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Tandem Catalytic Processes Involving Olefins

By

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requirements for the degree of

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in

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Committee in charge: Professor John F. Hartwig, Chair Professor K. Peter C. Vollhardt Professor Alexis T. Bell

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Abstract

Tandem Catalytic Processes Involving Olefins

by

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Doctor of Philosophy in Chemistry

University of California, Berkeley

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The following dissertation discusses the development of tandem catalytic processes involving olefins. These processes include the hydroaminomethylation of α -olefins, the contra-thermodynamic isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins, and the chemical recycling of polyolefins by dehydrogenation in concert with isomerizing ethenolysis.

Chapter 1 surveys the chemistry of olefins and the tandem catalytic processes that involve olefins.

Chapter 2 describes the development of a multi-catalytic approach to the hydroaminomethylation of α -olefins. We report an approach to conducting the hydroaminomethylation of diverse α -olefins with a wide range of alkyl, aryl, and heteroarylamines at low temperatures (70-80 °C) and pressures (1.0-3.4 bar) of synthesis gas. This approach is based on simultaneously using two distinct catalysts that are mutually compatible. The hydroformylation step is catalyzed by a rhodium diphosphine complex, and the reductive amination step, which is conducted as a transfer hydrogenation with aqueous, buffered sodium formate as the reducing agent, is catalyzed by a cyclometallated iridium complex. By adjusting the ratio of CO to H₂, we conducted the reaction at one atmosphere of gas with little change in yield. A diverse array of olefins and amines, including hetreroarylamines that do not conventional conditions react under more with a single catalyst. underwent hydroaminomethylation with this new system, and the pharmaceutical ibutilide was prepared in higher yield and under milder conditions than those reported with a single catalyst.

Chapter 3 describes the development of a contra-thermodynamic, positional isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins by chain-walking hydrosilylation in concert with dehydrosilylation. We report a contra-thermodynamic isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins driven by redox reactions and formation of Si–F bonds. This process involves chain-walking hydrosilylation of internal olefins and subsequent formal retro-hydrosilylation. The process rests upon the high activities of platinum hydrosilylation catalysts for isomerization of metal alkyl intermediates and a new, metal-free process for the conversion of alkylsilanes to alkenes. By this approach, 1,2-disubstituted and trisubstituted olefins are converted to terminal olefins.

Chapter 4 describes the development of a contra-thermodynamic, positional isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins by chain-walking hydrosilylation in concert with a catalytic dehydrosilylation. We report a newly developed, palladium-catalyzed dehydrosilylation of terminal alkylsilanes that combines with chain-walking hydrosilylation to create a one-pot isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins. This catalytic dehydrosilylation is one of the few examples of thermal catalytic functionalizations of unactivated alkylsilanes. The reaction involves transmetalation of an alkylsilane, β -hydride elimination, release of the terminal olefin, and reoxidation of the palladium catalyst. A variety of linear internal olefins underwent the overall isomerizations occurring over seven carbon units proceeded in yields that are comparable to those of isomerizations occurring over one carbon unit.

Chapter 5 describes the development of a contra-thermodynamic, positional isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins by chain-walking hydroboration in concert with dehydroboration. We report a newly developed dehydroboration reaction that can be coupled to chain-walking hydroboration to create a one-pot, contra-thermodynamic isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins. This dehydroboration reaction is the first dehydroboration of unactivated boronic esters. The reaction involves activation of the boronic acid, followed by iodination and base-promoted elimination. A variety of linear and branched internal olefins underwent the isomerization in good yields and with excellent regioselectivities.

Chapter 6 describes the chemical recycling of polyethylene by dehydrogenation and isomerizing ethenolysis. We converted polyethylene to olefins by either catalytic cracking or dehydrogenation, and we converted these olefins to propene by a highly selective isomerizing ethenolysis. Up to 33% yield of propene was obtained from dehydrogenated polyethylene and up to 72% yield of propene was obtained from octadecene, a model long-chain alkene.

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Chapter 1 The Chemistry of Olefins, the Nature of Tandem Catalytic Processes, and the Development of Tandem Catalytic Processes Involving Olefins

1.1 The chemistry of olefins

Olefins are compounds that contain carbon–carbon double bonds, which consist of one σ bond and one π bond. The word olefin is derived from the Latin words *oleum*, which means oil, and *facere*, which means "to make," because olefins form oily compounds upon reaction with halogens. The overall strength of a carbon–carbon double bond is 146 kcal/mol, and the strength of a carbon–carbon single bond is 83 kcal/mol. Thus, the strength of a carbon–carbon π bond can be approximated as 63 kcal/mol.¹

1.1.1 The C–C π bond

The behavior and properties of π bonds are central to the reactivity of olefins because the frontier molecular orbitals of monoenes bearing no functional groups contain significant contributions from the carbon p orbitals that form π bonds. For such molecules, the molecular orbital corresponding to the π bond is the HOMO, and the molecular orbital corresponding to the π bond is the HOMO. Thus, the reactivity of olefins with electrophiles and electrophilic radicals is controlled by interactions between the unfilled or partially filled orbitals of the electrophile and the π bonds of the olefin, and the reactivity of nucleophiles and nucleophilic radicals with olefins is controlled by interactions between the filled or partially filled orbitals of the nucleophile and the π^* antibonding orbitals of the nucleophile and the π^* antibonding orbitals of the olefin.

Given the central role of π bonds in the chemistry of olefins, it is not surprising that the installation of substituents around a π bond can significantly alter said chemistry. In any stable conformation, alkyl substituents possess a filled orbital with the correct symmetry to mix with both the π and π^* orbitals of an olefin.² Mixing of the filled π -bonding orbital with the filled π -symmetric orbital of the alkyl substituent raises the energy of the π bond, increasing the nucleophilicity of the olefin and slightly destabilizing the molecule relative to an unsubstituted alkene. Mixing of the unoccupied π^* antibonding orbital of the alkene with the filled π -symmetric orbital of the alkyl substituent stabilizes the molecule relative to an unsubstituted alkene.²

1.1.2 Binding of olefins to metals

Just as frontier orbitals influence the reactivity, properties, and relative stabilities of olefins, they control interactions of olefins with metals. Metals bind olefins according to the Dewar-Chatt-Duncanson model.³ According to this model, olefins both donate electron density to metal centers through mixing of filled π orbitals with empty *d* orbitals of appropriate symmetry and accept electron density from metal centers through mixing of unfilled π^* orbitals with filled *d* orbitals of appropriate symmetry. The former form of orbital mixing is referred to as forward donation, and the latter form is referred to as back donation. The contributions of each type of donation to the strength of the interaction between the olefin and the metal depend on the properties of the metal complex and of the olefin, and the magnitudes of each contribution have consequences for the properties and reactivity of the overall complex.

1.1.3 Reactions of olefins

Olefins undergo a variety of reactions, virtually all of which involve the π and π^* orbitals. Most industrially relevant reactions of monounsaturated olefins can be categorized as addition reactions, isomerizations, or metatheses. Examples of each type of reaction are given in Figure 1.



Figure 1. Fundamental reactions of olefins

1.1.3.1 Addition reactions

Addition reactions involve the combination of an olefin with a second molecule to form a larger molecule (Figure 2). In such reactions, the π -bond of the olefin breaks, and σ -bonds between each carbon atom and the reagent(s) used for the addition form. A σ bond in the reagent used for the addition is often broken as well. Since such reactions often involve the formation of two σ bonds and the breaking of one π bond and one σ bond, they are typically exergonic.

Addition reactions of olefins can be broadly categorized as hydrogenations, hydrofunctionalizations, difunctionalizations, or cycloadditions, depending on the substituents that are added across the carbon-carbon double bond (Figure 2). For a reaction to classified as a hydrogenation, hydrofunctionalization, or difunctionalization, reagents need not be directly added across the double bond. That is, the atoms of the "H-H," "H-X," and "X-Y" reagents of Figure 2 need not be bound together at any time before or during an addition reaction. Cycloadditions involve the combination of multiple unsaturated molecules to form a cyclic adduct; cycloadditions are beyond the scope of this dissertation.





Hydrogenations involve the addition of two hydrogen atoms across the double bond, and hydrofunctionalizations involve the addition of a hydrogen atom and an atom, labeled X in the figure, other than hydrogen across the double bond. Examples of hydrofunctionalizations include hydration,⁴ hydrohalogenation,⁴ hydrocyanation,⁵ hydroboration,⁶ hydrosilylation,⁷ hydroamination,⁸ hydroformylation,⁹ hydroaminomethylation,¹⁰ methoxycarbonylation,¹¹ and the ene reaction.² Hydrofunctionalizations of internal olefins can proceed with regioselectivities in which the functional group is added to the terminus of a carbon chain.¹² These hydrofunctionalizations are known chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations. as Difunctionalizations of olefins are addition reactions in which both olefinic carbons form bonds to elements other than hydrogen. Classically, difunctionalizations are thought to involve the formation of bonds from each olefinic carbon to separate atoms. Examples of such reactions include dihydroxylation, dihalogenation, halohydration, diboration, disilylation, silaboration, homopolymerization, carbodifunctonalizations, and copolymerization.³⁻⁴

1.1.3.2 Elimination reactions

The reverses of addition reactions are elimination reactions. These reactions form olefins from saturated starting materials. Dehydrogenations remove an equivalent of H_2 from a saturated compound.¹³ Dehydrogenations can be categorized as acceptorless dehydrogenations,^{13g,13h,13n,13p-} ^s which proceed at elevated temperatures to directly eliminate H₂, transfer dehydrogenations,^{13e} which involve transfer of an equivalent of H₂ to an acceptor olefin, and polar dehydrogenations,^{13t} which involve the transfer of H⁺ and H⁻ equivalents to an acceptor compound. Dehydrofunctionalizations remove a hydrogen atom and a functional group from a saturated compound. Examples include dehydrohalogenation,⁴ dehydration,⁴ Hoffman dehydroformylation,¹⁴ dehydrocyanation,¹⁵ dehydroboration,¹⁶ eliminations,⁴ and dealkoxycarbonylation.¹⁷ Functional groups can also be removed from two vicinal carbon atoms to form an alkene. Examples of this reaction include the Peterson olefination,¹⁸ the Corey-Winter olefination,¹⁹ de-epoxidation,²⁰ and retro-cylopropanation.²¹

1.1.3.3 Isomerization reactions

Isomerizations can be categorized as either positional or geometric.²² Positional isomerizations involve changes in the connectivity of substituents about a double bond. The favorability of positional isomerizations is typically determined by the electronic properties of the substituents attached to the double bond. Isomers with more donating substituents about the double bond are generally more stable than those with less donating substituents about the double bond, although a notable exception involves the stability of α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds relative to unconjugated, unsaturated carbonyl compounds. The enhanced stability of conjugated α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds relative to nonconjugated α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds originates from favorable mixing of the π -orbital of the alkene moiety with the π^* orbital of the carbonyl moiety. The enhanced stability of alkyl-substituted olefins relative to unsubstituted isomers originates from the favorable mixing of filled orbitals on donating substituents and the empty π^* orbital of the olefin moiety.² Since alkyl substituents are more donating than hydrogen, alkenes bearing more alkyl substituents are generally more stable than their unsubstituted isomers. Thus, for monoenes bearing no functional groups, positional isomerizations that increase the number of substituents about the double bond are thermodynamically favorable. This trend can be quantified with heats of formation. Monosubstituted olefins are less stable than disubstituted olefins by about 1-2 kcal/mol, less

stable than trisubstituted olefins by about 5 kcal/mol, and less stable than tetrasubstituted olefins by about 6 kcal/mol (Figure 3).²³ The trend in exothermicities of hydrogenations parallels the trend in exergonicities of isomerizations.⁴ Since olefins bearing more alkyl substituents are more stable than olefins bearing fewer substituents, hydrogenations of olefins bearing more substituents are less exothermic than those of olefins bearing fewer substituents.



Figure 3. Relative stabilities of olefin isomers with different substitution patterns, adapted from Yale Organic Chemistry Study Aids²³

Both thermodynamic, i.e., net-exergonic, and contra-thermodynamic, i.e., net-endergonic, isomerizations have been reported (Figure 4). Thermodynamic isomerizations are exergonic reactions in which relatively unstable molecules react to form relatively stable molecules. Classes of thermodynamic isomerizations include positional isomerizations of alkenes with less donating substituents about the double bond to alkenes with more donating substituents about the double bond as well as geometric isomerizations of more sterically strained alkenes to less sterically strained alkenes. While positional isomerizations alter the connectivity of olefins, geometric isomerizations alter only the configuration of olefins. Contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations involve the conversion of relatively stable olefins into relatively unstable olefins. Such conversions are endergonic; therefore, they do not occur spontaneously unless coupled to additional, sufficiently exergonic processes. Classes of contra-thermodynamic isomerizations include positional isomerizations of alkenes with more donating substituents about the double bond to alkenes with eduble bond as well as geometric isomerizations of alkenes with more donating substituents about the double bond to alkenes with fewer donating substituents about the double bond as well as geometric isomerizations of alkenes with more donating substituents about the double bond to alkenes with less steric crowding about the double bond to alkenes with more steric crowding about the double bond.

Positional Isomerization - Exergonic





Because positional, thermodynamic olefin isomerizations are exergonic, many methods to conduct them have been reported (Figure 5).^{22,24} The most common methods are acid- and base-catalyzed tautomerizations. Acid-catalyzed thermodynamic isomerizations involve initial protonation of a double bond to form a carbocation, followed by deprotonation of the carbon α to the cationic carbon. Base-catalyzed thermodynamic isomerizations involve deprotonation of the carbon α to the double bond to form a carbonic followed by protonation of the carbon β to the anionic carbon. Transition-metal hydrides also catalyze positional, thermodynamic olefin isomerizations.^{24g} These reactions can proceed through either insertion/elimination,^{24g} oxidative addition/reductive elimination,^{24f,24j} or hydrogen-atom transfer mechanisms.^{24h}



Figure 5. Strategies for thermodynamic, positional isomerization of olefins

Positional, contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations are considerably rarer than positional, thermodynamic olefin isomerizations (Figure 6). These reactions typically proceed by allylic functionalization followed by defunctionalization with allylic transposition or by photodeconjugation.²⁵ These strategies for positional, contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization allow for translocation of the double bond through a maximum of only one carbon unit. An alternative strategy involves chain-walking hydrofunctionalization followed by

dehydrofunctionalization, which is the subject of chapters 3, 4, and 5 of this dissertation. $^{16g,16m-0,26}$



Figure 6. Contra-thermodynamic, positional olefin isomerizations

While positional isomerizations involve changes in the connectivity of substituents about a double bond, geometric isomerizations involve changes in the configuration of the substituents about a double bond.²² The substituents can be arranged in either an *E* or *Z* fashion. For acyclic olefins, the *E* isomer is generally more stable than the *Z* isomer due to steric clashes between the two substituents on the same side of the double bond. The barrier for rotation about a double bond of olefins is roughly equal to the strength of the π bond because the transition state for rotation involves a perpendicular arrangement of the two carbon *p* orbitals in which the *p* orbitals have no overlap, i.e., the π bond is broken.^{2,4}

1.1.3.4 Metatheses

Olefin metathesis is a substitution reaction of olefins that involves the redistribution of the substituents about the double bonds of two olefins (Figure 7). Olefin metatheses can be both intra- and intermolecular and can occur as self-metatheses (SM), which involve recombination of two identical olefins, or as cross metatheses (CM), which involve recombination of two distinct olefins. Examples of olefin metathesis include ring-opening metathesis (RCM), ring-closing metathesis polymerization (ROMP), and ethenolysis (Figure 7).



Figure 7. Examples of olefin metathesis

The first widely accepted mechanism of olefin metathesis was proposed by Chauvin in 1971 (Figure 8). This mechanism involves cycloaddition of an olefin to a metal alkylidene to form a metallacyclobutane, which, upon cycloelimination, releases the metathesis product and generates a second alkylidene with substituents distinct from those of the original alkylidene (Figure 8). Olefin metatheses of hydrocarbons are often close to thermoneutral. In these cases, all steps of the catalytic cycle are reversible, and degenerate metatheses occur concurrently with non-degenerate, i.e., productive, metatheses. For metatheses that are thermoneutral under standard conditions, selectivity for a given product is typically achieved through addition of excess reactants or removal of products.



Figure 8. Mechanism of olefin metathesis

1.2 Tandem catalytic processes involving olefins

A variety of tandem catalytic processes involving olefins have been developed (Figure 9). Olefins can be the starting materials, intermediates, or products of a tandem catalytic processes. Virtually all such processes involve additions, eliminations, isomerizations, or metatheses. Tandem catalytic processes involving olefins can be classified orthogonal-tandem or one-pot sequential processes.²⁷



Figure 9. Tandem catalysis

Concurrent tandem catalysis involves conducting multiple processes in the same reaction vessel at the same time, and one-pot sequential catalysis involves conducting multiple processes in the same reaction vessel at different times. Advantages of concurrent tandem catalysis include the ability to minimize the concentration of the intermediate, I, which might undergo unproductive side reactions, and the ability to automate cascades that involve multiple iterations of the same sequence of steps. Challenges associated with concurrent tandem catalysis include the selection of mutually compatible catalysts with non-interfering cycles and the identification of a single set of reaction conditions under which both catalysts can operate. One-pot sequential catalysis enables chemists to conduct multiple reactions in the same pot without isolation of intermediates while select catalysts that need not necessarily be mutually compatible at the same

time. However, isolation of the intermediate can only be avoided if catalysts in the second and subsequent transformations can still operate in the presence of reagents, solvents, and the deactivated forms of catalysts used for prior transformations. Thus, the development of one-pot, sequential catalytic reactions often involves more engineering challenges than the development of single-step catalytic transformations.

1.2.1 Tandem catalytic processes involving addition & isomerization reactions

Many hydrofunctionalizations can proceed in tandem with isomerization (Figure 10).¹² These hydrofunctionalizations are referred to as chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations. The isomerization step can involve isomerization of an olefin to generate a statistical mixture of constitutional isomers followed by selective hydrofunctionalization of the terminal olefin or isomerization of a metal alkyl to the terminal position followed by direct installation of a functional group at the terminal position.^{12,28} The main advantage of chain-walking hydrofunctionalization is that it enables installation of functional groups at positions that are remote from the initial position of the double bond. Thus, terminally functionalized products can without starting from the internal olefin. However, be obtained chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations typically proceed in lower n:iso ratios than analogous hydrofunctionalizations of terminal olefins because the secondary metal alkyl intermediates or internal olefins formed during the isomerization process can react to form internally hydrofunctionalized products. In addition, chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations often proceed lower conversion than analogous hydrofunctionalizations of terminal olefins because in insertion of internal olefins into metal hydrides is typically slower than insertion of terminal olefins into metal hydrides.

Examples of hydrofunctionalizations that can follow isomerization include hydroformylation,²⁹ hydroaminomethylation,³⁰ hydrocyanation,^{5a,5b} hydrosilylation,³¹ hydroarylation.²⁸ and methoxycarbonylation.¹¹ hvdroboration.⁶ Several chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations involve isomerization through methine units to form the terminally hydrofunctionalized product in high regioselectivity; examples of such chain-walking hydroboration,^{6e,6f} hydrofunctionalizations include hydrosilylation,^{31a} and methoxycarbonylation.^{11d-f}

Chain-walking hydrofunctionalization







Chain-walking hydroboration





Chain-walking hydroaminomethylation

 NR_2

Chain-walking hydoarylation







1.2.2 Tandem catalytic processes involving addition & metathesis reactions

Metathesis can precede addition reactions.³² Examples include hydrogenation,³³ hydroarylation,³⁴ and dihydroxylation.³⁵

Cross metathesis in tandem with cyclization and hydrogenation



Cross metathesis in tandem with intramolecular hydroarylation



Cross metathesis in tandem with dihydroxylation



Figure 11. Tandem catalytic processes involving olefin metathesis and addition reactions

1.2.3 Tandem catalytic processes involving hydrofunctionalization or difunctionalization and other subsequent transformations

Hydrofunctionalizations can also occur in tandem with transformations other than isomerization. For example, hydroaminomethylation involves hydroformylation in tandem with reductive amination.^{10,36} Similarly, hydroformylation can occur in tandem with aldehyde hydrogenation.³⁶⁻³⁷ Hydroformylation can also occur in tandem with aldehyde condensation³⁶ or Wittig olefination³⁶ but the latter two transformations are typically not conducted with catalysts. Hydroboration and diboration can precede Suzuki couplings.³⁸ Additionally, hydroboration and diborations are typically not conducted with catalysts. The nitrile products of hydrocyanation can be reduced, and this process is used in the synthesis of nylon-6 polymers.^{5c} Similarly, the products of methoxycarbonylation can be reduced.⁴⁰

Hydroformylation/ hydrogenation



Hydroaminomethylation (hydroformylation/ reductive amination)



Hydroboration/ Suzuki coupling



Diboration/ Suzuki coupling



Hydrocyanation/ hydrogenation



Methoxycarbonylation/ reduction



Figure 12. Tandem catalytic processes involving hydrofunctionalization or difunctionalization and subsequent transformations

1.2.4 Tandem catalytic processes involving isomerization and metathesis

In addition to occurring in concert with hydrofunctionalization, isomerization can occur in concert with olefin metathesis.⁴¹ These transformations are referred to as isomerizing metatheses (ISOMET). The isomerization step can occur before or after the metathesis step. Additionally, the metathesis step can involve cross metathesis (isomerizing cross-metathesis) or self-metathesis (isomerizing self-metathesis). In theory, all ISOMET reactions can precede hydrofunctionalizations.

Varying degrees of selectivity can be achieved in ISOMET processes. Often, distributions of alkene products form. Schrock developed a seminal product-specific ISOMET reaction involving initial isomerization of an internal olefin to a statistical mixture of olefins followed by self-metathesis of the terminal olefin to generate a higher molecular-weight internal olefin.^{41j} Selectivity for (*Z*)-5-decene from (*E*)-3-hexene was achieved by selecting an isomerization catalyst that selectively isomerizes *E* but not *Z* olefins and a metathesis catalyst with high selectivity for self-metathesis of terminal olefins and with high selectivity for the formation of (*Z*)-metathesis products, which do not undergo subsequent isomerization under the reaction conditions.



Figure 13. Product-selective self-metathesis of (*E*)-3-hexene

In other examples of ISOMET processes, distributions of alkenes form. For example, Consorti and Dupont reported an isomerizing self-metathesis of 3-hexene which produced a nearly statistical distribution of alkenes with lengths ranging from C₂–C₁₇.^{41c} Gooßen and co-workers later reported an isomerizing cross-metathesis of 3-hexene and 1-octadecne that produced a product distribution with a mean chain length equal to stoichiometry-weighted average of the chain-lengths of the starting olefins. That is, the mean chain length, L, can be calculated from the chain lengths, L₁ and L₂, and stoichiometries, x₁ and x₂, of the two starting olefins according to the formula $L = (x_1L_1 + x_2L_2)/(x_1 + x_2)$.^{41d} This strategy has been used by Gooßen to modify the physical properties of biodiesel.



Figure 14. Isomerizing self- and cross-metatheses that lead to mixtures of olefins with statistical distributions of chain lengths

Isomerizing cross metatheses in which one of the starting olefins is ethylene are referred to as isomerizing ethenolyses. These reactions, known as isomerizing ethenolyses, decrease the molecular weight of the starting olefin. Isomerizing ethenolysis has been applied in the synthesis of vinylarenes from allylarenes (Figure 15)^{41e} and in the conversion of fatty-acid esters to defined distributions of olefin products, as in Figure 14.^{41d}

Figure 15. Isomerizing ethenolysis applied in the synthesis of vinylarenes from allylarenes

The Shell Higher Olefins Process (SHOP) involves addition, isomerization, and metathesis reactions (Figure 16).⁴² This process involves initial oligomerization of ethylene to a Flory-Schultz mixture of linear α -olefins (LAOs) with even numbers of carbon atoms ranging from C₄ to C₄₀. These olefins then undergo isomerization to linear internal olefins (LIOs) over a heterogeneous catalyst, typically MgO or K/Al₂O₃. The resulting statistical mixture of LIOs is passed over a Mo/Al₂O₃ catalyst; the resulting cross metathesis generates a mixture of LIOs with odd and even numbers of carbons. These LIOs are subsequently ethenolyzed to shorter LAOs, which undergo hydroformylation, hydrogenation, and subsequent transformations to produce detergents.



Figure 16. Shell Higher Olefins Process (SHOP)

1.2.5 Tandem catalytic processes involving dehydrogenation

Dehydrogenation can occur in concert with olefin metathesis. This reaction is known as alkane metathesis.⁴³ In this case, the olefin is an intermediate, rather than a starting material or product. Alkane starting materials undergo initial dehydrogenation to alkenes, which undergo olefin metathesis. Typically, the cross-metathesis products are desired. The products of olefin metathesis undergo hydrogenation under the reaction conditions. This final hydrogenation is coupled to the thermodynamically unfavorable loss of hydrogen by the alkane starting materials to make spontaneous the overall alkane metathesis. Typically, an iridium pincer catalyst conducts dehydrogenation, and a heterogeneous Re/Al₂O₃ catalyst conducts metathesis. This reaction has been applied in the degradation of polyethylene to light alkanes.⁴⁴



Figure 17. Alkane metathesis

In the previous example of alkane metathesis, the thermodynamically unfavorable dehydrogenation step was coupled to transfer hydrogenation of the alkenes formed after cross-metathesis. Dehydrogenation also can be coupled to other thermodynamically favorable addition reactions. Zheng Huang showed that dehydrogenation can be coupled to chain-walking hydrofunctionalization.^{7b} This reaction involves initial dehydrogenation of an alkane to generate an internal olefin, which is the more thermodynamically stable alkene formed under the harsh

conditions of the reaction, followed by chain-walking hydrosilylation or chain-walking hydroboration to produce terminal alkylsilicon or alkylboron species.



