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New adaptations of analytical tools for the study of dynamic interactions of lanthanide-based catalysis in aqueous media

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NEW ADAPTATIONS OF ANALYTICAL TOOLS FOR THE STUDY OF DYNAMIC INTERACTIONS OF LANTHANIDE-BASED CATALYSIS IN AQUEOUS MEDIA

by

PRABANI LAKMANTHI DISSANAYAKE

DISSERTATION

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of Wayne State University,

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MAJOR: CHEMISTRY

Approved by:

Advisor Date

DEDICATION

To my loving parents

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction to chemistry of lanthanides

1.1 Introduction

To pursue an analytical Ph.D., I have enabled the investigation of reaction mechanisms of water-tolerant lanthanide catalytic systems in aqueous media by studying new applications of two analytical techniques: luminescence-decay studies and variable-temperature ^{17}O NMR spectroscopy. I will discuss these studies throughout my thesis in the appropriate chapters. However, the application of these techniques depends on the properties of the lanthanides; consequently, this chapter begins with a brief introduction to the properties and uses of the lanthanides. This introduction ends with a focused review of the importance of the Lewis acidity of the lanthanides that highlights the need to acquire a deeper knowledge of the fundamental behavior of these elements in aqueous media.

1.2 Photophysical and magnetic properties

The lanthanide elements (Ln's), in the periodic table between barium (56) and hafnium (72), have been actively researched since the middle of the 18th century.^{1,2} Because of the valance electron filling of the 4f orbitals across this series of elements, the lanthanides are also known as f-block elements. The 4f orbitals are shielded from the environment by the electrons in the 5d and 6s orbitals (**Figure 1.1**); 3 consequently, only small crystal-field effects are observed with $Ln³⁺$ ions relative to d-block elements,. Another important consequence of this shielding of valance orbitals is that Ln^{3+} ions have sharp emission bands due to the transitions within the $4fⁿ$ electronic energy levels, which are parity forbidden and have low molar absorption coefficients

 $($ \leq $\rm M^{-1}s^{-1}$).⁴ Furthermore, due to the presence of electronically shielded excided states, these excited state ions have long decay times $(\sim 10 \text{ ms})$.⁴

Figure 1.1 Radial distribution or the 4t, 5d, and 6s orbitals.

Due to the photophysical properties of the lanthanides, many technologies like optical fibers, optical amplifiers, lasers, and luminescence stains use these ions for in vivo and in vitro applications including characterization in biotechnology, biomedical analysis, medical diagnosis, and cellular imaging.^{5,6} Chapter two in this thesis contains a description of the mechanism of lanthanide luminescence, and chapter four contains a description of my research with luminescence-decay studies.

In addition to interesting luminescence properties, a consequence of having seven f orbitals is that the lanthanides are paramagnetic in their common +3 oxidation state, except for diamagnetic La^{3+} and Lu^{3+} , due to high-spin ground states. The magnetic properties of these ions are useful in magnetic applications like NMR spectroscopy and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI).⁵ Chapter six contains a description of my research related to the magnetic properties of lanthanides: studying the rate of ligand-exchange using variable-temperature ^{17}O NMR spectroscopy.

1.3 Chemistry of the aqueous lanthanides

Upon solvating lanthanides, there is a strong propensity to form stable trivalent ions relative to divalent or tetravalent ions due to the stable electronic configuration of Ln^{3+} ions. These Ln^{3+} ions are hard Lewis acids, and they have a strong attraction for hard bases.⁷ Furthermore, lanthanides have a wide-range of possible coordination numbers, $6-12$.² However, compared to transition-metal ions, the coordination chemistry of these elements is less dependent on electronic configuration and more dependent on ionic radii. The low polarizing ability of $Ln³⁺$ ions lead to ionic interactions with ligands with less bonding strength compared to the covalent bonding characteristics of transition metals. With respect to Ln^{3+} ions, I was interested in solvated lanthanide ions, because my intention was to investigate reaction mechanisms of water-tolerant lanthanide catalytic systems in aqueous media.

Trivalent lanthanide ions readily form hydrated complexes due to their hydration energies $(-\Delta H_{\text{hydr}} = 3300 - 3700 \text{ Kj mol}^{-1})$ and ionic radii $(173 - 204 \text{ pm})$.³ When lanthanide ions are solvated, the space that the directly coordinated solvent molecules occupies is called the innercoordination sphere or inner-sphere. The next nearby layer of space outside of the innercoordination sphere is ordered with hydrogen-bond interactions with the inner-sphere and is called the second-sphere, and the space outside of the second-sphere with freely diffusing water molecules is called the outer-sphere (**Figure 1.2**). The second- and outer-spheres are often grouped together and collectively called the outer-sphere, and I will use this convention throughout this thesis.

Figure 1.2 Inner- and outer-sphere coordination of solvent molecules of aqueous Ln^{3+} ions. The wedge around the metal ion represents non-water ligands.

