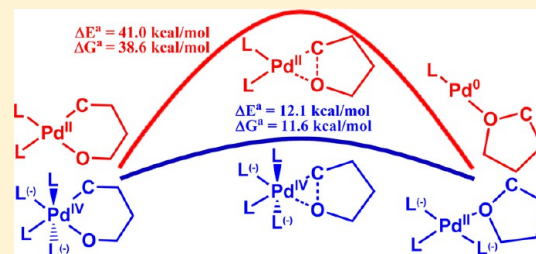


Pd(OAc)₂-Catalyzed C–H Activation/C–O Cyclization: Mechanism, Role of Oxidant—Probed by Density Functional Theory

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: A series of density functional theory determinations have been carried out to characterize Pd(OAc)₂-catalyzed C–H activation and subsequent intramolecular C–O bond-coupling of phenyl-*tert*-butanol in perfluorobenzene (C₆F₆) solvent. Full, nontruncated models of the real chemical transformations were studied, with structures in agreement with recent X-ray determinations. Conformational analyses have provided thermodynamic validity of the geometric structures used. The B3LYP/DZVP and B3LYP/BS1 methods (BS1 = TZVP_(H,C,O) + SDD_(Pd,I)) were comparatively employed, with C₆F₆ solvent contributions accounted for by the IDSCRF method; key transition states were confirmed by intrinsic reaction coordinate determinations. The novel reaction mechanism proposed was divided into the following four steps: C–H activation, oxidation, reductive elimination, catalyst recovery. Two competing reaction routes were quantitatively compared, differing in the oxidation state of Pd (+2 vs +4). Results reveal the pathway involving Pd(IV) intermediates to be more spontaneous and, therefore, more probable than the Pd(II) path, the latter hindered by a kinetically inaccessible reductive elimination step, with total energy and free energy barriers of 41.0 and 38.6 kcal·mol⁻¹, respectively. The roles played by the oxidant and Pd(IV) species have also been addressed through Bader's atoms-in-molecules wave function analyses, providing a quantitative electronic metric for C–H activation chemistry.



1. INTRODUCTION

Transition-metal-catalyzed C–H activation has experienced enormous growth in the past decade, and represents evolution of a fundamental aspect of modern synthetic chemistry,¹ with significant application to construction of carbon–carbon or carbon–heteroatom bonds.² It provides an efficient and shortened alternative to multistep synthetic C–H functionalizations, and together with its high atom economy represents a major driving force in green and enabling chemistry.³ C–H activation represents the central research focus of recent impacting works.⁴ Efforts are presently directed to the expansion of substrate-scope,⁵ exploration of novel ligands with high efficiency and particular reactivity,⁶ characterizing the roles of catalytic species,⁷ and rational control of regio- and stereoselectivity.⁸

Parallel development of palladium catalysis in organometallic chemistry has resulted in many coupling reactions now being used in the production of pharmaceutical compounds, natural products, polymers, and conjugated organic materials.^{3a,9} These transformations provide effective means for the direct coupling of an unactivated C–H bond with a variety of partners, specifically, C–C, C–N, C–S, and C–O bond-coupling through direct C–H activation catalyzed by Pd complexes,^{3–6,10} with particular focus on heteroatom-containing partners.

Among these, the catalyzed C–H activation/C–O bond-couplings have been extensively studied and refined in recent years because of their important applications to construction of synthetically valuable organic moieties and synthetic frameworks. Although previous experimental^{2–4,10,11} and computational¹² studies have addressed some mechanistic aspects of these reactions, it is still unclear what quantitative role the oxidants play and whether or not a Pd(IV) species^{3a,13} is involved. Most recently, Sanford and co-workers reported a C–H activation involving Pd(IV) centers.^{13k} This work involved the synthesis of a Pd(IV) complex from a Pd(II) precursor and PhICl₂ (oxidant) at the low temperatures (243 K), with subsequent characterization of the oxidant product by X-ray diffraction, showing a six-coordinate ligand field structure.

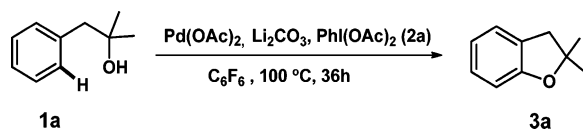
In 2010, Wang and co-workers¹⁴ reported a new synthetic method for the Pd(OAc)₂-catalyzed construction of a substituted dihydrobenzofuran system (3a) from phenyl-*tert*-butanol (1a) via a C–H activation/C–O bond-coupling directed by the hydroxyl group (Scheme 1).

Experiments showed 1.5 equiv of oxidant PhI(OAc)₂ (2a) (in the presence of Li₂CO₃ base) generated the desired product (3a) in good yield (88%), while modulation of the oxidant (2a) with PhI(TFA)₂ (2b) or PhI(OPiv)₂ (2c) reduced the reaction

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Scheme 1. Pd(OAc)₂-Catalyzed C–H Activation/C–O Cyclization of Phenyl-*tert*-butanol (**1a**) in C₆F₆ Solvent, Characterized in This Work



yield to 13% or 50%, respectively. A number of moderate oxidants, such as silver and copper salts, gave complete recovery of starting material. On this basis, these authors assumed that the catalyzed reaction may proceed via a Pd(IV) intermediate “keystone” supporting a Pd(II) → Pd(IV) → Pd(II) pathway, in direct contrast to the more widely accepted Pd(II) → Pd(0) → Pd(II) route. However, neither experimental nor theoretical evidence exists to support the significance of a Pd(IV) intermediate—until now.

Toward resolving this mechanistic dichotomy, we carried out a series of density function theory (DFT)¹⁵ determinations toward quantitatively characterizing the detailed mechanism of the C–H activation/C–O coupling reaction (Scheme 1), with focus on the role of oxidant and the competing oxidation states of Pd.

The optimized geometries of all possible stationary points, kinetic and thermodynamic aspects of the proposed catalytic cycles, and roles of oxidant and Pd(IV) species are discussed in this work, complemented by high-level electronic structure analyses comparing the Pd^{(II)→(IV)→(II)} and Pd^{(II)→(0)→(II)} pathways. It is our belief that the systematic approach herein will provide an evolved methodological approach and insight into the structure and mechanisms for C–H activation processes.