Figure 18. Dehydrogenation in concert with chain-walking hydrofunctionalization

1.3 The present dissertation

The present dissertation discusses the development of novel tandem catalytic processes involving olefins. These processes involve hydrofunctionalizations, isomerizations, dehydrofunctionalizations, dehydrogenations, and metatheses. Through this work, we have shown that the various reactions of olefins can be combined in simple ways to enable processes that are challenging or indeed impossible to accomplish in a single step. These processes are the multicatalytic hydroaminomethylation of α -olefins at low pressures, several contrathermodynamic isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins that involve chain-walking hydrofunctionalization in concert with dehydrofunctionalization, and the depolymerization of polyethylene to propene through dehydrogenation and isomerizing ethenolysis.

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2.1 Introduction

Amines are ubiquitous in industrial, biological, and synthetic chemistry. Many industrial products either contain linear amines or are synthesized from amines,¹ and some of the most commonly prescribed pharmaceuticals contain 1-aminoalkyl groups (Scheme 1). Such amines are most commonly synthesized by the amination of alcohols, the reductive amination of aldehydes, or the reduction of amides, nitriles, or nitro compounds.¹ However, the starting materials for these processes are often synthesized from olefins; therefore, a method for the synthesis of amines from olefins would be more direct, less expensive, and more environmentally benign than the multi-step alternatives.



Scheme 1. APIs containing aminoalkyl groups

The hydroaminomethylation of olefins is an atom-economical and operationally simple reaction involving hydroformylation of an olefin to form an aldehyde and reductive amination of this aldehyde to form an amine.² The reaction is commonly conducted with a rhodium-based catalyst ligated by a diphosphine (Scheme 2A). Several limitations, such as the high pressure of synthesis gas (usually around 60 bar) required to achieve acceptable yields,^{2a,2b} have diminished the utility of this reaction. In addition, self-condensation of the aldehyde, hydrogenation of the aldehyde, and hydrogenation of the olefin have been reported to compete with hydroaminomethylation.^{2a}

Hydroaminomethylation is difficult to achieve, in part, because the properties of the most active catalysts for hydroformylation are quite different from those of the most active catalysts for reductive amination.³ Moreover the reductive amination process must not be strongly inhibited by carbon monoxide. A single catalyst that meets these criteria and catalyzes hydroaminomethylations at low pressures and temperatures has not been identified. In 2003, Beller reported one of the most active and regioselective systems comprising the combination of [Rh(COD)₂]BF₄ with Xantphos, but these reactions were conducted with 40 bar of syngas at 125 °C (Scheme 2A).⁴ Hydroaminomethylations reported by Eilbracht, Alper, Whiteker, Zhang, and others occur under similar conditions.⁵ A set of hydroaminomethylations reported by Beller occurred at the lower temperature of 60 °C. However, these reactions were limited to those of vinylarenes, and high pressures (30 bar, 1:5 CO:H₂) were still required.⁶

(A) Beller, 2003: hydroaminomethylation with a single metal and ligand

R ¹	+	HNR ² R ³	CO:H ₂ (7:33, 40 bar) [Rh(COD) ₂]BF ₄ ,	R^1 NR ² R ³
(B) Beller biphasic I R ¹ ∕∕∕	, 1999 hydro +	9: paminomet NH ₃	Xantphos, 125 °C hylation with two metals an <u>CO:H₂ (13:65, 78 bar)</u> [Rh(COD)Cl] ₂ /[Ir(COD)Cl] ₂	d one ligand R NH ₂
(C) Xiao 2 Branched	2015, I hydi	Han, 2017: roaminome	ethylation with one metal an	d an organic acid
R R = regio group, e.g	+ direct g. phe	H ₂ NAr ^H ing enyl	CO, H ₂ (as low as 1 bar), Hantzsch Ester (1.5-2.4 equiv) Rh(CO) ₂ (acac)/Diphosphine Chiral Phosphoric Acid	R NHAr up to 99% ee
(D) This w	vork:	linear hyd	roaminomethylation with tw	o metal catalysts
R ¹ R ¹ = alkyl	+ R [:]	HNR ² R ³ ² , R ³ = alky aryl, H	CO:H ₂ (1:1, 3.7 bar) <u>pH 4.8 HCO₂Na buffer</u> Rh(CO) ₂ (acac)/BISBI I, Xiao's Catalyst 80 °C, 20 h	R ¹ NR ² R ³ 60-88% yield 90:10 to >99:1 <i>n:iso</i> 30 examples

Scheme 2. Approaches to hydroaminomethylation

We envisioned a new approach in which two catalysts, one for each step, would react by mechanisms that are distinct and independent from each other, enabling hydroaminomethylation to occur under conditions that are milder than those with a single catalyst.⁷ Beller and Luo published hydroaminomethylations conducted with a single phosphine and two metals, but these reactions still required high pressures of synthesis gas and high temperatures (Scheme 2B).⁸ Following a different design, Xiao and Han published hydroaminomethylations catalyzed by the combination of a rhodium-based catalyst for the hydroformylation step and a chiral phosphoric acid for the reductive amination step that form enantioenriched, branched amines from α - and β -functionalized olefins (Scheme 2C). However, these systems have not been shown to catalyze linear-selective hydroaminomethylations of unfunctionalized alkenes, and the organic catalyst requires an expensive Hantzsch ester to reduce the imine intermediate.^{7a,7b,9}

Herein, we report a linear-selective hydroaminomethylation of α -olefins catalyzed by two distinct metal complexes and an approach to the reductive amination step not applied previously to hydroaminomethylation (Scheme 2D). A rhodium-diphosphine complex catalyzes the hydroformylation step, and a phosphine-free, cyclometallated iridium complex catalyzes the reductive amination step by transfer hydrogenation. Key features of this work include the identification of a catalyst for reductive amination that is not poisoned by CO and the use of buffered formic acid for the reduction step. With this system, aromatic, heteroaromatic, and aliphatic amines are formed in high yields and in high regioselectivities with pressures of synthesis gas and temperatures that are significantly lower than those used previously for hydroaminomethylation.

Our strategy for a low-pressure, multicatalytic hydroaminomethylation was based on the hypotheses that the high pressures of hydrogen in existing systems for hydroaminomethylation are required to ensure that reductive amination is faster than self-condensation of the aldehyde and that the reductive amination step of hydroaminomethylation is slow because catalysts for this step tend to be inhibited by carbon monoxide. In this case, a reductive amination catalyst that is unaffected by carbon monoxide could be combined with a suitable hydroformylation catalyst to

conduct hydroaminomethylations at low pressures of synthesis gas. A complex that catalyzes reductive amination by transfer hydrogenation might meet this criterion.

2.2 Results and discussion

To test this reaction design, we studied the hydroaminomethylation of 1-decene (1a) with aniline (2a) in the presence of formic acid, the highly active and selective hydroformylation catalyst generated from Rh(CO)₂(acac) and BISBI, and various complexes known to catalyze the transfer hydrogenation of imines and iminium ions (Table 1). The most well-known catalysts for reductive amination by transfer hydrogenation consist of a metal capable of transferring a hydride and a ligand capable of transferring a proton to a polarized multiple bond.¹⁰ However, amine 3aa formed in poor yield from olefin 1a in the presence of ruthenium diamine complexes C1 and C2 (entries 1-4), even though these complexes are known to be active for transfer hydrogenation of imines. The group 9 congeners (catalysts C3-C5) of catalysts C1 and C2 are active for the reductive amination of aldehydes by transfer hydrogenation.¹¹ However, amine **3aa** formed with low regioselectivity and in poor yield in the presence of catalysts C3, C4, and C5 and in the presence of Rh(CO)₂(acac) and BISBI (entries 5-7). Control experiments indicated that complexes C3-C5 either degrade into unselective catalysts for hydroformylation or are themselves unselective catalysts for hydroformylation under the conditions in Table 1. This reactivity of the reductive amination catalyst toward hydroformylation leads to low n: iso ratios of the amine product. Amine 3aa also formed in low yields in the presence of catalyst C6 (entry 8). All of the hydroaminomethylations conducted with catalysts C1-C6 (entries 1-8) proceeded to high conversions; the major side products of the reactions formed from self-condensation of undecanal.



Table 1. Evaluation of conditions for the hydroaminomethylation of 1-decene with aniline

To increase the rate of reductive amination of undecanal relative to that of its selfcondensation, we sought catalysts for transfer hydrogenation that might be more stable to carbon monoxide than catalysts C1-C6. Reports that catalyst C7 is more active for the reduction of N-panisylketimines than catalyst C4 and the robustness of catalyst C7 endowed by cyclometallation prompted us to attempt hydroaminomethylations with catalyst C7 as a catalyst for reductive amination.¹²

Initial studies with catalyst **C7** showed that amine **3aa** formed in only 30% yield from olefin **1a**, CO, H₂, and amine **2a** in the presence of catalyst **C7** and the combination of Rh(CO)₂(acac), and BISBI with a 5:2 HCO₂H:Et₃N azeotrope as the reducing agent (entry 11). On the basis of prior literature showing that the reductive amination of acetophenone with *p*-anisidine catalyzed by complex **C7** occurs significantly more rapidly with an aqueous sodium formate buffer at pH 4.8 as the reducing agent than with a 5:2 HCO₂H:Et₃N azeotrope as the reducing agent,^{13,14} we conducted the hydroaminomethylation of olefin **1a** with amine **2a** with this reducing agent in the presence of **C7**. Amine **3aa** formed in 91% yield under these conditions (entry 10). Amine **3aa** formed in lower yields in the presence of XantPhos and DPEPhos than in the presence of BISBI (entries 11–12), and the product did not form in the absence of formate (entry 13). The hydroaminomethylation occurred at lower loadings of the two catalysts with only a small sacrifice in yield (entries 14-15). Amine **3aa** formed in 8% yield and 68:32 *n:iso* in the presence of catalyst **C7** with no Rh(CO)₂(acac) present (entry 16), indicating that catalyst **C7** is only slightly active towards hydroformylation under the developed conditions. Amine **3aa** did not form in the absence of a reductive amination catalyst (entry 17).



Conditions: olefin (0.5 mmol), aniline (0.75 mmol), pH 4.8 aqueous sodium formate buffer (500 μ L), CO:H₂ (1:1, 3.4 bar), Rh(CO)₂(acac) (0.5 mol%), BISBI (2.5 mol%), Xiao's catalyst (1 mol%), 9:1 PhMe:MeOH (2.5 mL), 80 °C, 20 h. All yields reported are isolated yields. Regioselectivities were determined by GC analysis of the crude reaction mixture. ^a0.25 mmol olefin.

Table 2. Hydroaminomethylations of various olefins with aniline

We attribute the high yields and regioselectivities of the reaction in entry 10 to several factors. First, Xiao's cyclometallated catalyst is not significantly inhibited by low pressures of CO; control experiments indicated that the yield of the reductive amination of undecanal catalyzed by complex **C7** was the same in the absence of CO as in the presence of 1.7 bar of CO. In contrast,
complexes C1, C2 and C6 were poisoned by CO, even at this low pressure (see the supporting information for details). Second, Xiao's catalyst is compatible with the aqueous HCO_2Na buffer, a mild, inexpensive hydrogen surrogate. Finally, Xiao's catalyst does not hydrogenate imines by a metal-ligand bifunctional mechanism.¹² Instead, Xiao's catalyst transfers a hydride to an iminium ion that is formed by protonation of an imine or enamine in an acidic medium.¹²

The scope of olefins that undergo this hydroaminomethylation is illustrated by the examples in Table 2. Phenols (**3ca**), malonates (**3da**), nitriles (**3ea**), enolizable ketones (**3fa**), allylic acetates (**3ga**), allylic alcohols (**3ha**), and disubstituted olefins (**3ka**) were all tolerated. Olefins bearing electron-withdrawing groups in the allylic position reacted with excellent regioselectivities (**1b**, **1c**, **1d**, **1g**, **1h**); such β -functionalized olefins often undergo hydroformylations with low *n:iso* ratios, due to their tendencies to isomerize to internal olefins. Sterically hindered α -olefins (**1g**, **1i**, **1j**, **1k**) also underwent hydroaminomethylation. As expected, the regioselectivities of the reactions of these alkenes were higher than those of reactions of less hindered alkenes. In addition, the double hydroaminomethylation of olefin **11** proceeded in high yield and with high regioselectivity.



Table 3. Hydroaminomethylations of methyl eugenol with various arylamines

The scope of arylamines that undergo hydroaminomethylation was studied with the olefin methyl eugenol (1b) as the coupling partner. The results are given in Table 3. Both electron-poor (2b, 2c, 2e) and electron-rich (2d) anilines underwent hydroaminomethylation. Anilines bearing *ortho* substituents (2f) and those bearing ketones (2e) also underwent hydroaminomethylation.

The scope of heteroarylamines that undergo hydroaminomethylation with olefin **1b** is also shown in Table 3. Heteroarylamines are widespread in pharmaceuticals and agrochemicals, but hydroaminomethylations with such regents are limited.¹⁵ For reference, we conducted the reaction of olefin **1b** with 2-aminopyridine (**2g**) under standard conditions for hydroaminomethylation (125 °C, 40 bar 1:5 CO:H₂) with the single catalyst formed from the combination of [RhCOD₂]BF₄ and Xantphos. Only trace amounts of amine **3bg** formed; the major species present in the crude reaction mixture was the starting olefin **1b**.¹⁶ In contrast, the reactions of methyl eugenol with heteroarylamines, including aminopyridines (**2g**, **2h**), aminoindoles (**2i**), aminoquinolines (**2j**, **2k**), and aminodibenzofurans (**2l**) occurred in good yield under the conditions we developed with two catalysts. Even heteroarylamines capable of chelating metal catalysts (**2k**) reacted. This contrast in reactivity demonstrates the unusual compatibility of the new system for hydroaminomethylation with biologically important heteroarenes.

Alkylamines might be expected to be quenched by the acidic buffer containing formic acid, but both primary and secondary alkylamines underwent hydroaminomethylation under the conditions we developed with two catalysts and a pH 4.8 formate buffer (Table 4). Both cyclic (**2m**, **2n**, **2o**, **2p**) and acyclic (**2q**, **2r**, **2s**) secondary amines underwent the hydroaminomethylation. Sterically hindered aliphatic amines were less reactive towards hydroaminomethylation than unhindered aliphatic amines, presumably due to slow reduction of sterically hindered iminium ions. Primary aliphatic amines (**2t**) also underwent hydroaminomethylation to form secondary amines without the formation of tertiary amines.





To demonstrate further the applicability of this work to the preparation of medicinally relevant amines, we synthesized amine **3mt**, the active ingredient in a drug sold under the generic name ibutilide (Scheme 3). Under the conditions in Scheme 3, olefin **1m** underwent hydroaminomethylation in 76% yield. Previous examples of this hydroaminomethylation

occurred in significantly lower yields and required pressures of syngas that are much higher than those in the current work.^{5e}



Scheme 3. Synthesis of Ibutilide

Finally, the hydroaminomethylations reported in this work can be conducted easily on large scales and at atmospheric pressure of syngas. The hydroaminomethylation of 6 mmol of methyl eugenol with aniline gave 1.24 g of amine **3ba** (71% yield, Scheme 4. By adjusting the ratio of CO to H₂ to 1:2 CO:H₂, the reaction of 1-decene (**1a**) with aniline (**2a**) formed *N*-undecyl aniline (**3aa**) in 65% yield at a total pressure of only 1 atm at 70 °C (Scheme 5).



(2.5 mol%), Xiao's catalyst (1 mol%), 9:1 PhMe:MeOH (30 mL), 80 °C, 20 h.





Scheme 5. Hydroaminomethylation at atmospheric pressure

2.3 Conclusion

summary, have developed scalable, linear-selective, dual-catalytic In we a hydroaminomethylation of α -olefins occurring at low temperature and pressure by exploiting the combination of a catalyst for hydroformylation and a catalyst for reductive amination that is active under carbon monoxide and that reduces imines by transfer hydrogenation. The pressures and temperatures of the reaction are the lowest reported for linear-selective hydroaminomethylations, and the reactions can even be conducted at atmospheric pressure of synthesis gas. The reaction occurs with a broad range of olefins and amines and is uniquely suitable for the preparation of a wide range of medicinally relevant heteroarylamines. Efforts to further increase the activity of dual catalysts and the scope of reactants are ongoing.

2.4 Experimental

2.4.1 General methods and materials

All reagents were purchased from commercial suppliers and used as received unless otherwise noted. Toluene and methanol were purchased from EMD and used as received. The aqueous pH 4.8 HCO₂H/HCO₂Na buffer was prepared according to the method of Xiao and coworkers.¹³ Hydroaminomethylations were conducted in a Biotage Endeavor Catalyst Screening System. Crude reaction mixtures were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) on an Agilent 7890 GC equipped with an HP-5 column (25 m x 0.20 mm x 0.33 µm film) and an FID detector. Quantitative analysis by GC was conducted with dodecane as an internal standard. The products of catalytic reactions were purified by flash column chromatography with a Teledyne Isco CombiFlash[®] R_f system and RediSep R_f GoldTM columns. All NMR spectra were recorded at the University of California, Berkeley NMR facility. Proton-NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker AVB-400, AVQ-400, AV-500 and AV-600 instruments with operating frequencies of 400, 400, 500, and 600 MHz, respectively, and Carbon-13 NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AV-600 instrument with a ¹³C operating frequency of 150 MHz. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in ppm relative to those of residual solvent signals (CDCl₃ δ = 7.26 for ¹H NMR and δ = 77.0 for ¹³C NMR, Acetone- $d_6 \delta = 2.05$ for ¹H NMR and $\delta = 206.3$, 29.8 for ¹³C NMR). High-resolution mass spectra were recorded in electrospray ionization mode on an Agilent Q-TOF spectrometer in the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory Catalysis Center at the University of California, Berkeley. FTIR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Vertex80 Time-Resolved FTIR spectrometer in the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory Catalysis Center at the University of California. Berkeley.

2.4.2 Synthesis of Xiao's catalyst

The following procedure was adapted from the procedure reported by Xiao and co-workers.¹³

(*E*)-*N*-(4-Methoxyphenyl)-1-(naphthalen-2-yl)ethan-1-imine (S1)



A 100 mL round-bottom flask was charged with a stir bar, 2-acetylnapthalene (2.81 g, 16.5 mmol, 1.00 equiv), *p*-anisidine (1.99 g, 16.2 mmol, 0.982 equiv), activated 4 Å molecular sieves (4.0 g), and toluene (58 mL). The mixture was heated at 120 °C for 18 h, cooled to room temperature, filtered over magnesium sulfate, and concentrated *in vacuo* to afford imine **S1** as a dark-yellow solid. The solid was recrystallized from ether/hexanes to afford imine **S1** (1.06 g, 3.83 mmol, 24% yield). The ¹H-NMR spectrum of the product matched the spectrum reported by Xiao.¹³

Xiao's Catalyst (C7)



A 100 mL round-bottom flask was charged with a stir bar and CH₂Cl₂ (25 mL). The flask was sealed with a septum and sparged with N₂ for 1 h. The septum was briefly removed, and the flask was quickly charged with [Cp*IrCl₂]₂ (1.39 g, 1.74 mmol, 1.00 equiv), imine **S1** (1.06 g, 3.83 mmol, 2.20 equiv), and NaOAc (2.85 g, 34.8 mmol, 9.09 equiv). The flask was sealed with a septum and stirred at room temperature for 24 h, after which time a deep red color was observed. The crude reaction mixture was filtered through a plug of Celite and concentrated *in vacuo* to afford a red solid. The crude product was recrystallized from hexanes/CH₂Cl₂ (10:1) to afford Xiao's catalyst as a red-orange crystalline solid (1.56 g, 2.39 mmol, 70% yield). The ¹H-NMR spectrum of the product matched the spectrum reported by Xiao.¹³

2.4.3 General procedures for hydroaminomethylations

Preparation of catalyst stock solutions

Catalyst stock solutions were made to conduct seven reactions simultaneously. Under air, a vial charged with $Rh(CO)_2(acac)$ (5.2 mg, 0.020 mmol, 0.5 mol%). was 2.2'bis(diphenylphosphinomethyl)-1,1'-biphenyl (BISBI, 55.4 mg, 0.101 mmol, 2.5 mol%), and Xiao's catalyst (26.1 mg, 0.0401 mmol, 1.0 mol%). The solids were dissolved in dichloromethane (4.00 mL), and the resulting deep-red solution was drawn into a Hamilton gastight syringe. Aliquots of this stock solution (500 µL) were added to seven different glass liner tubes compatible with the Biotage Endeavor Catalyst Screening System, and the solvent was evaporated under a flow of nitrogen.

Hydroaminomethylations with arylamines

An aliquot of the catalyst stock solution (0.500 mL, 0.50 mol% Rh(CO)₂(acac), 2.5 mol% BISBI, 1.0 mol% Xiao's catalyst) was plated (*see above*) onto a glass liner tube. Under air, the tube was sequentially charged with toluene: methanol (9:1, vol:vol, 2.5 mL), olefin (0.5 mmol, 1.0 equiv), pH 4.8 aqueous sodium formate buffer (500 μ L), and amine (0.75 mmol, 1.5 equiv) and loaded into a Biotage Endeavor Catalyst Screening System. At room temperature, the reaction vessels were purged with N₂ (1x), pressurized to 25 psi with CO, and brought to a total pressure of 50 psi with H₂. The reaction mixture was heated at 80 °C for 20 h with mechanical stirring (400 rpm), after which time the vessel was cooled to 40 °C, purged with N₂ (1x), and removed from the Endeavor reactor. The crude reaction mixture was diluted with aqueous, saturated sodium bicarbonate (10 mL) and extracted into diethyl ether or ethyl acetate (20 mL, 3x). The combined extracts were dried over Na₂SO₄, analyzed by gas chromatography, concentrated *in vacuo*, and purified by flash chromatography.

Hydroaminomethylations with alkylamines

An aliquot of the catalyst stock solution (0.500 mL, 0.50 mol% Rh(CO)₂(acac), 2.5 mol% BISBI, 1.0 mol% Xiao's catalyst) was plated onto a glass liner tube (*see above*). Under air, the tube was sequentially charged with toluene: methanol (9:1, vol:vol, 5.00 mL), olefin (0.5 mmol, 1.0

equiv), pH 4.8 aqueous sodium formate buffer (250 μ L), and amine (0.60 mmol, 1.2 equiv) and loaded into a Biotage Endeavor Catalyst Screening System. At room temperature, the reaction vessels were purged with N₂ (1x), pressurized to 25 psi with CO, and brought to a total pressure of 50 psi with H₂ at room temperature. The reaction mixture was heated at 80 °C for 20 h with mechanical stirring (400 rpm), after which time the vessel was cooled to 40 °C, purged with N₂ (1x), and removed from the Endeavor reactor. The crude reaction mixture was diluted with 10% aqueous K₂CO₃ (10 mL) and extracted into diethyl ether or ethyl acetate (20 mL, 3x). The combined extracts were dried over Na₂SO₄, analyzed by gas chromatography, concentrated *in vacuo*, and purified by flash chromatography.

2.4.4 Impact of CO on the DRA of undecanal

	0	PhNH ₂ , pH 4.8 HCO ₂ N	la Buffer	o o o NHPh
\sim		DRA catalyst		
DRA cat.	1 h, 0 psi CO	1 h, 25 psi CO	20 h, 0 psi CO	20 h, 25 psi CO
C7	93%	94%	93%	90%
C1	32%	8%	40%	11%
C2	46%	9%	43%	11%
C6	12%	12%	23%	17%

Conditions: Undecanal (0.5 mmol), aniline (0.75 mmol), pH 4.8 HCO₂Na buffer (500 μ L), 9:1 PhMe:MeOH (vol:vol, 2.5 mL), 80 °C, yields determined by GC with dodecane as an internal standard.

	PhNH ₂ (1.5 equiv), CO/H ₂ Rh(CO) ₂ (acac), BISBI, C7 pH 4.8 HCO ₂ Na buffer	
P _{CO} (psi)	P _{tot} (psi)	yield (GC)
25	50	94
50	75	99
75	100	98
100	125	94
125	150	75
150	175	59
200	225	48

Conditions: 1-decene (0.5 mmol), aniline (0.75 mmol), pH 4.8 HCO₂Na buffer (500 μ L), H₂ (25 psi), CO, Rh(CO)₂(acac) (0.5 mol%), BISBI (2.5 mol%), **C7**, (1 mol%), 9:1 PhMe:MeOH (vol:vol, 2.5 mL), 80 °C, 20 h, yields determined by GC with dodecane as an internal standard.

2.4.5 Control experiments

PhNH₂ (1.5 equiv), CO/H₂ NHPh Rh(CO)₂(acac):BISBI:C7 (1:5:2) NHPh pH 4.8 HCO₂Na buffer NHPh								
Entry	Rh(CO) ₂ (acac)	DRA Cat	Yield (GC)	n:iso				
1	0.5 mol%	C7	91	98:2				
2	0 mol%	C7	8	68:32				
3	0 mol%	C6	0	N/A				
4 ^a	0.5 mol%	C7	0	N/A				

Conditions: 1-decene (0.5 mmol), aniline (0.75 mmol), pH 4.8 HCO₂Na buffer (500 μ L), H₂ (25 psi), CO (25 psi), Rh(CO)₂(acac) (0.5 mol%), BISBI (2.5 mol%), DRA Cat (1 mol%), 9:1 PhMe:MeOH (vol:vol, 2.5 mL), 80 °C, 20 h, yields determined by GC with dodecane as an internal standard. ^aWithout synthesis gas.

