

MARTA-LISETTE PIKMA

Exploring the basicity of phosphanes and
related compounds



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Exploring the basicity of phosphanes and
related compounds



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“Aitäh!”

– Arkyn Vares

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Author's contribution

- Paper I:** Lead author in preparing the manuscript. Performed most of the calculations and some of the measurement experiments.
- Paper II:** Lead author in preparing the manuscript. Performed all the calculations.
- Paper III:** Lead author in preparing the manuscript. Performed all the synthesis experiments and some of the measurements and calculations.

ABBREVIATIONS

Ad	Adamantyl
B	Generic abbreviation for the neutral form of a base
BH ⁺	Generic abbreviation for the protonated form of a base
Bn	Benzyl group
bpi	Benzophenoneimino group
COSMO-RS	Conductor-like Screening Model for Realistic Solvation
CPCM	Conductor-like PCM
Cy	Cyclohexyl group
DFT	Density functional theory
dma	Dimethylamino group
FLP	Frustrated Lewis pair
G	Gibbs free energy
GB	Gas-phase basicity
I ⁻	Substituents with negative field inductive effect
I ⁺	Substituents with positive field inductive effect
IEF-PCM	Integral Equation Formalism PCM
IPCM	Isodensity PCM
K_a	Dissociation constant
KHMDS	Potassium hexamethyldisilazide
L	Ligand
MeCN	Acetonitrile
Mes	Mesityl
Napht	Naphthyl
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance
Np	Neopentyl
PCM	Polarizable Continuum Model
pK_a	Negative logarithm of the dissociation constant K_a
pK_{aH}	Basicity value of a base; equal to the pK_a of its conjugate acid
PR ₃	Tertiary phosphane
pyrr	Pyrrolidino group
R	Substituent group
Rf	Perfluoroalkyl group
S	Solvent
SH ⁺	Solvated proton
SM8	Solvation Model 8
SMD	Solvation Model based on Density
SVPE	Surface and Volume Polarization for Electrostatics
TEP	Tolman's electronic parameter
Tf ₂ NH	Bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)amine
THF	Tetrahydrofuran
tmg	Tetramethylguanidino group
UV-Vis	Ultraviolet-visible

INTRODUCTION

In many cases, reactions that appear highly effective on paper can encounter various limiting factors under real-world experimental conditions. Catalysts help overcome such challenges by offering alternative reaction pathways, often accelerating reactions or altering product distributions. Among the most commonly used compounds in homogenous catalysis are transition metal catalysts, which are effective due to their ability to easily donate and accept electrons. These metals are frequently paired with ligands that enhance the catalyst's activity, selectivity, or stability.¹

One widely used class of ligands is phosphanes, valued for their tuneable electronic and steric properties, which can be tailored through substituent modification to meet specific catalytic requirements. Phosphanes are also relatively easy to synthesize and many of them are commercially available.

The electronic and steric properties of phosphanes are typically characterized using parameters derived from metal-ligand complexes.^{2,3} However, such parameters inherently depend on the metal and are more resource-intensive to obtain, whether through synthesis or computational methods. Deriving comparable descriptors from free phosphanes (or their protonated forms) offers a more efficient alternative, particularly useful when screening a large number of potential ligands for catalytic applications. This approach allows for rapid identification of promising candidates for more detailed investigation.

Basicity is a fundamental molecular property, essential for understanding numerous chemical and biochemical processes, and it serves as an indicator of a ligand's electron-donating ability.⁴ Phosphanes represent a versatile class of organic bases, with experimentally determined basicities spanning more than 30 orders of magnitude in acetonitrile.⁵⁻⁸ In addition, other organophosphorus compounds such as phosphazenes and phosphonium ylides are known for their superbasicity and are frequently used as reagents.^{6,7,9}

Practical challenges, including solubility issues and unfavourable steric effects, often limit the efficiency of chemical reactions. As a result, the development of new catalysts and reagents is crucial for broadening the range of viable transformations and opening up pathways to previously inaccessible reactions. Given the central role of phosphanes and other organophosphorus compounds as reagents and catalyst components, continued investigation into their properties and the synthesis of novel derivatives is essential for advancing the field.

The aims of this thesis are:

- Gather basicity data of phosphanes into a **comprehensive overview**
- **Fill in the gaps** in the existing basicity data of phosphanes
- Explore replacing traditional electronic and steric descriptors of phosphanes with **simpler alternatives**
- Develop **novel bases**

1. LITERATURE OVERVIEW

1.1. Phosphanes

Tertiary phosphanes (PR_3) are among the few ligands whose electronic and steric properties can be systematically and predictably altered by varying the substituent groups (R).¹⁰ All PR_3 compounds serve as both σ -donors and π -acceptors when acting as ligands. σ -bonding involves the donation of the lone electron pair on the phosphorus atom to an empty metal orbital of σ -symmetry, while π -backbonding refers to the back-donation of electron density from the filled orbitals of the metal into the phosphane's orbitals of the corresponding symmetry.¹¹ Typically, σ -donation is the prevalent interaction, especially when the phosphane substituents exert a positive field inductive effect (I+). However, substituents with a negative field inductive effect (I-) enhance the extent of π -backbonding within the metal complex, leading to notable changes in the electronic properties of the phosphane ligand.¹²

Prior to the 1970s, almost all behavioural differences of free ligands and their transition-metal complexes were explained solely by electronic effects, neglecting steric factors. Later, awareness of the combined effects grew, and two parameters were introduced to quantify electronic and steric properties of phosphanes – Tolman's electronic parameter (TEP) and the Tolman cone angle.³

The electronic effects of PR_3 ligands (L) are characterized by TEP values, based on the carbonyl stretching frequency $\nu(\text{CO})$ in $\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_3\text{L}$ complexes. Tolman compared $\nu(\text{CO})$ frequencies using infrared spectroscopy across multiple phosphane-containing $\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_3\text{L}$ complexes: stronger electron-donating phosphanes increase electron density at the nickel atom, partially transferring this density to the CO group, thus reducing the $\nu(\text{CO})$ frequency.³

To characterize steric effects, Tolman introduced the ligand cone angle, defined at the apex of a cone centred at the metal atom. The cone surface encompasses the ligand, passing the outermost atoms at their effective van der Waals radii. The cone angle thus describes the steric demand of a ligand.¹³ Properties of sterically hindered phosphanes differ from those with smaller cone angles. Bulkier phosphanes result in lower coordination numbers, formation of coordinatively unsaturated metal centres, and sometimes promote metalation.¹⁴

Phosphanes exhibit basic properties due to the lone electron pair on phosphorus. Primary and secondary alkylphosphanes have basicities ($\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ values) in water ranging from 0 to 5, whereas for simple trialkylphosphanes, these values are between 8 and 9. Generally, a larger number of substituents corresponds to a higher $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ value, reflecting enhanced basicity.¹⁵ The basicity of phosphanes is crucial as there is a strong positive correlation between their basicity and coordination ability.

1.1.1. Applications

Phosphanes are important organophosphorus compounds with a wide range of applications.^{16,17} Various complexes of phosphanes and metal compounds are utilized as catalysts in numerous reactions. Complexes involving gold, ruthenium, nickel, palladium, and copper have been effectively employed to catalyze three-component coupling reactions, alkene metathesis, alkene hydrogenation, polymerization, among others.^{18–21} The mechanism usually involves coordination of the metal atom to the reaction centre (e.g., a double bond) and subsequent electron relocation.¹ Phosphanes themselves typically do not participate directly in the catalytic cycle, instead they dissociate from the metal centre at the beginning of the reaction and later re-coordinate to the metal once again.^{14,22}

As mentioned before, the main advantage of phosphanes lies in the possibility to fine-tune their electronic and steric properties through substituent modification, allowing adaptation to the specific needs of a given catalytic transformation. Ligand properties can be precisely tailored to enhance both the reactivity and selectivity of metal catalysts. Even minor modifications to the ligand structure can lead to significant changes in catalytic selectivity.¹ Compared to amines, tertiary phosphanes exhibit stronger coordinating ability resulting from reduced steric hindrance around the phosphorus atom due to its larger size.

A significant advancement in phosphane chemistry occurred in 2006 with the discovery of frustrated Lewis pairs (FLPs) by Douglas W. Stephan's research group.²³ FLPs consist of sterically hindered Lewis acid-base pairs that cannot form classical Lewis adducts, resulting in exceptional reactivity. These pairs can activate small molecules, such as hydrogen, undergoing dynamic transitions between neutral and ionic (or zwitterionic) states during reactions. In FLP chemistry, bulky phosphanes can act as Lewis bases, transitioning to phosphonium cations upon activation. Typically, a substituted borane acts as the Lewis acid. The discovery of FLPs has significantly impacted modern chemistry, notably accelerating the development of metal-free hydrogenation catalysis.²⁴ A critical factor to consider about FLPs is the basicity of the phosphane – phosphanes with high basicity bind protons too strongly and do not release them efficiently, while weakly basic phosphanes lack the capability to activate hydrogen effectively.⁸ This highlights the importance of determining the basicity of phosphanes and also designing novel phosphanes with precisely tailored basicities.