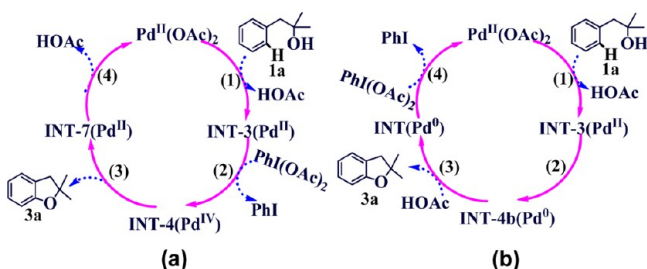
2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results presented within this involve characterization of the overall reaction equation in Scheme 1. Focus was on characterization of intramolecular C–O bond formation, which proceeds via deprotonation of two H atoms by base. Therein, a hydroxyl group in the β -position to the phenyl ring in the substrate forms a five-membered ring structure through successive C–H activation and C–O bond-coupling.

The proposed reaction pathway in this study is divided into the following segments of the full chemical transformation: C–H activation, oxidation, reductive elimination (RE), and catalyst recovery (CR), labeled as steps 1–4, respectively (Scheme 2a).

Scheme 2 only presents the general picture of the reaction mechanism, as the four steps are themselves composed of elementary substeps, each explicitly addressed in the following

Scheme 2. Schematic Depiction of the Entire Catalytic Cycle of the C–H Activation/C–O Coupling Reaction

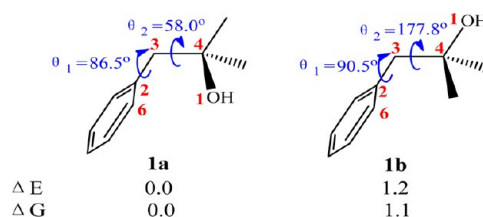


sections. Results reported throughout are based on the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP method, with all free energies determined at the experimental reaction temperature (373 K), except where noted.

2.1. Conformational Analysis of Substrate Geometry.

A preliminary and requisite conformational analysis of the phenyl-*tert*-butanol substrate's structure was carried out to ensure thermodynamic validity for the geometries used in the mechanism. The two rotatable C–C single bonds (C2–C3 and C3–C4) afford only two stable rotamers for the C2–C3–C4–O1 dihedral angle (θ_1), which adopts either a *gauche*⁺ (58.0°) or an *anti* (177.8°) conformation, labeled **1a** and **1b**, respectively (Scheme 3). The C4–C3–C2–C6 dihedral angle (θ_2) remains at $\sim 90^\circ$ in both **1a** and **1b** conformers, signifying a requisite perpendicularity of the C3–C4 bond with respect to the phenyl plane.

Scheme 3. Structures, Selected Dihedral Angle Parameters, Relative Total Energies, and Free Energies (kcal·mol⁻¹) of Stable Conformations of Phenyl-*tert*-butanol



The relative total energy (electronic energy + zero-point energy) and relative Gibbs free energy show **1a** to be ~ 1.2 kcal·mol⁻¹ more stable than **1b**; hence, **1a** dominates the equilibrium concentration. The C4–O1 bond, thus the hydroxyl group, adopts a *gauche* orientation relative to the phenyl group in **1a**, placing the Pd center proximal to the C6–H bond in the substrate–catalyst complex. As C–H activation benefits from the complex-induced proximity effect (CIPE),¹⁶ we concluded that **1a** is the most reactive conformation in the present study, hence unambiguously referred to as such throughout this work. Adding to the conformational certainty is the observation that the C4–O1 bond in **1b** arranges *anti*-parallel to the C2–C3 bond, placing the hydroxyl group at a large distance from the C6–H bond, negating any potential for CIPE contributions.

2.2. Reaction Mechanism and Energy Profile. The proposed reaction mechanism for the entire catalytic cycle is depicted in Figure 1, replete with geometric structures and the atomic numbering system used; this is complemented by an energetic “roadmap” in Figure 2.

The first step of the mechanism, common to other transition-metal-catalyzed reactions,^{3a} involves a substrate–catalyst encounter and combination mediated by a ligand exchange, involving the hydroxyl O1 atom of **1a** and the O2 atom of one of the η^2 -CH₃COO⁻ ligands. The corresponding transition state TS-1 displays the concerted nature of this process, with the interatomic distances of the Pd···O1 and Pd···O2 incipient bonds being 2.63 and 2.45 Å, respectively, subsequently relaxing to a four-coordinate square intermediate INT-1. This process is assisted by an O1–H···O2 H-bond between **1a** and Pd(OAc)₂, strengthened along the reaction coordinates evidenced by the significant shortening of the H···O2 distance on moving from TS-1 (2.15 Å) to INT-1 (1.46 Å).