2.4.6 Catalytic hydroaminomethylations

2.4.6.1 Reactions of olefins with aniline (Table 1) *N*-Undecylaniline (3aa)

NHPh

The hydroaminomethylation of 1-decene (95.0 µL, 0.502 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 equiv) was conducted according to mmol. 1.50 the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 5\%$ EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3aa** was obtained (96.2 mg, 78% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.23 (t, J = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.75 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.65 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 3.96 – 3.32 (br s, 1H), 3.15 (t, J = 7.2, 2H), 1.67 (quin, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 1.49 - 1.27 (m, 16H), 0.96 (t, J = 7.0 Hz, 3H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.6, 129.2, 117.1, 112.7, 44.0, 32.0, 29.7, 29.7, 29.6, 29.5, 29.4, 29.4, 27.2, 22.7, 14.2; ATR-IR: 3393, 3050, 2999, 2932, 2855, 2833, 1601, 1509, 1462, 1417, 1372, 1321, 1258, 1234, 1179, 1153, 1139, 1072, 1026, 992, 953, 937, 911, 864, 853, 805, 747, 692, 633, 596, 558, 508, 461, 403 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: $[M + H]^+$ Calcd for $C_{17}H_{30}N^+$ 248.2373; Found 248.2368. NMR spectra matched the literature.¹⁷

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)aniline (3ba)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (91.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 10\%$ EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3ba** was obtained (120.2 mg, 80% yield) as a dark-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.21 (t, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.83 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.79 – 6.71 (m, 3 H), 6.63 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 3.90 (s, 3H), 3.89 (s, 3H), 3.80 – 3.30 (br s, 1H), 3.16 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 2.65 (t, J = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 1.81–1.64 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.9, 148.5, 147.2, 134.9, 129.2, 120.2, 117.1, 112.7, 111.8, 111.3, 55.9, 55.8, 43.8, 35.3, 29.2, 29.1; ATR-IR: 3393, 3050, 2999, 2932, 2855, 2833, 1601, 1509, 1462, 1417, 1372, 1321, 1258, 1234, 1179, 1153, 1139, 1072, 1026, 992, 953, 937, 911, 864, 853, 805, 747, 692, 633, 596, 558, 508, 461, 403 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₈H₂₄NO₂⁺ 286.1802; Found 286.1813.

2-Methoxy-4-(4-(phenylamino)butyl)phenol (3ca)



The hydroaminomethylation of eugenol (77.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (40 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 15\%$ EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3ca** was obtained (108.9 mg, 81%) yield) as a white solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.22 (t, J = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.91 – 6.86 (m, 1H), 6.76 – 6.70 (m, 3H), 6.67 – 6.61 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 5.18 – 3.67 (m, 2H), 3.90 (s, 3H), 3.17 $(t, J = 6.9 \text{ Hz}, 2H), 2.64 (t, J = 7.5 \text{ Hz}, 2H), 1.79 - 1.65 (m, 4H); {}^{13}\text{C} \text{ NMR} (151 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3) \delta$ 148.4, 146.4, 143.7, 134.2, 129.2, 120.9, 117.2, 114.2, 112.8, 110.0, 55.9, 43.9, 35.4, 29.2, 29.1; ATR-IR: 3280, 2997, 2924, 2832, 1600, 1521, 1506, 1474, 1447, 1383, 1308, 1280, 1247, 1214, 1155, 1124, 1102, 1088, 1035, 998, 923, 884, 870, 849, 801, 747, 712, 691, 636, 592, 551, 517, 503, 478, 457, 414 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: $[M + H]^+$ Calcd for $C_{17}H_{22}NO_2^+$ 272.1645; Found 272.1633.

Dimethyl 2-(4-(phenylamino)butyl)malonate (3da)

The hydroaminomethylation of dimethyl allylmalonate (80.0 µL, 0.498 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.51 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 30\%$ EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3da** was obtained (122.6 mg, 88% yield) as a dark-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.17 (t, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.69 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.59 (d, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 3.93 – 3.45 (br s, 1H), 3.74 (s, 6H), 3.39 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 1H), 3.12 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 2H), 1.96 (q, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 1.65 (quin, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 1.56 – 1.34 (m, 2H);¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 169.8, 148.3, 129.2, 117.1, 112.7, 52.5, 51.5, 43.5, 29.0, 28.5, 24.9; ATR-IR: 3405, 2952, 2862, 1729, 1602, 1507, 1434, 1256, 1198, 1152, 1120, 1012, 911, 869, 749, 732, 693, 509 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₅H₂₂NO₄⁺ 280.1543; Found 280.1540.

7-(Phenylamino)heptanenitrile (3ea)

The hydroaminomethylation of 5-hexene nitrile (57.0 µL, 0.501 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, slow 0% \rightarrow 15% EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3ea** was obtained (83.7 mg, 82% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.22–7.16 (t, J = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.71 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.64 – 6.59 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 3.93 – 3.28 (br s, 1H), 3.13 (t, J = 7.1 Hz, 2H), 2.34 (t, J = 7.1 Hz, 2H), 1.71 – 1.60 (m, 4H), 1.55 – 1.41 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.4, 129.2, 119.7, 117.2, 112.7, 43.7, 29.2, 28.5, 26.4, 25.3, 17.1; ATR-IR: 3396, 2930, 2857, 2245, 1601, 1506, 1476, 1428, 1319, 1261, 1179, 1120, 991, 869, 748, 693, 509 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₃H₁₉N₂⁺ 203.1543; Found 203.1542.

7-(Phenylamino)heptan-2-one (3fa)



The hydroaminomethylation of 5-hexen-2-one (58.0 µL, 0.501 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, slow 0% \rightarrow 20% EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3fa** was obtained (75.8 mg, 74% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.17 (t, *J* = 7.7 Hz, 2H), 6.69 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.60 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 3.92 – 3.18 (br s, 1H), 3.11 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 2H), 2.45 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 2.14 (s, 3H), 1.63 (quin, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 4H), 1.44 – 1.36 (m, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 208.9, 148.4, 129.2, 117.1, 112.7, 43.7, 43.5, 29.9, 29.3, 26.6, 23.5; ATR-IR: 3395, 3051, 3021, 2931, 2858, 1709, 1602, 1506, 1477, 1431, 1358, 1319, 1258, 1224, 1178, 1161, 1119, 1076, 1028, 991, 910, 868, 747, 732, 692, 647, 595, 510 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₃H₂₀NO⁺ 206.1539; Found 206.154.

5-(Phenylamino)pentan-2-yl acetate (3ga)



The hydroaminomethylation of but-3-en-2-yl acetate (63.0 µL, 0.498 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.51 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 15\%$ EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3ga** was obtained (73.9 mg, 67% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.19 (t, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.74 – 6.68 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 1H), 6.61 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 4.96 (td, *J* = 6.6, 5.2 Hz, 1H), 3.93 – 3.25 (br s, 1H), 3.13 (t, *J* = 6.6 Hz, 2H), 2.05 (s, 3H), 1.76 – 1.58 (m, 4H), 1.25 (d, *J* = 6.3 Hz, 3H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 170.8, 148.3, 129.2, 117.2, 112.7, 70.6, 43.7, 33.4, 25.4, 21.3, 20.0.; ATR-IR: 3397, 2936, 1724, 1602, 1506, 1372, 1320, 1240, 1179, 1152, 1124, 1080, 1019, 952, 911, 868, 747, 692, 610, 508 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₃H₂₀NO₂⁺ 222.1489; Found 222.1493.

6-(Phenylamino)hexan-3-ol (3ha)



The hydroaminomethylation of 1-penten-3-ol (51.0 µL, 0.496 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.51 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $15\% \rightarrow 40\%$ EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3ha** was obtained (82.5 mg, 86% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.18 (t, J = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.70 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 1H), 6.62 (d, J = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 3.57 (tt, J = 8.2, 4.4 Hz, 1H), 3.15 (t, J = 6.7 Hz, 2H), 2.24 (d, J = 486.8 Hz, 2H), 1.83 – 1.31 (m, 6H), 0.96 (t, J = 7.4 Hz, 3H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.4, 129.2, 117.3, 112.9, 73.0, 44.1, 34.4, 30.3, 25.8, 9.9; ATR-IR: 3359, 3052, 3021, 2960, 2932, 2873, 1602, 1504, 1477, 1462, 1430, 1375, 1320, 1256, 1179, 1154, 1085, 1028, 991, 966, 909, 867, 840, 747, 731, 691, 646, 569, 507 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₂H₂₀NO⁺ 194.1539; Found 194.1532.

Methyl 3,3-dimethyl-6-(phenylamino)hexanoate (3ia)

___NHPh

The hydroaminomethylation of methyl 3,3-dimethyl-4-pentenoate (79.0 µL, 0.494 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.52 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 10\%$ EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3ia** was obtained (101.9 mg, 82% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.19 (t, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.70 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.62 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 3.94 – 3.42 (br s, 1H), 3.66 (s, 3H), 3.10 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 2H), 2.25 (s, 2H), 1.67 – 1.58 (m, 2H), 1.46 – 1.39 (m, 2H), 1.03 (s, 6H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 172.7, 148.4, 129.2, 117.0, 112.6, 51.2, 45.6, 44.5, 39.2, 33.1, 27.4, 24.3; ATR-IR: 3401, 2952, 1729, 1602, 1506, 1471, 1433, 1368, 1321, 1232, 1179, 1128, 1066, 1015, 992, 911, 867, 747, 692, 619, 508 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₅H₂₄NO₂⁺ 250.1802; Found 250.1806.

N-(3-Cyclohexylpropyl)aniline (3ja)



The hydroaminomethylation of 4-vinylcyclohexene (68.0 µL, 0.497 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.51 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 10\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3ja** was obtained (82.7 mg, 77% yield) as a pale-yellow oil; ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.22 (t, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.74 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.65 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 3.83 – 3.45 (br s, 1H), 3.13 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 1.85 – 1.58 (m, 7H), 1.37 – 1.15 (m, 6H), 1.02 – 0.90 (m, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.6, 129.2, 117.1, 112.7, 44.4, 37.5, 34.9, 33.4, 26.9, 26.7, 26.4; ATR-IR: 3412, 3051, 2919, 2848, 1601, 1504, 1476, 1447, 1319, 1259, 1178, 1152, 1115, 991, 865, 745, 690, 507 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₅H₂₄N⁺ 218.1903; Found 218.1900.

N-(3-(Cyclohex-3-en-1-yl)propyl)aniline (3ka)



The hydroaminomethylation of 4-vinylcyclohexene (65.0 µL, 0.499 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.51 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 10\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3ka** was obtained (86.0 mg, 80% yield) as a pale-yellow oil; ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.24 (t, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 2H), 6.75 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.66 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 5.78 – 5.69 (m, 2H), 3.91 – 3.27 (br s, 1H), 3.16 (t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 2.25 – 2.05 (m, 3H), 1.89 – 1.57 (m, 5H), 1.51 – 1.25 (m, 3H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.5, 129.2, 127.1, 126.5, 117.1, 112.7, 44.3, 34.1, 33.4, 31.9, 29.0, 27.0, 25.3; ATR-IR: 3410, 3019, 2910, 1601, 1504, 1476, 1453, 1431, 1318, 1260, 1178, 1153, 1120, 1029, 992, 912, 867, 745, 690, 652, 506 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₅H₂₂N⁺ 216.1747; Found 216.1750.

N^1 , N^{12} -Diphenyldodecane-1,12-diamine (3la)



The hydroaminomethylation of 1,9-decadiene (46.0 µL, 0.249 mmol) with aniline (68.4 µL, 0.751 mmol, 1.51 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 10\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3la** was obtained (62.4 mg, 71% yield) as a white solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.20 (t, J = 7.7 Hz, 4H), 6.72 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 6.63 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 4H), 3.61 (s, 2H), 3.12 (t, J = 7.1 Hz, 4H), 1.64 (quin, J = 7.3 Hz, 4H), 1.52 – 1.21 (m, 16H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.5, 129.2, 117.0, 112.7, 44.0, 29.6, 29.5, 27.2 (Note: only four ¹³C resonances in the aliphatic region were observed, likely due to overlap between peaks with similar chemical shifts); ATR-IR: 3412, 3399, 3050, 2918, 2847, 1912, 1675, 1599, 1504, 1479, 1464, 1428, 1378, 1337, 1317, 1266, 1241, 1195, 1178, 1151, 1119, 1072, 1049, 1027, 991, 909, 867, 839, 746, 725, 690, 618, 549, 508 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₄H₃₇N₂⁺ 353.2951; Found 353.2943.

2.4.6.2 Reactions of methyl eugenol with arylamines (Table 2) **4-Bromo**-*N*-(**4**-(**3**,**4**-dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)aniline (**3**bb)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with *p*-bromoaniline (130.6 mg, 0.759 mmol, 1.52 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 20\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bb** was obtained (126.9 mg, 81% yield) as a yellow solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.23 (d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, 2H), 6.80 (d, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.73 (m, 2H), 6.45 (d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, 2H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.86 (s, 3H), 3.81 – 3.51 (br s, 1H), 3.08 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 2H), 2.61 (t, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 1.71 (quin, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 1.64 (quin, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.8, 147.3, 147.2, 134.7, 131.8, 120.2, 114.2, 111.7, 111.3, 108.5, 55.9, 55.8, 43.8, 35.2, 29.0, 28.9; ATR-IR: 3390, 2999, 2932, 2855, 2834, 1593, 1512, 1498, 1463, 1417, 1399, 1372, 1319, 1293, 1258, 1234, 1177, 1154, 1139, 1072, 1027, 909, 852, 811, 763, 729, 696, 645, 633, 595, 560, 501, 460 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₈H₂₃BrNO₂⁺ 364.0914; Found 364.0912.

4-Iodo-*N*-(4-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)aniline (3bc)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with *p*-iodoaniline 164.3 mg, 0.750 mmol, 1.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $5\% \rightarrow 20\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bc** was obtained (164.9 mg, 80% yield) as a white solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.40 (d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, 2H), 6.80 (d, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.76 – 6.63 (m, 2H), 6.36 (d, *J* = 8.7 Hz, 2H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.86 (s, 3H), 3.73 – 3.38 (br s, 1H), 3.09 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 2.61 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 1.71 (p, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 1.63 (p, *J* = 13.6, 6.9 Hz, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.8, 147.9, 147.2, 137.7, 134.7, 120.2, 114.9, 111.7, 111.3, 77.4, 55.9, 55.8, 43.6, 35.2, 29.0, 28.9; ATR-IR: 3368, 2996, 2915, 2854, 2825, 1591, 1511, 1464, 1448, 1416, 1398, 1368, 1341, 1324, 1296, 1260, 1238, 1178, 1155, 1140, 1121, 1029, 975, 898, 855, 845, 810, 763, 694, 634, 600, 543, 505, 467, 441, 409 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₈H₂₃INO₂⁺ 412.0768; Found 412.0761.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)-4-methoxyaniline (3bd)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with *p*-methoxyaniline (95.8 mg, 0.778 mmol, 1.56 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 20\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bd** was obtained (145.2 mg, 80% yield) as a yellow solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.83 – 6.77 (m, 3H), 6.76 – 6.71 (m, 2H), 6.58 (d, *J* = 8.9 Hz, 2H), 3.88 (s, 3H), 3.86 (s, 3H), 3.75 (s, 3H), 3.48 – 3.22 (m, 1H), 3.10 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 2H), 2.62 (t, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 1.73 (quin, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 2H), 1.65 (quin, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 152.0, 148.8, 147.1, 142.7, 134.9, 120.2, 114.9, 114.1, 111.7, 111.2, 77.4, 77.2, 77.0, 55.9, 55.8, 55.8, 44.9, 35.3, 29.2, 29.1; ATR-IR: 3387, 2997, 2932, 2855, 2832, 1607, 1590, 1510, 1463, 1441, 1417, 1326, 1232, 1179, 1154, 1139, 1094, 1027, 910, 852, 818, 763, 730, 645, 632, 595, 519, 461 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₉H₂₆NO₃⁺ 316.1907; Found 316.1901.

(4-((4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)amino)phenyl)(phenyl)methanone (3be)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with 4aminobenzophenone (148.3 mg, 0.752 mmol) conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, 10% \rightarrow 30% EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3be** was obtained (116.2 mg, 60% yield) as a yellow solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.89 – 7.58 (m, 4H), 7.51 (t, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 1H), 7.43 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 6.79 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 6.75 – 6.65 (m, 2H), 6.55 (d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, 2H), 4.75 – 4.13 (br s, 1H), 3.85 (s, 3H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 3.36 – 3.02 (m, 2H), 2.60 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 2.13 – 1.46 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 195.1, 152.2, 148.8, 147.2, 139.2, 134.6, 133.0, 131.1, 129.4, 128.0, 125.7, 120.2, 111.7, 111.2, 111.2, 55.9, 55.8, 43.1, 35.1, 28.9, 28.8; ATR-IR: 3353, 2927, 1627, 1583, 1562, 1514, 1479, 1461, 1448, 1438, 1418, 1348, 1315, 1284, 1260, 1240, 1227, 1186, 1176, 1142, 1100, 1073, 1044, 1031, 1000, 940, 921, 861, 854, 836, 808, 788, 764, 747, 710, 702, 690, 628, 618, 597, 578, 565, 505, 423, 406 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₅H₂₈NO₃⁺ 390.2064; Found 390.2056.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)-2-methylaniline (3bf)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with *o*-toluidine (79.7 µL, 0.750 mmol, 1.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $0\% \rightarrow 10\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bf** was obtained (113.3 mg, 76% yield) as a white solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.18 (t, *J* = 7.7 Hz, 1H), 7.09 (d, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.84 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.81 – 6.75 (m, 2H), 6.70 (t, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 1H), 6.66 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 3.92 (s, 3H), 3.90 (s, 3H), 3.60 – 3.39 (br s, 1H), 3.23 (t, *J* = 6.8 Hz, 2H), 2.68 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 2.17 (s, 3H), 1.84 – 1.71 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.9, 147.2, 146.3, 134.9, 130.0, 127.1, 121.7, 120.2, 116.7, 111.7, 111.3, 111.2, 109.6, 55.9, 55.8, 43.8, 35.3, 29.2, 17.5; IR (KBr, thin film): 3409, 3055, 3017, 3004, 2957, 2930, 2887, 2849, 2597, 1605, 1585, 1511, 1482, 1468, 1440, 1416, 1377, 1352, 1338, 1317, 1298, 1284, 1256, 1235, 1225, 1191, 1180, 1153, 1135, 1082, 1068, 1052, 1035, 1021, 987, 963, 944, 922, 909, 850, 810, 763, 749, 741, 718, 637, 615, 559, 536, 492, 441 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₉H₂₆NO₂⁺ 300.1958; Found 300.1950.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)pyridin-2-amine (3bg)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with 2-aminopyridine (71.0 mg, 0.754 mmol, 1.51 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, 20% \rightarrow 50% EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bg** was obtained (102.5 mg, 70% yield) as a white solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.05 (dd, *J* = 5.1, 1.8 Hz, 1H), 7.37 (ddd, *J* = 8.8, 7.0, 2.0 Hz, 1H), 6.76 (d, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.72 – 6.64 (m, 2H), 6.51 (dd, *J* = 7.1, 5.0 Hz, 1H), 6.32 (d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, 1H), 4.78 – 4.47 (br s, 1H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 3.26 (q, *J* = 6.5 Hz, 2H), 2.58 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 1.75 – 1.57 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 158.8, 148.8, 148.1, 147.1, 137.3, 134.8, 120.1, 112.5, 111.7, 111.2, 106.4, 55.9, 55.8, 42.0, 35.2, 29.1, 29.0; ATR-IR: 3257, 2999, 2932, 2859, 2834, 1601, 1572, 1514, 1465, 1449, 1438, 1416, 1387, 1333, 1304, 1292, 1262, 1233, 1190, 1154, 1137, 1080, 1026, 981, 943, 914, 848, 811, 765, 733, 632, 596, 560, 517, 464, 412 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]+ Calcd for C17H23N2O2+ 287.1754; Found 287.1752.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)pyridin-3-amine (3bh)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with 3-aminopyridine (70.1 mg, 0.745 mmol, 1.49 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $25\% \rightarrow 70\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bh** was obtained (110.6 mg, 77% yield) as a yellow solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.96 (d, J = 2.9 Hz, 1H), 7.88 (d, J = 4.6 Hz, 1H), 7.01 (dd, J = 8.4, 4.7 Hz, 1H), 6.78 (d, J = 8.3 Hz, 1H), 6.75 (d, J = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.72 – 6.64 (m, 2H), 4.03 – 3.84 (br s, 1H), 3.81 (s, 3H), 3.80 (s, 3H), 3.07 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 2.56 (t, J = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 1.67 (quin, J = 7.4 Hz, 2H), 1.61 (quin, J = 7.1 Hz, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.7, 147.1, 144.4, 138.2, 135.8, 134.7, 123.7, 120.1, 118.2, 111.6, 111.2, 55.9, 55.8, 43.3, 35.1, 29.0, 28.8; ATR-IR: 3259, 3002, 2934, 2857, 2253, 1588, 1513, 1464, 1417, 1259, 1234, 1190, 1154, 1139, 1027, 909, 853, 794, 764, 726, 708, 644, 595, 559, 460, 414 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₇H₂₃N₂O₂⁺ 287.1754; Found 287.1755.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)-1H-indol-4-amine (3bi)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with 4-aminoindole (99.4 mg, 0.752 mmol, 1.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $15\% \rightarrow 30\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bi** was obtained (117.6 mg, 73% yield) as a blue-gray solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.20 (s, 1H), 7.11 (t, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 7.07 – 7.01 (m, 1H), 6.89 – 6.72 (m, 4H), 6.50 – 6.41 (m, 1H), 6.33 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 1H), 4.11 – 3.69 (m, 7H), 3.34 (t, *J* = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 2.67 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 2H), 1.97 – 1.63 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.8, 147.1, 141.6, 136.4, 135.0, 123.4, 121.9, 120.2, 116.7, 111.8, 111.3, 101.2, 99.2, 98.4, 55.9, 55.8, 43.9, 35.3, 29.3, 29.2; ATR-IR: 3411, 3350, 3007, 2929, 2855, 1589, 1513, 1474, 1461, 1445, 1412, 1370, 1332, 1301, 1256, 1233, 1189, 1155, 1140, 1105, 1027, 954, 897, 848, 810, 764, 735, 671, 632, 613, 585, 565, 534, 456 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₀H₂₅N₂O₂⁺ 325.1911; Found 325.1907.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)quinolin-2-amine (3bj)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with 2-aminoquinoline (180.5 mg, 1.25 mmol, 2.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $15\% \rightarrow 40\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bj** was obtained (125.4 mg, 75% yield) as a yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.78 (d, *J* = 8.9 Hz, 1H), 7.68 (d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, 1H), 7.56 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 7.52 (t, *J* = 7.7 Hz, 1H), 7.19 (t, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 1H), 6.78 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.75 – 6.66 (m, 2H), 6.60 (d, *J* = 8.9 Hz, 1H), 5.32 – 4.58 (m, 1H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 3.83 (s, 3H), 3.51 (q, *J* = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 2.62 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 1.84 – 1.57 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 157.0, 148.8, 147.9, 147.1, 137.3, 134.9, 129.5, 127.4, 125.9, 123.3, 121.9, 120.2, 111.7, 111.2, 157.9, 55.8, 41.5, 35.2, 29.3, 29.0; ATR-IR: 3389, 3051, 3001, 2933, 2856, 2252, 1679, 1618, 1570, 1513, 1463, 1418, 1400, 1371, 1348, 1312, 1258, 1233, 1191, 1154, 1140, 1027, 908, 854, 817, 780, 756, 727, 646, 621, 596, 561, 524, 475 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₁H₂₅N₂O₂⁺ 337.1911; Found 337.1909.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)quinolin-8-amine (3bk)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with 8-aminoquinoline (180.2 mg, 1.25 mmol, 2.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, $5\% \rightarrow 10\%$ EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bk** was obtained (107.3 mg, 64% yield) as a yellow solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.71 (d, *J* = 4.2 Hz, 1H), 8.05 (d, *J* = 8.3 Hz, 1H), 7.49 – 7.29 (m, 2H), 7.04 (d, *J* = 8.2 Hz, 1H), 6.94 – 6.70 (m, 3H), 6.6 6 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 1H), 6.57 – 5.77 (br s, 1H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.35 (t, *J* = 6.6 Hz, 2H), 2.66 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 2.14 – 1.48 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.8, 147.1, 146.7, 144.9, 138.1, 135.9, 134.9, 128.7, 127.8, 121.3, 120.2, 113.5, 111.7, 111.2, 104.4, 55.9, 55.8, 43.3, 35.3, 29.2, 28.9; ATR-IR: 3399, 3040, 3001, 2933, 2855, 2252, 1609, 1575, 1514, 1463, 1418, 1380, 1337, 1259, 1233, 1191, 1154, 1139, 1124, 1088, 1028, 908, 852, 817, 803, 790, 764, 726, 645, 544, 457, 421 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₁H₂₅N₂O₂⁺ 337.1911; Found 337.1908.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)-2-methoxydibenzo[b,d]furan-3-amine (3bl)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with 2-methoxy-3aminodibenzofuran (162.8 mg, 0.763 mmol, 1.53 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with arylamines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (24 g silica, 5% \rightarrow 10% EtOAc/hexanes slow gradient). Amine **3bl** was obtained (153.6, 76% yield) as a yellow-orange solid. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.86 – 7.67 (m, 1H), 7.56 – 7.40 (m, 1H), 7.33 – 7.24 (m, 3H), 6.81 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 6.79 – 6.66 (m, 3H), 4.89 – 4.27 (br s, 1H), 3.96 (s, 3H), 3.89 (s, 3H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.23 (t, *J* = 6.5 Hz, 2H), 2.65 (t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, 2H), 1.96 – 1.54 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 155.7, 152.6, 148.8, 147.2, 144.0, 139.4, 134.8, 125.7, 124.0, 122.2, 120.2, 118.6, 111.7, 111.3, 111.2, 111.0, 100.4, 92.5, 56.0, 55.9, 55.8, 43.6, 35.2, 29.1, 28.8; ATR-IR: 3429, 3002, 2935, 2835, 2252, 1632, 1607, 1591, 1513, 1485, 1463, 1430, 1360, 1299, 1281, 1259, 1234, 1220, 1198, 1152, 1103, 1028, 906, 865, 840, 811, 725, 647, 629, 561, 440 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₅H₂₈NO4⁺ 406.2013; Found 406.2013.

