**, CO₂ inserts into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond via TS_{9a-10a} with ΔG[‡] of +23.0 kcal/mol, which is +5.6 kcal/mol higher than the CO₂ insertion into the Ru–O bond via TS_{9a-10a'}. It is worth noting that the high-lying Ru–C_{aryl} bond insertion pathway leads to a more stable intermediate **10a** than the low-lying Ru–O bond insertion pathway, giving **10a'**. **10a** is +13.3 kcal/mol more stable than **10a'**. The higher stability of **10a** can be attributed to the η³ coordination of the –OC₆H₃Me group to the metal, whereas such an interaction is absent in the case of **10a'**

(Figure 3). Further, the strain effect is more in **10a'** because of the presence of two four-membered rings. The ΔG[‡] value of the forward pathway **9a** → TS_{9a-10a'} → **10a'** and that of its reverse pathway are nearly the same, viz., +1.7 and +2.0 kcal/mol, respectively. This clearly suggests that the low-lying pathway (**9a** → TS_{9a-10a'} → **10a'**) is reversible, and this is only a kinetic phenomenon not favored by the thermodynamic stability of **10a'**. On the other hand, the high-lying pathway leading to **10a** is not easily reversible because of the high ΔG[‡] = +20.9 kcal/mol. Further, the phosphine association to **10a** yields the thermodynamically stable product **11a** (–4.5 kcal/mol), wherein CO₂ is inserted into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond. In contrast, the phosphine association to **10a'** does not give the desired product, and instead it releases CO₂ with the formation of the initial complex **2**, which again confirms the reversible reaction from **10a'**. Hence, it is clear that the kinetically favored insertion of CO₂ to the Ru–O bond is not suitable to explain the formation of the product complex, whereas the CO₂ insertion pathway to the Ru–C_{aryl} bond, leading to a thermodynamically stable intermediate **10a**, gives the product complex. This is in agreement with the experimental findings that **11a** is formed in the reaction while the experiments for the CO₂ insertion of the Ru–O bond failed.²⁵

We have also tested the possibility of nucleophilic interaction of the oxygen lone pair (from the ligand OC₆H₃Me) of complex **2** and CO₂. If this leads to the formation of a stable O-bound species (Ru–O⋯CO₂), the subsequent rearrangement will lead to a CO₂ insertion product. Unfortunately, the energy minimization does not yield the O-bound species and, hence, the mechanism via the nucleophilic interaction of oxygen in **2** with the carbon of CO₂ can be discarded.

iii. *CO₂ Insertion Reactions of 3.* Similar to **1** and **2**, the CO₂ insertion mechanism via the initial phosphine dissociation is