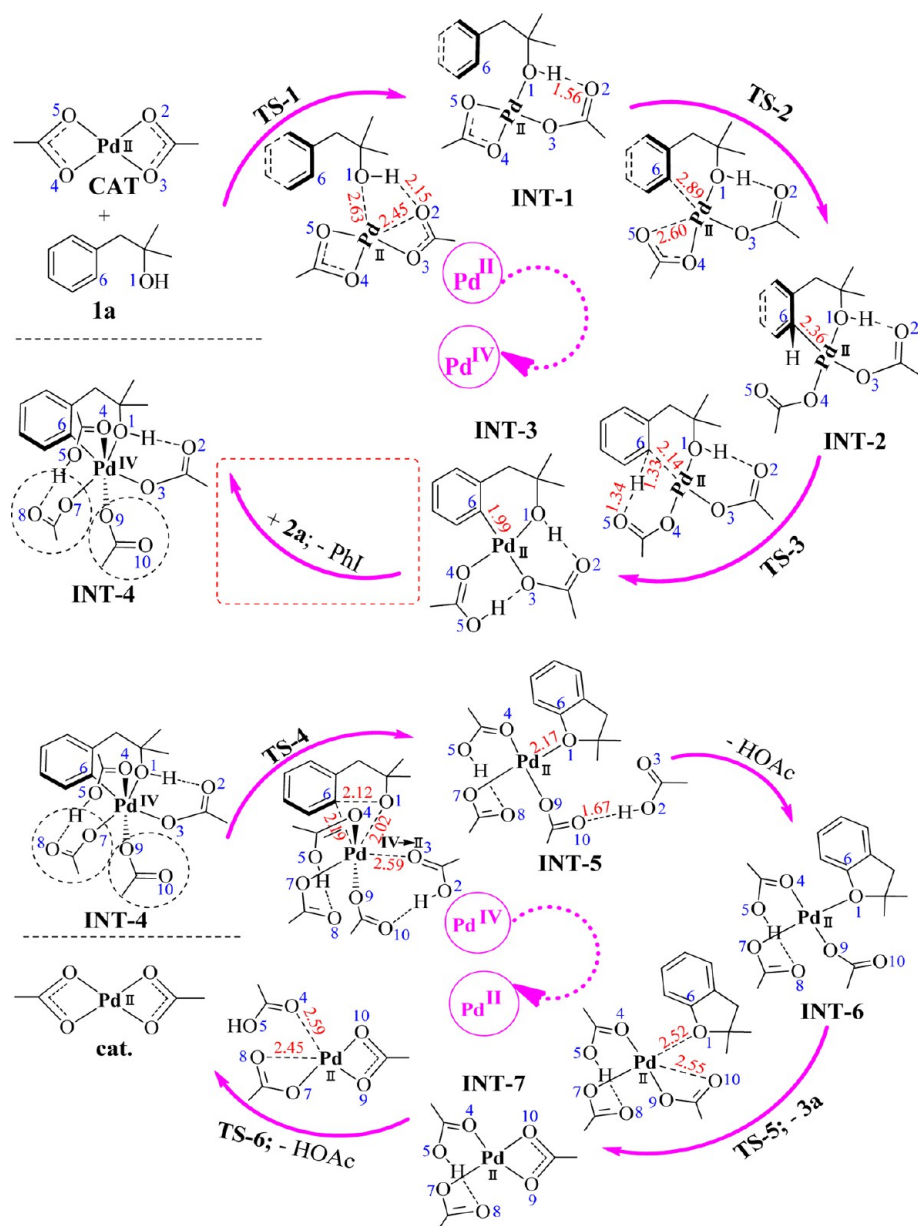


Figure 1. Proposed reaction mechanism for the entire catalytic cycle along the Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(IV) \rightarrow Pd(II) reaction profile. Depictions of the structures residing at critical points, geometry-optimized at the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP level of theory, are provided in addition to the atomic numbering system used. Partially formed and cleaved bonds in transition states are represented by dashed lines, with selected interatomic distances (in Å) shown in red text. With the exception of the INT-3(Pd^{II}) \rightarrow INT-4(Pd^{IV}) \rightarrow INT-5(Pd^{II}) steps involving an oxidation state change, the formal charge on Pd is +2 throughout the cycle (e.g., INT-3 has one neutral and two (−1) ligands (O4-based neutral acetic acid and O3-based acetate anion, bidentate substrate, respectively).

This is followed by an intramolecular ligand substitution via concerted exchange of the O5 atom in the arm of the second η^2 -CH₃COO[−] ligand with the C6 atom on the phenyl group, generating an intermediate bearing two η^1 -CH₃COO[−] groups in the ligand field (INT-2). The Pd–C6 bond axis in INT-2 orientates itself perpendicular to the phenyl plane, indicative of a Pd– π interaction (Pd \cdots C = 2.36 Å), through which the H atom on the C6 center is brought within 2.35 Å of the O5 atom in preparation for C–H activation.

The H atom on the C6 center could be abstracted by the *cis*-acetate O5 atom through the six-membered ring transition structure TS-3, a typical hydrogen-transfer transition state, with the distances of O5 \cdots H and H \cdots C6 being 1.34 and 1.33 Å, respectively. The Pd \cdots C6 incipient bond in TS-3 is coplanar

with the phenyl plane and aligned with the sp²-hybrid orbital on the C6 center, signifying a Pd– π \rightarrow Pd–C σ -bond conversion, concomitant with substantial bond strengthening; similar six-membered ring transition structures have been reported in related works.^{12a–d} Geometric relaxation of TS-3 along the reaction route generates the C–H activation intermediate product (INT-3), itself displaying a six-membered cyclo-palladated intermediate with two stabilizing O–H \cdots OH bonds.

An oxidative PhI(OAc)₂ molecule (2a) is able to easily oxidize INT-3, through addition of two acetate groups to the Pd center, to a six-coordinate octahedral Pd(IV) complex (INT-4), simultaneously releasing the reduction product (PhI) to solution (INT-3 + 2a \rightarrow INT-4 + PhI). Calculations show that it is a free energy favorable process ($\Delta G_{\text{dzvp}} = -1.2$ kcal-