2.4.6.3 Reactions of methyl eugenol with aliphatic amines (Table 3) **1-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)**piperidine (3bm)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with piperidine (59.3 µL, 0.600 mmol, 1.20 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 10% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3bm** was obtained (121.5 mg, 88% yield) as a brown oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.78 (d, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.74–6.65 (m, 2H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.85 (s, 3H), 2.57 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 2.47–2.17 (m, 6H), 1.64–1.47 (m, 8H), 1.47–1.33 (m, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.7, 147.0, 135.2, 120.1, 111.7, 111.2, 59.4, 55.9, 55.8, 54.7, 35.5, 29.8, 26.6, 26.0, 24.5; ATR-IR: 2931, 2853, 2799, 2761, 1590, 1513, 1463, 1416, 1349, 1259, 1234, 1191, 1153, 1139, 1029, 858, 803, 763, 732, 634, 596, 560, 462 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₇H₂₈NO₂⁺ 278.2115; Found 278.2111.

4-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)morpholine (3bn)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with morpholine (60.2 µL, 0.688 mmol, 1.38 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 10% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3bn** was obtained (122.0 mg, 87% yield) as a brown oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.75 (d, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.72–6.65 (m, 2H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 3.68 (t, *J* = 4.7 Hz, 4H), 2.55 (t, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 2.52 – 2.34 (br s, 4H), 2.32 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 1.63 – 1.55 (m, 2H), 1.54 – 1.46 (m, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.7, 147.0, 135.0, 120.1, 111.7, 111.1, 66.9, 58.9, 55.9, 55.7, 53.7, 35.4, 29.4, 26.1; ATR-IR: 2997, 2934, 2854, 2807, 2766, 2686, 1680, 1607, 1590, 1514, 1463, 1417, 1358, 1332, 1305, 1260, 1235, 1191, 1154, 1140, 1116, 1070, 1028, 967, 913, 864, 803, 764, 729, 697, 644, 626, 612, 595, 562, 520, 502, 460 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₆H₂₆NO₃⁺ 280.1907; Found 280.1899.

4-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)thiomorpholine (3bo)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 μ L, 0.500 mmol) with thiomorpholine (60.3 μ L, 0.600 mmol, 1.20 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 10% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3bo** was obtained (101.8 mg, 69% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.78 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.75 – 6.63 (m, 2H), 3.86 (s, 3H), 3.85 (s, 3H), 2.80 – 2.61 (m, 8H), 2.56 (t, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 2.41 – 2.29 (m, 2H), 1.66 – 1.54 (m, 2H), 1.53 – 1.40 (m, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.7, 147.0, 135.0, 120.1, 111.7, 111.1, 59.2, 55.9, 55.8, 55.0, 35.3, 29.5, 28.0, 26.1; ATR-IR: 2997, 2933, 2857, 2806, 2769, 2253, 1676, 1607, 1590, 1514, 1463, 1416, 1374, 1340, 1322, 1258, 1234, 1191, 1154, 1139, 1079, 1028, 951, 912, 852, 803, 763, 729, 669, 644, 596, 560, 425 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₆H₂₆NO₂S⁺ 296.1679; Found 296.1687.

1-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)pyrrolidine (3bp)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with pyrrolidine (49.3 µL, 0.600 mmol, 1.20 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 10% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3bp** was obtained (99.2 mg, 75% yield) as a yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.77 (d, J = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.70 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 3.86 (s, 3H), 3.84 (s, 3H), 2.57 $(t, J = 7.6 \text{ Hz}, 2\text{H}), 2.53 - 2.39 \text{ (m, 6H)}, 1.76 \text{ (quin, } J = 3.1 \text{ Hz}, 4\text{H}), 1.72 - 1.49 \text{ (m, 4H)}; {}^{13}\text{C}$ NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.9, 147.2, 135.4, 120.3, 111.9, 111.3, 56.6, 56.0, 55.9, 54.3, 35.6, 29.9, 28.8, 23.5; ATR-IR: IR (KBr, thin film): 3952, 3931, 3866, 3845, 3826, 3812, 3792, 3775, 3765, 3750, 3734, 3640, 3579, 3554, 3518, 3492, 3443, 3398, 3348, 3334, 3270, 3219, 3194, 3174, 3153, 3132, 3055, 2995, 2932, 2875, 2858, 2833, 2785, 2744, 2690, 2578, 2559, 2540, 2492, 2478, 2433, 2415, 2376, 2334, 2314, 2280, 2253, 2228, 2215, 2198, 2189, 2173, 2153, 2143, 2118, 2093, 2077, 2062, 2040, 2016, 2006, 1992, 1972, 1964, 1952, 1930, 1905, 1856, 1839, 1737, 1642, 1607, 1590, 1463, 1417, 1387, 1350, 1328, 1259, 1235, 1192, 1154, 1140, 1079, 1065, 912, 876, 851, 803, 764, 697, 641, 595, 561, 520, 504, 466, 416, 402 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: $[M + H]^+$ Calcd for C₁₆H₂₆NO₂⁺ 264.1958; Found 264.1944.

4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)-*N*,*N*-dipropylbutan-1-amine (3bq)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with dipropylamine (82.3 µL, 0.600 mmol, 1.20 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 10% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3bq** was obtained (103.5 mg, 71 % yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.78 (d, J = 8.1 Hz, 1H), 6.74 – 6.53 (m, 2H), 3.86 (s, 3H), 3.85 (s, 3H), 2.56 (t, J = 7.7 Hz, 2H), 2.41 (t, J = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 2.34 (t, J = 7.6 Hz, 4H), 1.70 – 1.52 (m, 2H), 1.52 – 1.29 (m, 6H), 0.86 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 6H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.7, 147.0, 135.4, 120.1, 111.7, 111.2, 56.3, 55.9, 55.7, 54.0, 35.5, 29.6, 26.8, 20.2, 12.0; ATR-IR: 2955, 2933, 2870, 2833, 2797, 2254, 1591, 1514, 1464, 1417, 1378, 1337, 1259, 1235, 1191, 1155, 1140, 1078, 1030, 911, 849, 803, 764, 730, 645, 595, 560, 519, 503, 461 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₈H₃₂NO₂⁺ 294.2428; Found 294.2414.
N-Benzyl-4-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)-*N*-methylbutan-1-amine (3br)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with *N*-benzylmethylamine (77.4 µL, 0.600 mmol, 1.20 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 10% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3br** was obtained (119.2 mg, 76% yield) as a yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.36 – 7.21 (m, 5H), 6.79 (d, *J* = 7.9 Hz, 1H), 6.74 – 6.66 (m, 2H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.86 (s, 3H), 3.48 (s, 2H), 2.56 (t, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 2.39 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 2.18 (s, 3H), 1.64 (quin, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 2H), 1.56 (quin, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.8, 147.1, 139.3, 135.3, 129.0, 128.2, 126.9, 120.2, 111.8, 111.2, 62.4, 57.3, 55.9, 55.8, 42.3, 35.4, 29.4, 27.0; ATR-IR: 2937, 2837, 2789, 2253, 1671, 1591, 1515, 1464, 1453, 1418, 1259, 1234, 1192, 1155, 1141, 1028, 906, 852, 806, 764, 725, 699, 647, 468 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₀H₂₈NO₂⁺ 314.2115; Found 314.2113.

N,*N*-Dibenzyl-4-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)butan-1-amine (3bs)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with *N*,*N*-dibenzylamine (115.3 mg, 0.600 mmol, 1.20 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 15% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3bs** was obtained (109.3 mg, 56% yield) as a pale-yellow oil; ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 7.39 (d, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 4H), 7.33 (t, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 4H), 7.25 (t, *J* = 7.4 Hz, 2H), 6.79 (d, *J* = 8.6 Hz, 1H), 6.72 – 6.63 (m, 2H), 3.88 (s, 3H), 3.87 (s, 3H), 3.57 (s, 4H), 2.57 – 2.40 (m, 4H), 1.71 – 1.49 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.7, 147.0, 140.0, 135.3, 128.8, 128.1, 126.7, 120.1, 111.7, 111.1, 58.3, 55.9, 55.8, 53.1, 35.2, 29.0, 26.5; ATR-IR: 3061, 3027, 2934, 2833, 2794, 2253, 1590, 1514, 1494, 1464, 1452, 1417, 1365, 1259, 1235, 1191, 1154, 1140, 1074, 1028, 968, 908, 849, 805, 764, 728, 697, 646, 563, 466 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₆H₃₂NO₂⁺ 390.2428; Found 390.2422.

N-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)octan-1-amine (3bt)



The hydroaminomethylation of methyl eugenol (86.0 µL, 0.500 mmol) with octylamine (206.5 µL, 1.25 mmol, 2.50 equiv) was conducted according to the general procedure for hydroaminomethylations with aliphatic amines. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (12 g silica, isocratic 15% EtOAc/hexanes followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine **3bt** was obtained (82.8 mg, 52% yield) as a pale-yellow oil. ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 6.73 (d, J = 8.1 Hz, 1H), 6.67 (d, J = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 3.82 (s, 3H), 3.80 (s, 3H), 2.80 – 2.25 (m, 6H), 1.66 – 1.11 (m, 17H), 0.84 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 3H); ¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 148.7, 147.0, 135.1, 120.1, 111.7, 111.2, 55.8, 55.7, 50.1, 49.9, 35.4, 31.8, 30.1, 29.8, 29.5, 29.4, 29.2, 27.4, 22.6, 14.0; ATR-IR: 2925, 2852, 2784, 1676, 1590, 1516, 1463, 1418, 1378, 1334, 1260, 1235, 1192, 1155, 1142, 1028, 916, 858, 809, 763, 732, 633, 596, 565, 462 cm⁻¹; HRMS (ESI/QTOF) m/z: [M + H]⁺ Calcd for C₂₀H₃₆NO₂⁺ 322.2741; Found 322.2741.

2.4.7 Application to the synthesis of Ibutilide *N*-(4-Formylphenyl)methanesulfonamide (5)



MsHN

MsHN

Aldehyde **5** was prepared from *p*-bromobenzaldehyde and methanesulfonamide by the method of Navarro and cowarkers.¹⁸ Aldehyde **5** was obtained (2.22 g, 70%) as a light orange solid. Spectral data matched those published previously.^{5e,18} ¹H NMR (500 MHz, Acetone- d_6) δ 9.98 (s, 1H), 8.00 – 7.88 (m, 2H), 7.64 – 7.45 (m, 2H), 3.17 (s, 3H).

N-(4-(1-Hydroxyallyl)phenyl)methanesulfonamide (1m)



A <u>new bottle</u> of vinylmagnesium bromide (1 M in THF) was opened in a nitrogen-filled glovebox. An oven-dried round-bottom flask equipped with a magnetic stirring bar was cooled to room temperature in the glovebox, and vinylmagnesium bromide (3.00 mL, 3.00 mmol) was added to the flask. A solution of aldehyde **5** (272 mg, 1.37 mmol) in dry, degassed THF (4.5 mL) was drawn into a gastight syringe in the glovebox, and the needle was capped with a septum. The round-bottom flask was capped with a septum, removed from the glovebox, and cooled in an ice bath. The solution of aldehyde **5** in THF was added dropwise with stirring to the round-bottom flask at 0 °C under a flow of nitrogen. The reaction mixture was warmed to room temperature, stirred for 24 h, quenched with saturated NH₄Cl, extracted into ether (3x), washed with water, washed with brine, and dried over Na₂SO₄. The product was isolated by silica chromatography (ca. 60 g silica, slow gradient 0% \rightarrow 10% MeOH/DCM). Olefin **1m** was obtained as a thick, pale-yellow oil (221.6 mg, 71%). Spectral data matched those published previously.^{5e 1}H NMR (400 MHz, Acetone-*d*₆) δ 8.49 (s, 1H), 7.40 – 7.31 (m, 2H), 7.31 – 7.24 (m, 2H), 5.98 (ddd, *J* = 17.2, 10.3, 5.9 Hz, 1H), 5.29 (dt, *J* = 17.1, 1.7 Hz, 1H), 5.14 (t, *J* = 5.3 Hz, 1H), 5.05 (dt, *J* = 10.3, 1.5 Hz, 1H), 4.46 (d, *J* = 4.3 Hz, 1H), 2.94 (s, 3H).

N-(4-(4-(Ethyl(heptyl)amino)-1-hydroxybutyl)phenyl)methanesulfonamide (ibutilide, 3mt)



An aliquot of the catalyst stock solution (0.500 mL, 1.0 mol% Rh(CO)₂(acac), 5.0 mol% BISBI, 2.0 mol% Xiao's catalyst) was plated onto a glass liner tube (see above). Under air, olefin 1m (112.6 mg, 0.495 mmol) was added as a solution in toluene methanol (9:1, vol: vol, 5.00 mL). The tube was charged with pH 4.8 aqueous sodium formate buffer (250 μ L) and N-ethylheptan-1-amine (109.8 µL, 0.600 mmol, 1.29 equiv) and loaded into a Biotage Endeavor Catalyst Screening System. At room temperature, the reaction vessels were purged with N_2 (1x), pressurized to 25 psi with CO, and brought to a total pressure of 50 psi with H₂ at room temperature. The reaction mixture was heated at 80 °C for 20 h with mechanical stirring (400 rpm), after which time the vessel was cooled to 40 °C, purged with N_2 (1x), and removed from the Endeavor reactor. The crude reaction mixture was diluted with 10% aqueous K₂CO₃ (10 mL) and extracted into ethyl acetate (20 mL, 3x). The combined extracts were dried over Na₂SO₄, and the product isolated by silica chromatography (4 g silica, slow $0\% \rightarrow 10\%$ MeOH/DCM gradient followed by 0.5% Et₃N, 2% MeOH, 97.5% EtOAc). Amine 3mt was obtained (144.9 mg, 76% yield) as a yellow oil. Spectral data matched the literature.^{5e 1}H NMR (300 MHz, Acetone-d₆) δ 7.52 - 7.35 (m, 2H), 7.35 - 7.18 (m, 2H), 7.25 - 5.95 (br s, 2H), 4.66 (dd, J = 7.7, 4.0 Hz, 1H), 2.96 (s, 3H), 2.73 – 2.32 (m, 6H), 1.95 – 1.22 (m, 14H), 1.06 (t, J = 7.1 Hz, 3H), 0.92 (t, J = 4.6, 2.4 Hz, 3H).

2.4.8 Procedure for hydroaminomethylation on a 6 mmol scale *N*-(4-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)butyl)aniline (3ba)



A 100 mL round-bottom flask was charged with Xiao's catalyst (38.0 mg, 0.0583 mmol), Rh(CO)₂(acac) (8.2 mg, 0.0318 mmol), and BISBI (87.5 mg, 0.159 mmol). The catalysts were diluted with a 9:1 vol:vol mixture of toluene: methanol (31 mL). The flask was then charged with methyl eugenol (1.055 mL, 6.31 mmol), pH 4.8 aqueous sodium formate buffer (6 mL), and *N*-ethylheptylamine (838.1 μ L). The flask was capped with a septum that was punctured with a needle, and the flask was placed in a 300 mL Parr stainless-steel autoclave. The autoclave was purged once with 1:1 CO:H₂, pressurized with 1:1 CO:H₂ to 50 psi with a low-pressure regulator, heated at 80 °C for 20 h, and cooled to room temperature. The crude reaction mixture was diluted with 10% aqueous K₂CO₃ and extracted into diethyl ether (20 mL, 3x). The combined extracts were dried over Na₂SO₄, analyzed by gas chromatography, concentrated *in vacuo*, and purified by silica chromatography (~60 g silica, 0 \rightarrow 10% ethyl acetate hexanes gradient). Amine **3ba** was obtained (1.24 g, 71%) as a pale-yellow oil.

2.4.9 Procedure for hydroaminomethylation at 1 atm syngas *N*-Undecylaniline (3aa)



An aliquot of the catalyst stock solution (0.500 mL, 2.0 mol% Rh(CO)₂(acac), 8.0 mol% BISBI, 2.0 mol% Xiao's catalyst) was plated onto a glass liner tube (*see above*). Under air, the tube was sequentially charged with toluene: methanol (9:1, vol:vol, 750 µL), olefin **1a** (28.0 µL, 0.148 mmol), pH 4.8 aqueous sodium formate buffer (250 µL), and amine **2a** (20.3 µL, 0.224 mmol, 1.52 equiv) and loaded into a Biotage Endeavor Catalyst Screening System. At room temperature, the reaction vessels were purged with N₂ (1x), pressurized to 5 psi with CO, and brought to a total pressure of 15 psi with H₂. The reaction mixture was heated at 70 °C for 64 h with mechanical stirring (400 rpm), after which time the vessel was cooled to 40 °C, purged with N₂ (1x), and removed from the Endeavor reactor. The crude reaction mixture was diluted with aqueous, saturated sodium bicarbonate (10 mL) and extracted into diethyl ether or ethyl acetate (20 mL, 3x). The combined extracts were dried over Na₂SO₄, analyzed by gas chromatography, concentrated *in vacuo*, and purified by flash chromatography (24 g silica, slow 0% \rightarrow 5% EtOAc/hexanes gradient). Amine **3aa** was obtained (23.7 mg, 65% yield) as a pale-yellow oil.

















210 200 190 180 170 160 150 140 130 120 110 100 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10 0 -10 f1 (ppm)












































































































2.5 References

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Chapter 3

Contra-thermodynamic Olefin Isomerization by Chain-Walking Hydrofunctionalization and Formal Retro-hydrofunctionalization
3.1 Introduction

Generally, internal alkenes are more stable than their terminal counterparts. This greater stability originates from a hyperconjugative interaction between the alkyl substituents and the π^* orbital of an olefin. Because the isomerization of terminal olefins to internal olefins is exergonic, many such isomerizations have been reported (Scheme 1). Classical methods for the isomerization of olefins involve proton transfers catalyzed by acid or base. Transition-metal-catalyzed isomerizations of alkenes occur by one of several pathways shown in Scheme 1,¹ but all such catalytic isomerizations involve the conversion of terminal olefins to internal olefins or the conversion of one internal olefin to another internal olefin because terminal olefins are less stable than internal olefins.

Inspired by biological processes in which downhill hydrolyses and redox processes are coupled to thermodynamically uphill steps, we sought to develop one or more exergonic chemical processes that could be coupled to an endergonic isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins. The term contra-thermodynamic describes reactions that couple an increase in free energy of one synthetically valuable process to additional exergonic processes. Several multi-step approaches to contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization have been reported;² however, strategies to form the terminal alkene with high selectivity have been limited to translocation of a double bond by only one carbon unit.³ No examples of reactions that lead to the selective migration of a double bond beyond a single carbon unit have been reported previously.

Such a method for the selective, contra-thermodynamic translocation of a double bond over multiple carbon units would enable chemists to conduct subsequent reactions at sites that are remote from the starting alkene. For example, the terminal olefins formed by such an isomerization could undergo a variety of difunctionalizations or hydrofunctionalizations that cannot occur in concert with chain walking of metal-alkyl intermediates. Long-range isomerizations also could be used to modify the structures of natural products, such as terpenes, containing alkenes. Finally, on a different scale, long-range, contra-thermodynamic isomerizations could enable the valorization of mixtures of internal olefins to isomerically pure linear α -olefins.

To develop a long-range, contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization, we envisioned that chain-walking hydrofunctionalization of an internal alkene could be conducted in concert with retro-hydrofunctionalization (Scheme 1: *This Work*). We report the formation of terminal alkenes from internal alkenes by combining platinum-catalyzed hydrosilylation with a new method for the conversion of alkylsilanes to terminal alkenes. This process enables the translocation of the carbon-carbon double bond through multiple secondary sites, as well as through a combination of secondary and tertiary sites to form the terminal alkene.

Many Reports: Terminal Olefins to Internal Olefins



Scheme 1. Thermodynamic vs. contra-thermodynamic positional olefin isomerizations

A variety of chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations,⁴ including hydrosilylations,⁵ hydroborations,⁶ hydrocyanations,⁷ hydroformylations,⁸ and alkoxycarbonylations,⁹ are known, and several retro-hydrofunctionalizations have been developed. However, none of these retro-hydrofunctionalizations have been combined with hydrofunctionalizations to enable the contra-thermodynamic isomerization of alkenes. Retro-hydrocyanation, which was developed by Morandi, proceeds by the net transfer of hydrogen cyanide to a strained olefin (Scheme 2).¹⁰ A similar retro-hydroformylation developed by Dong involves the net transfer of formaldehyde to a strained olefin, and a retro-hydroformylation reported by Nozaki involves the extrusion of synthesis gas from the system.¹¹ While retro-hydrocyanation and retro-hydroformylation have been developed, the *n:iso* ratios of chain-walking hydrocyanations, and chain-walking hydroformylations are lower than those of other chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations, and the current catalysts for these transformations rarely undergo isomerization through tertiary centers (Keuleman's rule).

Retro-Hydroformylation (Dong)

Retro-Hydrocyanation (Morandi)

$$R \sim CN + R \sim + R \sim + R \sim CN$$

Retro-Hydroformylation (Nozaki)

Retro-Hydrosilylation (This Work)

 $R \xrightarrow{\text{SiCl}_3} \xrightarrow{I_2, \text{ CsF}} R \xrightarrow{\text{+} \text{Cs}_2\text{SiF}_6} + \text{CsI}$ strong Si-F reduction bonds of I_2

Scheme 2. Retro-hydrofunctionalizations

In contrast to chain-walking hydroformylations and hydrocyanations, platinum-catalyzed hydrosilylations proceed with exceptionally high *n:iso* ratios because the catalyst undergoes fast isomerization of internal metal alkyls to terminal metal alkyls and selective reductive elimination of the terminal metal alkyl intermediate with the silyl group. In addition, chain-walking hydrosilylations of internal olefins with trichlorosilane proceed without solvent and with low loadings of Speier's catalyst (H₂PtCl₆), making this class of hydrofunctionalization conducive to the development of a one-pot isomerization. Finally, platinum catalysts for hydrosilylation "walk" through tertiary centers, a prerequisite for movement of a double bond through branched portions of a molecule. However, retro-hydrosilylation is not a known reaction.¹²

Retro-hydrosilylation is challenging to develop because the microscopic reverse of hydrosilylation involves the oxidative addition of a C–Si bond, which is a rare reaction. Therefore, we designed a new approach to the conversion of alkylsilanes to olefins. By this process, the typically nucleophilic silyl group would be oxidized to a nucleofuge, which would undergo base-promoted conversion to a terminal olefin. Specifically, alkylsilanes would be oxidized to alkyl halides through pentafluorosilicate intermediates,¹³ and the resulting alkyl halides would undergo classical eliminations *in situ*. In contrast to the retro-hydrofunctionalizations driven by the release of ring strain or by the extrusion of gases, this approach would couple the endergonic retro-hydrosilylation to the exergonic reduction of iodine and formation of strong Si–F bonds. The approach would constitute a formal retro-hydrosilylation because it does not proceed by the microscopic reverse of hydrosilylation.

3.2 Results and discussion

To test this design, we conducted the reaction of branched alkylsilane 2a with an oxidant and a fluoride source (Table 1). We imagined that treating this silane with cesium fluoride and iodine would trigger a domino sequence involving the formation of a pentafluorosilicate, iodination, and elimination. Indeed, silane 2a reacted with cesium fluoride and iodine in DMF for 20 h at 100 °C to form 4-*tert*-butylmethylenecyclohexane (olefin 3a) in 82% yield (entry 1); in this process, the cesium fluoride functions as both a reagent for activation of the silane and a base for elimination of the halide. In the presence of 6 equivalents of CsF, olefin 3a formed in only trace amounts (entry 2). In this case, the corresponding alkyl iodide was the major product formed, indicating that the formal retro-hydrosilylation process can be stopped prior to elimination. Reactions with KF in place of CsF (entry 3), larger numbers of equivalents of I₂ than 1.1 (entry 4), or solvents other than DMF (entries 5-7) gave olefin 3a in lower yields than reactions conducted with the standard conditions in entry 1. Although NIS and NBS are known to halogenate alkyl pentafluorosilicates, these compounds were not suitable oxidants for this transformation (entries 8-9). A lower yield was observed when the formal retro-hydrosilylation was conducted at 50 °C instead of 100 °C (entry 10).

~ ~	I ₂ (1.1 equiv)	~ //		
	SiCl ₃ CsF (10 equiv)	$\int $		
	DMF, 100 °C, 20 h	t-Bu		
2a		3a		
entry	change from above conditions	yield 3a ^a		
1	none	82%		
2	6 equiv CsF	0% ^b		
3	KF instead of CsF	31%		
4	2 equiv I2	73%		
5	ACN instead of DMF	68%		
6	<i>i</i> PrOH instead of DMF	60%		
7	toluene instead of DMF	0% ^b		
8	NIS instead of I2	9%		
9	NBS instead of I2	0%		
10	50 °C	48%		

^aYields were determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy with trichloroethylene as an internal standard ^bMajor product observed was alkyl iodide intermediate

Table 1. Formal retro-hydrosilylation of β-branched alkylsilanes

Upon subjecting the linear alkylsilane **2b** to the conditions developed for the formal retro-hydrosilylation of branched silane **2a**, a significant quantity of octadecyl fluoride (**4b**) formed, along with terminal olefin **3b** (Table 2, entry 1). This result indicates that that alkyl iodide intermediates lacking β -branching undergo competitive S_N2 and E2 processes with cesium fluoride. We hypothesized that arresting the formal retro-hydrosilylation of silane **2b** at alkyl iodide **5b** by conducting the iodination process with exactly 6 equivalents of CsF would enable the elimination to be conducted with a base known to favor E2 elimination over S_N2 substitution. Indeed, the reaction of silane **2b** with 6 equivalents of CsF formed octadecyl iodide in 62% yield, along with trace olefin and no alkyl fluoride (entry 2). Treatment of this crude reaction mixture with a hindered alkoxide base (NaO*t*Bu) at room temperature leads to a classical elimination reaction and provided olefin **3b** in 65% overall yield (entry 3).