The use of lanthanides as Lewis acid precatalysts in aqueous solution has several advantages over traditional Lewis acid precatalysts like BF_3 and $TiCl_4$ that include the potential to work with unprotected functional groups, ease of product separation and catalyst recovery, and avoidance of costly solvent-drying procedures.^{7,8} However, details of the lanthanide coordination spheres are not well understood in aqueous systems with respect to solvent and counter ions during catalysis. This lack of knowledge hampers the ability to rationally design and study new catalysts. Many attempts have been made to gain a detailed understanding of the aqueous properties of lanthanides via different analytical techniques—including Fouriertransform (FT)IR, NMR spectroscopy, conductivity measurements, and luminescence-decay studies—and the use of these techniques prior to my research are described in the second chapter of this thesis followed by a brief introduction to the analytical techniques that I have used to build upon and complement the techniques used by others. Due to the Lewis acidic properties of

the lanthanides, there are many important carbon–carbon and carbon–heteroatom bond-forming reactions catalyzed by lanthanides including the Diels–Alder, aldol, retro-aldol, aza-Diels–Alder, and Mukaiyama aldol reactions.⁹ Because the Mukaiyama aldol reaction (**Scheme 1.1**) is watertolerant, potentially stereoselective, and a synthetically important carbon–carbon bond-forming reaction,⁹ I performed my research using this reaction as a test case. In the third chapter of this thesis, I summarize the common reaction conditions used with the Mukaiyama aldol reaction.¹⁰ and my new mechanistic investigations of this reaction acquired by adapting luminescence-decay measurements are in the fourth chapter.

Scheme 1.1 The Mukaiyama aldol reaction between a silyl enol ether and benzaldehyde in the presence of a $Ln(OTf)$ ₃ precatalyst that was studied in this thesis. The specific reaction is between cyclohexenyloxytrimethylsilane and benzaldehyde to synthesize 2- (hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone.

In the fourth chapter, I also describe my research that unveils mechanistic information regarding the catalytic reaction of aqueous, lanthanide-catalyzed, asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reactions for the synthesis of chiral β-hydroxy ketones via changes in water-coordination number. At the end of the fourth chapter, I describe a mechanistic study of the relationships between the rates of catalysis and water-coordination numbers of a series of lanthanide-based catalysts. This study involved the combination of high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and luminescence-decay measurements to investigate the potential use of other lanthanide salts in aqueous media including nitrates and triflates as catalysts.

In chapter five, I describe the influence of solvents other than water on inner-sphere coordination. This research is important because many organic reactions are carried out in aqueous binary solvent systems when lanthanide-based precatalysts are used.¹¹ In this study, I used the luminescence-decay rates of $Eu³⁺$ -containing complexes to elucidate the coordination environment of Eu^{3+} in several binary solvent systems. The end of this chapter describes how my research can be used to determine the average number of inner-sphere-water and solvent molecules in different binary aqueous solvent systems. I used the results of this chapter to make a web calculator that can be found at http://chem.wayne.edu/allengroup/teaching.html.

Although I have used luminescence-decay studies to determine changes in inner-sphere coordination, the mechanistically important water-, substrate-, and product-exchange rates could not be obtained using this technique. In the sixth chapter, I describe $\frac{17}{0}$ NMR spectroscopy as the second analytical tool that I have used to elucidate mechanistic details of water-tolerant, lanthanide-catalyzed organic reactions. This technique is commonly used to study waterexchange rates with lanthanide ions, and I worked toward its application to study substratebinding and product-inhibition rates.

The final two chapters summarize my investigations and describe future directions to explore water-tolerant lanthanide-based catalysis with respect to structure–activity relationships and novel adaptations of analytical techniques to study these catalytic systems.

CHAPTER TWO

Solvation and dynamics of lanthanides

Portions of this chapter were reprinted or adapted with permission from Dissanayake, P.; Mei, Y.; Allen, M. J. Luminescence-Decay as an Easy-to-Use Tool for the Study of Lanthanide-Containing Catalysts in Aqueous Solutions. *ACS Catal.* **2011,** *1,* 1203–1212. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society.