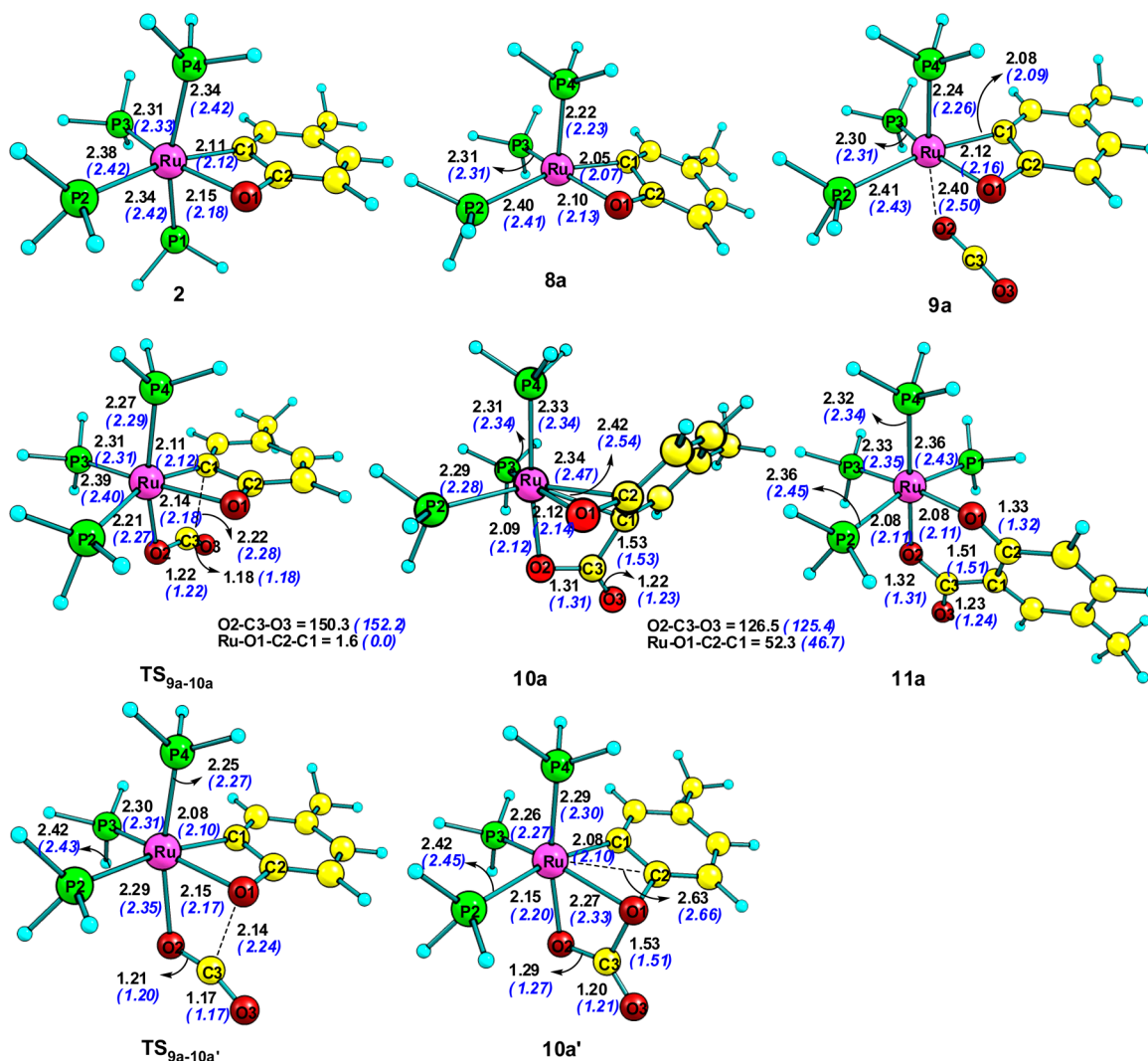
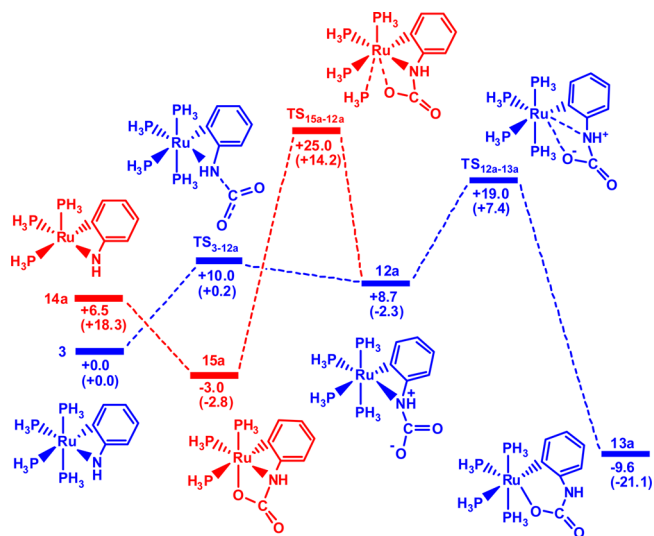


Figure 3. Optimized intermediates and transition states for CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} and Ru–O bonds of **2**, where L = PH₃/PMe₃. Selected distances are given in angstroms.