ⁿ C ₁₈ H ₃₇ SiCl ₃	I ₂ , CsF; ───────────	$\frac{1}{15}$ + $^{n}C_{18}H_{37}F$		ⁿ C ₁₈ H ₃₇ F	+ ⁿ C ₁₈ H ₃₇ I	
2b		3b	4b			5b
entry	CsF (equiv)	yield 3b ^a	yield 4b ^a		yield 5b ^a	
1 ^b	10	54%		23%		0%
2 ^b	6	0%		0%		62%
3	6	65%		0%		0%
4 ^c	6	0%		0%		0%
5 ^d	6	33%		0%		10%

Conditions: Silane (0.1 mmol), Iodine (1.1 equiv), CsF, DMF, 100 °C, 20 h; NaOt-Bu (5 equiv), rt, 20 h. ^aYields were determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy with trichloroethylene as an internal standard. ^bNo second step conducted. ^cBoth steps conducted simultaneously. ^dUnder air, no protection from light.

Table 2. Formal retro-hydrosilylation of linear alkylsilanes

Having developed conditions for the formal retro-hydrosilylation of both linear and β branched alkylsilanes, we hypothesized that this reaction could be conducted on crude silanes prepared by chain-walking hydrosilylation. In this case, a one-pot, contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization would result. Indeed, treatment of a variety of internal olefins with HSiCl₃ in the presence of Speier's catalyst and subsequent subjection of the crude alkylsilane to the conditions that induce formal retro-hydrosilylation gave terminal olefins in good yields with excellent n:iso selectivities (Scheme 3). No internal olefins were observed by ¹H NMR spectroscopy in any of the crude samples; that is, the *n*:iso ratios of the products were all greater than 99:1. Internal olefins 1c, 1d, and 1e, underwent isomerization to 1-octene (olefin 3c) in moderate to good yields, indicating that both short-range and long-range isomerizations occur. In fact, 7tetradecene (olefin 1f) underwent isomerization over six positions to form 1-tetradecene (olefin 3f) in good yield. Diene 1g, which contains a terminal olefin and an internal olefin, underwent isomerization to α, ω -diene **3g**, the sole diene formed in the reaction. In this case, the quantity of each reagent was twice that of reactions of substrates lacking alkenes because both olefins underwent hydrosilylation and retro-hydrosilylation. This example demonstrates that terminal olefins are tolerated passively because hydrosilylation-retro-hydrosilylation sequences on terminal and internal alkene are degenerate.



Step 1: Internal olefin (1 mmol), HSiCl₃ (2 equiv), H₂PtCl₆ (0.2 mol% in 2 mL isopropanol), 100 °C, 20 h, neat reaction, sealed vessel. Step 2: I₂ (1.1 equiv), CsF (6 equiv), DMF (0.25 M), 100 °C, 20 h; then NaO*t*-Bu, rt, 20 h. Yields were determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy with trichloroethylene as internal standard. ^a10 equiv CsF, 2.2 equiv I₂, and 10 equiv NaO*t*-Bu. **Scheme 3.** Contra-thermodynamic isomerizations of internal olefins to α -olefins

In addition to isomerizations through linear alkyl chains, isomerizations through branched chains that entail the formation of tertiary metal alkyl intermediates occurred (Scheme 4). For example, cyclic, trisubstituted olefin **1h** underwent isomerization to the 1,1-disubstituted olefin **3h** in good yield. Long-range isomerizations of endocyclic olefins **1i** and **1j** to terminal olefin **3i** through tertiary centers also occurred in good yields. Acyclic olefins also underwent isomerization through branched alkyl chains. For example, the long-range isomerization of acyclic 1,2-disubstituted olefin **1k** to 1,1-disubstituted olefin **3k** proceeded in good yield. Additionally, the isomerization tolerates steric hindrance at the starting alkene. Conversion of the hindered, trisubstituted olefin **1l**, which bears a *tert*-butyl substituent α to the double bond, to olefin **3l** occurred in good yield.



Step 1: Internal olefin (1 mmol), HSiCl₃ (2 equiv), H₂PtCl₆ (0.2 mol% in 2 mL isopropanol), 100 °C, 20 h, neat reaction, sealed vessel. Step 2: I₂ (1.1 equiv), CsF (10 equiv), DMF (0.40 M), 100 °C, 20 h. Yields were determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy with trichloroethylene as internal standard. ^aIsolated yield indicated in parentheses.

Scheme 4. Contra-thermodynamic isomerization of internal olefins through branched alkyl chains to 1,1-disubstituted olefins

Finally, this type of contra-thermodynamic isomerization can be conducted on large scales. The isomerization of olefin **1h** to olefin **3h** occurred in 71% isolated yield on a gram scale (Scheme 5).



Step 1: Internal olefin (6.2 mmol), HSiCl₃ (2 equiv), H₂PtCl₆ (0.2 mol% in 2 mL isopropanol), 100 °C, 20 h, neat reaction, sealed vessel. Step 2: I₂ (1.1 equiv), CsF (10 equiv), DMF (0.40 M), 100 °C, 20 h. Yields were determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy with trichloroethylene as internal standard. ^aIsolated yield indicated in parentheses.

Scheme 5. Contra-thermodynamic isomerization on a gram scale

3.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, we have developed a strategy for contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization that combines chain-walking hydrosilylation with a formal retro-hydrosilylation. While other hydrofunctionalizations could be envisioned to be applicable to this process for the isomerization of alkenes, platinum-catalyzed hydrosilylation was chosen because of its high *n:iso* ratios, compatibility with trisubstituted olefins, low catalyst loadings, and solvent-free conditions. In contrast to previous retro-hydrofunctionalizations, the present retro-hydrosilylation is driven by redox processes and by the formation of strong Si–F bonds. Development of additional isomerization is ongoing. Particular attention is being given to hydrofunctionalizations that are suitable for industrial processes and to those with expanded functional group tolerance.

3.4 Experimental

3.4.1 General information

All air-sensitive manipulations were conducted under an inert atmosphere in a nitrogenfilled glovebox or by standard Schlenk techniques. Unless stated otherwise, reagents and solvents were purchased from commercial suppliers and used without further purification. TLC plates were visualized by staining with KMnO₄. All NMR spectra were recorded at the University of California, Berkeley NMR facility. Proton-NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker AVB-400, AVQ-400, AV-500, and AV-600 instruments with operating frequencies of 400, 400, 500, and 600 MHz, respectively, and Carbon-13 NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AV-600 instrument with a ¹³C operating frequency of 151 MHz. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in ppm relative to those of residual solvent signals (CDCl₃ δ = 7.26 for ¹H NMR spectra and δ = 77.16 for ¹³C NMR spectra). The following abbreviations were used in reporting NMR data: s, singlet; d, doublet; t, triplet; q, quartet; p, pentet; hept, heptet; m, multiplet.

3.4.2 Synthesis of substrates 4-('Butyl)-1-methylcyclohex-1-ene



The following procedure was adapted from the literature.¹⁴ In a nitrogen-filled glove box, an oven-dried 500 mL round bottomed flask equipped with a magnetic stir bar was charged with 4-(tert-butyl)cyclohex-1-en-1-yl trifluoromethanesulfonate¹⁵ (3.436 g, 12.00 mmol, 1 equiv) and THF (60 mL). Anhydrous Fe(acac)₃ (423.6 mg, 1.199 mmol, 10 mol%) was transferred to the flask with NMP (12 mL) and THF (120 mL). The reaction mixture was sealed with a septum, removed from the glove box, maintained under N₂, and cooled to -30 °C in an *o*-xylene/dry ice bath. Methyl magnesium bromide (3.0 M in Et₂O, 9.00 mL, 27.0 mmol, 2.25 equiv) was added dropwise. After complete addition of Grignard reagent, the reaction was stirred at -30 °C for 2 hours. After this time, saturated aqueous NH₄Cl was added (50 mL), the reaction mixture was warmed to room temperature, and the biphasic mixture was concentrated under reduced pressure. The resulting residue was dissolved in pentane (100 mL), washed with water (8 x 40 mL), dried over sodium sulfate, and concentrated under reduced pressure. Column chromatography on silica gel (isocratic, pentane) afforded 4-(tert-butyl)-1-methylcyclohex-1-ene as a colorless liquid (1.379 g, 9.056 mmol, 75% yield).

3.4.3 General procedure for contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations

Step 1: Chain-walking hydrosilylation

In a nitrogen-filled glove box, a heavy-walled Schlenk flask with a single opening (5–10 mL) equipped with a magnetic stir bar was charged with internal olefin (1 mmol, 1 equiv) and 2.0 μ L of a stock solution prepared by dissolving 100 mg H₂PtCl₆•6H₂O in 200 μ L of isopropanol (~1.0 mg H₂PtCl₆•6H₂O, 0.0020 mmol, 0.20 mol%). The Schlenk flask was sealed with a Teflon plug, removed from the glove box, and cooled to 0 °C. Trichlorosilane (202 μ L, 2.00 mmol, 2.00 equiv) was added to the reaction mixture under N₂, and the Schlenk flask was sealed and heated at 100 °C for 20 h. After this time, the reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature and subjected to high vacuum (<1000 mtorr) for 15 minutes to remove excess HSiCl₃. The Schlenk flask was then backfilled with N₂ and transferred to a nitrogen-filled glove box.

Step 2: Formal retro-hydrosilylation

Procedure A (for preparing 1,1-disubstituted olefins):

In a nitrogen-filled glovebox and in the dark, a solution of iodine (279.2 mg, 1.100 mmol, 1.100 equiv) in dry DMF (2.50 mL) and anhydrous cesium fluoride powder (1.519 g, 10.00 mmol, 10.00 equiv) were added to the Schlenk flask containing crude alkyl trichlorosilane from step 1. The Schlenk flask was sealed, stirred at room temperature for 15 minutes, and heated with vigorous stirring at 100 °C for 20 h in the dark. After this time, the reaction mixture was carefully diluted with CDCl₃ (5 mL) in a fume hood, and trichloroethylene (90.0 μ L, 1.00 equiv) was added. An aliquot of this mixture was filtered through a 0.2 μ m PTFE syringe filter and analyzed by ¹H NMR spectroscopy.

Procedure B (for preparing monosubstituted olefins):

In a nitrogen-filled glovebox and in the dark, a solution of iodine (279.2 mg, 1.100 mmol, 1.100 equiv) in dry DMF (4.00 mL) and anhydrous cesium fluoride powder (911.0 mg, 6.000 mmol, 6.000 equiv) were added to the Schlenk flask containing crude alkyl trichlorosilane from step 1. The Schlenk flask was sealed, stirred at room temperature for 15 minutes, and heated with vigorous stirring at 100 °C for 20 h in the dark. After this time, the reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature, and dry sodium *tert*-butoxide (480.5 mg, 5.000 mmol, 5.000 equiv) was added. The reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 20 h with protection from light. After this time, the reaction mixture was carefully diluted with CDCl₃ (5 mL) in a fume hood, and trichloroethylene (90.0 μ L, 1.00 equiv) was added. An aliquot of this mixture was filtered through a 0.2 μ m PTFE syringe filter and analyzed by ¹H NMR spectroscopy.

3.4.4 Products of olefin isomerization 1-Octene (3c)

Prepared from (*E*)-2-octene (112.2 mg, 1.000 mmol) according to general procedure B. 1 H NMR Yield: 65%

 $\sim \sim \sim$

1-Octene (3c)

Prepared from (*E*)-3-octene (110.9 mg, 0.9946 mmol) according to general procedure B. 1 H NMR Yield: 69%

1-Octene (3c)

 $\searrow \longrightarrow$

Prepared from (*E*)-4-octene (111.6 mg, 1.000 mmol) according to general procedure B. 1 H NMR Yield: 66%

1-Tetradecene (3f)

 C_6H_{13} C_5H_{11} C_9H_{19}

Prepared from (*E*)-7-tetradecene (192.0 mg, 0.978 mmol) according to general procedure B. 1 H NMR Yield 65%

1,6-Heptadiene (3g)

→ /////>

Prepared from 1,5-heptadiene (95.3 mg, 0.991 mmol) according to general procedure B, with 4 equivalents $HSiCl_3$, 0.4 mol% $H_2PtCl_6•6H_2O$, 10 equivalents of CsF, 2.2 equivalents of I₂, 8 mL of DMF, and 10 equivalents of NaO*t*-Bu. ¹H NMR Yield: 40%

1-(tert-Butyl)-4-methylenecyclohexane (3h)

Prepared from 4-(*tert*-butyl)-1-methylcyclohex-1-ene (148.1 mg, 0.9726 mmol) according to general procedure A.

This procedure was also repeated on a 1-gram scale (952.0 mg, 6.252 mmol)

¹H NMR Yield: 75% (150 mg scale)

¹H NMR Yield: 74% (1 g scale)

Isolation of olefin 3h: The NMR sample and crude reaction mixture were combined and carefully diluted with water (100 mL), and the resulting mixture was extracted with pentane (3 x 50 mL). The combined organic layers were pink in color (residual iodine) and were decolorized by washing with 2 M sodium thiosulfate (3 x 20 mL). The combined layers were washed with water (5 x 20 mL) and brine (1 x 20 mL), dried over sodium sulfate, and carefully concentrated *in vacuo* to afford a pale-yellow liquid. Column chromatography on silica gel (isocratic, pentane, $R_f \sim 0.9$) followed by careful concentration *in vacuo* afforded pure 1-(*tert*-butyl)-4-methylenecyclohexane (**3h**) as a clear, colorless liquid (79.0 mg, 0.519 mmol, 53% yield, small scale; 671.4 mg, 4.409 mmol, 71%, large scale). The lower isolated yield relative to ¹H NMR yield on small scale is largely attributed to the volatility of the product (b.p. = 53 °C at 8 torr).¹⁶ ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of the product matched the literature.¹⁶

¹**H** NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 4.58 (t, J = 1.7 Hz, 2H), 2.33 (d, J = 13.6 Hz, 2H), 1.98 (t, J = 13.3 Hz, 2H), 1.86 (d, J = 11.6 Hz, 2H), 1.20 – 0.96 (m, 3H), 0.85 (s, 9H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 150.4, 106.3, 48.1, 35.5, 32.6, 29.1, 27.8.

Methylenecyclohexane (3i)



Prepared from 3-methylcyclohex-1-ene (98.4 mg, 1.02 mmol) according to general procedure A. ¹H NMR Yield: 58%

Methylenecyclohexane (3i)



Prepared from 4-methylcyclohex-1-ene (95.4 mg, 0.992 mmol) according to general procedure A.

¹H NMR Yield: 58%

2,5-Dimethylhex-1-ene (3k)

Prepared from (*Z*)-2,5-dimethylhex-3-ene (110.1 mg, 0.9811 mmol) according to general procedure A. ¹H NMR Yield: 49%

2,4,4-Trimethylpent-1-ene (3l)

Prepared from 2,4,4-trimethylpent-2-ene (110.6 mg, 0.9856 mmol) according to general procedure A. ¹H NMR Yield: 56%























3.4 References

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"Contra-thermodynamic Olefin Isomerization by Chain-Walking Hydrofunctionalization and Formal Retro-hydrofunctionalization"

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Chapter 4

Palladium-Catalyzed Oxidative Dehydrosilylation for Contra-Thermodynamic Olefin Isomerization

4.1 Introduction

Internal olefins are more thermodynamically stable than terminal olefins. Therefore, isomerizations of terminal olefins to internal olefins are exergonic, and many strategies to conduct such isomerizations have been reported.¹ However, strategies for the contra-thermodynamic isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins remain underdeveloped. Most strategies for contra-thermodynamic, positional isomerization of alkenes involve allylic functionalization followed by defunctionalization with allylic transposition;² however, these approaches enable translocation of a double bond by a maximum of only one carbon unit and require harsh reagents. Strategies for long-range, contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations, i.e., those that occur through two or more carbon units,³ typically produce terminal alkenes in low yields and/or in low selectivities. A mild method for the contra-thermodynamic, long-range translocation of carbon-carbon double bonds could enable the valorization of mixtures of internal olefins to single isomers of terminal olefins, the late-stage derivatization of complex molecules containing internal olefins, and the installation of functional groups at sites that are remote from the initial position of the double bond.

A variety of transition-metal catalyzed, chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations could potentially be combined with dehydrofunctionalizations to enable such long-range, contrathermodynamic olefin isomerizations.⁴ We previously reported a one-pot process for the selective, long-range isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins involving platinumcatalyzed, chain-walking hydrosilylation of internal olefins with trichlorosilane followed by a formal, reagent-based retro-hydrosilylation of the resulting terminal alkylsilanes (eq 1).⁵

 $\mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{CsF}}_{\mathsf{SiCl}_3} \overset{\mathsf{CsF}}{\longrightarrow} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{SiF}_{\mathsf{5}}\mathsf{Cs}_2}^{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2}_{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2}_{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2}_{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2}_{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2}_{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2}_{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2}_{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R} \underbrace{\mathsf{I}_2} \mathsf{R}$

Platinum-catalyzed hydrosilylation occurs with high *n:iso* ratios, low loadings of catalyst, and without need for solvent, but the formal retro-hydrosilylation we developed comprises three uncatalyzed reactions: conversion of the terminal alkylsilane to a pentafluorosilicate, iodination of the silicate, and base-promoted elimination. This formal retro-hydrosilylation occurred in good yield, but each step required an excess of reagents. If any of these steps could be replaced by a catalytic process or, preferably, if multiple uncatalyzed steps could be combined in a single catalytic cycle, then the overall sequence would be more atom-efficient and operationally simple.

However, several factors make the development of a catalytic dehydrosilylation difficult (Scheme 1). Simple catalytic retro-hydrosilylation without coupling to additional exergonic processes is unlikely to occur because dehydrosilylation is substantially disfavored thermodynamically (Scheme 1A).⁶ Even a catalytic transfer dehydrosilylation involving the microscopic reverse of hydrosilylation and addition of silane to a strained acceptor, e.g. norbornene, would be challenging because the oxidative addition of a C-Si bond that would occur to initiate the reverse of a Chalk-Harrod mechanism is an uncommon elementary step and because the oxidative addition of the β -C–H bond that would initiate the reverse of a modified Chalk-Harrod mechanism would be unlikely to occur selectively in the presence more accessible C–H bonds (Scheme 1B). Addition of a C–H bond other than the β -C–H bond would likely lead to dehydrogenation, rather than dehydrosilylation. Moreover, any retro-hydrosilylation applied to contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization should occur under conditions that are irreversible and that lack a persistent hydride because equilibrating conditions and the presence of persistent metal-hydrides would likely lead to the isomerization of terminal olefins to internal olefins. Alternative pathways could involve cleavage of the C-Si bond by steps other than those in a microscopic reverse of hydrosilylation, but catalytic reactions that cleave unactivated alkvl-Si

bonds under thermal conditions,⁷ including transmetalations of alkylsilanes to enable cross-couplings,⁸ are rare.

(A) Direct catalytic dehydrosilylation

$$\mathsf{R}_{[Si]} \xrightarrow{\Delta \mathsf{G}^\circ > 0} \mathsf{R}_{+} + \mathsf{H}_{[Si]}$$

(B) Catalytic transfer dehydrosilylation by microscopic reversibility:



Kinetic Challenge, Retro-Chalk Harrod: Slow oxidative addition of the C–Si bond B M B [5]



Kinetic Challenge, Retro-Modified Chalk Harrod: Slow, unselective oxidative addition of β -C–H bond



(C) This work: Catalytic oxidative dehydrosilylation

 $\mathsf{R}_{[Si]} \xrightarrow{[0], Z^{+}X^{-}} \mathsf{R}^{+} Z^{+}\mathsf{H}_{[O]}^{-} + X_{[Si]}$

Reaction Design: Transmetalation, β -Hydride Elim., Oxidation



Scheme 1. Challenges facing catalytic dehydrosilylation and design of a catalytic oxidative dehydrosilylation

To address these challenges, we envisioned an oxidative dehydrosilylation that draws analogies to oxidative dehydrogenation, by which endergonic alkane dehydrogenations are coupled with the exergonic reduction of O_2 to water.⁹ In this case, the reaction design could involve transmetallation to cleave the C–Si bond, thereby creating more favorable kinetics if the oxidation step is fast.

We report the realization of such a process in the form of a palladium-catalyzed oxidative dehydrosilylation of primary alkylsilanes to form α -olefins with benzoquinone (BQ) as oxidant (Scheme 1C). This dehydrosilylation occurs in good yields with good selectivity for the 1-alkene and combines with chain-walking hydrosilylation to transform internal alkenes to terminal alkenes with translocation of the double bond through multiple carbon units. To develop a catalytic oxidative dehydrosilylation, we envisioned that the process could occur by the mechanism in Scheme 1C. Transmetalation of the alkylsilane to an electrophilic late transition-metal complex would generate an alkyl complex that could undergo β -hydride elimination to release the product and produce a metal hydride. This hydride could react with an oxidant to regenerate the starting electrophilic complex.¹⁰

4.2 Results and Discussion

To assess the viability of the proposed reaction, we conducted the oxidative dehydrosilylation of octadecyl trichlorosilane (2a) under the conditions shown in Table 1. A series of experiments varying the conditions of this reaction showed that alkylsilane 2a reacts with benzoquinone and cesium fluoride in the presence of Pd₂dba₃ at 140 °C to form olefin 3b in 67% yield (Table 1, entry 1). The reaction proceeded in 15 min; longer reaction times at this temperature did not significantly improve the yield (entry 2). Olefin 3b formed in similar yields at 140 °C and 120 °C (entry 3). Olefin 3b formed in much lower yields at 100 °C and 80 °C (entries 4-5), but these lower yields were simply due to slower rates. The yields of reactions at 100 °C and 80 °C were higher when the reaction was conducted for 20 h, rather than for 15 min (entries 6-7), and the yield of the reaction at 100 °C after 20 h was similar to that at 140 °C for 15 min (entry 6).

15		CsF, rt,	CsF, rt, 15 min;			
		⁵ BQ, Pd ₂ dba ₃ 1	BQ, Pd ₂ dba ₃ 140 °C, 15 min			
		2a		3b		
	Entry	Reaction Conditions	Yield ^a	terminal:internal ^b		
	1	none	67	83:17		
	2	20 h	68	79:21		
	3	120 °C	66	83:17		
	4	100 °C	17	n.d. ^c		
	5	80 °C	1	n.d. ^c		
	6	100 °C, 20 h	63	n.d. ^c		
	7	80 °C, 20 h	47	n.d. ^c		
	8	KF instead of CsF	0	n.d. ^c		
	9	TBAF instead of CsF	5	78:22		
	10	8 equiv CsF	66	82:18		
	11	6 equiv CsF	64	85:15		
	12	5 equiv CsF	58	n.d. ^c		
	13	4 equiv CsF	36	n.d. ^c		
	14	2 equiv BQ	62	82:18		
	15	3 mol% Pd ₂ dba ₃	58	75:25		
	16	2 mol% Pd ₂ dba ₃	54	75:25		
	17	1 mol% Pd ₂ dba ₃	56	78:22		
	18	DMSO as solvent	1	n.d. ^c		
	19	THF as solvent	57	72:28		
	20	Toluene as solvent	41	73:27		
	21	$Pd(OAc)_2$ instead of Pd_2dba_3	58	81:19		
	22	600 μ L dioxane	68	83:17		

Conditions: silane (0.1 mmol), CsF (10 equiv), rt, 15 min, dioxane (100 μ L); then BQ (3 equiv), Pd₂dba₃ (6 mol%), 140 °C, 15 min, dioxane (200 μ L). ^aDetermined by GC with hexadecane as an internal standard. ^bDetermined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. ^cNot determined.

Table 1. Catalytic dehydrosilylation of linear alkylsilanes

Olefin **3b** formed in low yields in the presence of fluoride sources other than CsF (entries 8-9). The yields and regioselectivities of the reaction were similar when the reaction was conducted with ten, eight, or six equivalents of CsF (entries 1, 10-11). Even with five equivalents of CsF, olefin **3b** formed in 58% yield (entry 12). However, olefin **3b** formed in low yields when the reaction was conducted with four or fewer equivalents of CsF (entry 13). The reaction with two equivalents of benzoquinone occurred in approximately the same yield as that with three

equivalents (entry 14). Reactions conducted with catalyst loadings as low as 1 mol% occurred in yields and regioselectivities that were only slightly lower than those in entry 1 (entries 15-17).

Olefin **3b** formed in lower yields when the reaction was conducted in DMSO, THF, or toluene than when the reaction was conducted in dioxane (entries 18-20), and olefin **3b** formed in slightly lower yields when the reaction was conducted with $Pd(OAc)_2$ as the pre-catalyst rather than with Pd_2dba_3 as the pre-catalyst (entry 21). Finally, little change in yield was observed when the reaction was conducted under conditions that were more dilute than those in entry 1 (entry 22).

We also sought to determine whether our newly developed catalytic dehydrosilylation of linear alkylsilanes could be conducted on the crude product of a chain-walking hydrosilylation to enable a one-pot isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins.^{4c-f,11} To do so, we reacted internal alkenes with varying geometries and with double bonds present at different positions along the chain with two equivalents of trichlorosilane in the presence of Speier's catalyst (0.1 mol%), evaporated the volatile materials, and subjected the crude reaction mixtures to conditions for dehydrosilylation.

The results in Table 2 show that this sequence leads to the conversion of 2-, 3-, and 4alkenes, as well as deeply embedded alkenes, to the terminal 1-isomers. Specifically, internal octenes **1c**, **1d**, and **1e** underwent isomerization to 1-octene (olefin **3c**) in good yields. The results with this set of octenes also show that both (*E*) and (*Z*) alkenes undergo the olefin transfer process. Moreover, translocation of the double bond over seven positions occurred in yields similar to those for transfer over fewer positions. Specifically, *trans*-7-tetradecene (olefin **1f**) underwent isomerization to form 1-tetradecene (olefin **3f**) in good yield.