2.1 Lanthanides as water-tolerant Lewis acids

Lanthanide ions are widely used as water-tolerant Lewis acid precatalysts because they do not undergo hydrolysis and avoid the difficulties associated with recovery and reuse compared to many non-water-tolerant Lewis acids. The advantages of using aqueous-stable catalysts include the ability to use unprotected functional groups, ease of product separation and catalyst recovery, and avoidance of costly solvent drying procedures. ^{7,8} To gain the advantages of lanthanide-based precatalysts especially with respect to enantioselectivity, because many enantioselective Lewis acid catalysts must be used under strictly anhydrous conditions, 10 lanthanide catalysts in aqueous medium should be well understood. This understanding includes knowledge of both the inner- and outer-sphere environments of lanthanide-based precatalysts with respect to changes in the Ln^{3+} ion, counter ions, and cosolvents. A thorough understanding of these properties is helpful in understanding the kinetic and thermodynamic properties of these precatalysts in aqueous solution. However, over last two decades studies have been performed to correlate the knowledge of lanthanide salts with respect to changes in the Ln^{3+} ion, counter ions, and cosolvents to determine kinetic and thermodynamic properties of these salts in both nonaqueous and aqueous medium. Studies done initially in anhydrous conditions were important to

determine the techniques, optimum conditions which can be used to gain information regarding Ln^{3+} behavior, and this knowledge is important to study Ln^{3+} ions in aqueous media. Sub-topic **2.2** explains the past studies done to study the coordination environment of Ln^{3+} ions in nonaqueous medium, and sub-topic **2.3** describes related studies in aqueous media.

2.2 Solvation and dynamics of lanthanides in non-aqueous conditions

Nielson and coworkers used 139 La NMR spectroscopy to study several La³⁺ salts including triflate, perchlorate, bromide, chloride, and nitrate in methanol, where the water content was less than 40 ppm.¹¹ They measured the chemical shift of 139 La, to determine the relative stability constants between Ln^{3+} and counter ions $(X^-$ and $Y^-)$ shown in following equilibrium in methanol at 23 °C (**Eq 2.1**).

Eq 2.1
$$
LaX^{2+} + Y^-
$$

Let $LaY^{2+} + X^-$

When La^{3+} is in equilibrium with the two different anions, X^- and Y^- , only one resonance for ¹³⁹La was observed due to rapid anion exchange (**Eq 2.2**). In **Eq 2.2**, *x* is the mole fraction of the LaX²⁺ complex (**Eq 2.3**) and total concentration of La at time = *t* is shown in **Eq 2.4**. The relative equilibrium constant for 1:1 complexes can be described by **Eq 2.5**, and by substituting **Eqs 2.2–2.4**, to **Eq 2.5**, the final **Eq 2.6** can be obtained to calculate relative equilibrium constant.

Eq 2.2
$$
\delta_{obs} = x\delta_{Lax^{2+}} + (1-x)\delta_{Lay^{2+}}
$$

\nEq 2.3 $x = \frac{(\delta_{obs} - \delta_{Lay^{2+}})}{(\delta_{Lax^{2+}} - \delta_{Lay^{2+}})}$
\nEq 2.4 $[La]_t = [LaX_3]_t + [LaY_3]_t$
\nEq 2.5 $K_{y,x} = \frac{[LaY^{2+}][X^-]}{[Lax^{2+}][Y^-]}$

Eq 2.6
$$
K_{Y,X} = \frac{(1-x)(3[LaX_3]_t - [La]_t x}{x\{3[LaY_3]_t - [La]_t(1-x)}}
$$

Nielson and coworkers used these equations with the chemical shift of the ¹³⁹La resonance at different concentrations (**Table 2.1**).¹¹ They observed a large variation of chemical shift for different anions. These results indicate that when different anions are used, the environment of the 139 La ion changes, indicating the inner-sphere interactions between La³⁺ and anions exist.

Table 2.1 Concentrations and chemical shifts for different lanthanide salts and their relative stability constants.^a

X	Y		$[LaX3] (M) [LaY3] (M) \delta X^a (ppm) \delta Y^a (ppm)$			δ_{obs} (ppm)	$K_{Y,X}$
ClO ₄	Cl^{-}	0.247	0.244	-28	272	185	3.82
ClO ₄	Br^-	0.213	0.213	-28	233	113	1.27
ClO ₄		NO_3 ⁻ 0.242	0.263	-28	4.5	0.4	13.2
Cl^{-}		NO_3 ⁻ 0.236	0.243	272	4.5	85	3.32
Br^-		NO_3 ⁻ 0.221	0.278	233	4.5	31	11.7
$CF3SO3-$ Br ⁻		0.296	0.238	-31	233	89	1.06
$CF3SO3- Cl-$		0.260	0.268	-31	272	180	3.26

a δ*X* and δ*Y* are the chemical shifts for *LaX3* and *LaY3* respectively.

^bReprinted from Inorganica Chimica Acta, 139, Jean-Claude G Bünzli, André E Merbach, Roger M Nielson, ¹³⁹La NMR and quantitative FT-IR investigation of the interaction between Ln(III) ions and various anions in organic solvents, 151–152, Copyright 1987, with permission from Elsevier.