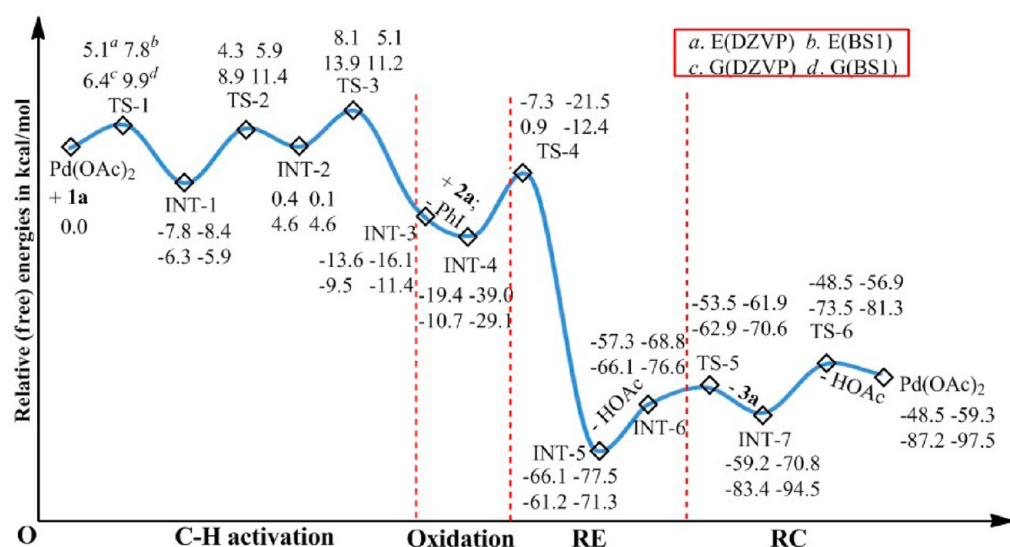


Figure 2. Relative total energy (electronic + ZPE) and Gibbs free energy profiles ($\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$) for the entire $\text{Pd}(\text{OAc})_2$ -catalyzed transformation of phenyl-*tert*-butanol (**1a**) to dihydrobenzofuran (**3a**), as determined at the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP (left-hand values) and B3LYP+IDSCRF/BS1 (right-hand values) levels of theory.

mol^{-1} and $\Delta G_{\text{BS1}} = -17.7 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$) and consists of multiple elementary steps; details of this process are discussed in section 2.4.

The Pd–C6 and Pd–O1 bonds in INT-4 are *ortho* to one another, which is favorable for RE via a three-membered ring transition state (TS-4), forming a four-coordinate square intermediate (INT-5), concurrently recovering the Pd's +2 oxidation state [Pd(IV) \rightarrow Pd(II)]. The intramolecular C–O bond-coupling in TS-4 is accompanied by a Pd–O3 bond cleavage, affording the square ligand configuration. The hydroxyl group undergoes a deprotonation event through the O1 \rightarrow O2 H transfer in a concerted, but nonsynchronous, manner with C–O bond-making. Following this step, direct rupture of the neutral acetic acid, being H-bonded to the O10 atom, affords an intermediate (INT-6) without any transition state.

Intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) results, linking the two minima on either side of TS-4, have confirmed that the product (**3a**) is still bound to the Pd center (INT-6). An intramolecular substitution mediated by the O10 atom of the $\eta^1\text{-CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ ligand could remove **3a** from the Pd center via the TS-5 transition structure, itself followed by another intramolecular substitution with the O8 atom of the $\eta^1\text{-CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ ligand replacing the acetic acid O4 atom, regenerating the $\text{Pd}(\text{OAc})_2$ catalyst.

The total energy and free energy profiles are provided in Figure 2, for both levels of theory investigated, specifically, the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP and B3LYP+IDSCRF/BS1 levels (see the Computational Details section). It should be noted that the free energy changes of the bimolecular reaction processes reported were determined relative to the weakly bound bimolecular complexes as references. This is in direct contrast to the commonly used reference, derived from the sum of the separate molecules.

Results revealed that the first two ligand exchanges should proceed easily with energy barriers of 5.1 and 12.1 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, and free energy barriers of 6.4 and 15.2 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, respectively. The latter is kinetically disfavored (with respect to relatively free energy), as the entering ligand (C6 atom) is a poor coordinating atom with respect to the leaving ligand (O5

atom). The proton-abstraction step (INT-2 \rightarrow TS-3 \rightarrow INT-3) involves an energy barrier of only 7.7 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ and a free energy barrier of 9.3 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, readily accessible at the experimental temperature used (373 K). This proceeds via TS-3, wherein the H atom on C6 transfers to O5, changing the O4-based ligand to a neutral acetic acid ligand. The acidic proton on O5 forms a H-bond with a nearby electronegative atom (O3 in this case = O5–H \cdots O3). This was confirmed by IRC calculations tracking the transformation in both the forward and the backward directions. Therein, the relaxation of TS-3 in the forward direction (TS-3 \rightarrow INT-3) was accompanied by rotation of the Pd–O4 bond to form the O5–H \cdots O3 H-bond.

The intermediate product formed (INT-3) favorable in relative energy, as the $\text{Pd}(\text{OAc})_2 + \mathbf{1a} \rightarrow \text{INT-3}$ transformation is exergonic by $-13.6 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ energy and $-9.5 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ free energy, which is stabilized by two intramolecular O \cdots H–O H-bonds. Results are similar for both levels of theory (B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP and B3LYP+IDSCRF/BS1) for the C–H activation process.

However, the energetic profile of the oxidation reaction process converting INT-3 to INT-4 shows wide variation with level of theory, determined to be -5.8 and $-22.9 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ energy and -1.2 and $-17.7 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ free energy, for the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP and B3LYP+IDSCRF/BS1 levels, respectively. This observed basis set effect may be attributed to the relatively stronger (or shorter) coordinating bonds predicted by the theoretically inferior BS1 basis set. Hence, the increase of coordination number in the INT-3 \rightarrow INT-4 process would be accompanied by a greater exergonic energy estimated by BS1, with respect to that predicted by DZVP.

This rationale could also be used to account for the inverse basis set effect observed for the C–O RE process (INT-4 \rightarrow TS-4 \rightarrow INT-5), which involves a decrease of coordination number, where BS1 predicts a higher energy barrier [$\Delta\Delta E_{\text{a}}^{\ddagger} = 17.5_{\text{BS1}} - 12.1_{\text{DZVP}} = +5.4 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$] and lower exergonic reaction energy than the DZVP level [$\Delta\Delta E_{\text{r}} = (-38.5_{\text{BS1}}) - (-46.7_{\text{DZVP}}) = +8.2 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$]. When the $\text{Pd}(\text{OAc})_2$ catalyst is regenerated, an extra 26.0 $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ free energy will be liberated, contributing to an extremely exergonic transformation ($\Delta E_{\text{dzvp}} = -48.5 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, $\Delta G_{\text{dzvp}} = -87.2 \text{ kcal}\cdot$

mol^{-1} and $\Delta E_{\text{BSI}} = -59.3 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, $\Delta G_{\text{BSI}} = -97.5 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$).