Step 1: Internal olefin (1 mmol), HSiCl₃ (2.5 equiv), H₂PtCl₆ (0.1 mol% in 2 μ L isopropanol), 100 °C, 20 h, neat reaction, sealed vessel. Step 2: CsF (10 equiv), rt, 15 min, dioxane (1 mL), then BQ (3 equiv), Pd₂dba₃ (6 mol%), 140 °C, 12 h, dioxane (2 mL). Yields and regioselectivities were determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy.

Table 2. One-pot contra-thermodynamic isomerizations of internal olefins to α -olefins

As a new class of reaction, this oxidative dehydrosilylation does have several limitations that must be addressed for broad applicability. For example, β -branched silanes underwent dehydrosilylation in low yields, presumably because the additional steric bulk at the β position inhibited transmetalation. One long-term goal is the isomerization of alkenes in natural products, such as terpenes, which contain trisubstituted alkenes bearing methyl substituents. Such alkenes

would form β -branched silanes by chain-walking hydrosilylation. Thus, catalysts that undergo more rapid transmetalation would enable isomerization in such natural products, and the development of such catalysts is ongoing.

In addition, many common functional groups are incompatible with platinum-catalyzed chain-walking hydrosilylation with trichlorosilane because this silane is a powerful reducing agent, and Speier's catalyst is highly active. Thus, ketones and esters underwent reduction under the reaction conditions.^{7f,12} Olefins bearing tertiary amines also did not undergo the reaction, forming precipitates immediately upon addition of trichlorosilane at room temperature. Thus, chain-walking hydrosilylations with silanes other than trichlorosilane and with catalysts enabling milder conditions are needed and are currently being sought.

Nonetheless, the catalytic dehydrosilylation we have developed has several advantages over the iodinative dehydrosilylation we reported recently.⁵ The iodinative process occurs in two sequential steps (iodination and base-promoted elimination), while the catalytic dehydrosilylation reported here forms terminal olefins from alkylsilanes in a single step. In addition, the catalytic dehydrosilylation requires fewer equivalents of reagents than the iodinative process because the additional base-promoted elimination step of the iodinative process is not required. Further improvements to the atom efficiency of the new catalytic process are underway.

To elucidate the factors controlling the rate of the dehydrosilylation, preliminary mechanistic experiments connecting the identity of the silyl group to the rate of transmetalation were conducted (Scheme 2). Trialkoxysilane 2a' did not undergo palladium-catalyzed dehydrosilylation, even in the presence of a fluoride activator. However, unactivated trifluoroalkylsilanes and unactivated pentafluoroalkylsilicates are known to undergo Hiyama couplings with aryl and vinyl electrophiles in the presence of fluoride activators.^{8b-d} Trifluoroalkylsilanes are thought to form alkylpentafluorosilicates *in situ* prior to transmetalation and hexafluorosilicate salts after transmetalation.^{8c} We have verified that trifluorooctadecylsilane (2a''), prepared from alkylsilane 2a, undergoes dehydrosilylation under the reaction conditions in Table 1. Since the dehydrosilylation proceeds in low yields in the presence of a low number of equivalents of fluoride and gives no alkene in the absence of fluoride, alkylsilane 2a likely undergoes nucleophilic substitution with fluoride to form a pentafluorosilicate prior to transmetalation. These data point to strongly nucleophilic silanes,¹³ and silanes containing donating groups^{8e} as potential reagents for the chain-walking hydrosilylation that would dovetail with catalytic dehydrosilylation to create an olefin isomerization with broader scope.

$$C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} 0\% \text{ yield}$$

$$C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{Ca'}} Si(OMe_3) \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} 0\% \text{ yield}$$

$$C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} 3b$$

$$C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} 3b$$

$$C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} 0\% \text{ yield}$$

$$C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} 0\% \text{ yield}$$

$$C_{16}H_{33} \xrightarrow{\text{CsF, BQ}} 0\% \text{ yield}$$

Scheme 2. Preliminary studies on the effect of silane

On the basis of these data, we propose the catalytic cycle in Scheme 3 in which a trichloroalkylsilane undergoes nucleophilic substitution with fluoride to form a pentafluorosilicate, transmetalation of this species to palladium, followed by β -hydride

elimination, dissociation of alkene, and re-oxidation of palladium by benzoquinone to form the conjugate base of hydroquinone (HBQ⁻) and to regenerate the active catalyst, although the precise fate of the reduced BQ is not known. The identity of the ancillary ligands and the X groups on palladium are unknown. However, given the high concentration of fluoride in the system, the X groups on palladium are likely fluorides.



Scheme 3. Proposed catalytic cycle for the oxidative dehydrosilylation

4.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, we have developed the first catalytic dehydrosilylation of unactivated alkylsilanes and one of the few thermal reactions at an unactivated alkyl carbon-silicon bond besides oxidation to the alcohol.⁷⁻⁸ This catalytic functionalization involving an Si–C bond, when conducted in tandem with chain-walking hydrosilylation, provides a method to convert internal olefins to terminal olefins, involving the transposition of the alkene unit through multiple carbon units, in good yields and selectivities. More detailed mechanistic studies and systems to expand the scope of the reaction are the subject of ongoing studies.

4.4 Experimental

4.4.1 General information

All air-sensitive manipulations were conducted under an inert atmosphere in a nitrogenfilled glovebox or by standard Schlenk techniques. Unless stated otherwise, reagents and solvents were purchased from commercial suppliers and used without further purification. All NMR spectra were recorded at the University of California, Berkeley NMR facility. Proton-NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker AVB-400, AVQ-400, AV-500, and AV-600 instruments with operating frequencies of 400, 400, 500, and 600 MHz, respectively, and Carbon-13 NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AV-600 instrument with a ¹³C operating frequency of 151 MHz. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in ppm, relative to those of residual solvent signals (CDCl₃ δ = 7.26 for ¹H NMR spectra and δ = 77.16 for ¹³C NMR spectra). The following abbreviations were used in reporting NMR data: s, singlet; d, doublet; t, triplet; q, quartet; p, pentet; hept, heptet; m, multiplet. Crude reaction mixtures were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) on an Agilent 7890 GC equipped with an HP-5 column (25 m x 0.20 mm x 0.33 µm film) and an FID detector. Quantitative analysis by GC was conducted with hexadecane as an internal standard.

4.5.2 Development of conditions for oxidative dehydrosilylation (Table 1)



In a nitrogen-filled glovebox, an oven-dried 4 mL vial was charged with CsF (152 mg, 1.0 mmol) and a solution of octadecyltrichlorosilane (39.4 μ L, 0.1 mmol, 1 equiv) and hexadecane (29.3 μ L, 0.1 mmol, 1 equiv) in *p*-dioxane (100 μ L). The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 15 min. To this mixture were added *p*-dioxane (200 μ L), benzoquinone (32.4 mg, 0.3 mmol, 3 equiv), and Pd₂dba₃ (5.5 mg, 0.006 mmol, 6 mol%). The mixture was stirred at 140 °C for 15 min, cooled to room temperature, treated with aqueous sodium hydroxide (750 μ L), and diluted with diethyl ether (1 mL). The organic layer was filtered through a PTFE syringe filter and analyzed by gas chromatography. The regioselectivity of the reaction was determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy in CDCl₃.

4.5.3 Procedure for contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations (Table 2)

Step 1: Chain-Walking Hydrosilylation

In a nitrogen-filled glove box, an oven-dried, heavy-walled Schlenk flask with a single opening (5–10 mL) and containing a magnetic stir bar was charged with internal olefin (1 mmol, 1 equiv) and 1.0 μ L of a stock solution prepared by dissolving 100 mg H₂PtCl₆•6H₂O in 200 μ L of isopropanol (~0.5 mg H₂PtCl₆•6H₂O, 0.001 mmol, 0.1 mol%). The Schlenk flask was sealed with a Teflon plug, removed from the glove box, and cooled to 0 °C. Trichlorosilane (250 μ L, 2.50 mmol, 2.50 equiv) was added to the reaction mixture under N₂, and the Schlenk flask was sealed and heated at 100 °C for 20 h. The reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature and subjected to high vacuum (<1 torr) for 30 minutes to remove excess HSiCl₃. The Schlenk flask was then backfilled with N₂ and transferred to a nitrogen-filled glove box.

Step 2: Palladium-Catalyzed Dehydrosilylation

In a nitrogen-filled glovebox, the Schlenk flask was charged with *p*-dioxane (1 mL) and CsF (1.52 g, 10.0 mmol, 10.0 equiv). The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 15 min. To the mixture were added *p*-dioxane (2 mL), benzoquinone (324 mg, 3.00 mmol, 3.00 equiv), and Pd₂dba₃ (54.9 mg, 0.0599 mmol, 6 mol%). The mixture was stirred at 140 °C for 12 h, cooled to room temperature, and diluted with CDCl₃ (1 mL). Trichloroethylene (90.0 μ L, 1.00 mmol, 1.00 equiv), was added, and the mixture was stirred vigorously. The yield of the reaction was determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy with trichloroethylene as an internal standard. To determine the regioselectivity of the reaction, an aliquot was filtered through a plug of silica, eluted with pentane, and analyzed by ¹H NMR spectroscopy.
4.5.4 ¹H NMR spectra (Table 2)

For each reaction in Table 2, two spectra were recorded. One spectrum was recorded of the crude reaction, and one was recorded after passing the reaction through a plug of silica gel.





















4.4 References

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"Palladium-Catalyzed Oxidative Dehydrosilylation for Contra-Thermodynamic Olefin Isomerization"

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Chapter 5 Contra-Thermodynamic Olefin Isomerization by Chain-Walking Hydroboration and Dehydroboration

5.1 Introduction

Because internal olefins are more stable than terminal olefins, isomerizations of terminal olefins to internal olefins are exergonic and have been thoroughly investigated.¹ However, the reverse reaction, isomerization of an internal olefin to a terminal olefin, is endergonic and is much less explored than its exergonic counterpart. Typically, contra-thermodynamic, positional olefin isomerizations are conducted by allylic functionalization followed by defunctionalization with allylic transposition or by photodeconjugation.² These strategies enable translocation of a double bond, but by a maximum of one carbon unit and often require harsh conditions.

Only a small number of long-range (through at least two carbon units), contrathermodynamic olefin isomerizations have been reported.³ Typically, these reactions form terminal olefins in low yields, low selectivities, or both. Because long-range, contrathermodynamic olefin isomerizations could enable the valorization of mixtures of internal olefins formed by catalytic cracking of heavy vacuum gasoil to constitutionally pure terminal olefins or the late-stage derivatization of complex molecules containing internal olefins to analogues containing terminal olefins for the remote installation of functional groups, our group has worked to develop mild contra-thermodynamic, long-range olefin isomerizations.

We have reported strategies for conducting long-range, contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization chain-walking hydrofunctionalization, followed through by dehydrofunctionalization.⁴ Selectivity for terminal olefins is achieved by identifying conditions for chain-walking hydrofunctionalization with high n:iso ratios. In theory, many systems for chain-walking hydrofunctionalization could be coupled to dehydrofunctionalizations to design contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations.⁵ long-range, However. few dehydrofunctionalizations have been developed.⁶

In 2019, we published a one-pot process for the selective, long-range isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins by platinum-catalyzed, chain-walking hydrosilylation followed by a novel, formal dehydrosilylation (Scheme 1A).^{4b} We improved upon this process in 2020 by developing a catalytic version of the formal dehydrosilylation (Scheme 1B).^{4a} However, the substrate scope of each of these processes was limited due to the harsh conditions of the chain-walking hydrosilylation. Heteroatom-containing functional groups were not tolerated, and only hydrocarbons were competent substrates. In addition, large excesses of cesium fluoride and elevated temperatures were required to conduct both dehydrosilylation processes. Therefore, we sought to overcome these limitations by developing an isomerization sequence involving other chain-walking hydrofunctionalizations and dehydrofunctionalizations.

Conditions for chain-walking hydroboration are typically milder than those for chainwalking hydrosilylation with HSiCl₃ and Speier's catalyst. The chain-walking hydroboration of 4-octene to produce the pinacol ester of *n*-octylboronic acid was reported by Srebnik in 1996.⁷ Since this seminal report, many advances in the field of chain-walking hydroboration have been made.^{5g-k,7-8} We were particularly interested in several chain-walking hydroborations reported by Chirik (Scheme 1C),^{5i,5j,9} because the catalysts for these reactions are capable of walking through methine units and because the hydroborations are conducted with pinacol boronic esters, which are particularly mild reagents.

Dehydroboration of boronic esters or acids is a rare reaction. Alkylboranes undergo acceptorless dehydroborations as well as transfer dehydroborations with olefins and aldehydes.^{3a-c,10} However, alkylboranes are particularly reactive, and practical chain-walking hydroborations that produce terminal alkylboranes from internal olefins have not been reported. Therefore, we sought to develop a mild method for dehydroboration of alkylboronic esters. Meek and co-

workers have reported a dehydroboration of β -alkoxy-*gem*-dipinacolato-alkyboronic esters involving palladium catalysis,¹¹ but a dehydroboration of unactivated alkylboronic esters has not been developed.



Scheme 1. Development of a long-range, contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerization through hydroboration and dehydroboration

We envisioned that alkylboronic esters could undergo dehydroboration through a sequence comprising the activation of the boronic ester with a nucleophile, iodination, and basepromoted elimination (Scheme 1D). Until recently, iodinations of unactivated alkylboronic esters had only been reported with organolithiates as activating reagents.¹² In the course of our studies, Renaud and co-workers reported a method for the radical bromination of unactivated alkylboronic esters with benzenesulfonyl bromide as the halogenating reagent.^{12e} However, this reaction requires such di-*tert*-butylhyponitrite, reagents, as trimethylsilyl trifluoromethanesulfonate, methoxycatecholborane, and benzenesulfonyl bromide, and S-phenyl benzenethiosulfonate, that might be deactivated by reagents from the chain-walking hydroboration step or might interfere with the elimination step of the overall isomerization, and iodinations were not reported.

5.2 Results and discussion

We began the development of our isomerization by investigating the iodination of unactivated alkylboronic acid 2b (Table 1). We sought to identify a mild, inexpensive nucleophile capable of activating boronic esters for the desired cascade. After surveying a variety of nucleophiles (Table 1, entries 1-13), we identified potassium methoxide as a suitable candidate. We found that alkyl iodide **3a** formed in lower yields when the reaction was conducted with commercial KOMe than when the reaction was conducted with KOMe prepared

from free-flowing KH and anhydrous methanol (Table 1, entries 1-2, see SI for details) because commercial alkoxides often contain impurities, such as formate and water, that can decrease yields and selectivities of reactions.¹³ Little or no product formed in the presence of various other oxygen (entries 4-9), nitrogen (entries 10-11), or hydride bases (entry 13). However, alkyl iodide **3a** formed in 78% yield in the presence of CsF.

When the reaction was conducted with oxidants other than iodine, alkyl iodide **3a** formed in lower yields (entries 15-16). We discovered that adding an aliquot of KOtBu after the addition of I₂ further increased the yield of alkyl iodide **3a** (Table 1, entry 14) beyond that in entry 2 of Table 1. Temperature had little effect on the yield of alkyl iodide **3a** (Table 1, entries 17-20). Alkyl iodide **3a** formed in lower yields under more dilute conditions (Table 1, entry 21) than those in entry 14 of Table 1. Alkyl iodide **3a** formed in lower yields with greater equivalents of KOMe or of I₂ (Table 1, entries 23-24) than those in entry 14 of Table 1. A delicate balance of equivalents of these two reagents is likely required to ensure the formation of alkyl iodide **3a** in high yield due to the potential of iodine to oxidize potassium methoxide.

Bpin Nucleor	ohile; Oxi	dant 🔶 🍂	~_x
2a		9	3a
y Nucleophile	Oxidant	Temperature	Yield ^z
KOMe ^a	I_2	rt	50
KOMe ^b	I_2	rt	86
KOMe + 18-c-6	l ₂	rt	89
KO ^t Bu	l ₂	rt	29
KOEt	I ₂	rt	15
NaOMe	l ₂	rt	5
КОН	I ₂	rt	3
Cs_2CO_3	l ₂	rt	0
NaOAc	I_2	rt	0
LiNH ₂	l ₂	rt	8
KHMDS	I_2	rt	5
CsF	l ₂	rt	78
КН	I_2	rt	0
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^c	l ₂	rt	93
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^c	NIS	rt	37
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^c	NBS	rt	0
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^c	l ₂	50	88
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^c	l ₂	65	85
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^c	I_2	80	86
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^c	I ₂	100	77
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^{c, x}	I ₂	rt	81
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^{c, y}	I ₂	rt	63 ^p
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^{c, z}	I_2	rt	12
KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^t Bu ^{c, q}	I_2	rt	16
	Nucleop 9 Bpin Nucleophile KOMe ^a KOMe + 18-c-6 KO'Bu KOEt NaOMe KOH Cs2CO3 NaOAc LiNH2 KHMDS CsF KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO'Bu ^c	Nucleophile; Oxi 9 Bpin Oxidant 2a XOMe ^a I2 KOMe ^b I2 KOMe ^b I2 KOMe ^b I2 KOMe ^b I2 KOMe + 18-c-6 I2 KO ^b Bu I2 KO ^b Bu I2 KO ^b Bu I2 KOH I2 KOH I2 KOH I2 KOH I2 Cs ₂ CO ₃ I2 LiNH ₂ I2 CSF I2 KHMDS I2 CSF I2 KH I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ^f Bu ^c I2 </td <td>Nucleophile; Oxidant9Bpin2ayNucleophileKOMe^al2rtKOMe^bl2rtKOMe^bl2rtKOMe¹l2rtKOMel2rtKOMel2rtKOBl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOMe^b + 1.0 equiv KO⁶Bu^cl2rtKOMe^b + 1.0 equiv KO⁶Bu^cl250KOMe^b + 1.0 equiv KO⁶Bu^cl2100KOMe^b + 1.0 equiv KO⁶Bu^c.xl2rtKOMe^b + 1.0 equiv KO⁶Bu^{c.x}l2rtKOMe^b + 1.0 equiv KO⁶Bu^{c.x}l2rt</td>	Nucleophile; Oxidant9Bpin2ayNucleophileKOMe ^a l2rtKOMe ^b l2rtKOMe ^b l2rtKOMe ¹ l2rtKOMel2rtKOMel2rtKOBl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOHl2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^c l2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^c l250KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^c l2100KOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^c .xl2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^{c.x} l2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^{c.x} l2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^{c.x} l2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^{c.x} l2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^{c.x} l2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^{c.x} l2rtKOMe ^b + 1.0 equiv KO ⁶ Bu ^{c.x} l2rt

Conditions: Nucleophile (2 equiv), THF (100 μ L), 15 min, rt; Oxidant (2 equiv), THF (100 μ L), 15 min, rt; ^oCommercial bottle; ^{tp}Prepared form KH, see SI; ^cEntries 14-24: KO^BU (1 equiv), THF (100 μ L), added 15 min after l_2 , 15 min, rt, see SI for details; ^xAt low concentration; ^yLong reaction time; ^z4.0 equiv KOMe; ^pSome olefin formed by elimination; ^{v4.0} equiv k; ^zOetermined by GC



Having identified conditions for the iodination of alkylboronic ester 2a, we investigated the one-pot dehydroboration of alkylboronic ester 2a to produce terminal olefin 4a (Table 2). We conducted the elimination step with KO'Bu as the base. The dehydroboration sequence was conducted with the elimination step at various temperatures and with various equivalents of KO'Bu. We found that a minimum of 3 equivalents of KO'Bu were required to conduct the elimination, possibly due to the presence of excess iodine after the completion of the iodination. Regardless of the number of equivalents of KO'Bu used, the elimination step could be conducted at room temperature.

th	Bpin <u>1) KOM</u>	1) KOMe; I ₂ ; KO ^t Bu (1 equiv)		H	
9 2a	2) KO ^t l	Bu (XX equiv),	XX °C	9 4a	
Entry	KO ^t Bu (equiv)	Temp (°C)	Temperature	Yield	
1	6	rt	rt	89	
2	6	50	rt	94	
3	6	65	rt	93	
4	6	80	rt	84	
5	5	rt	rt	90	
6	5	50	rt	92	
7	5	65	rt	87	
8	5	80	rt	85	
9	4	rt	rt	92	
10	4	50	rt	91	
11	4	65	rt	79	
12	4	80	rt	87	
13	3	rt	rt	91	
14	3	50	rt	92	
15	3	65	rt	91	
16	3	80	rt	90	
17	0	rt	50	91 ^a	
18	0	50	65	91 ^a	
19	0	65	80	92 ^a	
20	0	80	100	92 ^a	

Step 1: KOMe (2 equiv), THF (100 μ L), 15 min, rt; I₂ (2 equiv), THF (100 μ L), 15 min, rt; KO^fBu (1 equiv), THF (100 μ L); 15 min, rt. Step 2: KO*f*Bu, 22 h, THF (200 μ L). ^aYield of alkvI iodide.

Table 2. Iodination and elimination of boronic ester 2a

We also conducted the iodination of β -branched alkylboronic ester **2b** to determine whether β branching inhibits the iodination process. We found that the iodination of alkylboronic ester **2b** occurred in lower yield than that of alkylboronic ester **2a**. However, repetition of the activation-iodination sequence significantly increased the yield. The combined yield of alkyl iodide **3b** and terminal olefin **4b** was 93% when the KOMe, I₂, and KO'Bu were added portionwise over two iterations (Scheme 2). The iodinated product could subsequently undergo base-promoted elimination to product **3b** with excess KO'Bu.



Scheme 2. Iodination and elimination of boronic ester 2b

We also sought to determine whether our newly developed catalytic dehydrosilylation of linear alkylsilanes could be conducted on the crude products of chain-walking hydroborations to enable one-pot, contra-thermodynamic, positional olefin isomerizations. Therefore, we conducted the dehydroboration of alkylboronic ester **2a** in the presence of various reagents used to conduct chain-walking hydroborations with catalysts **C1** and **C2** (Table 3). We found that HBpin and catalyst **C1** inhibit the dehydroboration process. Therefore, when conducting the dehydroboration portions of contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations, we added the KOMe, I_2 , and KO'Bu portionwise and in series over multiple iterations. As observed for the dehydroborations of pure β -branched boronic esters, the yields of dehydroborations conducted on the crude products of chain-walking hydroborations significantly increased upon adding the reagents portionwise in this fashion.

H	Bpin 1) KOMe; I ₂ ; KO ^t Bu (1 equiv)	H
9	2) KO ^t But	9 4a
Entry	deviation from conditions	Yield
1	none	90
2	added 0.1 equiv HBpin	86
3	added 0.5 equiv HBpin	67
4	added MTBE	85
5	added MTBE + 0.1 equiv HBPin	86
6	added MTBE + 0.5 equiv HBPin	64
7	added MTBE + C1	60
8	added MTBE + C1 + 0.5 equiv HBpin	43

Step 1: KOMe (2 equiv), THF (100 mL), 15 min, rt; I₂ (2 equiv), THF (100 mL), 15 min, rt; KO^tBu (1 equiv), THF (100 mL); 15 min, rt. Step 2: KO*t*Bu, 22 h, THF (200 mL). ^aYield of alkyl iodide.

Table 3. Iodination and elimination of boronic ester 2b in the presence of components of hydroboration reaction

Having developed conditions for the dehydroboration of alkylboronic esters, we conducted one-pot, contra-thermodynamic isomerizations of internal olefins to terminal olefins by conducting chain-walking hydroboration and subsequent dehydroboration. We initially investigated olefin isomerizations in which catalyst C1 was employed in the chain-walking hydroboration step (Scheme 3). We found that both hydrocarbon (olefins 1c, 1d, 1e, and 1f) and non-hydrocarbon (olefin 1g) linear internal olefins reacted in good yields with excellent regioselectivities. Translocation of the double bond proceeded over as many as seven carbon units (olefin 1f). Olefin 4f was isolated cleanly in 68% yield. Olefin 4g was also isolated in good yield and good selectivity for the terminal olefin.



(640 μ L). Step 2: KOMe (3 equiv), I_2 (3 equiv), KO'Bu (1.5 equiv), portionwise, 3 iterations; KO'Bu (5 equiv). Yields and regioselectivities were determined by ¹H NMR

spectroscopy.

Scheme 3. Contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations in the presence of catalyst C1

To conduct contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations in the presence of additional functional groups and on branched internal olefins, we also investigated chain-walking hydroborations catalyzed by complex C2. Chirik initially developed catalyst C2,⁵ⁱ in which the cobalt pre-catalyst contains 16 valence electrons, for hydroboration of functionalized terminal olefins and branched internal olefins. Catalyst C1 was subsequently determined to be more active than catalyst C2,^{5j} but catalyst C1 tolerates fewer functional groups than catalyst C2. The low functional-group tolerance of catalyst C1 presumably originates from the conversion of the pre-catalyst to a highly unsaturated cobalt boryl species containing 14 valence electrons that is deactivated by heteroatoms containing Lewis basic sites, such as oxygen lone pairs. Chirik also found that internal olefins in 6-membered rings often did not undergo hydroborations catlayzed by complex C1 because these olefins often reacted with the catalyst to form stable endocyclic π -allyl complexes.^{5j}

Thus, to achieve the olefin migrations of trisubstituted alkenes and alkenes containing an acetal group, we used complex **C2** as the catalyst for the chain-walking hydroboration step (Scheme 4). Indeed, we found that the overall isomerization occurred with tri-substituted internal olefins (olefin 1h), and we found that acetal groups were tolerated (olefin 1k). We have also developed a route to catalyst **C2** in 5 steps in 22% overall yield, which is two fewer steps than are reported in the literature. This route can be conducted on relatively large scales, and 2.74 g of the cobalt-chloride precursor were obtained (see SI for details).



Scheme 4. Contra-thermodynamic olefin isomerizations in the presence of catalyst C2

5.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, we have developed a novel dehydroboration that was combined with chain-walking hydroboration to create a long-range, contra-thermodynamic isomerization of internal olefins to terminal olefins. The dehydroboration and the overall olefin isomerization proceed at room temperature with a mild reagent for hydrofunctionalization and do not require fluoride bases. The substrate scope of the overall isomerization was expanded, relative to that of previous isomerizations that involve chain-walking hydrofunctionalization, to include heteroatom-bearing internal olefins.