1.1.2. Preparation

Due to the significant role of phosphanes in catalysis, multiple synthetic methods have been developed for functionalized phosphanes.²⁵ The three prevalent methods are: 1) reactions between organometallic compounds and halogenophosphanes, 2) reactions of metal phosphides with alkyl halides, and 3) the reduction of other phosphorus-containing compounds.²⁶

The main synthetic pathway for symmetrical tertiary phosphanes involves halogen substitution in halogenophosphanes (typically PCl_3 or PBr_3) using organometallic reagents due to the readily available precursors. This method was used in this work as well. Frequently used organometallic reagents include Grignard and lithium reagents. However, the applicability of this method is restricted by the nucleophilic carbon, meaning the desired phosphane cannot contain functional groups reactive with the chosen organometallic reagent.²⁷ Another limitation arises from phosphanes' propensity to form stable complexes with some salts (byproducts here). In this case, the phosphane itself is no longer the product but rather the phosphane complex. In some instances, heating the reaction mixture in solvents in which the salt is insoluble can help recover the free phosphane. When applicable, complex formation may be avoided by selecting alternative solvents or reagents.⁷

1.2. Phosphazenes and phosphonium ylides

Phosphazenes are derivatives of phosphanes with the general structure $\text{RN}=\text{PR}_3$. These compounds exhibit a degree of zwitterionic character, meaning the $\text{N}=\text{P}$ double bond can be interpreted either as a formal double bond (ylenic form) or as a single bond between oppositely charged atoms (ylidic form).²⁸ This is also the case for phosphonium ylides, which have a similar structure to phosphazenes, but with a carbon atom in place of the nitrogen. These are typically represented as $\text{RHC}^--\text{P}^+\text{R}_3$, as the ylidic form is generally the dominant one.^{29,30}

Phosphazenes and phosphonium ylides are well-known for their strong basicity, with many classified as superbases.³¹⁻³³ Phosphonium ylides are usually around 10 $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ units stronger bases than the analogous phosphazenes.⁹ This is due to the unstable nature of the carbanion (R_3C^-) compared to R_2N^- , making phosphonium ylides comparatively more prone to protonation.

1.3. Basicity of compounds

The ability of a compound to donate or accept a proton represents one of its most fundamental chemical properties. This characteristic is referred to as Brønsted-Lowry acidity or basicity, respectively, and its accurate quantification is crucial for understanding numerous chemical and biochemical processes.³⁴ Namely, it provides insight into the ability of the compound to activate other species within a reaction mixture and determines the predominant form of the compound under given conditions.

1.3.1. Gas- and solvent-phase basicities

Gas-phase basicity (GB) is defined as the change in Gibbs free energy (G) of the following reaction:



where B denotes the base under investigation and BH^+ is its conjugate acid. GB value is obtained as follows:

$$\text{GB} = G(\text{B}) + G(\text{H}^+) - G(\text{BH}^+) \quad (2)$$

where $G(\text{H}^+) = -6.275 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$.³⁵

GB values are usually expressed in $\text{kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ and higher GB values mean stronger basicities. Despite its fundamental significance, gas-phase basicity does not accurately reflect the situation in solution, since solvent effects are of importance depending on the solvent and the type of base.³⁶ In particular, the conjugate acid of a base can experience additional stabilization in solution, which is absent in the gas phase. The acid-base equilibrium describing the basicity of a base B in a solvent S is as follows:



where BH^+ is the conjugate acid of the base B and SH^+ is the solvated proton.

The basicity of a compound in a solvent is quantified by the $\text{p}K_a$ value of its conjugate acid, which is the negative logarithm of its dissociation constant (K_a):

$$\text{p}K_a = -\log K_a = -\log \frac{a(\text{SH}^+) \cdot a(\text{B})}{a(\text{BH}^+)} \quad (4)$$

where $a(\text{SH}^+)$, $a(\text{B})$ and $a(\text{BH}^+)$ are the activities of the corresponding species.

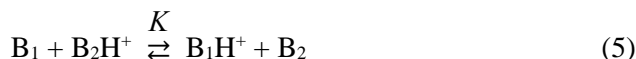
Higher $\text{p}K_a$ value indicates greater basicity. It has been proposed³⁷ to denote the basicity of base B as its $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ instead of expressing its basicity as the $\text{p}K_a$ of its conjugate acid BH^+ : $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}(\text{B}) \equiv \text{p}K_a(\text{BH}^+)$. In this work, all basicities in solvent are denoted as $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$.

1.3.2. Measuring $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ values

Since measuring the activity of the solvated proton $a(\text{SH}^+)$ is difficult in non-aqueous media,³⁸ the relative basicity measurement method is often employed instead of absolute measurements, such as those based on potentiometry. In relative measurement, the basicity of the base under investigation is compared in the same solution with the basicity of another base with a known $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ value,

and the difference in their pK_{aH} values (ΔpK_{aH}) is determined experimentally. As a result, the effects arising from water, ionic strength, and other interfering factors are either partially or fully cancelled out, providing an additional advantage of employing the relative measurement method.³⁹

Using this approach, a self-consistent scale of relative basicities is established, anchored to a compound possessing an absolute pK_{aH} value determined with the highest possible precision. Typically, this implies that the absolute pK_{aH} value of the anchor compound has been determined using multiple independent methods, yielding consistent and closely agreeing results. For example, the current pK_{aH} scale in MeCN is anchored to pyridine ($pK_{\text{aH}} = 12.53$).⁴ The relative measurement method is based on the following equilibrium:



where B_1 and B_2 are the two bases in the same solution and B_1H^+ and B_2H^+ are their conjugate acids. The relative basicity (ΔpK_{aH}) of the bases B_1 and B_2 is defined as follows:

$$\Delta pK_{\text{aH}} = pK_{\text{aH}}(\text{B}_1) - pK_{\text{aH}}(\text{B}_2) = \log K = \log \frac{a(\text{B}_1\text{H}^+) \cdot a(\text{B}_2)}{a(\text{B}_2\text{H}^+) \cdot a(\text{B}_1)} \quad (6)$$

where $a(\text{B}_1\text{H}^+)$, $a(\text{B}_2\text{H}^+)$, $a(\text{B}_1)$, and $a(\text{B}_2)$ are the activities of the corresponding species. Given that it is justified to assume here that the ratios of activity coefficients are the same for both studied bases,⁴⁰ the ratios of activities can be replaced by ratios of equilibrium concentrations.

In general, pK_{aH} can be determined using any method that allows the quantitative measurement of a parameter sensitive to the pH of the surrounding environment. Among others, UV-Vis spectrometry is one of the most widely used methods for determining relative pK_{aH} values.^{5,6,39-42} Its appeal lies in its simplicity and robustness, as well as its capability to operate effectively at very low concentrations. However, UV-Vis spectrometry has limitations, including the requirements for UV-Vis active groups and for the purity of the compounds (especially, the absence of UV-absorbing acidic/basic impurities).

The challenges presented by UV-Vis spectrometry may be circumvented by using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy,^{5,43,44} which can be applied to a wider variety of compounds. When using ^1H NMR, the only structural requirement is the presence of a hydrogen atom. Additionally, impurities do not pose a significant issue, as ^1H NMR provides well-resolved peaks corresponding to specific protons in the molecular structure, rather than a collective representation of the entire molecule, as is the case in UV-Vis spectroscopy.

Another advantage of using NMR is the ability to simultaneously measure more than two bases within a single experiment. This enables the determination of two distinct ΔpK_{aH} values (against two different reference bases) for the base

of interest, as well as an additional ΔpK_{aH} value between the two reference bases. The latter serves as an internal control, providing a means to assess the reliability and consistency of the measurement. A drawback of NMR spectroscopy is its requirement for higher sample concentrations compared to the UV-Vis method.

1.4. Computational methods

Experimental investigations can be highly resource-intensive, both in terms of cost and time. Moreover, certain systems or conditions remain inaccessible to experimental techniques, at least with current technological capabilities. Even fundamental factors such as solubility can hinder empirical studies.

In such cases, computational methods offer practical alternatives and have seen widespread adoption.^{5,45–48} While computational approaches may not match the accuracy of experimental methods – particularly in solution-phase studies – they still provide valuable insights. In many instances, achieving the highest absolute accuracy is not essential, especially when relative values are sufficiently informative. Computational methods are particularly valuable when used in conjunction with empirical data, as the combination can yield reasonably accurate and reliable results.

1.4.1. Density functional theory

Density functional theory (DFT) is a quantum mechanical method used to investigate the electronic structure of molecules and other systems. DFT is one of the most widely employed methods in computational chemistry due to its balance between accuracy and computational efficiency. It offers higher accuracy than the Hartree-Fock (HF) method, which neglects electron correlation (the mutual influence of electrons on each other) while being less resource-demanding than post-HF methods that rely on many-body electronic wavefunctions.^{51,52}

DFT is based on the principle that all ground-state properties of an electronic system are determined by its ground-state electron density, and that the energy of this electron distribution can be expressed as a functional of the electron density. The optimal electron density corresponds to energy minimum, i.e. to the ground-state energy of the system.^{49,50}

While orbital-free DFT is appealing in theory, it remains limited in practice owing to the lack of reliable approximations for the kinetic energy functional. Consequently, Kohn-Sham DFT is more commonly employed. In this approach, the electronic kinetic energy is estimated by populating non-interacting single-particle orbitals with electrons. Since the kinetic energy of non-interacting electrons can be calculated exactly, the Kohn-Sham framework enables more accurate DFT computations by reducing the portion of the kinetic energy that must be approximated. Although the fictitious non-interacting reference system shares the same electron density as the true interacting system, its kinetic energy does not fully capture that of the real system due to the absence of electron-

electron interactions. The residual part of the true kinetic energy is incorporated into the exchange-correlation energy of the system in addition to the effects of self-interaction correction (accounts for the fact that an electron does not interact with itself), exchange (reflects the Pauli exclusion principle, which prevents two electrons with the same spin from occupying the same region of space), and correlation (describes the dynamic interactions between electrons due to their mutual repulsion).⁵¹

A key challenge in DFT is the formulation of the exchange-correlation functional.⁵¹ Since the exact form of this functional is known only for idealized systems, such as the free electron gas,⁴⁹ numerous approximations have been developed. The choice of functional depends on the system under investigation and the specific properties of interest. For example, some functionals are better suited for small molecules, while others perform better for extended systems or interfaces.