Despite the $\text{INT5} \rightarrow \text{INT6} + \text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ transformation being energetically unfavorable ($+8.8 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$), it is favorable in free energy ($-4.9 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$) due to the release of acetic acid into solution. However, as the concentration of acetic acid in solution grows, the reaction equilibrium may be shifted to favor the reverse process (regenerating INT5), retarding release of product (**3a**) from its Pd ligand site; a mere 46% product yield was observed in the absence of base. The introduction of salt (Li_2CO_3 or Na_2CO_3) facilitates formation of complex **COM-M** ($M = \text{Li}$ or Na), helping disassociate acetic acid from INT-5 (Figure 3, *left-hand side*). Therein, the strong $\text{O10}\cdots\text{H-}$

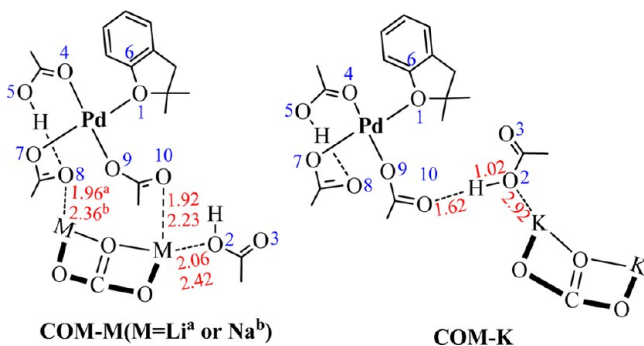


Figure 3. Two differing structural configurations for complexes formed between INT5 and M_2CO_3 , where $M = \text{Li}, \text{Na},$ or K .

O hydrogen bond is completely destroyed, leaving a vacancy on Pd for O10 to attack and promote release of the product (**3a**). Modification of the complex's configuration to that of **COM-K** (Figure 3, *right-hand side*), wherein a K atom is connected to O2, results in a shortening of the $\text{O2-H}\cdots\text{O10}$ hydrogen bond found in INT-5 ($1.67 \text{ \AA} \rightarrow 1.62 \text{ \AA}$) (see Figure 1). A more detailed dissemination of this is provided in the Supporting Information.

2.3. Comparison of $\text{Pd}^{(\text{II})} \rightarrow \text{Pd}^{(\text{IV})} \rightarrow \text{Pd}^{(\text{II})}$ and $\text{Pd}^{(\text{II})} \rightarrow \text{Pd}^{(0)} \rightarrow \text{Pd}^{(\text{II})}$ Catalytic Cycles. The reaction mechanism characterized and discussed in the previous section 2.2 involves two changes of oxidation state at the Pd center: $\text{Pd}(\text{II}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{IV})$ through an oxidation process and $\text{Pd}(\text{IV}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II})$ via a C–O RE process, representing an overall $\text{Pd}(\text{II}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{IV}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II})$ cycle. For sake of comparison, the more common $\text{Pd}(\text{II}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}^{(0)} \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II})$ cycle was also similarly characterized, wherein the C–O RE process transforming $\text{Pd}(\text{II})$ to $\text{Pd}^{(0)}$ precedes the oxidation process, itself involving an oxidative $\text{PhI}(\text{OAc})_2$ molecule (**2a**) facilitating recovery of the $\text{Pd}(\text{OAc})_2$ catalyst [$\text{Pd}^{(0)} \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II})$] (see Scheme 2b).

Toward estimating the relative energy demands of the two pathways, the C–O RE process starting from the $\text{Pd}(\text{II})$ complex (INT-3) has been characterized and compared to that of the $\text{Pd}(\text{IV})$ complex (INT-4). Our DFT determinations show that the $\text{Pd}(\text{II}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}^{(0)}$ reaction path ($\text{INT-3} \rightarrow \text{TS-3-b} \rightarrow \text{INT-4-b}$) needs to surmount an energy barrier and free energy barrier of 41.0 and $38.6 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$, respectively, whereas the $\text{Pd}(\text{IV}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II})$ pathway ($\text{INT-4} \rightarrow \text{TS-4} \rightarrow \text{INT-5}$) has a merely $12.1 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ (energy barrier) and $11.6 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ (free energy barrier), indicating the intramolecular C–O bond-coupling through $\text{Pd}(\text{II}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}^{(0)}$ to be extremely challenging with respect to the $\text{Pd}(\text{IV}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II})$ route. Despite both pathways being favorable overall in energy and free energy

changes, these results support the $\text{Pd}(\text{II}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{IV}) \rightarrow \text{Pd}(\text{II})$ cycle as being the more kinetically probable one.

Toward resolving the widely differing reactivities of INT-3 and INT-4 with respect to the C–O RE process, the geometric and electronic structures (as molecular graphs generated by AIM analyses) of the relevant stationary points (INT-3 , INT-4 , INT-4-b , INT-5) and relevant transition structures (TS-3 , TS-3-b) have been quantitatively and comparatively examined in detail (Figure 4); results show differences in geometric and electronic parameters in line with disparity in chemical behavior. For example, the Pd–O3 coordination bond in TS-3-b (2.67 \AA) is substantially weakened relative to that in INT-3 (2.23 \AA), which is accompanied by lengthening of Pd–O4 from 2.17 to 2.30 \AA . These structural changes are credible, as the change of oxidation state from $+2$ to 0 would result in the transformation of ligand field from a four-coordinate square to a two-coordinate linear configuration, which requires a labile spectator ligand (Pd–O3) departing from the Pd center upon the C–O bond-coupling. Similarly, there involves the change of ligand field from a six-coordinate octahedral to a four-coordinate square configuration accompanied by only a Pd–O3 lengthening from 2.33 \AA in INT-4 to 2.59 \AA in TS-4 . From the degree and the number of the weakened Pd–O coordinating bond, one can understand why the change of the ligand field structure from $6 \rightarrow 4$ coordination is more kinetically favorable than the $4 \rightarrow 2$ coordination change in the Pd complexes.