The data in Table 2.1 indicate that the interactions between $La³⁺$ and anions increase in the following order: $CF_3SO_3^- \approx ClO_4^- < Br^- < Cl^- < NO_3^{-11}$ This study demonstrates the

complexity of anion coordination in organic solvents, and it is evident that even 'noncoordinating' anions, tend to coordinate to La^{3+} in organic media. Another study was performed by Kasparek and coworkers using Fourier-transformed (FT) IR studies.¹² They determined that the number of uncoordinated perchlorate ions, ClO_4^- , per Ln^{3+} ion $(Ln^{3+} = La^{3+}$, Pr^{3+} , Sm^{3+} , Gd^{3+} , Dy^{3+} , Ho^{3+} , Tm^{3+} , and Yb^{3+}) in anhydrous acetonitrile increases with the atomic number, 1.43, 1.78, 1.78, 1.89, 2.12, 2.13, 2.02, and 2.04, respectively. Additionally, the affinity of Ln^{3+} for chloride ions vs perchlorate ions has been further investigated with respect to Nd^{3+} , Eu^{3+} , Tb^{3+} , and Er^{3+} . The results of these two studies suggest that several different inner-sphere species are present with respect to the number of coordinated perchlorate ions, the coordination mode (bidentate or monodentate), and the number of coordinated acetonitrile molecules. Although these results do not enable a detailed quantitative analysis, using simple assumptions, the authors determined the equilibrium ratios for the formation of monoperchlorato species in Ln(ClO₄)₃, Ln = Tb³⁺, Dy³⁺, Ho³⁺, Er³⁺ Tm³⁺, and Yb³⁺ to be 1.9, ¹³ 1.8, 1.8, 2.1, ¹³ 2.7, and 2.4 M, respectively. Further, the authors determined that the chloride ion coordinates to lanthanide ions more readily than perchlorate and that the relative affinity of lanthanide ions for chloride is higher in acetonitrile than in methanol. These conclusions were important to understand the difference of Ln^{3+} coordination in the presence of different counter anions. This background knowledge on the interactions between Ln^{3+} and anions helped me to investigate the effect of counter ions on the catalytic activity of Ln^{3+} based precatalysts in aqueous medium, and section **4.4** in chapter four gives a full description of it.

Investigations by Zanonato and coworkers using FTIR studies determined the dissociation of the triflate anion from $Ln^{3+} (Ln^{3+} = La^{3+}, Pr^{3+}, Nd^{3+}, Sm^{3+}, Eu^{3+}, Gd^{3+}, Tb^{3+},$ Dy^{3+} , Ho³⁺, Er³⁺, Tm³⁺, Yb³⁺, and Lu³⁺) in anhydrous acetonitrile.¹⁴ The authors obtained the IR

spectrum for tetraethylammonium triflate, which was considered to have completely solvated triflate ions, and compared this spectrum with the IR spectrum obtained for solutions of lanthanide triflates. As seen in **Figure 2.1**, acetonitrile is transparent in the IR region where free and coordinated triflate ions show peaks. The authors varied the concentration of tetraethylammonium triflate from 10 to 175 mM to confirm the absence of a difference in band shape, and they observed a linear relationship between the maximum absorbance peak at 1270 $\text{cm}^{-1}(A^{\text{max}}_{1270})$ and tetraethylammonium triflate concentration. These results suggest that there is no coordinated triflate in the tetraethylammonium triflate solution in anhydrous acetonitrile. After comparing the peaks of solutions of lutetium triflate to tetraethylammonium triflate, they assigned free and metal-coordinated triflate stretching modes for the $SO₃$ and $CF₃$ groups. Using A^{max} ₁₂₇₀, they quantitatively determined the concentration of free triflate ions in the lanthanide systems. Using these concentrations, they estimated the apparent equilibrium constants, *K3*, for triflate dissociation from lanthanide triflate (Eq 2.7 and Table 2.2).¹⁴

Eq 2.7
$$
Ln(SO_3CF_3)_3 \xrightarrow{K_3} Ln(SO_3CF_3)_2^+ + CF_3SO_3^-
$$

Figure 2.1 IR spectra for solutions of lutetium triflate (—) and tetraethylammonium triflate () in acetonitrile (lower traces in absorbance) and acetonitrile (upper trace in transmittance.)¹⁴ Reprinted from Inorganica Chimica Acta, 207, Plinio Di Bernardo, Gregory R. Choppin, Roberto Portanova, Pier Luigi Zanonato, Lanthanide(III) trifluoromethanesulfonate complexes in anhydrous acetonitrile, 85–91, Copyright 1993, with permission from Elsevier.

M^{3+}	atomic $\log K_3$	
	number	
Gd^{3+}	64	2.52
Tb^{3+}	65	2.58
Dy^{3+}	66	2.53
Ho^{3+}	67	2.53
Er^{3+}	68	2.45
Tm^{3+}	69	2.41
Yb^{3+}	70	2.32
Lu^{3+}	71	2.33

Table 2.2 Calculated apparent equilibrium constants for Ln^{3+} ions.¹⁴

Adapted from Inorganica Chimica Acta, 207, Plinio Di Bernardo, Gregory R. Choppin, Roberto Portanova, Pier Luigi Zanonato, Lanthanide(III) trifluoromethanesulfonate complexes in anhydrous acetonitrile, 85–91, Copyright 1993, with permission from Elsevier.