examined for **3**. The axial phosphine dissociation of **3** gives **14a**, and the ΔG and ΔE values for this step are +6.5 and +18.3 kcal/mol, respectively (Scheme 6). Like in the case of **1** and **2**, the next step is expected to be the coordination of the oxygen of CO₂ to the vacant site of **14a**. However, this does not happen, and instead the Ru...OCO and ligand (N)...CO₂ interactions simultaneously occur without an activation barrier, giving the exothermic Ru–N insertion product **15a** (Figure 4). This is probably due to the nucleophilic affinity of nitrogen toward the carbon of CO₂. The last step of the reaction is the association of phosphine with **15a** to form the desired product **13a**. Unfortunately, this step does not give **13a** and instead leads to the N-bound species **12a** with ΔG^\ddagger of +25.0 kcal/mol. **12a** then undergoes rearrangement to form the desired Ru–N insertion product **13a** with ΔG^\ddagger +19.0 kcal/mol (Figure 4). The CO₂ insertion into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond of **3** via the initial equatorial phosphine dissociation (cis to the Ru–C_{aryl} bond) is also modeled and found to be kinetically less preferred by +17.7 kcal/mol than the CO₂ insertion into the Ru–N via axial phosphine dissociation.

As proposed by the experiments,²⁹ the rate of CO₂ insertion of **3** is independent of the added phosphine concentration and, hence, the CO₂ insertion of **3** is modeled without prior

Scheme 6. Computed Free Energy Profile (kcal/mol) for CO₂ Insertion into the Ru–N Bond of **3**^a



^aElectronic energies (kcal/mol) are given in parentheses.