Analysis of the molecular graphs in Figure 4 shows the strong “key-lock” Pd–O coordination bonds in INT-3 to all be of ionic nature with red nodal regions ($\nabla^2\rho > 0.0$) between Pd and O. All four bonds to Pd (Pd–O1/O3/O4/C6) weaken as the reaction proceeds $\text{INT-3} \rightarrow \text{TS-3-b}$, the Pd–O3 coordination bond in particular ($\Delta\rho_b = (0.025 - 0.054) = (-0.029) \text{ e}\cdot\text{bohr}^{-3}$). In TS-3-b , the Pd–O1 and Pd–O3 bond paths pass through regions of electron-density concentration on the Pd atom (the 4 blue “oval lobes” in the valence density), enlarging the electronic-repulsion term. Contrastingly, in INT-3 , they pass through areas of electron density depletion (“holes” in the blue valence density, where red nodal regions reach Pd’s valence radius). This is indicative of the pseudo Pd(0) atom in TS-3-b being more electron-dense than the Pd(II) in INT-3 . The augmented electron–electron repulsion between the central Pd and the O1 and O3 atoms in TS-3-b leads to longer Pd–O bond lengths, reducing stability in TS-3-b and a change of structure to pseudo-4-coordinated Pd.

As the reaction proceeds $\text{INT-4} \rightarrow \text{TS-4}$, the six-coordinate structure is retained, in which bond strengths of Pd–O4 and Pd–O8 are slightly increased while the others are slightly decreased. This overall “give-take” equilibrating relationship furnishes TS-4 with a low energy barrier, allowing the reaction to easily proceed to INT-5 , which displays a stable planar-four-coordinate structure regenerating Pd(II).

2.4. Role of Oxidant— $\text{INT-3x} \rightarrow \text{INT-4x}$ Transformation. Toward quantitatively resolving the role of the oxidative $\text{PhI}(\text{OAc})_2$ molecule (**2a**), the relative energies and free energies of an energetically plausible multistep oxidation mechanism have been determined using the B3LYP +IDSCRF/DZVP level of theory (Figure 5); here, INT-3a and INT-4a are the same as INT-3 and INT-4 discussed before since the exchange OAc– groups in **1a** are the same as those in **2a**. Our mechanistic pathway requires the two added acetate groups to be in *cis* orientation with respect to each other, consistent with an X-ray structural determination recently

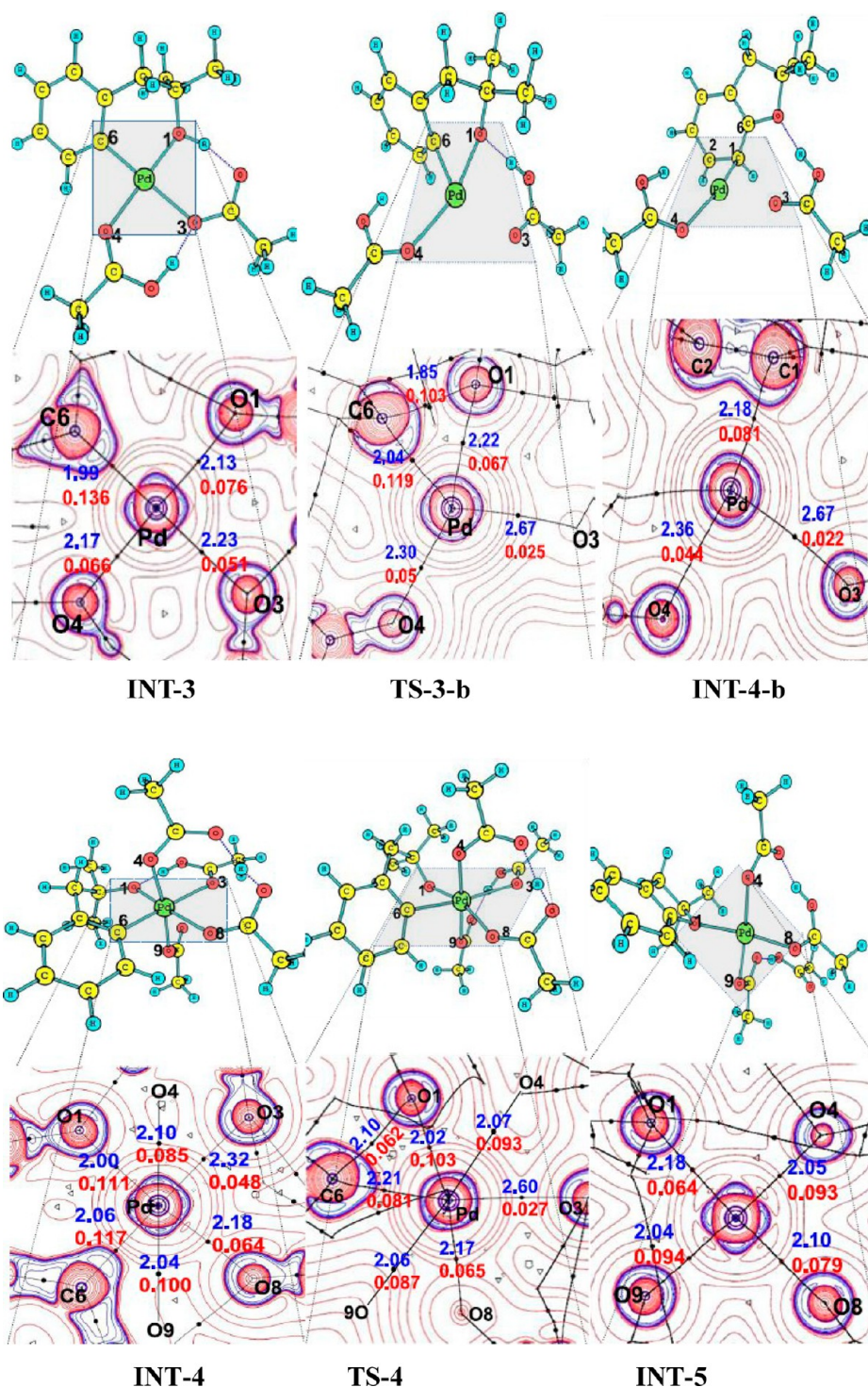


Figure 4. Principal Pd–O/C bond lengths (Å, blue text), bond paths (solid black lines), and electron densities (ρ_b in au, red text) at bond critical points (small black dots). The “onion layer” 2-D isodensity surfaces were determined from the Laplacian of electron densities ($\nabla^2\rho$) in the plane of the Pd, O, and C atoms. Blue-lined regions represent electron concentration ($\nabla^2\rho < 0.0$), corresponding to core and valence electronic density around each atoms. Red-lined regions represent electron depletion ($\nabla^2\rho > 0.0$) and correspond to nodal regions.

reported for the oxidation product of a Pd(II) complex with **2a**.^{13a}

Prior to oxidizing Pd(II) to Pd(IV), INT-3a must first exchange its coordinating acetic acid O4 atom with the acetate O7 atom of **2a** via a concerted transition state (OX-TS-1a), affording another square Pd(II) intermediate (OX-INT-1a), with a near-negligible energy and free energy barriers of +8.1 and +9.9 kcal·mol⁻¹, respectively.