In addition to functionals, the selection of a basis set is important in DFT calculations. A basis set is a collection of mathematical functions used to describe the spatial distribution of electrons in a system. These sets allow the transformation of the model's partial differential equations into algebraic equations, making them solvable on a computer. The choice of basis set, like the functional, influences the accuracy and computational cost of the calculation.⁵³ In theory, achieving the highest accuracy would involve employing the largest and most comprehensive basis set available for modelling molecular orbitals. However, in practice, the computational cost increases rapidly with the size of the basis set, often making such calculations impractical for larger or more complex systems. As a result, considerable effort has been devoted to evaluating and benchmarking different basis sets to identify those that offer the best compromise between accuracy and computational efficiency.^{54,55} The optimal choice of basis set is context-dependent, contingent upon both the property being calculated and the specific molecular system under investigation.

1.4.2. Dielectric continuum solvation models

In vacuo, molecular properties are determined solely by the intrinsic structural and electronic characteristics of the molecular system. Conversely, calculations in fluid environments must also account for intermolecular interactions with the surrounding medium. Explicitly modelling solvent molecules around the solute can be extremely resource-intensive, since computational cost increases significantly with system size.

To address this challenge, dielectric continuum models have gained popularity. In these approaches, the solvent is treated as a homogeneous medium characterized by relative permittivity (i.e., dielectric constant), greatly simplifying the system while still capturing essential solvent effects. The cavity for the solute is generated based on its intrinsic Coulomb radii, which define the spatial extent of the solute.⁵⁶

Different dielectric continuum models include Polarizable Continuum Model (PCM),⁵⁶ Conductor-like PCM (CPCM),^{57,58} Isodensity PCM (IPCM),⁵⁹ Integral Equation Formalism PCM (IEF-PCM),⁶⁰⁻⁶³ Solvation Model based on Density (SMD),⁶⁴ Solvation Model 8 (SM8),⁶⁵ Surface and Volume Polarization for Electrostatics (SVPE),⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ etc. For the calculation of solvation free energies (which are essential for determining pK_{aH} values in the solvent phase), the SMD model is currently the recommended approach when using the Gaussian software package. The SMD model is based on the quantum mechanical charge density of the solute molecule (hence the “D” in SMD) and on a continuum model of the solvent.⁶⁴

In cases where strong hydrogen bonds form between solute and solvent molecules, implicit solvation models (like the ones mentioned above that account only for bulk polarization effects) are often insufficient, as they neglect first-layer solvation effects arising from short-range solute-solvent interactions. These specific interactions can be addressed by explicitly including one or several solvent molecules in the solute structure prior to applying a dielectric continuum model – this is called the “cluster-continuum” approach.⁶⁹ In addition to aqueous solutions, which typically display strong specific solvation effects, the inclusion of explicit solvent molecules has also been shown to improve accuracy in other polar and especially in protic organic solvents. In contrast, for aprotic solvents such as acetonitrile (MeCN) and tetrahydrofuran (THF), implicit solvation models alone generally yield more reliable and accurate results.⁴⁸

1.4.3. COSMO-RS

The Conductor-like Screening Model for Realistic Solvation (COSMO-RS) is a hybrid method that combines a dielectric continuum solvation model with statistical thermodynamics.⁷⁰ In the first step, the molecule is calculated using DFT within an ideal conductor environment ($\epsilon = \infty$), yielding its geometry, total energy, and charge distribution on the molecular surface. Subsequently, the molecule is conceptually transferred from the ideal conductor to a real solvent environment using statistical thermodynamics.⁷¹

The molecular surface is partitioned into small segments, each characterized by specific coordinates, surface area, and surface charge density (σ -potential). Electrostatic interactions are captured through pairwise interactions between surface segments. A hydrogen bond is considered to be present between two species when one has a hydrogen atom with highly negative σ -potential, the other one a moiety with highly positive σ -potential, and the difference of these respective charge densities exceeds a defined threshold value. Its contribution is quantified on the basis of the respective polarization charge densities. Dispersion forces are incorporated via a dedicated dispersion term.⁷¹

A notable strength of COSMO-RS is that it does not distinguish between solute and solvent molecules – all species are treated on an equal footing. Interactions between solute molecules, as well as solvent-solute and solvent-solvent

interactions, are included, allowing for the treatment of concentrated solutions and multi-component solvent mixtures.⁷² Unlike many other solvation models, COSMO-RS does not rely on solvent-specific parametrizations. Instead, its parametrization is based on atomic properties, general parameters applicable across a broad range of systems and specific parameters for some computations (e.g., pK_a values).

Despite these advantages, COSMO-RS has limitations. While it is highly effective for predicting relative trends, it is not the most reliable method for absolute results without correlation to experimental data. Furthermore, each new version of the software introduces updated parametrizations and it has been demonstrated that the predictive accuracy of COSMO-RS is highly dependent on the specific parametrization employed.⁵

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Descriptions of the used instruments and software, as well as the origins of the compounds, are provided in papers I, II, and III. This section offers a brief overview of the experimental procedures; for comprehensive details, the reader is referred to the respective publications.

2.1. Basicity measurements

UV-Vis spectrophotometric titration method

For most of the compounds, the relative pK_{aH} measurement method using UV-Vis spectrophotometric was employed. If the protonation centre is sufficiently close to the part of the molecule responsible for UV-Vis absorbance (the chromophore), then the UV-Vis spectra of the protonated and deprotonated forms of the molecule are expected to differ significantly, enabling reliable pK_{aH} measurements.

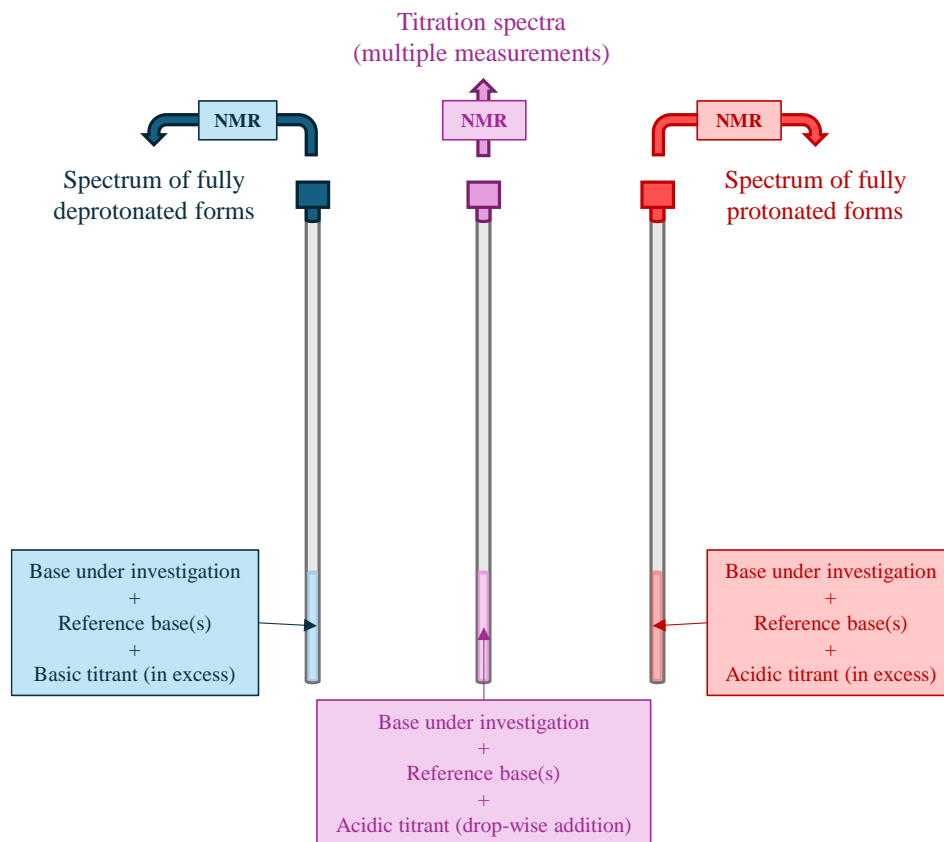
Initially, individual titrations are carried out for each base to acquire the spectra of their respective deprotonated and protonated forms. This allows for identification of the spectral shape and observation of how the spectrum of the base changes upon protonation. Additionally, any potential interference from impurities can be detected at this stage. Subsequently, both bases are titrated together in the same solution. During this combined titration, a larger number (typically 15 to 30) of spectra of partially protonated bases are recorded, with smaller increments of titrant added per step. The ΔpK_{aH} value is then determined as an average of values obtained via multilinear regression analysis from the individual spectra of partially protonated bases. Detailed description of the methodology is provided in the supporting information of paper III and ref 42. The author conducted the UV-Vis titration measurement of benzophenoneimine, while the remaining UV-Vis measurements were performed either by Märt Lökov or Agnes Kütt.

NMR titration method

For some of the relative pK_{aH} measurements, NMR spectrometry was used. Detailed description of the methodology is presented in paper I. The author performed all NMR titration measurements.