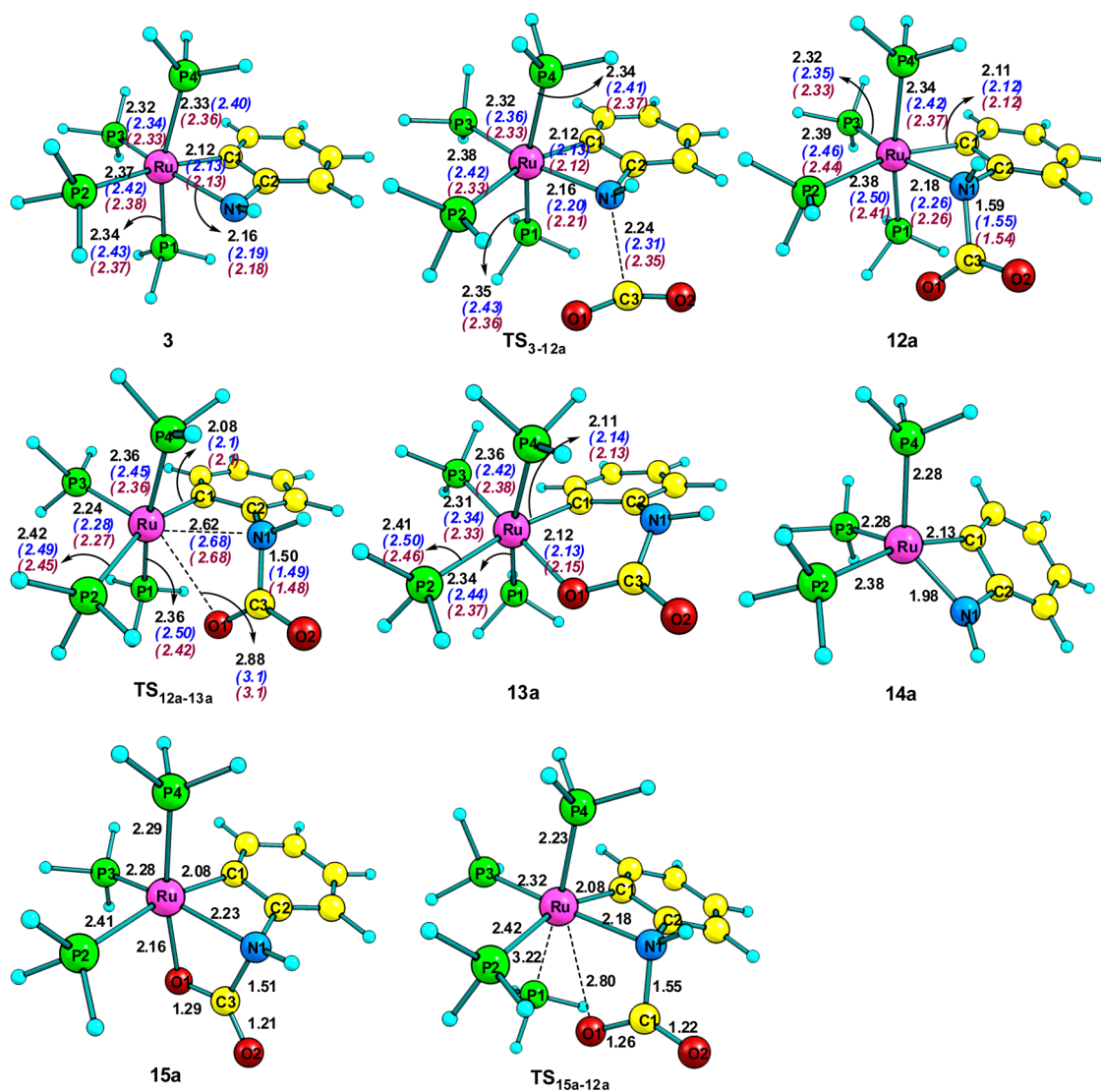


Figure 4. Optimized intermediates and transition states for CO₂ insertion into the Ru–N bond of **3**, where L = PH₃/PMe₃/DMPE. Selected distances are given in angstroms.

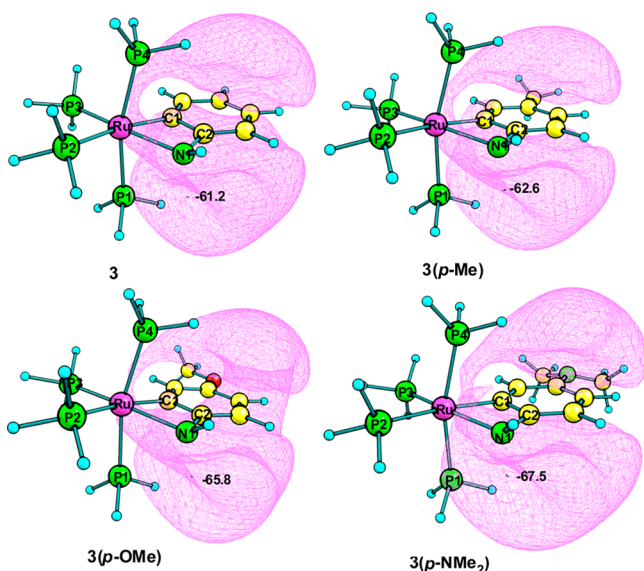
dissociation of the phosphine ligand (Scheme 6). Because the metal is coordinatively saturated, this kind of mechanistic possibility arises only if the ligand is capable of directing CO₂ to the metal center. The amido group is well-known for its nucleophilic interaction with CO₂,^{21–23} and in the case of **3**, the interaction of the nitrogen lone pair of the –NHC₆H₄ moiety on the carbon of CO₂ led to the formation of **12a** by passing through TS_{3–12a} ($\Delta G^\ddagger = +10.0$ kcal/mol; Figure 4). TS_{3–12a} is +15.0 kcal/mol more stable than TS_{15a–12a}, suggesting that the proposed pathway by the experimentalists is the most probable pathway (shown in blue in Scheme 6) for the formation of the desired product. The rearrangement of **12a** to **13a** follows the same path as that in the case of the axial phosphine dissociation mechanism via TS_{12a–13a}. Because ΔG^\ddagger for the rearrangement of **12a** is +9.0 kcal/mol higher than ΔG^\ddagger of the nucleophilic interaction of the –NHC₆H₄ moiety on the carbon of CO₂, the rearrangement becomes the rate-determining step.