A decrease of log *K3* values with increasing atomic number can be seen in **Table 2.2**. However, this result is the opposite of what would be expected based on the increasing charge density of these ions. The authors explained that this apparent contradiction was due to the steric crowding due to the addition of the third ligand to $Ln(CF_3SO_3)^{2+}$ resulting in the decreased of opportunity to form $Ln(CF_3SO_3)$ ₃. The authors extended their studies to determine the influence of the preferential solvation of lanthanide ions by a neutral ligand in acetonitrile on the dissociation of triflate. Using conductivity measurements they measured the conductance of solutions of lutetium triflate (10 mM) containing different concentrations of water and

dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO). When the ratio, R, between the moles of water or DMSO and the moles of metal ion in solution was higher than 20 (**Figure 2.2**), and two distinct plateaus in conductance were observed. This result was in accordance with previous observations.¹⁵ When water was a competing ligand, two distinct plateaus with $120-160 \Omega^{-1}$ cm² mol⁻¹ were observed; however, when DMSO was present in a 1:2 electrolyte ratio of DMSO to H_2O , triflate dissociation continues until a second triflate is dissociated. This knowledge of preferential solvation of Ln^{3+} is important to determine the appropriate solvent conditions for efficient Ln^{3+} catalysis. Chapter 5 in this thesis describes how I have studied the preferential solvation of Ln^{3+} ions not only in DMSO, but also in other commonly used binary solvents.

Figure 2.2 Conductivity (Λ_M) of solutions of lutetium triflate (10 mM) solutions containing different concentrations of water (X) and DMSO $(+)$.¹⁴ Reprinted from Inorganica Chimica Acta, 207, Plinio Di Bernardo, Gregory R. Choppin, Roberto Portanova, Pier Luigi Zanonato, Lanthanide(III) trifluoromethanesulfonate complexes in anhydrous acetonitrile, 85–91, Copyright 1993, with permission from Elsevier.

While informative, the studies discussed were performed in anhydrous conditions or in the presence of less than 40 ppm water. Therefore, these studies are not applicable, at best, to the $Ln³⁺$ -coordination environment when water or water-miscible organic solvents are used with larger amounts of water because the inner- and outer-sphere coordination environments of the lanthanide ions in binary solvents are different than the coordination environment in 100% water or 100% organic solvent. The difference arises from the possibility of more species in solution and of the equilibria between these species. Subtopic **2.3** explains the past studies done to determine the kinetic and thermodynamic properties of lanthanide salts with respect to changes in the Ln^{3+} ion, counter ions, and cosolvents in aqueous medium.

2.3 Lanthanides in aqueous medium

Over last few decades, several groups investigated the coordination properties of Ln^{3+} in aqueous medium. Using liquid X-ray diffraction measurements, Spedding and coworkers measured the inner-sphere water-coordination numbers of Tb^{3+} , Dy^{3+} , Er^{3+} , Tm^{3+} , and Lu^{3+} in concentrated (3.5–3.8 M) aqueous chloride solutions at 25 $^{\circ}$ C.¹⁶ From quantitative X-ray studies followed by radial distribution functions, the inner-sphere water-coordination number of the Ln^{3+} ion studied was found to be eight. Another study was done by Narten and coworkers using neutron diffraction studies, 17 and their results are in close agreement with the studies of Spedding and coworkers. Narten and coworkers measured solutions of $NdC1₃$ in $D₂O$, and observed that each Nd^{3+} ion is surrounded by inner-sphere water molecules, excluding chloride ions, and the average number of inner-sphere water molecules found to be 8.5 ± 0.2 .¹⁸ The oxygen atoms of the coordinated water molecules were directed towards $Ln³⁺$ ion while deuterium atoms were pointing away. To determine whether the preferential solvation of $Ln³⁺$ ions by water is affected
by the presence of concentrated Cl⁻ (10 N), Wartz and coworkers measured liquid X-ray diffraction patterns of concentrated aqueous $LaCl₃$ solutions, where the ratio of chloride to lanthanide ion was 6:1. Even for these samples they observed Ln inner-spheres saturated with water.¹⁹