When using NMR for pK_{aH} measurements, it is not necessary to measure the NMR spectra of the pure compounds if their structures are sufficiently distinct to allow for clear interpretation of the mixture spectrum. In principle, the identification of a single, well-resolved peak per compound is sufficient for the analysis. However, it is beneficial to record the spectra of the fully deprotonated and protonated forms of the mixture in separate tubes prior to titration (Scheme 1), instead of getting this information at the end of the titration from the first and last titration spectra corresponding to the fully deprotonated and protonated forms. This provides valuable insight into the ratio of protonated to deprotonated

species during the titration, which can be particularly useful for determining the appropriate amount of titrant to add before recording the next spectrum. Such real-time assessment helps optimize the measurement for data quality and ensures that spectra are collected across a suitable range of protonation states. While the volume of titrant added can also offer an indication of this ratio, it is generally less accurate than direct spectral observation.



Scheme 1. Relative pK_{aH} measurement with NMR in this work.

For accurate pK_{aH} determination, the protonation centre should be sufficiently close to the NMR-active nucleus (most often, hydrogen) selected for the calculations. In the case of 1H NMR, this requirement is typically not a limitation, as most organic compounds contain numerous hydrogen atoms and usually at least some of them have suitable peaks for analysis. Problems can arise from the solvent peaks, which are significantly more intense than those of the analytes, especially when non-deuterated solvents are used. If the signals of the studied bases are too close to the solvent peak, they may become obscured during titration due to chemical shift changes, complicating data interpretation. In such cases, the use of a deuterated solvent is possible to suppress the solvent signal (in this work, MeCN- d_3 was used as the solvent for the pK_{aH} measurement of

PCy₃). However, when spectral overlap is not a concern, non-deuterated solvents are often preferred due to their lower cost. While the absolute pK_{aH} values may differ slightly between deuterated and non-deuterated solvents, the ΔpK_{aH} value remains virtually unchanged, as both bases are affected similarly by the solvent environment.

Sometimes broadening (or even disappearance) of peaks can occur during titration if the added proton at the basic centre is coupled to the one corresponding to the peak under investigation and proton exchange occurs at an intermediate rate on the NMR timescale.⁷³ In this regime, the nuclei experience fluctuating chemical environments that are neither fully averaged, as in the case of fast exchange, nor clearly distinct, as in slow exchange. This phenomenon was observed for some phosphanes measured in this work. To ensure reliable analysis, at least three spectra (ideally five or more) were acquired that displayed suitable ratios of protonated to deprotonated forms (between 0.1–0.9) within a single measurement.

2.2. Quantum chemical calculations

This section provides an overview of the computational procedures carried out in this work. Specific details regarding the computational methods and levels of theory employed are provided in papers I, II, and III. The author performed most of the quantum chemical calculations, some of the calculations in papers I and III were carried out by Sofja Tšepelevitš.

General procedure

First, the structures were optimized using the level of theory specified in each respective paper. Providing a reasonable starting geometry for the calculation is crucial, as unrealistic structures can prevent proper convergence. It is particularly important to avoid specifying linear arrangements where angular geometries are expected, as this can hinder reaching the optimal geometry and lead to inaccurate results. For example, if a linear geometry is submitted for a water molecule, the optimization will not successfully yield the correct bent structure.

Following geometry optimization, a frequency calculation was done to verify whether the resulting structure corresponded to a true minimum on the potential energy surface. A true minimum is characterized by the absence of imaginary frequencies, whereas the presence of one or more imaginary frequencies indicates a slope on the potential energy surface, a transition state or a higher-order saddle point. If imaginary frequencies were detected, the geometry was reoptimized following a slight reorganization of the structure, typically involving adjustment of the phosphorus atom in the case of phosphanes. In certain instances, it was also necessary to impose additional constraints or modify specific computational parameters to achieve a true minimum.

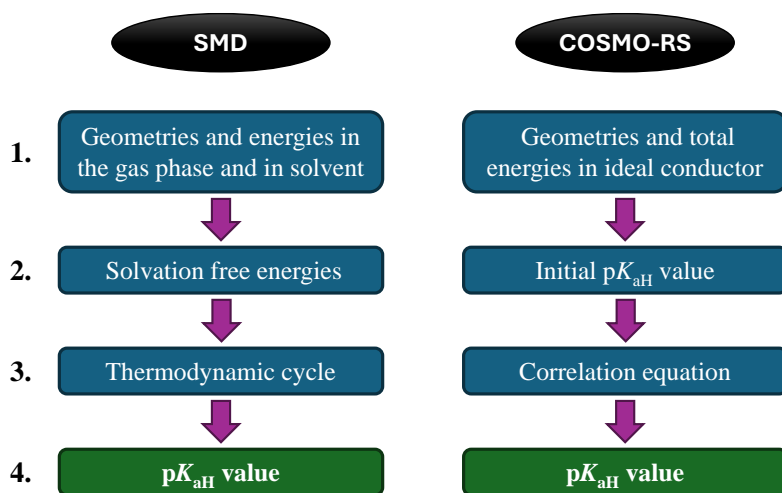
If multiple conformers are possible for the molecule under investigation, all relevant conformers should be evaluated to determine the one with the lowest

energy. This can be done manually by generating reasonable conformational guesses or more efficiently using specialized software designed for conformer generation and analysis. Identifying the lowest-energy conformer is essential, as it most accurately represents the thermodynamically preferred structure for further calculations. In this work, conformer searches were performed using COSMOconf⁷⁴ (BP86/def-TZVP level of theory) for all calculations. The conformer with the lowest energy was then subjected to geometry optimization at the desired level of theory.

Calculation of pK_{aH} values in solvent phase

A simplified workflow for the calculation of pK_{aH} values employing either the SMD or COSMO-RS model is illustrated in Scheme 2 and explained below:

SMD vs COSMO-RS



Scheme 2. Simplified workflow of pK_{aH} calculations using SMD and COSMO-RS models in this work.

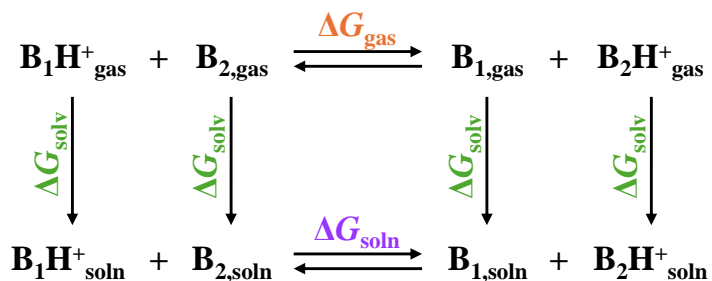
SMD model

1. Calculation of geometries and SCF energies for neutral and ionic species in the gas phase and in solvent (SMD model was used for the latter).
2. Calculation of solvation free energies as the differences in SCF energies of the structures in the gas phase and in solvent.
3. The thermodynamic cycle (Scheme 3) of proton exchange between two bases (base under investigation B_1 and a reference base B_2) is applied using the solvent free energies obtained from gas- and solvent-phase structures according to the following equations:

$$pK_{\text{aH}}(B_1) = pK_{\text{aH}}(B_2) + \frac{\Delta G_{\text{soln}}}{RT \ln(10)} \quad (7)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta G_{\text{soln}} = & \Delta G_{\text{gas}} + \Delta G_{\text{solv}}(B_1) - \Delta G_{\text{solv}}(B_1\text{H}^+) \\ & - \Delta G_{\text{solv}}(B_2) + \Delta G_{\text{solv}}(B_2\text{H}^+) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

4. pK_{aH} value is obtained from equations 7 and 8.



Scheme 3. Thermodynamic cycle of proton exchange between two bases B_1 and B_2 ; $B_1\text{H}^+$ and $B_2\text{H}^+$ are their conjugate acids. Subscript “gas” indicates the gas phase, “soln” indicates the solvent phase. ΔG_{solv} is the solvation free energy.

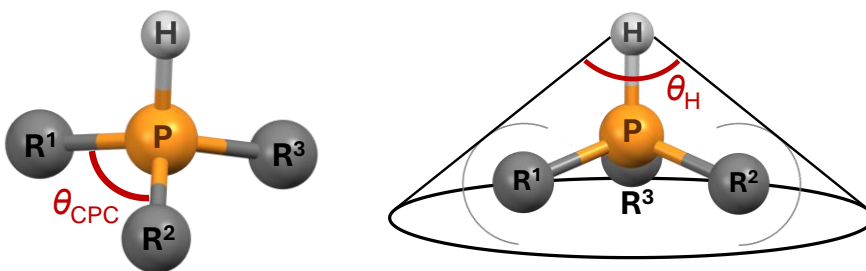
COSMO-RS model

1. Calculation of compound’s geometry, charge/ σ -potential distribution and total energy (stored as COSMO files) for neutral and ionic species in ideal conductor.
2. Initial pK_{aH} value is obtained with statistical thermodynamics using the COSMO-RS method (implemented in the COSMOtherm⁷⁵ software).
3. Correlation equation is applied (a collection of calculated and experimental pK_{aH} values for similar compounds is needed).
4. Corrected pK_{aH} value is obtained.

Assessment of steric properties of phosphanes

In paper I, it is proposed using either the C–P–C angle (θ_{CPC}) or the exact cone angle of the protonated phosphanes (θ_{H}) to assess the steric properties of phosphanes (Scheme 4).

The θ_{CPC} angle represents the average of the three C–P–C bond angles in the protonated solvent-phase structure (single C–P–C angle is depicted in Scheme 4). While θ_{CPC} provides a simple and accessible steric descriptor, it does not offer the most realistic representation of the steric bulk of a phosphane. Therefore, θ_{H} was also proposed, which is similarly derived from the geometry of the protonated phosphane, and describes more realistically the steric demand of the phosphane as ligand. The surface of the cone touches the van der Waals spheres of the outer atoms and the proton is the apex of the cone.