The CO₂ insertion mechanism of **1–3** shows that participation of the metal center is vital in the case of **1** and **2**, which activates the CO₂ molecule by its coordination into the vacant site of the metal, whereas in **3**, the –NHC₆H₄ moiety activates the CO₂ molecule because of the nucleophilic

affinity of the nitrogen atom. This result immediately suggests that, by tuning the nucleophilic affinity of the –NHC₆H₄ moiety, the CO₂ insertion process can be enhanced. We have tested this hypothesis by calculating the energetics of the transition states TS_{3–12a} and TS_{12a–13a} for three substituted derivatives of **3**, viz., **3(p-Me)**, **3(p-OMe)**, and **3(p-NMe₂)**, wherein the substituents –Me, –OMe, and –NMe₂ are electron-donating in nature and are located para to the nitrogen of the –NHC₆H₄ group (Table 1). The electron-donating substituents in **3(p-Me)**, **3(p-OMe)**, and **3(p-NMe₂)** are expected to increase the nucleophilic affinity of the nitrogen atom of the –NHC₆H₄ moiety compared to the unsubstituted species **3**. To further confirm the effect of the substituent on the nitrogen atom of the –NHC₆H₄ group, the molecular electrostatic potentials (MESP) of **3(p-Me)**, **3(p-OMe)**, and **3(p-NMe₂)** are calculated.⁵⁹ The MESP minimum value obtained at the lone-pair site of the nitrogen atom (V_{\min}) is a quantitative measure of the lone-pair strength of nitrogen or the nucleophilic affinity of the nitrogen atom.^{60,61} A higher negative V_{\min} indicates the higher nucleophilic affinity of the nitrogen atom.⁶² The negative character of V_{\min} increased in the order **3(p-Me)**, **3(p-OMe)**, and **3(p-NMe₂)** (Figure 5), which results

Table 1. Activation Free Energies (kcal/mol) of **3** with Various Substituents and Solvents

complex	activation free energy (ΔG^\ddagger , kcal/mol)	
	TS _{3-12a}	TS _{12a-13a}
3	+10.0	+19.0
3 (<i>p</i> -Me)	+9.6	+18.0
3 (<i>p</i> -OMe)	+9.6	+17.0
3 (<i>p</i> -NMe ₂)	+9.7	+16.6
Solvent Effect		
3 in toluene	+9.9	+15.9
3 in THF	+9.9	+13.6
3 in acetone	+9.8	+12.8
3 in acetonitrile	+10.0	+12.6

**Figure 5.** MESP plots of **3**, **3**(*p*-Me), **3**(*p*-OMe), and **3**(*p*-NMe₂) species. The V_{\min} value (kcal/mol) indicates the nitrogen lone-pair strength.

a decrease in the barrier height of transition states in the same order. The electron-donating substitution slightly decreased the ΔG^\ddagger for TS_{3-12a} (decreased by +0.4 kcal/mol), while a more significant decrease in the barrier height was observed for TS_{12a-13a} (decrease by +2.4 kcal/mol).

We have also tested the effect of various solvents such as toluene ($\epsilon = 2.4$), THF ($\epsilon = 7.4$), acetone ($\epsilon = 20.5$), and acetonitrile ($\epsilon = 35.7$) on the barrier heights (Table 1) of **1**–**3**. Compared to the gas phase, an increase in the polarity of the solvent effectively reduced the activation barrier of the rate-determining step of **3** (TS_{12a-13a}) in the order **3** in toluene > **3** in THF > **3** in acetone > **3** in acetonitrile. In the cases of **1** and **2**, the solvent effect is found to be negligible on the energetics.

Compared to the $\Delta G^\ddagger = +19.0$ kcal/mol observed for the rate-determining step of the gas-phase reaction of **3**, the best solvent, acetonitrile, gives $\Delta G^\ddagger = +12.6$ kcal/mol for **3** and the best substituent, $-\text{NMe}_2$, gives $\Delta G^\ddagger = +16.6$ kcal/mol for **3**(*p*-NMe₂). These results clearly suggest that a good electron-donating substituent on the aromatic ligand and a polar solvent can significantly reduce the barrier height. In fact, **3**(*p*-NMe₂) in acetonitrile gives the lowest $\Delta G^\ddagger = +9.9$ kcal/mol, which is nearly a 48% reduction in the ΔG^\ddagger value of **3**.