While ¹³⁹La NMR measurements, FTIR studies, ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopic studies, and conductivity measurements were used to study Ln^{3+} ion interactions in solution, the limitations associated with these techniques, including the need for special instruments and complicated sample preparation, left a need for another technique to enable routine study of Ln^{3+} ions. One such technique is luminescence measurements. Luminescence is the common word to describe both fluorescence and phosphorescence. However, to determine Ln^{3+} coordination properties the decay rate of the phosphorescence is used.²⁰ To study the lanthanide phosphorescence decay, phosphorescent excited state (${}^{5}D_0$) should have a long-lived life time (~ 10 ms), and the energy gap between the ${}^{7}F_0$ ground state and excited state should be relatively high (with $\Delta E =$ 12,300 $-32,200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.⁴ The long-lived life time enables the instrument (spectrophotometer) to detect quenching by surrounding vibrational oscillators, while energy gap requirement governs the non-radiative energy loss due to vibrational relaxation. The energy gap for Eu^{3+} , Gd^{3+} , and Tb^{3+} are higher than that of other Ln³⁺ ions, however, because Gd^{3+} has a higher energy gap requirement ($\Delta E = 32{,}200$ cm⁻¹, it emits in the near UV region) and the fluorescence emission overlaps with the excitations and emissions of chealated organic molecules.⁴ Further, Eu^{3+} is commonly used to represent the lanthanides series because it is centrally located in the series and, like all lanthanides, has a maximum water-coordination number, q , between 8 and 9.^{3,21} When aqueous Eu^{3+} is excited from its ${}^{7}F_{0}$ ground state to higher energy levels, a radiationless

energy transfer occurs to a long-lived 5D_0 energy level. Eu³⁺ phosphorescence with the change of the spin state occurs from the 5D_0 to the 7F_J states (**Fig 2.3**).

Figure 2.3 Simplified Jablonski diagram depicting the mechanism of quenching of the phosphorescence of Eu³⁺ ions by surronding H₂O and D₂O. **Step 1**: The excitation from ⁷ $F_J \rightarrow$ 5L_J states; **step 2**: vibrational relaxation to long lived 5D_0 energy state; **step 3**: emission; **step 4**: ${}^{5}D_0$ energy state quenching by O–H and O–D vibrational oscillators of H₂O and D₂O, respectively. When the quenching occurs, decay in the phosphorescence occurs from the ${}^5D_0 \rightarrow$ ${}^{7}F_J$ states. The inter-coordination sphere of the Eu³⁺ ion in solution. The excited-state energy can be the inner-coordination sphere of the Eu³⁺ ion in solution. The excited-state energy can be the inner-coordination sphere of th

The lifetime of the ${}^{5}D_0$ excited state is directly related to the composition and structure of

quenched either by the functional groups of counter ions, solvent molecules, or both depending on the energy transfer to the vibrational oscillators like O–H or N–H according to the Born– Oppenheimer principle.4,21 Using this luminescence quenching, Horrocks and coworkers empirically derived an equation (**Eq 2.8**) to determine the inner-sphere water-coordination number of lanthanide ions in water. 20

Eq 2.8
$$
q = A \left(\left| \tau^{-1} \right|_{H_{2}O} - \tau^{-1} \right|_{D_{2}O} \left| -\alpha + \beta \ n_{OH} + \gamma \ n_{NH} + \delta \ n_{O=CNH} \right)
$$

In this equation, *q* is the number of inner sphere water molecules; *A* is an empirically derived proportionality constant; $\tau_{H_2O}^{-1}$ 2 \overline{a} τ_{H_2O} ⁻¹ is the rate of luminescence decay in H₂O; τ_{D_2O} ⁻¹ 2 - τ_{D_2O} ⁻¹ is the rate of luminescence decay in D₂O; α is the quenching of the excited state of Eu³⁺ by vibrational oscillators present in the outer-sphere; *nOH* is the number of alcoholic OH oscillators in the inner-coordination sphere of Eu^{3+} ; *nNH* is the number of amine NH oscillators in the innersphere sphere of Eu³⁺; $nO=CNH$ is the number of amide NH oscillators in which the amide carboxylic oxygen is in the inner-coordination sphere of Eu³⁺; and β , γ , and δ are empirically derived proportionality constants. Values of *A*, α , β , γ , and δ are published for complexes with *q* values between 1 and 6^{20}

With OH oscillators in the first coordination sphere of the metal ion, there is an efficient pathway for radiationless de-excitation of Eu^{3+} via energy transfer to O–H vibrational overtones. If H₂O is replaced by D₂O, the energy transfer to O–D oscillators is about 200 times slower because the vibronic coupling of Eu^{3+} with the O–D oscillators is less efficient due to an isotopic effect. Using this quenching difference, the number of water molecules can be calculated from difference between the rates of luminescence decay in D_2O and H_2O (**Eq 2.8**).

 Using this technique, Kimura and coworkers determined the number of inner-sphere water molecules of Ln^{3+} in different volume percentages of H_2O in binary solvent systems.²² In this study using time-resolved laser-induced fluorescence spectroscopy, they measured luminescence decay constants K_{obs} (ms⁻¹) of Ln^{3+} -polyaminopolycarboxylate complexes (Ln = Sm^{3+} , Dy^{3+} , Eu^{3+} , and Tb^{3+}) of known ligand coordination numbers in different ratios of H₂O and D₂O. Using the linear relationship between K_{obs} and the inner-sphere coordination number (N_{H_2O})), they derived the following empirical formulae to determine the inner-sphere coordination number (N_{H_2O}) with an uncertinity of ± 0.3 water molecules (**Eqs 2.9–2.12**). With these equations, Kimura and coworkers extended their study to determine the inner-sphere hydration number and solvent composition in binary solvents composed of water and water-misciblesolvent mixed aqueous solvent systems. By changing the non-aqueous solvent mole fraction, *Xs*, they measured *Kobs*.