Scheme 4. Single C–P–C bond angle (on the left) and the θ_{H} angle of a phosphane (on the right). The average θ_{CPC} angle used in this work is calculated using all three single C–P–C angles.

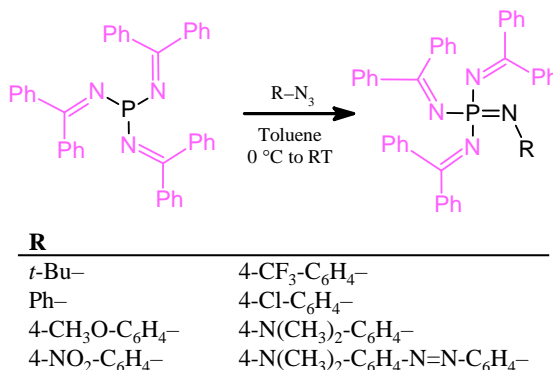
2.3. Synthesis

This section introduces the general synthesis procedures carried out in paper III, where the experiments are described in detail. The author performed all of the synthesis experiments.

Benzophenoneimino (bpi) substituted phosphazenes were prepared by coupling alkyl or aryl azides with the respective tertiary phosphane (Staudinger method^{76,77}). Phosphonium salts were synthesized as precursors to phosphonium ylides; however, the resulting ylides proved to be unstable in their free form. Deprotonation of $(\text{bpi})_3\text{P}^+-\text{CH}_2\text{Ph}$ with different bases resulted in the formation of a P–N heterocyclic compound (see below).

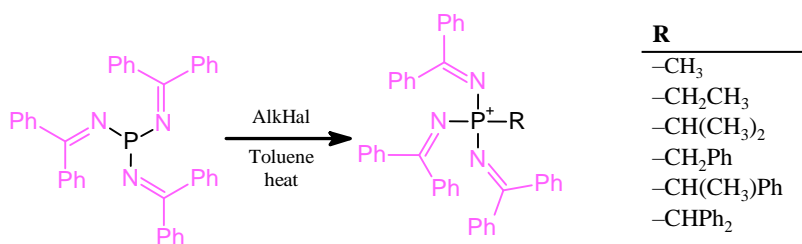
General procedure for the synthesis of bpi-substituted phosphazenes (Scheme 5). Tris(benzophenoneimino)phosphane (1 equiv) and an azide (1.2 equiv) were separately dissolved in toluene (approximately 50–100 mg/ml). The solutions were cooled down to 0 °C. The azide solution in toluene was added dropwise to the phosphane solution, and the reaction mixture was stirred overnight at room temperature. When the reaction was complete, the mixture was

filtered, and the filtrate was added to a 15 ml vial. The vial was carefully filled to the top with hexane and after letting hexane diffuse slowly into the toluene phase at 3 °C, crystals of phosphazenes were formed. The crystals were filtered off and washed with hexane.



Scheme 5. Preparation of **bpi**-phosphazenes.

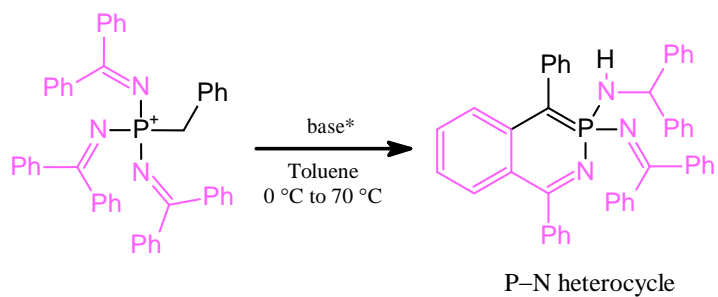
General procedure for the synthesis of **bpi-substituted phosphonium salts (Scheme 6).** Tris(benzophenoneimino)phosphane (1 equiv) was dissolved in toluene (30–150 mg/ml) and added to an oven-dried (140 °C) vial or J Young valve NMR tube in a glovebox. Alkyl or aryl halide (1 equiv) was added, respective halide ion was later the counterion for the resulting phosphonium cation. The reaction mixture was stirred at 60–90 °C outside of the glovebox under argon. When the reaction was complete, the mixture was filtered to obtain the product as a solid.



Scheme 6. Preparation of **bpi**-substituted phosphonium cations.

General procedure for deprotonation of (bpi)₃P⁺-CH₂Ph (Scheme 7). *P*-benzyl tris(benzophenoneimino)phosphonium bromide (1 equiv) and toluene (~50 mg/ml) were added to an oven-dried (140 °C) vial in a glovebox. The solution was cooled down to 0 °C, and a base (1.1 equiv) was added. The reaction mixture was stirred at 70 °C outside the glovebox under argon. After 1–3 days, the mixture was filtered in a glovebox. Toluene was removed *in vacuo*, and the

product was extracted with hexane (3 x 4 ml). Hexane was removed *in vacuo*. P–N heterocycle was obtained as a dark violet solid.



Scheme 7. Deprotonation of $(\text{bpi})_3\text{P}^+-\text{CH}_2\text{Ph}$. * NaH, KH, KHMDS or *t*-BuOK.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Basicity of organophosphorus compounds

The basicities in the gas phase (GB values) and solvent (pK_{aH} values in acetonitrile) of 80 organophosphorus compounds from papers I, II, and III, along with steric parameters C–P–C (θ_{CPC}) and exact cone angles (θ_{H}) of phosphanes, are presented in Table 1. The methodologies used to obtain these values are detailed in the Experimental section and the respective papers, as indicated by the superscripts following each compound. All COSMO-RS values in papers I, II, and III were calculated at the same level of theory (BP86/def-TZVP//def2-TZVPD). SMD values in paper II were calculated at SMD/M06-2X/6-31+G(d) level of theory. The GB values from paper II were calculated at a different level of theory (M06-2X/6-31+G(d)//MP2/6-311++G(d,p)) compared to the one in papers I and III (BP86/def2-TZVP//MP2/def2-TZVPP). The θ_{CPC} and θ_{H} values reported in paper II were mainly calculated using structures optimized with the SMD solvation model, whereas the corresponding values in paper I were derived from structures obtained using the COSMO-RS model.

A total of 15 novel benzophenoneimino substituted compounds were synthesized in this work: experimental pK_{aH} values were measured for 9 of them, while the remaining 6 were evaluated computationally. Additionally, pK_{aH} values were determined for their precursors – P(bpi)₃ and benzophenoneimine (bpi-H), computationally for the former and experimentally for the latter. The experimental pK_{aH} values for 12 phosphanes were also reported for the first time. In addition, calculated properties were presented for a total of 63 phosphanes. 13 experimental pK_{aH} values in Table 1 are taken from the literature.

Table 1. Properties of organophosphorus compounds. Compounds are in decreasing order according to COSMO-RS $pK_{\text{aH}}(\text{MeCN})$ values.

No	Compound	$pK_{\text{aH}}(\text{MeCN})$			GB [kcal·mol ⁻¹]	θ_{CPC} [°]	θ_{H} [°]
		experimental	COSMO-RS	SMD			
1	Me ₂ C=P(bpi) ₃ ^a		≤37		284.9		
2	MeCH=P(bpi) ₃ ^a		≤37		274.7		
3	H ₂ C=P(bpi) ₃ ^a		≤36		281.0		
4	Ph(Me)C=P(bpi) ₃ ^a		≤31		262.7		
5	Ph ₂ C=P(bpi) ₃ ^a		≤28		269.9		
6	PhCH=P(bpi) ₃ ^a		31		267.8		
7	<i>t</i> -BuN=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	25.32			260.8		
8	P[2,4,6-(MeO) ₃ -C ₆ H ₂] ₃ ^b	19.66	21.4		261.5	114.8	275
9	4-NMe ₂ -C ₆ H ₄ -N=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	21.31			259.1		
10	4-MeO-C ₆ H ₄ -N=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	20.69			258.5		
11	PhN=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	20.14			257.0		
12	P(pyr) ₃ ^b	20.35	19.5		241.8	111.7	218
13	4-Cl-C ₆ H ₄ -N=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	19.21			257.5		
14	4-NMe ₂ -C ₆ H ₄ -N=N-C ₆ H ₄ N=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	18.99			261.5		
15	PAd ₃ ^b		18.5		246.2	115.0	244
16	4-CF ₃ -C ₆ H ₄ -N=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	18.39			252.4		
17	P[2,6-(MeO) ₂ -C ₆ H ₃] ₃ ^b	17.23	18.2		254.2	114.8	273
18	P(<i>t</i> -Bu) ₃ ^b		17.3		238.1	114.8	244
19	P(dma) ₃ ^b	18.9	17.1		234.5	111.6	223
20	P-N heterocycle ^a (Scheme 7)	17.06			234.5		
21	4-NO ₂ -C ₆ H ₄ -N=P(bpi) ₃ ^a	17.00			247.7		
22	PCy ₃ ^b	16.7	16.6		240.3	112.7	229
23	P[2,4,6-(MeO) ₃ -C ₆ H ₂] ₂ Ph ^b	15.87	16.5		252.6	114.0	252
24	P(bpi) ₃ ^a		16.0		246.9		
25	P(<i>i</i> -Pr) ₃ ^b		15.7		233.1	112.6	227
26	PMe ₂ Et ^b		15.6		223.5	111.2	187

^a from paper III; ^b from paper I; ^c from paper II.