This is followed by the OX-TS-2a transition state with +30.8 and +30.9 kcal·mol⁻¹ energy and free energy barriers, respectively, both accessible at the experimental temperature (373 K). In the OX-TS-2a structure, O9 of the Phi(OAc) moiety and O4 in acetic acid attack the Pd center from axial directions, with bond distances of Pd–O9, Pd–O4, O8–I, and O10–I being 2.42, 2.79, 2.73 and 2.51 Å, respectively. The imaginary vibrational mode of OX-TS-2a shows the O8–I and

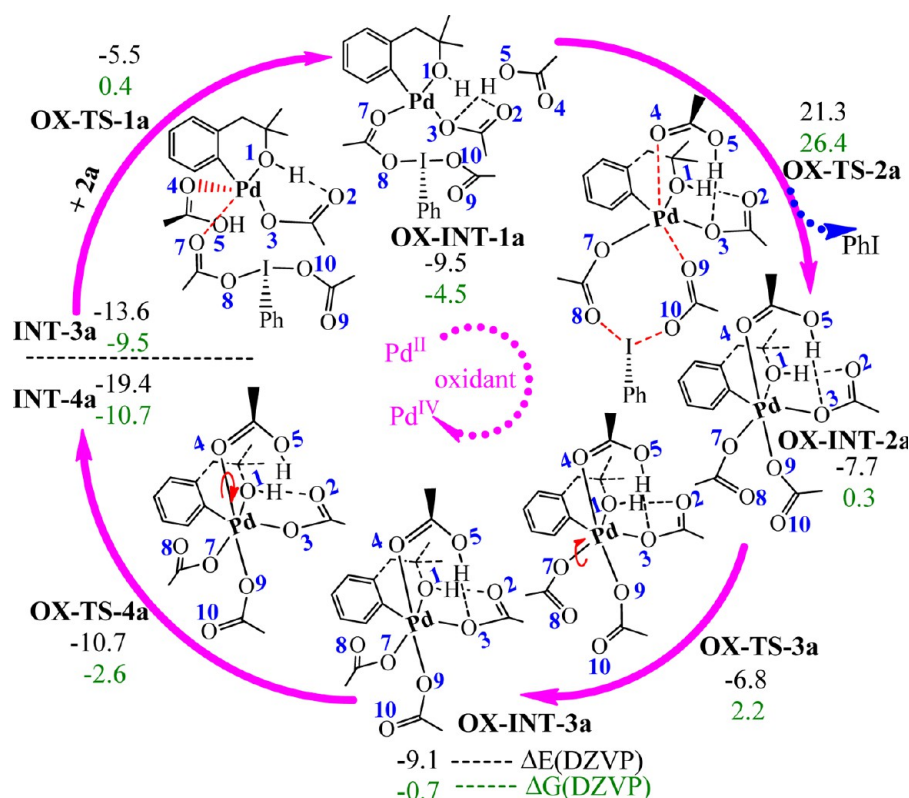


Figure 5. Depiction of the geometry-optimized (stable) structures along the putative mechanistic pathway for the INT-3a + 2a → INT-4a + PhI oxidation process. Weakly polar interactions are indicated by dashed bond lines, in addition to atomic numbering used (blue text) and the relative energies and free energies (kcal·mol⁻¹) as determined at the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP level of theory.

Table 1. Comparison of Experimental Yields with Relative Energies and Free Energies (kcal·mol⁻¹) for the INT-3x + 2x → INT-4x + RED-x (x = a–e) Chemical Transformation, For Differing Oxidants, As Determined by the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP and B3LYP+IDSCRF/TZVP+SDD Levels of Theory

oxidant [equiv]	yield (%)	DZVP		TZVP+SDD	
		ΔE	ΔG	ΔE	ΔG
PHI(OAc) ₂ (2a) [1.5]	88	-5.8	-1.2	-22.9	-17.7
PHI(TFA) ₂ (2b) [1.5]	13	-2.3	+2.6	-18.9	-13.5
PHI(OPiv) ₂ (2c) [1.5]	50	-5.5	+1.0	-21.4	-16.5
AgOAc (2d) [3.0]	0	+53.1	+74.7		
Cu(OAc) ₂ (2e) [1.5]	0	+12.4	+33.3		

O10–I distances becoming longer, while those of Pd–O9 and Pd–O4 become smaller; departure of the PhI species allows formation of the 6-coordinate Pd(IV) intermediate OX-INT-2a.

To complete the oxidation process leading to INT-4a, the H atom involved in the O5–H···O3 intramolecular interaction must be transferred to O8, forming the O8···H–O5 H-bond. This occurs via the following two-step process: OX-INT-2a → OX-TS-3a → OX-INT-3a, followed by OX-INT-3a → OX-TS-4a → INT-4a. The first step has total energy and free energy barriers of +0.9 and +1.9 kcal·mol⁻¹, respectively, while the second step has negative energy and free energy barriers of -1.6 and -1.9 kcal·mol⁻¹, respectively. These barriers are both easily surmounted at 373 K; hence, both steps effecting H-transfer proceed easily under experimental conditions. Although OX-TS-4a is slightly lower in total energy and free energy than its precursor (OX-INT-3a), the pure electronic energy data showed it to be 0.3 kcal·mol⁻¹ higher in electronic energy than the preceding OX-INT-3a structure after

subtracting zero-point energies (ZPEs) from total energies. Refinement of theoretical approximations, including use of anharmonic potentials, or very resource-intensive quantification of dispersion effects, would allow improvement of energetic determinations for these highly networked complexes. We have also found the similar reaction path INT-3b + 2b → INT-4b + PhI (see the Supporting Information), and the free energy barrier for the rate-determining step of OX-INT-1b → OX-INT-2b + PhI is only 26.2 kcal·mol⁻¹, ca. 4.7 kcal·mol⁻¹ lower than that for oxidant (2a), indicating that these steps are not kinetically controlled as these barriers are accessible at the experimental temperature used (373 K). The most plausible reason, therefore, is that the thermal equilibrium between INT-3x and INT-4x plays a pivotal role on the dependence of oxidants.