- **Eq 2.9** for Sm³⁺: $N_{H_2O} = 2.54 \times 10^{-5} k_{obs} 0.37$
- **Eq 2.10** for Eu³⁺: $N_{H_2O} = 1.05 \times 10^{-3} k_{obs} 0.44$
- **Eq 2.11** for Tb³⁺: $N_{H_2O} = 4.03 \times 10^{-3} k_{obs} 0.87$
- **Eq 2.12** for Dy³⁺: $N_{H_2O} = 2.11 \times 10^{-5} k_{obs} 0.60$

Using **Eq 2.10**, inner-sphere hydration numbers were calculated for twelve binary solvent systems: acetone, acetonitrile, *N,N*-dimethylacetamide, *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF), dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), ethanol (EtOH), formamide, hexamethyl phosphoramide, methanol (MeOH), *N*-methylformamide, pyridine, and tetrahydrofuran (THF). However, in their studies, the contribution of inner- and outer-sphere non-water solvent molecules was neglected; therefore, the calculated inner-sphere coordination number does not reflect an accurate

coordination sphere for Eu^{3+} because empirically derived **Eqs 2.9–2.12** do not account for binary solvent mixture dynamics. Consequently, these results are not optimal for use in studying catalysis. In another study, Eu^{3+} ions were used to determine a correlation between luminescence lifetime and water percentage.²³ Eu³⁺ luminescence lifetimes in DMF and DMSO with $\leq 1\%$ $H₂O$ were measured. Using the correlation between $Eu³⁺$ luminescence lifetime and molar percentage of water in DMF, **Eqs 2.13** and **2.14** were derived, where t is the luminescence lifetime in ms. Using these equations, the water-concentration in binary solvents could be determined, but not inner- or outer-sphere water-coordination numbers. Therefore, these innovations cannot be applied to gain detailed mechanistic insights of lanthanide catalysts in solution.

Eq 2.13 for DMF: H_2O *mol* % = $(1.591-t)/0.588$

Eq 2.14 for DMSO: H_2O *mol*% = $(1.605 - t)/0.112$

Due to the inapplicability of **Eqs 2.9–2.14** to study catalysis in binary solvent systems, I did not use these equations in my studies of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction. Chapter 4 contains a full account of this study. However, because **Eq 2.8** was empirically derived in water, it was not applicable to all solvent systems that are useful for catalysis because of differences in the innerand outer-sphere luminescence quenching ability between water and other solvents. As a result of these differences, every experiment that I performed was validated when water is not the only solvent. For example, in determining the effect of THF on *q* values, I performed validation experiments using complexes with known coordination numbers.²⁴ The additional workload resulting from the need to validate each solvent composition renders the use of Horrocks's equation impractical for the routine study of carbon–carbon and carbon–heteroatom bondforming reactions in the most commonly used aqueous solvent systems. Therefore, I expanded upon my initial work to enable practical, routine analysis of lanthanide catalysts with respect to commonly used water-miscible solvents.²⁵ In Chapter 5, I report the results of my studies of the variations of inner- and outer-sphere dynamics with respect to commonly used organic solvents for Lewis acid-mediated catalytic systems including THF, EtOH, MeOH, DMF, DMSO, acetone, and acetonitrile. Furthermore, I describe the empirically derived equations that resulted from my studies that enable fast and accurate determination of inner-sphere coordination behavior in commonly used binary solvent systems.

CHAPTER THREE

Mukaiyama Aldol Reaction

Portions of this chapter were reprinted or adapted with permission from Dissanayake, P.; Averill, D. J.; Allen, M. J. Lanthanide-Catalyzed Mukaiyama Aldol Reactions. In *Science of Synthesis*, Knowledge Updates 2011/4; Marek, I., Ed.; Georg Thieme Verlag KG: Stuttgart, Germany, 2012; pp 1–9.

3.1 Introduction

The Mukaiyama aldol reaction is the reaction between silyl enol ethers and aldehydes or ketones to from β-hydroxy carbonyls (**Figure 3.1**). This reaction was first reported by Mukaiyama in 1973.²⁶ In this reaction, the keto–enol form of the product is isolated using trimethylsilane to avoid cross aldol reactions resulting in chemoselective and stereoselctive carbon–carbon bond formation. Mukaiyama used a stoichiometric amount of Lewis acids including TiCl₃, SnCl₄, AlCl₃. Later, alkali metals, alkaline earth metals, metalloids, transition metals, and lanthanide ions were used as Lewis acid catalysts.²⁷

Figure 3.1 General Mukaiyama aldol reaction.