Full Model Systems. The CO₂ insertion reactions of experimentally studied systems [(PMe₃)₄Ru(η^2 -CH₂C₆H₄)] [**1**(PMe₃)], [(PMe₃)₄Ru(η^2 -OC₆H₃Me)] [**2**(PMe₃)], and [(PMe₃)₄Ru(η^2 -NHC₆H₄)] [**3**(PMe₃)] have been computed based on the preferred pathways obtained from simple model systems **1**–**3**. The differences between PMe₃ and its analogues PH₃ complexes are the following. (i) The Ru–P and other coordinated bond distances of **1**(PMe₃), **2**(PMe₃), and **3**(PMe₃) are longer than those of the PH₃ analogues, which can be attributed to the larger steric and trans-influencing character of PMe₃ (Figures 1, 3, and 4) than PH₃.^{63,64} (ii) Dissociation of the axial PMe₃ ligand in **1**(PMe₃) and **2**(PMe₃) is energetically more favored than dissociation of the axial PH₃ ligand in complexes **1** and **2** by ca. +10.0 kcal/mol (Tables S2 and S3 in the SI). (iii) η^2 coordination of CO₂ exists in **1**(PMe₃) (Figure S2 in the SI), while it does not exist in the PH₃ analogue. In **1**(PMe₃), the oxygen of CO₂ coordinates with the ruthenium center, leading to **5a**(PMe₃), and subsequently it transforms into η^2 -coordinated **5a'**(PMe₃) with an activation barrier +5.1 kcal/mol. From **5a'**(PMe₃), CO₂ insertion takes place into the Ru–C_{aryl} bond followed by phosphine association to form the final product, whereas in the case of the PH₃ analogue, the insertion was observed directly from **5a**. (iv) The ΔG^\ddagger values for CO₂ insertions of **1**(PMe₃) and **2**(PMe₃) through a phosphine dissociative mechanism are found to be lower than those of the corresponding PH₃ complexes, by 10–12 kcal/mol (Table 2). The lowering of the energy barrier is attributed to the energetically favored dissociation of PMe₃ rather than PH₃. In contrast, ΔG^\ddagger for **3**(PMe₃) via the ligand (NHC₆H₄)-assisted mechanism is slightly higher than the PH₃ analogue by +3.7 kcal/mol. (v) The larger positive entropy contribution of the free PMe₃ ligand than the free PH₃ ligand is responsible for reducing ΔG^\ddagger of **1**(PMe₃) and **2**(PMe₃) compared to ΔG^\ddagger of **1** and **2**. This results a larger energy difference between $\Delta E^\ddagger(\text{PMe}_3)$ and $\Delta G^\ddagger(\text{PMe}_3)$ in **1**(PMe₃) (+4.0 kcal/mol) and **2**(PMe₃) (+3.9 kcal/mol) than those of the PH₃ analogues (+0.8 kcal/mol for **1** and +1.0 kcal/mol for **2**). In **3**, the quantities $\Delta E^\ddagger(\text{PMe}_3) - \Delta G^\ddagger(\text{PMe}_3)$ and $\Delta E^\ddagger(\text{PH}_3) - \Delta G^\ddagger(\text{PH}_3)$ are almost same for the $-\text{NHC}_6\text{H}_4$ -assisted mechanism and suggest no favorable entropy contribution from PMe₃. (vi) In all cases, the reaction energies $\Delta E_{\text{RE}}(\text{PMe}_3)$ and $\Delta G_{\text{RE}}(\text{PMe}_3)$ are stabilized because of the PMe₃ ligand compared to those of PH₃ analogues.

Table 2. Activation (ΔG^\ddagger and ΔE^\ddagger) and Reaction (ΔG_{RE} and ΔE_{RE}) Energies of PH₃- and PMe₃-Based Complexes **1**–**3**^a

complex	$\Delta G^\ddagger(\text{PH}_3)$	$\Delta E^\ddagger(\text{PH}_3)$	$\Delta G^\ddagger(\text{PMe}_3)$	$\Delta E^\ddagger(\text{PMe}_3)$	$\Delta G_{\text{RE}}(\text{PH}_3)$	$\Delta E_{\text{RE}}(\text{PH}_3)$	$\Delta G_{\text{RE}}(\text{PMe}_3)$	$\Delta E_{\text{RE}}(\text{PMe}_3)$
1 (Ru–C _{aryl} bond insertion)	+25.7	+26.5	+13.3	+17.3	–3.2	–14.2	–10.5	–20.6
2 (Ru–C _{aryl} bond insertion)	+23.0	+22.0	+13.4	+17.3	–4.5	–16.3	–13.9	–25.2
3 (Ru–N bond insertion)	+19.0	+7.4	+22.7 (+15.7)	+10.4 (+3.6)	–9.6	–21.1	–11.2 (–10.5)	–23.3 (–21.9)

^aEnergies in kcal/mol. The energetics of the chelating **3**(DMPE) complex are shown in parentheses.