5.4 Experimental

5.4.1 General methods and materials

All air-sensitive manipulations were conducted under an inert atmosphere in nitrogen-filled or argon-filled gloveboxes or by standard Schlenk techniques. All reagents were purchased from commercial suppliers and used as received unless otherwise stated. Potassium methoxide was prepared as described below. Crude reaction mixtures were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) on an Agilent 7890 GC equipped with an HP-5 column (25 m x 0.20 mm x 0.33 µm film) and an FID detector. Quantitative analysis by GC was conducted with dodecane as an internal standard. The products of catalytic reactions were purified by flash column chromatography with a Teledyne Isco CombiFlash[®] R_f system and RediSep R_f GoldTM columns. All NMR spectra were recorded at the University of California, Berkeley NMR facility. NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker AVB-400, AVQ-400, AV-500, and AV-600 instruments with operating frequencies of 400, 400, 500, and 600 MHz, respectively, and Carbon-13 NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AV-600 instrument with a ¹³C operating frequency of 151 MHz. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in ppm relative to those of residual solvent signals (CDCl₃ δ = 7.26 for ¹H NMR spectra and δ = 77.16 for ¹³C NMR spectra).

5.4.2 Preparation of Potassium Methoxide

In an argon-filled glovebox, a commercial dispersion of potassium hydride in mineral oil was washed thoroughly with copious pentane and dried over a frit to yield pure, free-flowing potassium hydride powder. In the glovebox, an oven-dried round-bottom flask was charged with free-flowing potassium hydride (8.02 g, 200 mmol, 1 equiv) and anhydrous THF (100 mL). Anhydrous methanol (9.72 mL, 240 mmol, 1.2 equiv) was added dropwise at room temperature with stirring in the glovebox. The reaction was stirred at room temperature in the glovebox for 24 h, at which time bubbling had mostly ceased. The reaction mixture was filtered over a frit, washed with copious THF (~500 mL), washed with copious pentane (~500 mL), and dried under vacuum. This material was used in dehydroboration reactions without further purification.



The following procedure was adapted from that of Thomas and coworkers.¹⁴ In a nitrogen-filled glovebox, an oven-dried 500 mL round-bottom flask equipped with a stir bar was charged with (2E)-*N*-[(*E*)-(2,6-diisopropylphenylimino)butan-2-ylidene]-2,6-diisopropylbenzenamine (2.43 g, 6.00 mmol, 1 equiv, prepared according to the literature¹⁴), anhydrous cobalt dichloride (779 mg, 6.00 mmol, 1 equiv), and THF (90 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 48 h and concentrated *in vacuo*. Diethyl ether (100 mL) was added. The resulting precipitate was collected by filtration and washed with diethyl ether (200 mL) to yield **S1** as a dark-green solid (2.91 g, 91% yield). The ¹H NMR spectrum matched that in the literature.¹⁴





The following procedure was adapted from that of Chirik and coworkers.^{5j} In a nitrogenfilled glovebox, a solution of $[(^{IPr}DI)CoCl_2]$ (**S1**, 2.15 g, 4.03 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in diethyl ether (60 mL) was prepared in a 250 mL round-bottom flask and cooled in a cold well in the drybox floor with a dry ice/acetone bath. A separate solution of LiCH₂SiMe₃ (4.0 mL, 1.0 M in pentane, 4.0 mmol, 1.0 equiv) in diethyl ether (30 mL) was chilled at -25 °C in a glovebox freezer and added dropwise with stirring over 40 min to the round-bottom flask containing the solution of $[(^{IPr}DI)CoCl_2]$. Throughout the 40 min addition of LiCH₂SiMe₃, the round-bottom flask was kept in the cold well cooled with a dry ice/acetone bath. The round-bottom flask was removed from the cold well and stirred at room temperature for 1 h. The reaction mixture was filtered, and the filtrate was concentrated *in vacuo*. The residue was washed with several small aliquots of cold pentane (approximately 30 mL total) and collected on a frit to yield **S2** as a dark-green powder (1.87 g, 93% yield). This material is paramagnetic, and a ¹H NMR spectrum was not recorded. This material was converted to catalyst **C1** without further purification. $[(^{IPr}DI)Co(\eta^3-C_3H_5)](C1)$



The following procedure was adapted from that of Chirik and coworkers.^{5j} In a nitrogenfilled glovebox, a solution of $[(^{Pr}DI)CoCl]_2$ (**S2**, 1.87 g, 1.87 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in diethyl ether (140 mL) was prepared in a 500 mL round-bottom flask and cooled in a cold well in the drybox floor with a dry ice/acetone bath. A solution of allylmagnesium chloride (1.87 mL, 2.0 M in THF, 3.74 mmol, 2.0 equiv) in diethyl ether (30 mL) was added dropwise with stirring over 15 min to the round-bottom flask containing the solution of $[(^{Pr}DI)CoCl_2]$. Throughout the 15 min addition of allylmagnesium chloride, the round-bottom flask was kept in the cold well cooled with a dry ice/acetone bath. The round-bottom flask was removed from the cold well and stirred at room temperature for 80 min. The reaction mixture was filtered, and the filtrate was concentrated *in vacuo* to yield **C1** as a dark-blue-green solid (1.60 g, 85% yield). This material was used in catalytic reactions without further purification. The ¹H NMR spectrum matched that in the literature.^{5j}

5.4.4 Synthesis of Catalyst C2 2,6-Dibromo-4-(1-pyrrolidinyl)-pyridine (S3)



The following procedure was adapted from that of Kanbara and coworkers.¹⁵

In an argon-filled glovebox, pure, free-flowing sodium hydride (3.60 g, 150 mmol, 3.06 equiv, the commercial 60% dispersion in mineral oil was washed thoroughly with pentane to obtain the pure powder) and DMF (100 mL) were added to an oven-dried 500 mL round bottom flask. The flask was capped with a septum, removed from the glovebox, and cooled in an ice bath. A solution, prepared in the glovebox, of 2,6-dibromo-4-nitropyridine (13.8 g, 49.1 mmol, 1 equiv) in DMF (40 mL) was added dropwise with stirring at 0 °C under a flow of nitrogen. Pyrrolidine (4.20 mL, 49.9 mmol, 1.02 equiv) was added dropwise with stirring at 0 °C under a flow of nitrogen. The mixture was stirred at 0 °C for approximately 2 h before the ice melted. After the ice melted, the mixture was stirred for an additional 15 h at room temperature. The resulting mixture was cooled in the same ice bath and carefully quenched with water (40 mL) under a flow of nitrogen. An additional 200 mL of water was added, and the mixture was extracted into ethyl acetate (300 mL, 2x then 150 mL, 5x). Note: conducting the extraction with large solvent volumes was preferable to using smaller solvent volumes with salts and/or brine added to the aqueous layer because the latter method does not remove as much DMF as the former method. The combined extracts were concentrated *in vacuo* to a volume of approximately 500 mL, washed with brine (100 mL, 1x) to remove residual DMF, dried over sodium sulfate, and concentrated in vacuo to give a dark-red solid, which was recrystallized from hot ethyl acetate. Note: on smaller scales, recrystallization is unnecessary. The mother liquor was concentrated and purified by flash column chromatography on silica gel (~80 g silica, gradient elution: $5 \rightarrow 20\%$ ethyl acetate/hexane) to afford S3 (8.87 g, 59% yield) as a pink, crystalline solid. The ¹H NMR spectrum matched that in the literature.¹⁵

2,6-Diacetyl-4-(1-pyrrolidinyl)-pyridine S4



The following procedure was adapted from that of Kobata and coworkers.¹⁶

In a argon-filled glovebox (nitrogen-filled glovebox also acceptable), an oven-dried 120 mL pressure tube (selected due to buildup of CO₂ from NaHCO₃ and of ethanol vapor) was sequentially charged with dppp (441 mg, 1.07 mmol, 10.7 mol%), Pd(OAc)₂ (180 mg, 0.800 mmol, 8.00 mol%), thoroughly degassed ethanol (20 mL), 2,6-dibromo-4-(1-pyrrolidinyl)pyridine (S3, 3.06 g, 10.0 mmol, 1.00 equiv), thoroughly degassed butyl vinyl ether (10.6 mL, 81.9 mmol, 8.19 equiv, and NaHCO_3 (5.04 g, 60.0 mmol, 6.00 equiv). The reaction mixture was heated at 120 °C for 24 h. The reaction was monitored by GCMS, with aliquots removed at room temperature inside an argon-filled glovebox. Upon completion of the reaction after 24 h (no starting material or mono-Heck products detected), the reaction mixture was filtered and washed with ethanol (140 mL). Aqueous HCl (6 M, 30 mL, 180 mmol, 18.0 equiv) was added to the filtrate, and the mixture was stirred at room temperature. The progress of the hydrolysis was monitored by GCMS. Upon completion of the reaction after 24 h, the reaction mixture was concentrated to a volume of approximately 70 mL. Sodium hydroxide (6 M, ~500 mL) was added until a pH of 13 was reached, and the reaction mixture was extracted into ethyl acetate (5x, 150 mL). The combined extracts were recrystallized from hot ethyl acetate (note: on smaller scales recrystallization is unnecessary), and the mother liquor was purified by flash column chromatography on silica gel (~60 g silica, gradient elution: $10 \rightarrow 25\%$ ethyl acetate/hexane) to afford S4 (1.28 g, 55% yield) as a white solid. The ¹H NMR spectrum matched that in the literature.¹⁶

4-pyrr-^{Mes}PDI (S5)



The following procedure was adapted from that of Chirik and coworkers.⁵ⁱ

In an argon-filled glovebox, 2,6-diacetyl-4-(1-pyrrolidinyl)-pyridine (**S4**, 1.28 g, 5.52 mmol, 1.00 equiv), toluene (65 mL, dry and degassed), 2,4,6-trimethylaniline (1.86 mL, 13.3 mmol, 2.40 equiv) and *p*-toluenesulfonic acid (7.4 mg, 0.039 mmol, 7.1 mol%) were added to an ovendried 250 mL round-bottom flask. The flask was capped with a septum, removed from the glovebox, placed under a positive flow of nitrogen, fitted with a Dean-Stark apparatus, and heated at 130 °C for 48 h. The reaction was monitored by GCMS. The mixture was concentrated by rotary evaporation outside of the glovebox, and the resulting residue was brought back into the glovebox and washed with a minimal amount of anhydrous methanol (9 mL total, ~1 mL aliquots at a time) to yield **S5** (2.20 g, 85% yield) as a brown solid. The ¹H NMR spectrum matched that in the literature.⁵ⁱ



The following procedure was adapted from that of Chirik and coworkers.⁵ⁱ In an argon-filled glovebox, 4-pyrr-^{Mes}PDI (**S5**, 2.20 g, 4.70 mmol, 1.00 equiv), THF (dry, degassed, 100 mL), and CoCl₂ (0.611 g, 4.70 mmol, 1.00 equiv) were added to an oven-dried 250 mL round-bottom flask and stirred at room temperature for 24 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo, and the residue was washed with diethyl ether (~60 mL) to afford S6 (2.74 g, 98% yield) as a bright, green powder. The ¹H NMR spectrum matched that in the literature.⁵ⁱ



The following procedure was adapted from that of Chirik and coworkers.⁵ⁱ

In a nitrogen-filled glovebox, a solution of $[(4-pyrr-^{Mes}PDI)CoCl_2]$ (**S6**, 500 mg, 0.838 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in dry, degassed toluene (30 mL) in a 100 mL round-bottom flask was cooled in a cold well with a dry ice/acetone bath. A solution of methyllithium (1.05 mL of a 1.6 M solution in Et₂O, 1.676 mmol, 2.00 equiv) additionally diluted with 3.0 mL diethyl ether was added dropwise with stirring while the flask was in the cold well. A color change from light green to blue-green was observed. The reaction mixture was stirred for 30 min in the cold well, removed from the cold well, stirred for 2.5 h at room temperature, filtered, and concentrated *in vacuo* to afford **C2** (370 mg, 82%). as a dark blue/purple solid. This material was used for catalytic reactions without further purification. The ¹H NMR spectrum matched that in the literature.⁵ⁱ **Overall yield: 59% × 55% × 85% × 98% × 82% = 22% over 5 steps**

5.4.5 Synthesis of olefins (Z)-((Hex-4-en-1-yloxy)methyl)benzene (1g)

BnO Olefin **1g** was synthesized according to the literature.¹⁷

Methyl dodec-10-enoate (S7)



Under nitrogen, ethyl triphenylphosphonium bromide (4.83 g, 13.0 mmol, 1.3 equiv) was dissolved in dry THF (125 mL) in a flame-dried round-bottom flask and cooled to 0 °C. Potassium *tert*-butoxide (1.40 g 12.5 mmol, 1.25 equiv) was added in one portion. The solution immediately turned bright orange and was stirred at 0 °C for an additional 30 min. A solution of methyl 9-formylnonoate (2.00 g, 10 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in dry THF (10 mL) was added dropwise over 5 min at 0 °C, and the resulting canary yellow solution was stirred at 0 °C for an additional 45 minutes, at which point TLC confirmed complete consumption of starting material. The reaction mixture was diluted with diethyl ether (25 mL) and quenched by adding saturated NH₄Cl (50 mL). The organic layer was separated, and the aqueous layer was washed with diethyl ether (3 x 25 mL). The combined organic extracts were washed with brine, dried over Na₂SO₄, concentrated *in vacuo*, eluted through a 20 g silica plug with 5% EtOAc/hexanes, and concentrated *in vacuo* to afford **S7** as a colorless oil (1.95 g, 92%). The product was used without further purification. $R_F = 0.50-0.56$ in 6% EtOAc/hexanes.

N-Methoxy-N-methyldodec-10-enamide (S8)



Under nitrogen, *N*,*O*-dimethylhydroxylamine hydrochloride (977 mg, 16.0 mmol, 2.00 equiv) was suspended in dry THF (9.50 mL) in a flame-dried round-bottom flask and cooled to -78 °C. *n*-Butyllithium (2.5 M in hexanes, 6.40 mL, 32.0 mmol, 2.60 equiv) was added dropwise with stirring to the suspension. The dry ice bath was removed, and the resulting pale-yellow solution was allowed to warm to room temperature for 15 minutes. The solution was cooled again to -78 °C, and a solution of methyl (E/Z)-dodec-10-enoate (**S7**, 1.70 g, 8.00 mmol, 1.00 equiv) in THF (5.00 mL) was added. The solution was stirred for 3.5 hours, diluted with diethyl ether (10 mL), and quenched with saturated NH₄Cl (10 mL). The organic layer was collected, and the aqueous phase was extracted into diethyl ether (3 x 25 mL). The combined organic extracts were washed with brine, dried over Na₂SO₄, concentrated *in vacuo*, and purified by flash column chromatography on silica gel (50 g silica 15-20% ethyl acetate/hexanes) to yield pure **S8** as a colorless oil (1.26 g, 65%). The product was used without further purification. R_F = 0.27 (20% EtOAc/hexanes).

Hexadec-14-en-5-one (S9) $Me \underbrace{\bigvee_{N \to 0}^{O} Me}_{OMe} Me \underbrace{\xrightarrow{n_{BuLi} (1.1 \text{ equiv})}_{Et_2O, -78^{\circ}C}}_{n_{Bu} \to \infty} Me$

Weinreb amide **S8** (483 mg, 2.00 mmol, 1.00 equiv) was dissolved in dry diethyl ether (15 mL) and cooled to -78 °C, and *n*-butyllithium (2.5 M in hexanes, 880 μ L, 2.20 mmol, 1.10 equiv) was added dropwise with stirring. The starting material was consumed after 20 min, as indicated by TLC. The reaction was quenched with saturated NH₄Cl (10 mL). The organic layer was separated, and the aqueous layer extracted into diethyl ether (3 x 10 mL). The combined organic extracts were washed with brine, dried over Na₂SO₄, concentrated *in vacuo*, and purified by flash column chromatography (10 g silica, 10% ethyl acetate/hexanes) to afford pure **S9** as a colorless oil (468 mg, 98% yield). The product was used without further purification. R_F = 0.60 (10% EtOAc/hexanes).

2-Butyl-2-(undec-9-en-1-yl)-1,3-dioxolane (1k)



In a round-bottom flask, ketone **S9** (193.5, 0.812 mmol, 1.00 equiv) was dissolved in toluene (5 mL). TsOH·H₂O (20 mg, 0.1 equiv), ethylene glycol (45.4 μ L, 0.812 mmol, 1.00 equiv), and triethyl orthoformate (582 μ L, 2.44 mmol, 3.00 equiv) were added. The solution was stirred at room temperature for 1 hour, becoming orange-brown in color, and the solvent was removed at 40 °C with rotary evaporation (note: care was taken to avoid exposure of the product to water, which hydrolyzes the ketal). The reaction mixture was purified by flash column chromatography (dry loaded with 4 g basic alumina onto a 30 g silica column, eluted with 10% EtOAc/hexanes) to afford **4** as a pale-yellow oil (225 mg, 98.3% yield). The product was used without further purification. $R_F = 0.60$ (10% EtOAc/hexanes; the same as ketone **S9**).

5.4.6 General procedures for olefin isomerizations

Step 1: Hydroboration

In an argon-filled glovebox, olefin (dried over anhydrous MgSO₄ and sparged with argon for 30 minutes), solvent (640 μ L), and HBpin (1.05 equiv) were added to an oven-dried 20 mL vial equipped with a stir bar. The hydroboration catalyst was then added as a solid with stirring (Note: deviations from this order of addition lead to lower yields. The hydroboration catalyst must be added after olefin and HBpin are already present in the reaction mixture). The reaction mixture was stirred at the specified temperature for the specified reaction time.

Step 2: Dehydroboration

In an argon-filled glovebox, potassium methoxide (0.640 mmol, prepared by above procedure) and THF (640 μ L) were added to the reaction mixture, the reaction mixture was stirred for 5 min at room temperature, a solution of iodine (0.640 mmol) in THF (640 μ L) was added, the reaction mixture was stirred for an additional 5 min at room temperature, a solution of potassium *tert*-butoxide (0.320 mmol) in THF (320 μ L) was added, and the reaction was stirred for a third 5 minute period at room temperature. This procedure of sequentially adding KOMe and THF, a solution of I₂ in THF, and a solution of KO*t*Bu in THF was repeated 3-4 times, as specified for each reaction. After the addition of each reagent, the vial was shaken vigorously. Potassium *tert*-butoxide (5-6 equiv, as specified for each reaction) and THF (1280 μ L) were added for the elimination, and the reaction was stirred at room temperature for 20 h at room temperature. The reaction mixture was diluted with CDCl₃ (15 mL, dropwise addition with rapid stirring), and trichloroethylene (57.5 μ L, 0.640 mmol, 1.00 equiv) was added. The reaction mixture was vigorously shaken, an aliquot was filtered, and a crude ¹H NMR spectrum was recorded.

5.4.7 Isomerization of olefins 1-Octene $(1c \rightarrow 4c)$

Prepared from 2-octene (mixture of *E* and *Z* isomers, 99.8 μ L, 0.640 mmol) according to the general procedure with catalyst **C1** (6.5 mg, 2 mol%) as the hydroboration catalyst. The hydroboration was conducted at room temperature for 24 h. The iodination was conducted with 3 additions of KOMe, I₂, and KO(*t*-Bu) before the final elimination with 5 equiv KO(*t*-Bu). ¹H NMR Yield: 82%, no isomers detected

1-Octene $(1d \rightarrow 4c)$

Prepared from (*E*)-3-octene (100.3 μ L, 0.640 mmol) according to the general procedure with catalyst **C1** (6.5 mg, 2 mol%) as the hydroboration catalyst. The hydroboration was conducted at room temperature for 24 h. The iodination was conducted with 3 additions of KOMe, I₂, and KO(*t*-Bu) before the final elimination with 5 equiv KO(*t*-Bu).

¹H NMR Yield: 77%, no isomers detected

1-Octene $(1e \rightarrow 4c)$

Prepared from *cis*-4-octene (99.9 μ L, 0.640 mmol) according to the general procedure with catalyst **C1** (6.5 mg, 2 mol%) as the hydroboration catalyst. The hydroboration was conducted at room temperature for 24 h. The iodination was conducted with 3 additions of KOMe, I₂, and KO(*t*-Bu) before the final elimination with 5 equiv KO(*t*-Bu). ¹H NMR Yield: 51%, no isomers detected

1-Tetradecene (1f \rightarrow 4f)

 C_6H_{13} C_5H_{11} C_9H_{19}

Prepared from *trans*-7-tetradecene (164.5 μ L, 0.640 mmol) according to the general procedure with catalyst **C1** (6.5 mg, 2 mol%) as the hydroboration catalyst. The hydroboration was conducted at room temperature for 24 h. The iodination was conducted with 3 additions of KOMe, I₂, and KO(*t*-Bu) before the final elimination with 5 equiv KO(*t*-Bu).

¹H NMR Yield: 81%, no isomers detected

Isolation of Olefin **4f**: The NMR sample and crude reaction mixture were combined and carefully diluted with water (100 mL), and the resulting mixture was extracted with pentane (3 x 100 mL). The pentane layer was washed with 2 M sodium thiosulfate (3 x 100 mL) and brine (1 x 150 mL), dried over sodium sulfate, and carefully concentrated *in vacuo* to afford a paleyellow liquid. Column chromatography on silica gel (60 g) with isocratic pentane followed by careful concentration *in vacuo* afforded pure 1-tetradecene as a clear oil (85.5 mg, 68% isolated yield). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 5.86 (ddt, *J* = 16.9, 10.2, 6.7 Hz, 1H), 5.04 (dq, *J* = 17.1, 1.8 Hz, 1H), 4.97 (dq, *J* = 10.2, 1.4 Hz, 1H), 2.08 (tdd, *J* = 8.0, 6.1, 1.5 Hz, 2H), 1.30 (s, 17H), 0.92 (t, *J* = 6.8 Hz, 3H).

((Hex-5-en-1-yloxy)methyl)benzene $(1g \rightarrow 4g)$

BnO

BnO

Prepared from (*Z*)-((hex-4-en-1-yloxy)methyl)benzene (85.8 μ L, 0.640 mmol) according to the general procedure with catalyst **C1** (10.4 mg, 3 mol%) as the hydroboration catalyst. The hydroboration was conducted at room temperature for 72 h. The iodination was conducted with 3 additions of KOMe, I₂, and KO(*t*-Bu) before the final elimination with 5 equiv KO(*t*-Bu). ¹H NMR Yield: 64%, 77:23 terminal:internal

Isolation of Olefin **4g**: The NMR sample and crude reaction mixture were combined and carefully diluted with water (100 mL), and the resulting mixture was extracted with pentane (3 x 100 mL). The pentane layer was washed with 2 M sodium thiosulfate (3 x 100 mL) and brine (1 x 150 mL), dried over sodium sulfate, and carefully concentrated *in vacuo* to afford a paleyellow liquid. Column chromatography on silica gel (60 g) with a gradient of $0 \rightarrow 5\%$ ether/pentane followed by careful concentration *in vacuo* afforded olefin XX as a clear oil (95.4 mg, 77:23 mixture of terminal:internal olefins, 60% yield of terminal olefin). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 7.41 – 7.37 (m, 1H), 5.85 (ddt, *J* = 16.9, 10.2, 6.7 Hz, 0H), 5.05 (dq, *J* = 17.1, 1.7 Hz, 0H), 4.99 (ddt, *J* = 10.2, 2.2, 1.2 Hz, 0H), 4.55 (s, 0H), 3.60 – 3.48 (m, 1H), 2.17 – 2.06 (m, 0H), 1.80 – 1.59 (m, 1H).

Vinylcyclohexane $(1h \rightarrow 4h)$



Prepared from ethylidene cyclohexane (85.8 μ L, 0.640 mmol) according to the general procedure with catalyst **C2** (10.4 mg, 3 mol%) as the hydroboration catalyst. The hydroboration was conducted at room temperature for 24 h. The iodination was conducted with 4 additions of KOMe, I₂, and KO(*t*-Bu) before the final elimination with 6 equiv KO(*t*-Bu). ¹H NMR Yield: 56%, no isomers detected

2-Butyl-2-(undec-10-en-1-yl)-1,3-dioxolane $(1k \rightarrow 4k)$

Prepared from 2-butyl-2-(undec-9-en-1-yl)-1,3-dioxolane (90.4 mg, 0.320 mmol) according to the general procedure with catalyst **C2** (12.1 mg, 7.0 mol%) as the hydroboration catalyst. The hydroboration was conducted at 50 °C for 96 h. The iodination was conducted with 3 additions of KOMe, I₂, and KO(*t*-Bu) before the final elimination with 5 equiv KO(*t*-Bu).

¹H NMR Yield: 68%, 86:14 terminal:internal

Isolation of Olefin **4k**: The NMR sample and crude reaction mixture were combined and carefully diluted with water (100 mL), and the resulting mixture was extracted with pentane (3 x 100 mL). The pentane layer was washed with 2 M sodium thiosulfate (3 x 100 mL) and brine (1 x 150 mL), dried over sodium sulfate, and carefully concentrated *in vacuo* to afford a paleyellow liquid. Column chromatography on silica gel (60 g) with a gradient of $0 \rightarrow 15\%$ ether/pentane followed by careful concentration *in vacuo* afforded olefin **4k** as a yellow oil (62.3 mg, 86:14 mixture of terminal:internal olefins, 59% yield of terminal olefin). ¹H NMR (500 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 4.99 (d, J = 17.1 Hz, 1H), 4.92 (d, J = 10.3 Hz, 1H), 3.92 (s, 5H), 2.03 (m, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 1.59 (dt, J = 11.9, 4.1 Hz, 5H), 1.40 – 1.24 (m, 26H), 0.89 (m, J = 5.6, 4.2 Hz, 5H).