No	Compound	p <i>K</i> _{aH} (MeCN)			GB [kcal·mol ⁻¹]	θ_{CPC} [°]	θ_{H} [°]
		experimental	COSMO-RS	SMD			
27	PMe ₃ ^b	15.48	15.6	18.5	220.3	110.4	163
28	P(<i>i</i> -Pr) ₂ Me ^b		15.3		228.6	111.9	219
29	PMeEt ₂ ^b		15.1		225.4	111.4	187
30	P(<i>n</i> -Pr) ₃ ^b		15.0		229.5	111.6	215
31	PEt ₃ ^b		14.8		226.8	111.5	212
32	P(<i>n</i> -Bu) ₃ ^b		14.7		230.0	111.5	213
33	P(<i>t</i> -Bu) ₂ Ph ^b		14.7		236.1	114.3	243
34	bpi-H ^a	13.92			230.6		
35	P(<i>i</i> -Bu) ₃ ^b		13.8		229.7	110.9	250
36	PCy ₂ Ph ^b		13.1		235.1	112.4	225
37	PMes ₃ ^b	12.87	13.0		239.5	115.9	302
38	PNp ₃ ^b		12.8		231.3	110.0	284
39	PEt ₂ Ph ^b		12.7		228.2	111.7	218
40	P(<i>n</i> -Bu) ₂ Ph ^b		12.6		231.8	111.7	219
41	PMe ₂ Ph ^b	12.64	12.2		224.4	111.2	198
42	P[2,4,6-(MeO) ₃ -C ₆ H ₂]Ph ₂ ^b	11.76	11.5		241.5	113.2	237
43	P(<i>t</i> -Bu)Ph ₂ ^b		11.4		232.6	113.6	241
44	P(4-MeO-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b	10.06	10.5		239.5	111.9	216
45	PEtPh ₂ ^b		10.1		227.3	111.8	224
46	PCyPh ₂ ^b	10.23	10.0		231.3	112.4	232
47	P(2-MeO-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b		9.8		241.4	110.7	248
48	PMePh ₂ ^b	9.97	9.5		226.5	111.4	202
49	PBn ₃ ^b		9.3		229.1	112.0	250
50	P(4-Me-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b		8.7		234.8	111.7	216
51	P(2-Me-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b		7.8		230.7	111.7	277
52	P(3-MeO-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b	7.25	7.7		234.6	111.5	229
53	P[3,5-(MeO) ₂ -C ₆ H ₃] ₃ ^b	7.19	7.7		237.9	111.5	233

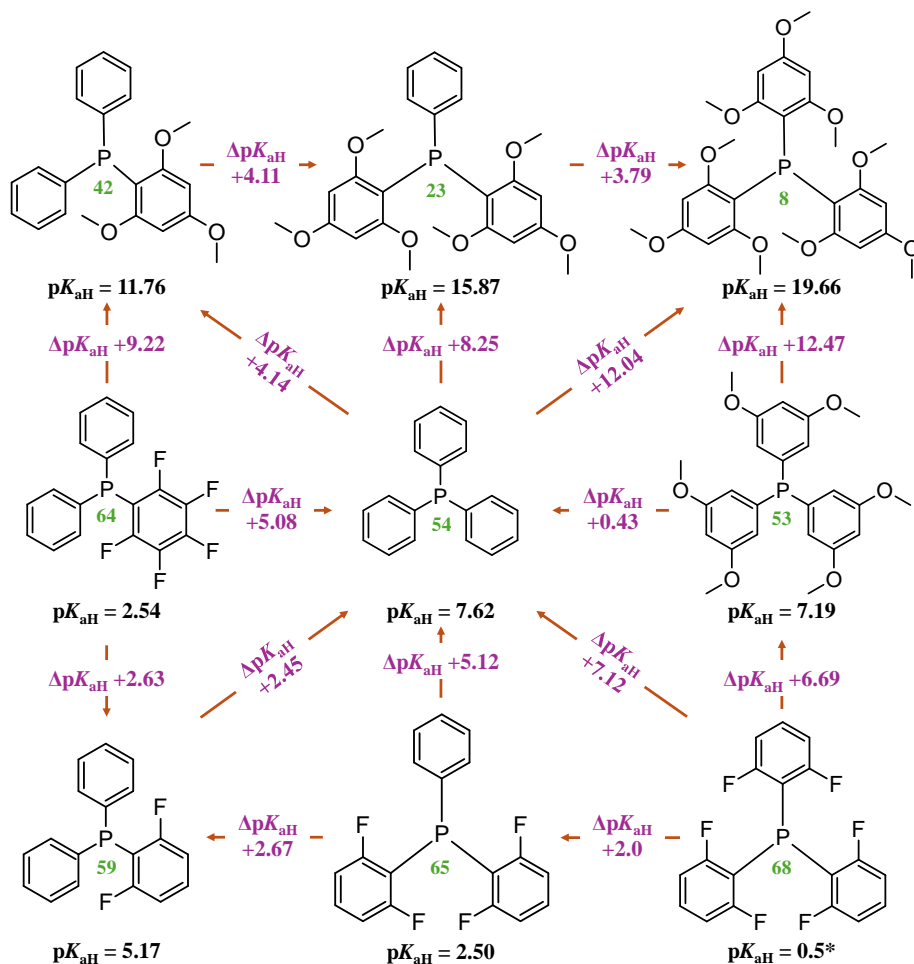
^a from paper III; ^b from paper I; ^c from paper II.

No	Compound	p <i>K</i> _{aH} (MeCN)			GB [kcal·mol ⁻¹]	θ _{CPC} [°]	θ _H [°]
		experimental	COSMO-RS	SMD			
54	PPh ₃ ^b	7.62	7.1		228.6	111.6	218
55	P(1-Napht)Ph ₂ ^b	7.29	7.0		230.0	111.6	229
56	P(4-F-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b		6.7		224.0	111.6	216
57	P(1-Napht) ₃ ^b	6.55	6.3		232.3	111.6	247
58	P(2-F-C ₆ H ₄)Ph ₂ ^{b,c}	6.11	5.9	6.3	221.1	110.8	220
59	P(2,6-F ₂ -C ₆ H ₃)Ph ₂ ^{b,c}	5.17	5.5		220.7	111.4	221
60	P(4-Cl-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b		4.9		223.3	111.4	215
61	PPh ₂ H ^b		4.7		216.7	110.8	187
62	P(2-F-C ₆ H ₄) ₂ Ph ^{b,c}	4.56	4.5	4.6	219.4	110.5	226
63	P(2-F-C ₆ H ₄) ₃ ^b	3.01	3.0		224.1	110.7	231
64	P(C ₆ F ₅)Ph ₂ ^{b,c}	2.54	2.7	2.7	212.7	111.6	222
65	P(2,6-F ₂ -C ₆ H ₃) ₂ Ph ^{b,c}	2.50	2.5	2.4	217.0	111.7	232
66	P(2,6-Cl ₂ -C ₆ H ₃) ₃ ^b	1.70	1.7		225.5	115.4	277
67	P(CF ₃)Me ₂		1.7	3.8	196.5	109.8	169
68	P(2,6-F ₂ -C ₆ H ₃) ₃ ^b		0.5		222.0	113.5	255
69	P[CH ₂ CH(CF ₃) ₂] ₃ ^b		0		201.9	109.0	256
70	PPh ₂ Cl ^b		-0.2		212.5	111.0	202
71	P(C ₆ F ₅) ₂ Ph ^b		-2		211.1	112.3	234
72	P[3,5-(CF ₃) ₂ -C ₆ H ₃] ₃ ^b		-2		200.5	111.4	221
73	P(CH ₂ CF ₃) ₃ ^b		-3		194.6	111.1	228
74	P(C ₆ F ₅) ₃ ^{b,c}		-7	-8	190.4	112.6	256
75	P(CF ₃) ₂ Me ^c		-13	-11	174.4	109.0	174
76	PF ₃ ^c		-23	-24	146.2	108.0	149
77	P(CF ₃) ₃ ^c		-27	-25	156.4	109.0	185
78	P(C ₂ F ₅) ₃ ^c		-27	-29	158.8	109.0	217
79	P(C ₃ F ₇) ₃ ^c		-27	-28	162.1	110.2	227
80	P(C ₄ F ₉) ₃ ^c		-28	-32	159.8	110.3	215

^a from paper III; ^b from paper I; ^c from paper II.

3.1.1. General trends in phosphane basicity

The impact of electron-donating and -withdrawing substituents on phosphane basicity is illustrated in Scheme 8.



Scheme 8. Substituent impact on phosphane basicity. pK_{aH} (MeCN) values are from Table 1, corresponding compound numbers are marked in green below the structures. * Computational COSMO-RS value.

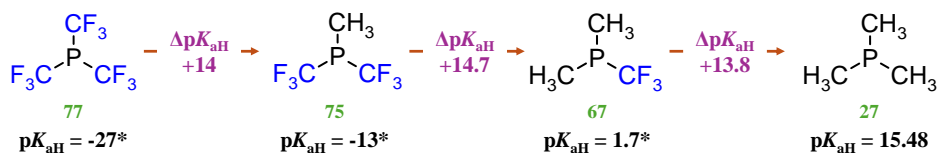
Methoxy groups in the ortho and para positions enhance the basicity of aromatic phosphanes, whereas they reduce it in the meta position (where resonance effects are absent) since they also act as inductive electron-withdrawing substituents (inductive substituent constant $\sigma_{\text{F}}(\text{MeO}) = 0.30$; for comparison, $\sigma_{\text{F}}(\text{NH}_2) = 0.09$)⁷⁸ to some extent. The increase in basicity induced by electron-donating substituents in ortho/para positions is primarily due to stabilization of the protonated phosphane through resonance effects (resonance substituent

constant $\sigma_{\text{R}}(\text{MeO}) = -0.43$,⁷⁸ as these groups reduce the positive charge density on the phosphorus atom, making protonation more favourable. Additionally, methoxy groups in the ortho position offer further stabilization of the protonated form through charge-charge interaction due to the spatial proximity of the oxygen atoms to the proton attached to the P atom.