Experimentally determined product yields for C–O bond formation show the process as being highly dependent on oxidant identity (Table 1). The agreement between experimental yields and the theoretically determined relative energy

and free energy barriers provides strong support to our proposal that Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(IV) oxidation presents an energetically accessible channel for the C–O RE process.

In general, oxidation of Pd(0) \rightarrow Pd(II) is relatively easy, as various kinds of oxidants, such as benzoquinone, (^tBuO)₂, acetic peracid, Cu(OAc)₂, AgF, K₂S₂O₈, and O₂, are adequate to oxidize Pd(0) complexes to Pd(II) complexes in solution. In contrast, oxidation of Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(IV) is traditionally considered to be energetically challenging due to the instability of Pd(IV) structures in solution—hence the requisite powerful oxidants.

Experiments show **2a** to be the best choice of oxidant to include for the studied reaction (Table 1); formation of the Pd(IV) intermediate (INT-4a) is favorable. Energy and free energy changes for the oxidation process (INT-3a \rightarrow INT-4a) are -5.8 and -1.2 kcal·mol⁻¹, respectively. For other oxidants, their free energy changes are all positive, meaning that the Pd(II) intermediate (INT-3x) is favored at this equilibrium point in the reaction. This is particularly true for the AgOAc and Cu(OAc)₂ oxidants, where the INT-3x \rightarrow INT-4x process would not proceed. However, the TZVP+SDD basis set predicts lower reaction total energies and free energies by ca. 16–18 kcal·mol⁻¹ for three oxidants (**2a**, **2b**, and **2c**), regardless of the DFT functionals used (CAM-B3LYP, M06, and wb97xD; see the Supporting Information). We believe that this difference originates from the pseudopotential basis set as the SDD pseudopotential for Pd was derived from the neutral Pd atom, and is identical for any other oxidation states. Such an approximation is clearly erroneous (even to nonspecialists) to characterize a reaction involving a Pd(II) \leftrightarrow Pd(IV) change; an all-electron basis set should be employed for such cases.

3. CONCLUSIONS

Density functional theory determinations, employing the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP and B3LYP+IDSCRF/BS1 levels, have been employed to qualitatively characterize the thermodynamic and kinetic aspects of a Pd(OAc)₂-catalyzed C–H activation/C–O cyclization. The following conclusions have been reached:

- (1) The Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(IV) \rightarrow Pd(II) catalytic cycle involving a Pd(IV) intermediary species is determined to be the most energetically plausible reaction pathway, in which an oxidation process of Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(IV) precedes the C–O reductive elimination process.
- (2) The Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(0) step in the C–O reductive elimination process, within the Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(0) \rightarrow Pd(II) cycle, is kinetically unfavorable with an energy barrier of 41.0 kcal·mol⁻¹.
- (3) The yield of final product is dependent on the relative stability of the Pd(IV) intermediate (INT-4) within the Pd(II) \rightarrow Pd(IV) \rightarrow Pd(II) cycle—itsself highly dependent on the nature of the oxidant employed.

4. COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

All calculations in this work were performed with the B3LYP method as implemented in the Gaussian 09 program package (G09),¹⁷ employing the standard double- ζ valence polarized (DZVP) all-electron basis set for all atoms.¹⁸ The self-consistent reaction field (SCRF) polarizable continuum model (PCM)¹⁹ was used to calculate the solvent effect of perfluorobenzene ($\epsilon = 2.029$). Atomic radii were defined with the IDSCRF method²⁰ (denoted B3LYP+IDSCRF herein) to more accurately quantify the spatial extent of the molecular cavity.

All structures residing at stationary points identified were subsequently characterized by frequency analyses, from which their (relative) free energies were obtained, in addition to verifying the stationary points to be the minima or first-order saddle points on the potential energy surface. Intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC)²¹ calculations with the Hessian-based predictor–corrector integrator (HPC)²² were also used to confirm selected transition-state structures as connecting the two adjacent minima on their respective potential energy hypersurfaces.

For comparative purpose, selected stationary points have been reoptimized and characterized with a mixed basis set (BS1), in which TZVP²³ was used for C, H, and O atoms and ECP(SDD)²⁴ was used for Pd and I atoms. The total energies reported in this paper have been corrected with zero-point energies (ZPEs), and the Gibbs free energies have also been corrected to be consistent with the experimental temperature of 373 K.

To test the effect of differing functionals, the CAM-B3LYP,²⁵ M06,²⁶ and wb97xD²⁷ methods have been employed to characterize the main stationary points for the C–H activation process; single point energy corrections have been performed. For the INT-3x \rightarrow INT-4x (x = a, b, c) transformation, the geometric parameters for related stationary points have been reoptimized and frequencies have been obtained with corresponding methods.

The electronic structures of selected structures were analyzed by Bader's atoms-in-molecules (AIM) analyses, to quantitatively characterize the topological properties of the electron density distributions.²⁸ Analyses were carried out on the wave functions generated using the B3LYP+IDSCRF/DZVP method on the geometry-optimized structures. All molecular graphs and 2-dimensional Laplacian reported in this article have been performed with the AIM98PC²⁹ program package, a modified version of the AIMPAC program.³⁰

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

📄 Supporting Information

The Supporting Information contains the following data: optimized Cartesian coordinates for all stationary points; vibrational frequencies; total energies, zero-point energies, and total free energies; and complementary mechanistic characterizations for oxidation process. 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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