5.4.8 NMR spectra of olefin isomerizations



















5.5 References

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Chapter 6

Chemical Recycling of Polyethylene by Dehydrogenation and Isomerizing Ethenolysis

6.1 Introduction

Since the inception of the plastics industry in the 1950s, approximately 8.3 billion tonnes of plastic have been produced.¹ Plastic goods have since emerged as staples of the global economy and have improved living standards in developed countries. Approximately 380 million tonnes of plastics were produced in 2015, and production of plastic goods will only continue to rise as economies and populations grow. Inextricable from the production of plastic goods is the accumulation of plastics in ecosystems. The vast majority of plastic waste has accumulated in landfills, and between 4.8 and 12.7 million tonnes of plastics enter the world's oceans annually.² It is estimated that by 2050, approximately 12 billion tonnes of plastic will be present in landfills and oceans if current economic and policy trends continue.¹

Approximately 9% of plastics produced since 1950 have been recycled, and approximately half of all plastics are designated for short-term use.¹ This disparity originates from the high cost of recycling single-use plastics, relative to that of sourcing virgin plastics from crude oil. Plastics that are recycled must first be collected, sorted, transported to a recycling facility, and washed. Mechanical downcycling of such waste involves further grinding and extrusion to form materials with physical properties that are inferior to those of virgin materials.³

Polyethylene (PE) is the largest single component of plastics waste (36% by mass).¹ Only 6.2% of linear low-density polyethylene (LLDPE) and low-density polyethylene (LDPE), and only 10.3% of high-density polyethylene (HDPE), are recycled. Several methods for chemical recycling of PE have been proposed. Thermal depolymerization of PE to ethylene is not economically viable because this reaction requires exceedingly high temperatures (Scheme 1A).⁴ Thermal cracking⁵ and catalytic cracking⁶ of polyethylene produces complex, low-value mixtures of coke, gases, arenes, napthenes, and olefins (Scheme 1B). Nevertheless, Brightmark Energy has constructed a \$260 million plant for the conversion of mixed polyolefins to naptha and diesel that will commence operations in early 2022.⁷ Hydrocracking (Scheme 1C)⁸ and alkane metathesis (Scheme 1D)⁹ of PE produce light paraffins with good chemoselectivities, but the costs of conducting these reactions on PE waste far exceed those of recovering and refining crude oil to produce the same products. Distributions of liquid alkylarenes, and alkylnapthenes with average total carbon number = C₃₄ and dispersity = 1.1 can be produced at moderate temperatures by tandem hydrogenolysis-aromatization (Scheme 1E).¹⁰ However, the demand for these specialized compounds is much smaller than the amount of PE waste produced annually.



Scheme 1. Chemical recycling of polyethylene

For chemical recycling^{3-6,8-11} to contribute significantly to the development of a closedloop PE economy, the products should be valuable commodity chemicals for which demand approaches the supply of PE waste. Olefins are significantly more valuable than paraffins. A method for the selective and inexpensive production of olefins from polyethylene would provide a significant economic incentive for the recycling of polyethylene.

One olefin that could be produced from PE is propene. Approximately 98.2 tonnes of propene were produced in 2016.¹² Propene is mostly produced as a byproduct of steam cracking or fluid catalytic cracking; however, since the 1990s, propene has increasingly been produced "on-purpose" through methanol-to-olefins technology, propane dehydrogenation, and the conproportionation of butene and ethylene.¹² Propene can be used to produce polypropylene (PP) and many other commodity chemicals, such as isopropanol, acrylonitrile, propylene oxide, cumene, and acrylic acid.¹² Propene also readily undergoes disproportionation to ethylene, which can be used to recycle more polyethylene, and butenes, which can be used to manufacture commodity chemicals, sulfur-free gasoline, and polymers.¹³

Polyethylene is saturated, so olefins can be produced from polyethylene only by cleavage of either C–C or C–H bonds. To cleave C–C bonds, catalytic cracking can be conducted over acidic sites. ^{6,9b,13b} This reaction produces complex mixtures of olefins, naphthenes, aromatics, coke, and gases. To cleave C–H bonds, dehydrogenation can be conducted in the presence of homogeneous¹⁴ or heterogeneous¹⁵ catalysts. This reaction produces polymers with alkene sites.

While dehydrogenation does not directly convert polyethylene into small molecules, subsequent cleavage of the double bond could lead to the formation of smaller molecules. Double bonds can be cleaved oxidatively or through olefin metathesis, a reaction that involves the redistribution of the substituents about the double bonds of two olefins. If olefin metathesis of dehydrogenated polyethylene were conducted with a small olefin, such as ethylene, propylene, or butenes, the resulting cross metathesis products would have a significantly lower average molecular weight than the starting polymer. This reaction could constitute a first step towards

unraveling the polymer into small-molecule commodity chemicals; however, no subsequent reactions that would significantly decrease average molecular weight would be expected to occur. If ethylene were selected as the cross-metathesis partner, the products of the initial cross metathesis would be long-chain α -olefins, which could undergo only degenerate metatheses.^{9a,16}

In contrast, a combination of isomerization and metathesis with ethylene could form light alkenes. The isomerization of α -olefins to internal olefins is thermodynamically favorable.¹⁷ The internal olefins that form from dehydrogenated PE after a combination of ethenolysis and isomerization could undergo subsequent, nondegenerate metatheses with ethylene to produce propene and other short α -olefins, and this sequence could repeat to fully unravel the long-chain alkene, which was generated from polyethylene, to propene (Scheme 2).



Scheme 2. Reaction design for conversion of polyethylene to propene

The tandem-orthogonal, i.e., simultaneous integration of, ethenolysis and olefin isomerization is known as isomerizing ethenolysis;¹⁸ this transformation has been applied to the synthesis of styrenes from allylbenzenes^{18f} and to the conversion of fatty-acid esters to defined distributions of olefin products (Scheme 3).^{18e} If isomerizing ethenolysis could be conducted at the alkene sites formed after dehydrogenation of polyethylene, then the polymer would be unraveled to propene. We report the realization of this strategy for the chemical recycling of polyethylene by the combination of dehydrogenation and isomerizing ethenolysis to form propene as the sole product of the depolymerization process (Scheme 2). Propene is easily separated from the liquid phase and results from selective isomerization of 1-alkenes to 2-alkenes due to faster rates for metathesis than further isomerization. Overall, this use of polyethylene as a source of methylene units shows a new way to convert this polymer to a valuable commodity chemical.



Scheme 3. Selected examples of isomerizing ethenolysis

6.2 Results and discussion

To initiate the envisioned cascade of isomerizing ethenolysis to form propene from an alkene generated from polyethylene, we first needed to identify processes to form alkenes from polyethylene. To do so, we conducted three types of dehydrogenations: transfer dehydrogenations at low temperatures in the presence of homogeneous catalysts, acceptorless dehydrogenations at high temperatures in the presence of heterogeneous catalysts, and multistep, net dehydrogenations by a combination of iodination and base-promoted elimination. The dehydrogenation of LDPE to a polymer containing 4.4% double bonds in the presence of an iridium-pincer catalyst was reported by Goldman in 2004 (Scheme 4).^{14a-c} However, all homogeneous dehydrogenations we have conducted thus far have not produced alkenes from polyethylene. No triplet resonance for an alkene unit within polyethylene has been observed from reaction of these catalyst with norbornene and LDPE. More experiments are needed to investigate this mode of dehydrogenation.





An alternative method for dehydrogenation involves the direct extrusion of H₂ at high temperatures (acceptorless dehydrogenation) over heterogeneous catalysts. Medium-length *n*-paraffins are commonly dehydrogenated by UOP's Oleflex process, which relies on Pt/Sn catalysts.^{15a,15b} We dehydrogenated LDPE (M_n = 2,657 g/mol) over a heterogeneous, Oleflex-type Pt/Sn/Al₂O₃ catalyst (20 wt% catalyst, relative to PE) at 330 °C under a flow of argon for 21 h, resulting in a polymer containing 0.20% monoene double bonds (Scheme 5). These double bonds were identified by the presence of two triplets in the ¹H NMR spectrum corresponding to the *cis* and *trans* isomers in a 2:1 ratio.



Scheme 5. Dehydrogenation of LDPE over an Oleflex-type Pt/Sn catalyst

In addition to transfer dehydrogenations and acceptorless dehydrogenations, we conducted a net dehydrogenation of HDPE by a one-pot iodination of the polyethylene C-H bonds and base-promoted elimination (Scheme 6). The iodination step was conducted with I₂ and NaO'Bu, and the base-promoted elimination step was conducted with NaO'Bu.¹⁹ The dehydrogenated polymer from iodination and elimination contained 0.59% monoene internal olefinic protons by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. Again, these double bonds were identified by the presence of two triplets in the ¹H NMR spectrum, in this case in a 4:1 ratio. In addition, 0.18% terminal olefinic protons were detected by ¹H NMR spectroscopy.





In addition to dehydrogenation, catalytic cracking at high temperatures in oxygen-free atmospheres is known to produce olefins from paraffins. We sought to crack HDPE to olefins by heating a mixture of HDPE and the same $Pt/Sn/Al_2O_3$ catalyst at higher temperatures than were used for dehydrogenation. This mixture was heated at 450 °C for 2 h and filtered to yield a mixture consisting mostly of olefins and arenes (Scheme 7). By ¹H NMR spectroscopy, this mixture contained 2.0% olefin protons (0.27% terminal olefin protons and 1.73% internal olefin protons) and a smaller 0.38% of arene protons. The arene-olefin mixture is waxy and is readily soluble in chloroform at room temperature.

	HDPE - (M _n = 30,029)	Pt/Sn (5 wt%)	Olefins		Arenes
		sealed tube, under Ar 450 °C	1.7% olefinic protons, ¹ H NMR	+	0.4% aromatic protons, ¹ H NMR
Catalytic grading of HDDE over a Dt/Sp actalyst					



Having established methods for the installation of olefinic units into polyethylene by dehydrogenation or catalytic cracking, we investigated conditions for the isomerizing ethenolysis of the resulting material. A long-chain α -olefin would result from ethenolysis of the internal alkenes in these materials. Thus, we conducted a proof-of-concept study by testing catalysts for the isomerizing ethenolysis of the model α -olefin 1-octadecene. The M720 second-generation Hoveyda-Grubbs catalyst and [Pd(μ -Br)(P'Bu_3)]₂ are known to be active, selective, and mutually compatible catalysts for ethenolysis and isomerization, respectively. Indeed, the reaction of 1-octadecene with the M720 Hoveyda-Grubbs catalyst (HG II) as the metathesis catalyst (6 mol%) and [Pd(P'Bu_3)(μ -Br)]₂ as the isomerization catalyst (2 mol%) at 60 °C for 24 h formed propene in 72% yield.²⁰ Butenes formed in only 6% yield (Scheme 8).

$$C_{16}H_{33}$$
 + 15 = $\frac{HG II, [(^{f}Bu_{3}P)Pd(\mu-Br)]_{2}}{THF, 60 \circ C}$ 16
72%

Scheme 8. Isomerizing ethenolysis of octadecene

Having developed conditions for the dehydrogenation and isomerizing ethenolysis steps separately, we sought to use the dehydrogenated PE containing internal alkenes directly in an isomerizing ethenolysis to assess the potential to form propene from ethylene and either LDPE or HDPE (Scheme 9). LDPE that was dehydrogenated over Pt/Sn/Al₂O₃ under the conditions in Scheme 5 was subjected to conditions for isomerizing ethenolysis (50.0 mg polymer, 25 bar ethylene, 1 mL THF, 60 °C), but with higher loadings of catalysts (80 wt% metathesis catalyst, 60 wt% isomerization catalyst), than were used for octadecene. Under these conditions, propene formed in 32% yield, and butenes formed in 8% yield (Scheme 9).

dehydrog LDPE + =
$$HG II, [({}^{t}Bu_{3}P)Pd(\mu-Br)]_{2}$$
 + butenes
THF, 60 °C 32% 8%

Scheme 9. Isomerizing ethenolyses of LDPE and HDPE dehydrogenated over Pt/Sn/Al₂O₃

While the dehydrogenated polymer from iodination and elimination of HDPE contained 0.59% olefinic protons by ¹H NMR spectroscopy, isomerizing ethenolysis of this polymer produced propene in only 1% yield and butenes in 48% yield. The concomitant formation of relatively large quantities of butenes and virtually no propene in this experiment led us to consider two hypotheses. First, we considered that the product distribution could result from fast isomerization, relative to ethenolysis; however, the product distribution did not change in the presence of higher loadings of metathesis catalyst.

Second, we hypothesized that the polymer resulting from iodination-elimination of HDPE contained compounds that poisoned the catalysts for isomerizing ethenolysis and that the butenes formed by dimerization of ethylene. This hypothesis was supported by the results of a control experiment in which a 450 mL vessel of ethylene at 25 bar was allowed to react with the isomerization and metathesis catalysts in THF without any dehydrogenated polymer or smaller exogenously added alkene. Under these conditions, a significant amount of butenes and a small amount of propene formed. The amounts of butenes and propene that formed were equivalent to the amounts that would from if 0.1 mmol of alkene were converted to butenes in 99% yield and to propene 8% yield. This result suggests that most butenes that form under the conditions of isomerizing ethenolysis originate from ethylene dimerization, and a small amount of propene that forms under the conditions of isomerizing ethenolysis originate from ethylene dimerization, and a small amount of propene that forms under the conditions of isomerizing ethenolysis originate from ethylene dimerization, and a small amount of propene that forms under the conditions of isomerizing ethenolysis originates from ethylene dimerization followed by disproportionation.

To improve the isomerizing ethenolysis step, we are currently investigating the effects of altering the pressure of ethylene, altering the identities of the catalysts, and altering solvents and temperatures to promote solubility. We are also investigating the effects of various reaction parameters on the yields and selectivities of dehydrogenation and cracking of HDPE and LDPE. In addition to isomerizing ethenolysis, we are interested in developing a method for isomerizing propenolysis of dehydrogenated polymers. By such a method, the propene produced from chemical recycling of PE could be used to convert a second batch of PE to butene. This butene could react with an additional equivalent of ethylene to produce propene, which could be used to recycle subsequent batches and thereby create a closed-loop PE economy. In addition, we are interested in conducting isomerizing ethenolyses and propenolyses of dehydrogenated polymers other than polyethylene, such as polypropylene, polystyrene, and polyvinylchloride (Scheme 10).



Scheme10. Application of isomerizing ethenolysis to polymers other than PE

6.3 Conclusion

Dehydrogenation followed by isomerizing ethenolysis is a promising method for the chemical recycling of polyethylene to propene. We have converted polyethylene to olefins by cracking and by dehydrogenation, and we have converted these olefins to propene by a combination of alkene isomerization and ethenolysis in a process called isomerizing ethenolysis. Up to 33% yield of propene was obtained from dehydrogenated LDPE and up to 72% yield of propene was obtained from octadecene.

6.4 Experimental

6.4.1 General methods and materials

All air-sensitive manipulations were conducted under an inert atmosphere in nitrogen-filled or argon-filled gloveboxes or by standard Schlenk techniques under nitrogen or argon. All reagents were purchased from commercial suppliers and used as received unless otherwise stated. HDPE ($M_n = 30029$) and LDPE ($M_n = 2657$) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and knife milled to 2 mm particles. The headspaces of crude reaction mixtures were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) on an Agilent 7820A GC system equipped with a GASPRO column (30 m x 0.320 mm, part number 113-4332) and an FID detector. Quantitative analysis of headspaces by GC was conducted with methane as an internal standard. The liquid phases of crude reaction mixtures were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) on an Agilent 7890 GC equipped with an HP-5 column (25 m x 0.20 mm x 0.33 µm film) and an FID detector. Flash column chromatography was conducted with a Teledyne Isco CombiFlash® Rf system and RediSep Rf GoldTM columns. All NMR spectra were recorded at the University of California, Berkeley NMR facility. NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker AVB-400, AVQ-400, AV-500, and AV-600 instruments with operating frequencies of 400, 400, 500, and 600 MHz, respectively, and Carbon-13 NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AV-600 instrument with a ¹³C operating frequency of 151 MHz. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in ppm relative to those of residual solvent signals (CDCl₃ δ = 7.26 for ¹H NMR spectra and δ = 77.16 for ¹³C NMR spectra; 1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane- $d_2 \delta = 6.0$ for ¹H NMR spectra).

6.4.2 Dehydrogenations

6.4.2.1 Synthesis of Pt/Sn/Al₂O₃ catalyst

The Pt/Sn-Al₂O₃ catalyst was prepared using γ -Al₂O₃ as a support with introduction of Pt and Sn species via impregnation using Pt(H₃O)₂Cl₆•nH₂O as the Pt precursor and SnCl₂•2H₂O as the Sn precursor. Pt(H₃O)₂Cl₆•nH₂O (114 mg) and SnCl₂•2H₂O (173 mg) were added to deionized water (20 g) and stirred with a magneton for 1 h. γ -Al₂O₃ (2 g) was added. The resulting slurry was dried at room temperature and then further dried at 353 K under a flow of nitrogen for 3 h. The powder mixture was then ground for 30 min, calcined at 520 °C for 8 h in static air, and reduced under a flow of hydrogen diluted with helium (10% H₂, flow rate of 100 mL/min) at 470 °C.

6.4.2.2 Acceptorless dehydrogenation of LDPE over Pt/Sn/Al₂O₃

In an argon-filled glovebox, a 25 mL stainless steel Parr autoclave fitted with a quartz liner was charged with LDPE (100 mg, $M_n = 2657$ g/mol) and Pt/Sn/Al₂O₃ catalyst (20 mg). The Parr autoclave was sealed and removed from the glovebox. The reaction mixture was stirred. Hydrogen was flowed through the autoclave for 30 min at 350 °C, and argon was flowed through the autoclave for 24 h at 350 °C. The resulting mixture was characterized by NMR in 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane at 100 °C and used in isomerizing ethenolyses without further purification.

6.4.2.3 Net dehydrogenation of HDPE through iodination and elimination



The iodination of high-density polyethylene (HDPE) was performed following a modified literature precedent.¹⁹ In flame-dried 100 mL round-bottom flask, HDPE (1.1 g, 39.3 mmol, 1 equiv) was dissolved in 1,2-dichlorobenzene (50 mL) at 120 °C and then cooled to room temperature. Iodine (1.81 g, 7.13 mmol, 0.2 equiv) and 731 mg NaO'Bu (7.6 mmol, 0.2 equiv) were added to the reaction mixture. The reaction mixture was stirred at 120 °C for 3 hours. The reaction mixture was then cooled to room temperature and quenched with a saturated solution of aqueous Na₂S₂O₃ (150 mL). The resulting solid was filtered and dried under vacuum. A portion of the purified polymer (ca. 10 mg) was dissolved in C₂D₂Cl₄ (0.5 mL) in an NMR tube at 120 °C, and NMR spectra of the sample were recorded at 100 °C.

In a flame-dried 200 mL pressure vessel, iodinated high-density polyethylene (1.1 g, 0.82% iodide, 0.322 mmol iodide) was dissolved in 1,2-dichlorobenzene (50 mL) at 120 °C and cooled to room temperature. Sodium *tert*-butoxide (793 mg, 8.25 mmol, 25 equiv) was added, and the reaction was stirred at 180 °C for 24 hours. The reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature, quenched with 1 M aqueous HCl (~10 mL, until bubbling ceased), and poured into cold MeOH (200 mL). The resulting solid was filtered and dried under vacuum. A portion of the purified polymer (ca. 10 mg) was dissolved in C₂D₂Cl₄ (0.5 mL) in an NMR tube at 120 °C, and NMR spectra of the sample were recorded at 100 °C.

6.4.2.3 NMR Spectra of LDPE dehydrogenated over Pt/Sn/Al₂O₃







6.4.2.4 NMR Spectra of HDPE subjected to iodination/elimination Full spectrum:





6.4.2.5 NMR Spectra of HDPE subjected to conditions for catalytic cracking Full spectrum:

6.4.3 Isomerizing ethenolyses

6.4.3.1 Procedure for isomerizing ethenolysis of octadecene

A 25 mL stainless steel Parr autoclave equipped with a borosilicate or quartz liner (note: the reaction can also be conducted in a borosilicate test tube within a 450 mL stainless steel Parr autoclave) was charged with M720 Hoveyda Grubbs II catalyst (18.8 mg, 0.0300 mmol, 6 mol%), [Pd(µ-Br)(P'Bu₃)]₂ (11.7 mg, 0.0150 mmol, 3 mol%), THF (1 mL), and octadecene (160 μ L, 0.500 mmol, 1.00 equiv). The autoclave was charged at room temperature with a mixture of methane and ethylene (1:1, 50.0 bar) and heated for 24 h at 60 °C. The reaction mixture was vented at 60 °C into a 10 mL round-bottom flask fitted with a vent needle. A 40 µL aliquot of the gas in this round-bottom flask was manually injected onto an Agilent 7820A GC system equipped with a GASPRO column (30 m x 0.320 mm, part number 113-4332) and an FID detector. The yield of propene relative to octadecene was computed with the ideal gas law. The following equation was used to compute the yield of propene from octadecene. The temperature used in the ideal gas law equation was the temperature at which the bomb was charged with methane, which was always room temperature. The volume used in the ideal gas law equation was the volume of the Parr autoclave. The pressure of CH₄ used in the equation was 25 bar, because the bomb was charged with 50 bar of a 1:1 $CH_4:C_2H_6$ mixture. The response factor for propene: methane was approximated to be 3.0. The stoichiometric coefficients for octadecene, ethylene, and propene in the reaction are 1, 15, and 16, respectively. In the equation below, A_{propene} and A_{CH4} are the areas of propene and methane in the gas chromatogram.



6.4.3.2 Procedure for isomerizing ethenolyses of dehydrogenated LDPE & HDPE

A 25 mL stainless steel Parr autoclave equipped with a borosilicate or quartz liner (note: the reaction can also be conducted in a borosilicate test tube within a 450 mL stainless steel Parr autoclave) was charged with M720 Hoveyda Grubbs II catalyst (40.0 mg, 80 wt%), [Pd(μ -Br)(P'Bu_3)]₂ (30.0 mg, 60 wt%), THF (1 mL), and dehydrogenated HDPE or LDPE (50 mg, 1.00 equiv). The autoclave was charged at room temperature with a mixture of methane and ethylene (1:1, 50.0 bar) and heated for 24 h at 60 °C. The reaction mixture was vented at 60 °C into a 10 mL round-bottom flask fitted with a vent needle. A 40 μ L aliquot of the gas in this round-bottom flask was manually injected onto an Agilent 7820A GC system equipped with a GASPRO column (30 m x 0.320 mm, part number 113-4332) and an FID detector. The yield of propene relative to methylene units was computed with the ideal gas law.

The following equation was used to compute the yield of propene from polyethylene. The yield was calculated relative to the methylene units in polyethylene. The temperature used in the ideal gas law equation was the temperature at which the bomb was charged with methane, which was always room temperature. The volume used in the ideal gas law equation was the volume of the Parr autoclave. The pressure of CH₄ used in the equation was 25 bar, because the bomb was charged with 50 bar of a 1:1 CH₄:C₂H₆ mixture. The response factor for propene: methane was approximated to be 3.0. The stoichiometric coefficients for C_nH_{2n+2} polymer, ethylene, and propene in the reaction are 1, (n-3), and (n-2), respectively. The molecular weight of the polymer was approximated as 14.02688*n g/mol, where n is the number of carbon atoms in the polymer, were assumed to be approximately equal. In the equation below, $A_{propene}$ and A_{CH4} are the areas of propene and methane in the gas chromatogram.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{yield} &= 100\% * \frac{mol \, propene}{mol \, C_n H_{2n} \, polymer} * \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n} \, polymer}{(n-2) \, mol \, C3 \, (stoich \, coef)} \\ &= 100\% * \frac{mol \, CH_4 \, istd * \left(\frac{A_{propene}}{A_{CH_4}}\right) * \left(\frac{1}{response \, factor}\right)}{mass \, C_n H_{2n+2} \, polymer * \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2} \, polymen}{14.026688 \, n \, g \, C_n H_{2n+2}}} * \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}{(n-2) \, mol \, propene} \\ &= 100\% * \frac{\frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}} * \left(\frac{A_{propene}}{A_{CH_4}}\right) * \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)}{mass \, C_n H_{2n+2} \, polymer * \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2} \, polymen}{14.02688 \, * n \, g \, C_n H_{2n+2}}} * \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}{(n-2) \, mol \, propene} \, state{100\% + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}} * \left(\frac{A_{propene}}{A_{CH_4}}\right) * \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)} * \frac{1 \, \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}{14.02688 \, * n \, g \, C_n H_{2n+2}}} \\ &= 100\% * \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}} * \left(\frac{A_{propene}}{A_{CH_4}}\right) * \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) * \frac{1 \, \frac{1}{mass \, C_n H_{2n+2}}}{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}} * \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}{(n-2) \, mol \, propene} \, state{100\% + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}}} * \left(\frac{A_{propene}}{A_{CH_4}}\right) * \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) * \frac{1 \, \frac{1}{mass \, C_n H_{2n+2}}}{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}} * \frac{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}{(n-2) \, mol \, propene} \, state{100\% + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}}}} * \left(\frac{A_{propene}}{A_{CH_4}}\right) * \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) * \frac{1 \, \frac{1}{mass \, C_n H_{2n+2}}}{1 \, mol \, C_n H_{2n+2}}} * \frac{1 \, 4.02688}{(n-2) \, mol \, propene} \, state{100\% + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}}} + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{(1 \, 3)} * \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) * \frac{1}{mass \, C_n H_{2n+2}}} + \frac{1 \, 4.02688}{(n-2) \, mol \, propene} \, state{100\% + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}}}} + \left(\frac{A_{propene}}{A_{CH_4}}\right) * \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + \frac{1}{mass \, C_n H_{2n+2}} \, polymer} \, state{100\% + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}}}} + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}} + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}}} + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}} + \frac{P_{CH_4} V_{bomb}}{RT_{charge}}$$

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