Although the lone pair on phosphorus is only weakly conjugated with the aromatic rings due to suboptimal orbital alignment, a minor resonance effect remains.⁷⁹ As a result, electron-donating substituents can enhance the accessibility of the phosphorus lone pair, further contributing to increased basicity.

On the other hand, groups with resonance-accepting character like NO_2 ($\sigma_{\text{R}} = 0.16$)⁷⁸ in the ortho/para position, as well as strong inductive electron-withdrawing groups like NO_2 ($\sigma_{\text{F}} = 0.64$),⁷⁸ F ($\sigma_{\text{F}} = 0.57$),⁷⁸ and CF_3 ($\sigma_{\text{F}} = 0.46$)⁷⁸ in any position, lead to a decrease in the basicity of aromatic phosphanes. Electron-accepting groups reduce basicity by destabilizing the protonated form and decreasing the availability of the phosphorus lone pair.

Alkyl-substituted phosphanes typically display higher basicity than their aromatic counterparts. This trend is largely due to the negative field-inductive effect of the phenyl ring ($\sigma_{\text{F}} = 0.14$),⁷⁸ which destabilizes the protonated species. Similarly, fluorination of alkyl groups decreases phosphane basicity owing to the strong electron-withdrawing character of fluorine. Replacing a methyl group with a trifluoromethyl group in PMe_3 results in a decrease in basicity by approximately 11–15 $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ units per methyl group (Scheme 9). This very large change underscores the unique characteristics of fluorine, arising from its notably high electronegativity.



Scheme 9. The impact of replacing CH_3 groups with CF_3 on phosphane basicity. $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}(\text{MeCN})$ values are from Table 1, corresponding compound numbers are marked in green below the structures. * Computational COSMO-RS values.

3.1.2. Perfluoroalkylphosphanes

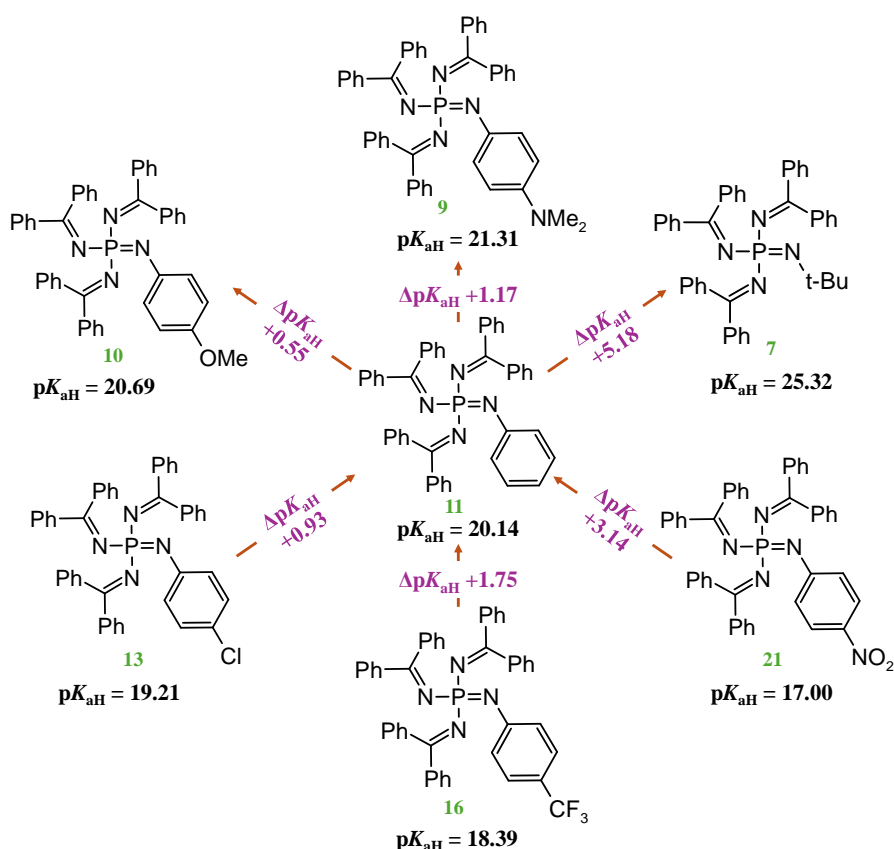
Perfluoroalkyl groups (Rf) are inductive electron-withdrawing substituents ($\sigma_{\text{F}}(\text{CF}_3) = 0.46$); for comparison, $\sigma_{\text{F}}(\text{CH}_3) = -0.01$)⁷⁸ and, when at least one fluorine atom is in the alpha position, also act as resonance acceptors ($\sigma_{\text{R}}(\text{CF}_3) = 0.09$; for comparison, $\sigma_{\text{R}}(\text{CH}_3) = -0.13$)⁷⁸ through anionic hyperconjugation.

As a result of their pronounced electron-withdrawing nature, Rf groups significantly reduce the basicity of phosphanes. Although the uncertainty of their computational $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ values likely spans several units, the results of this work indicate that the $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ values of $\text{P}(\text{CF}_3)_3$ (**77**), $\text{P}(\text{C}_2\text{F}_5)_3$ (**78**), $\text{P}(\text{C}_3\text{F}_7)_3$ (**79**), and

$P(C_4F_9)_3$ (**80**) are all below -20 . This clearly demonstrates that $P(Rf)_3$ compounds possess negligible basicity and cannot be considered Brønsted-Lowry bases under almost any realistic experimental conditions. However, owing to the strong π -backbonding effect induced by the highly electronegative substituents, these compounds display markedly greater π -acidity compared to conventional PR_3 phosphanes. This increased π -acidity arises from the lower energy of their σ^* anti-bonding orbitals, an effect that contributes significantly to the stabilization of the resulting transition metal complexes.^{80,81}

3.1.3. Phosphazenes

The impact of different substituents on phosphazene basicity is illustrated in Scheme 10.



Scheme 10. Substituent impact on phosphazene basicity. $pK_{aH}(\text{MeCN})$ values are from Table 1. The corresponding compound numbers are marked in green below the structures.

Aryl-imino phosphazenes exhibit stabilization of their neutral forms through delocalization of the electrons on the nitrogen – the main protonation site – into the aromatic ring.⁸² This delocalization, which reduces the availability of the

nitrogen lone pair for protonation, is absent in alkyl-imino phosphazenes. Instead, in the latter, the positive charge generated upon protonation is stabilized via inductive effects of the alkyl groups. This results in significantly higher basicity of alkyl-imino phosphazenes compared to their aryl-imino counterparts.

Furthermore, aryl-imino phosphazenes bearing electron-donating substituents groups (e.g., NMe_2 and MeO) in para position show enhanced basicity relative to the unsubstituted analogue. This is due to the increased ability of these donor groups to delocalize the positive charge on nitrogen formed upon protonation, thereby stabilizing the conjugate acid. Conversely, the presence of electron-withdrawing substituents (e.g., Cl , CF_3 , and NO_2) decreases the basicity of the respective phosphazenes by destabilizing the protonated form through increasing the positive charge on the nitrogen.

3.2. Electronic and steric properties of phosphanes

The TEP value mentioned in the Literature overview is widely used to characterize the electronic properties of phosphanes.⁸³ However, it is not a convenient tool for rapid comparison of phosphanes. Determination of the TEP value necessitates the preparation or calculation of a ligand- $\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_3$ complex. This poses practical challenges, as the starting material, $\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_4$, is a toxic gas that is not readily available in most research laboratories, and the calculation of complexes with the involvement of transition metals can be resource-intensive. Moreover, the results are highly sensitive to solvent effects,² making computational gas-phase values less reliable without a suitable reference system.

As an alternative, the $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ value can be employed to characterize the electronic properties of phosphanes. $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ values can be directly measured from a free phosphane or calculated using the structures of the neutral and protonated forms. $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ values offer valuable insights into the electronic properties of compounds and are generally not significantly impacted by steric hindrance from distant substituents. However, substituents located near the protonation site can sometimes markedly affect both the stability of the protonated form and the accessibility of the proton. Nevertheless, as demonstrated in paper I, $\text{p}K_{\text{aH}}$ values showed a strong correlation with TEP values for the available dataset, with only a few notable outliers. For more details, the reader is referred to paper I.

Another important property of a ligand is its size. Similar to the TEP value, the Tolman cone angle and other modern steric parameters are derived from metal-ligand complexes.^{3,84} Although these parameters offer higher precision in absolute terms, they are often impractical for quick ligand comparisons. As a more efficient alternative, θ_{CPC} and θ_{H} angles,⁵ which are obtained directly from protonated ligand structures, present a valuable option for preliminary screening and can significantly reduce resource demands.