Because the CO₂ insertion mechanism of **3** does not involve phosphine dissociation, the chelating dimethylphosphinoethane (DMPE) ligand is substituted instead of labile phosphines in **3**. Geometric constraints imposed by DMPE have been reported previously to enhance the basicity of a transition-metal center compared to the labile PMe₃ ligand.^{65,66} As observed by Holland and Bergman,⁶⁶ the modeled DMPE ligand of **3** is tightly bound to the metal center compared to the PMe₃ ligand (Figure 4) and also increased the nucleophilic affinity of the -NHC₆H₄ group [V_{\min} of **3**(DMPE) = -73.4 kcal/mol, V_{\min} of **3**(PMe₃) = -64.0 kcal/mol] compared to that of **3**(PMe₃). The ΔG^\ddagger value of **3**(DMPE) is found to be +15.7 kcal/mol, which is lower than those of the analogues PH₃ and PMe₃ by +3.3 and +7.0 kcal/mol, respectively. The -NMe₂-substituted **3**(DMPE) in acetonitrile further reduced the ΔG^\ddagger value of **3**(DMPE) to +7.3 kcal/mol, which is nearly a 54% reduction in the ΔG^\ddagger value of **3**(DMPE). This clearly shows that the good choice of an electron-donating substituent, a polar solvent, and a chelating phosphine ligand will enhance the CO₂ insertion of **3**.

CONCLUSIONS

Using the DFT method, we have unraveled the CO₂ insertion into the Ru-C, Ru-O, and Ru-N bonds of **1-3** and described the origin of their mechanistic differences. Between the two mechanistic possibilities for **1**, viz., insertion into Ru-C_{aryl} and Ru-CH₂, a clear preference for the former is revealed and ascribed to the enhanced π -type orbital interaction of the aryl ring with the metal center to stabilize the transition state. In **2**, the CO₂ insertion into the Ru-O bond is kinetically more preferred and easier than the insertion into the Ru-C_{aryl} bond. However, the product from the Ru-O bond insertion easily undergoes deinsertion and does not lead to the desired product. Hence, the thermodynamically preferred product from the Ru-C_{aryl} bond is inevitable. In the cases of **1** and **2**, phosphine dissociation is a prerequisite for the CO₂ insertion, whereas in the case of **3**, the insertion reaction proceeds without prior phosphine dissociation. Thus, the first step of CO₂ insertion into the Ru-N bond of **3** is governed by the nucleophilic character of the amido nitrogen. The decrease in the ΔG^\ddagger with an increase in the nucleophilic character of the amido nitrogen via aromatic substitution further confirms the ligand-assisted reactivity of **3** with CO₂. The solvent effects on ΔG^\ddagger are found to be negligible for **1** and **2**, whereas an increase in the polarity of the solvent decreased the ΔG^\ddagger value of **3**. When the electron-donating substituent and polar solvent are combined, ΔG^\ddagger of **3** is reduced by 48%. The chelating-DMPE-incorporated **3**(DMPE) with the electron-donating substituent at the -NHC₆H₄ moiety in the polar solvent further reduces the ΔG^\ddagger value of **3** by 62%. This clearly suggest that good choices of chelating phosphine, electron-donating substituent, and polar solvent are vital for modeling the ligand-assisted CO₂ insertion reactions. In the cases of **1** and **2**, the more electron-donating and sterically bulky labile PMe₃ is found to enhance the CO₂ insertion of the Ru-C_{aryl} bond.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Various methods and basis set tests, computed energies and pathways, and optimized intermediates and transition states. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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