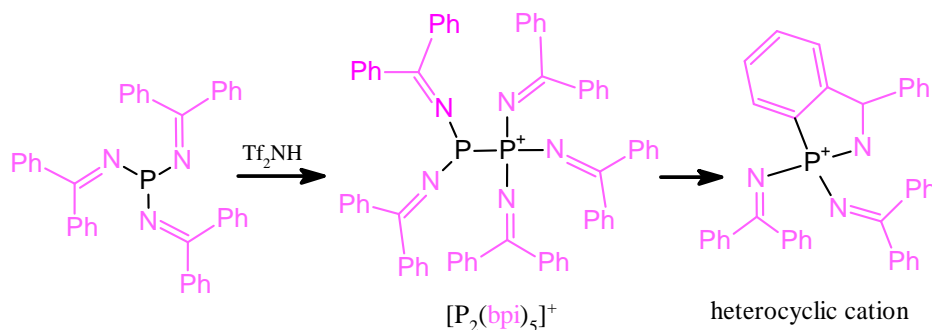
The C–P–C bond angle provides one of the simplest and most accessible estimates of ligand size, easily derived from computational structures or crystallographic data. However, this descriptor has limitations, particularly for branched

phosphanes, where the C–P–C angle is not affected as much by the rest of the substituent structure. In such cases, the θ_H angle offers a more reliable approach, showing reasonable correlation with the Tolman cone angle. Further details on these parameters can be found in paper I.

3.3. Benzophenoneimino compounds

Since phosphanes bearing imino substituents ($P(N=CR_2)_3$) are electron-rich nucleophiles, many of which exhibit remarkable basicity,^{7,85} benzophenoneimino (bpi, $Ph_2C=N-$) substituted phosphane and its phosphazene derivatives were synthesized. The incorporation of the bpi group provides the resulting phosphazenes with excellent UV-Vis spectral properties, making them particularly suitable for spectrophotometric pK_{aH} measurements. As a result, they contribute to the supplementation of previously established UV-Vis basicity scales.^{4,42}

However, the pK_{aH} measurement of the starting compound $P(bpi)_3$ was unsuccessful due to its high reactivity toward nucleophiles, including the anions of commonly used acidic titrants. It was also observed that upon adding bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)amine (Tf_2NH) to the phosphane, $P(bpi)_3$ undergoes a reaction to form a heterocyclic cation via the formation of a phosphinophosphonium cation $[P_2(bpi)_5]^+$ as the intermediate (Scheme 11). These findings indicate that under used conditions $P(bpi)_3$ does not behave as a Brønsted-Lowry base.



Scheme 11. Formation of a heterocyclic cation as a result of adding acid to $P(bpi)_3$.

Cyclization was also observed during the deprotonation of some phosphonium cations. In most cases, deprotonation led to mixtures of decomposition products and these compounds were not investigated further. However, the deprotonation of $(bpi)_3P^+-CH_2Ph$ resulted in the formation of a P–N heterocyclic compound (Scheme 7) as the main product. Compounds featuring adjacent phosphorus and nitrogen atoms, and P=C double bonds are relatively rare, with only a few examples of such heterocycles reported in the literature.^{86–90} Indirect evidence based on UV-Vis spectroscopy suggests that deprotonation of $(bpi)_3P^+-CH_3$ and $(bpi)_3P^+-CH_2CH_3$ leads to the formation of P–N heterocycles as well.

When employed as a substituent in organophosphorus compounds, the benzophenoneimino group appears to exhibit peculiar behavior, frequently leading to cyclization at the ortho position of one of the phenyl rings. Nevertheless, the bpi-phosphazenes seem to be stable and valuable bases with unexplored potential application as reagents in organic chemistry. The reactions and properties of bpi-compounds are described in more detail in paper III.

SUMMARY

The aim of this thesis was to compile basicity data of phosphanes dispersed across various sources into a unified and comprehensive overview, while also addressing notable gaps in the existing dataset. An additional objective was to explore simpler alternatives to the commonly used descriptors for characterizing phosphanes. Furthermore, the synthesis of new bases with relatively high basicity and favorable UV-Vis properties was pursued, with the goal of supplementing the UV-Vis spectrophotometric basicity scale in acetonitrile.

pK_{aH} values for a structurally diverse range of phosphanes were presented, including both newly measured or calculated values and data compiled from the literature. As shown in this thesis, phosphane basicity can be systematically adjusted through substituent modification, spanning a wide pK_{aH} range from roughly -30 to beyond 30 (in acetonitrile). Substituents with electron-withdrawing properties tend to lower the pK_{aH} value, thus reducing the basicity of phosphanes, whereas electron-donating groups elevate it.

A framework for assessing the properties of phosphanes is proposed in this thesis. Based on the observed correlation between pK_{aH} values and conventional Tolman Electronic Parameters (TEP), it is suggested that pK_{aH} values could serve as a practical alternative to TEP values for evaluating electronic characteristics of phosphanes. Additionally, new steric descriptors for describing the steric properties of phosphanes were presented as alternatives to the widely used Tolman cone angle, which, despite its prevalence, is relatively challenging to obtain. For preliminary screening purposes, C–P–C angles (θ_{CPC}) or the exact cone angles of protonated phosphanes (θ_H), depending on the specific set of compounds, may be used. The use of these values has the potential to simplify future ligand screening processes, eliminating the need for computational modeling or experimental preparation of metal-ligand complexes.

Novel phosphazene bases derived from benzophenoneimino (bpi) substituted phosphane were synthesized with experimental pK_{aH} values ranging from 17 to 26 in acetonitrile. Although these bpi-phosphazenes are in terms of basicity outperformed by many existing bases, they still exhibit considerable basic strength and could offer practical advantages as reagents.

In contrast to the bpi-phosphazenes demonstrating reasonable stability, the protonation of $P(\text{bpi})_3$ resulted in the formation of a unique P-N heterocycle. Similar phenomenon was observed when bpi-substituted phosphonium cations were deprotonated. This indicates high steric crowding and instability of these specific compounds.

In conclusion, the objectives of this thesis were successfully achieved, resulting in the provision of basicity data and steric characterization for 63 phosphanes. Furthermore, 15 novel bpi-compounds were prepared and characterized, including 9 new bases for which experimental pK_{aH} values were obtained. Basicity data was also provided for their starting materials.

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SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Fosfaanide ja seotud ühendite aluselisisus

Käesoleva doktoritöö eesmärk oli koondada erinevates allikates leiduvate fosfaanide aluselisisuse andmed ühtseks ja terviklikuks ülevaateks ning käsitleda samas ka olemasolevates andmestikes esinevaid olulisi lünkasid. Lisaks taheti sünteesida uusi aluseid, millel on suhteliselt kõrge aluselisisus ja sobivad UV-Vis spektraalomadused, eesmärgiga täiendada UV-Vis spektrofotomeetrilist aluselisisuse skaalat atsetonitriilis.

Töös on esitatud pK_{aH} väärtused struktuuriliselt mitmekesisele fosfaanide ja seotud ühendite valikule, sealhulgas nii uusi mõõdetud või arvutatud väärtusi kui ka kirjandusest kogutud andmeid – kokku 80 pK_{aH} väärtust, neist 45 määratud arvutuslikult ja 22 eksperimentaalselt käesolevas töös, 13 eksperimentaalset väärtust võeti kirjandusest. Nagu töös näidatud, on fosfaanide aluselisisust võimalik süsteemselt muuta asendajate modifitseerimise kaudu – pK_{aH} väärtused võivad ulatuda ligikaudu -30 -st kuni üle 30 -ni (atsetonitriilis). Elektron-aktseptoorsed asendajad langetavad fosfaanide pK_{aH} väärtust (vähendavad aluselisisust), samas kui elektron-donoorsed rühmad suurendavad seda.

Töös pakutakse välja raamistik fosfaanide elektroonsete ja steeriliste omaduste hindamiseks. Tulemustest selgus, et pK_{aH} väärtused korreleeruvad hästi traditsiooniliste Tolmani elektroonsete parameetritega (TEP), mistõttu võiks pK_{aH} väärtusi kasutada praktilise alternatiivina fosfaanide elektroonsete omaduste hindamisel. Lisaks pakuti välja uued steerilised deskriptorid, mis võiksid asendada laialdaselt kasutatavat Tolmani koonusenurka, mille määramine on keerulisem. Esmases sõelumisetapis võib kasutada C–P–C nurki (θ_{CPC}) või protoneeritud fosfaanide koonusenurki (θ_H), sõltuvalt uuritavate ühendite komplektist. Nende väärtuste kasutamine võiks lihtsustada tulevikus ligandide sobivuse esmast hindamist, kõrvaldades vajaduse valmistada või arvutada metall-ligand komplekse kõikidele huvipakkuvatele fosfaanidele, tehes seda vaid enim potentsiaali näitavatele ligandidele.

Lisaks sünteesiti uued bensofenooniimino (bpi) rühma sisaldavad fosfaseenid, eksperimentaalsete pK_{aH} väärtustega vahemikus 17 kuni 26 atsetonitriilis. Kuigi paljud juba olemasolevad alused on kõrgema aluselisisusega, on need bpi-fosfaseenid siiski piisavalt tugevad ning võivad potentsiaalselt pakkuda praktilisi eeliseid reaktiividena. Nende kasutamine võib aidata vältida mõningaid probleeme, nagu halb lahustuvus või UV-Vis aktiivsuse puudumine.

Hoolimata asjaolust, et bpi-fosfaseenid näitasid head stabiilsust, viis $P(bpi)_3$ protoneerimine unikaalse P–N heterotsükli moodustumiseni. Sama täheldati ka bpi-asendatud fosfooniumkatioonide deprotoneerimisel. See viitab nende ainete suurele steerilisele koormusele ja ebastabiilsusele.

Kokkuvõttes saavutati doktoritöö eesmärgid, koondades 63 fosfaani aluselisisuse andmed ja steerilised omadused ühte tervikusse. Lisaks valmistati 15 uut bpi-ühendit, millest 9 uuele alusele mõõdeti ka eksperimentaalsed pK_{aH} väärtused. Aluselisisuse väärtused määrati ka töös sünteesitud bpi-ühendite prekursoritele.

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