3.2 Transition states of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction

The stereoselectivity of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction changes with respect to Lewis acid catalyst, nature of the substituents $(R_1, R_2,$ and $R_3)$, and reaction conditions (**Table 3.1**).²⁸⁻³³ This observation can be explained using an open model of the transition state. The possible transition states for Z-enol silanes are shown in **Scheme 3.1**, where LA represents the Lewis acid. Transition state B is unfavorable due to the steric hindrance between R_3 and Lewis acid. Transition states C and E are unfavorable due to interations between the O–LA moiety and OSiMe₃. Transition state A produces *anti* diastereomers and is favored over D and F when R₂ is small or R_3 is bulky. The *syn* diastereomer is produced from transition states D and F. When R_2 is bulky, transition state D is favoured over transition state F because of the increased steric hindrance with R_1 giving the syn diastereomer.³⁴

Table 3.1 Mukaiyama aldol reactions with different conditions.

R_1	R_2	R_3	Z/E	Lewis	ratio of yield	yield	ref
				Acid	(anti/syn)	$(\%)$	
i -Pr	Me	OEt	15/85	TiCl ₄	93/7	75	28
i -Pr	Me	t -Bu	100/0	BF_3 OEt ₂	95/5	84	29
Ph	Me	OEt	25/75	$TiCl4$. PPh ₃	91/9	79	30
Ph	Me	t -Bu	100/0	BF_3 OEt ₂	95/5	95	31
Ph	t -Bu	OEt	76/24	TiCl ₄	8/92	nr ^a	32
	Me	Ph	100/0	TiCl ₄	10/90	nr ^a	33

^a not reported.

Scheme 3.1 Possible transition states for Z-enol silanes, LA represents the Lewis acid.³⁴

3.3 Synthetic applications of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction

The Mukaiyama aldol reaction has been used often in synthetic applications including the synthesis of two members of an oligomycin family that are commonly used as antibiotics: Rutamycin B and Oligomycin C. This reaction was used to synthesize the C12–C13 bond between (Z)-O-silyl enol ether, **3.1** and chiral α-methyl aldehyde, **3.2**, by Jain and coworkers (**Scheme 3.2**).³⁵ They used different Lewis acid catalysts including BF_3 ·OEt₂, SnCl₄, and TiCl₄ as well as different sizes of silicon groups such as Me₃Si, Me₂PhSi, *t*-BuMe₂Si. With respect to yield and diastereoselectivity, the combination of $BF_3 \cdot OEt_2$ and the sterically bulky $Me_2PhSi(Z)$ -O-silyl enol ether was found to be best.

Scheme 3.2 Mukaiyama aldol reaction for the synthesis of the C12–C13 aldol bond in Rutamycin B and Oligomycin C. ³⁵

Another class of antifungal agents called Sphingofungins B and F, were synthesized by Hanada and coworkers using the Sn^{2+} -catalyzed asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction.³⁶ Roflamycoin antifungal antibiotics with a pantaene structure also were synthesied using a catalytic amount of a chiral titanium catalyst to introduce a stereocenter into roflamycoin via an asymmetic Mukaiyama aldol reaction.

Because of the importance of this reaction, it is important to study the reaction mechanism. In anhydrous conditions, the reaction mechanism is well understood.³⁴ However, in aqueous medium the reaction mechanism of this Mukaiyama aldol reaction is less well understood. Therefore, I was interested investigating the reaction mechanisms of lanthanide catalytic systems in aqueous media. To put my studies in context, section **3.4** summarizes the reaction conditions used for Mukaiyama aldol reactions since 1987.

3.4 Lanthanide catalysts for the Mukaiyama aldol reaction

In this section, reactions are categorized as follows: (1) non-enantioselective formation of β-hydroxycarbonyls; (2) enantioselective formation of β-hydroxycarbonyls in an organic solvents; and (3) enantioselective formation of β-hydroxycarbonyls in aqueous solvents. I focus first on non-enantioselective Mukaiyama Aldol reactions. Lanthanide-catalyzed Mukaiyama aldol reactions between aldehydes **3.3** and the trimethylsilyl methyl acetal **3.4** to obtain

Mukaiyama aldol products **3.5** and **3.6** were first reported using lanthanide trichlorides (**Scheme 3.3**).³⁷ Furthermore, when lanthanide tribromides are used as catalysts, the reactions proceed smoothly at room temperature.³⁸ In addition to lanthanides in the $+3$ oxidation state, samarium di-iodide is used as an efficient catalyst for this reaction, and the samarium di-iodide precatalyst is stable enough to be stored under argon without oxidation (**Scheme 3.3**). ³⁹ **Table 3.2** summarizes the reaction conditions for **Scheme 3.3** and corresponding yields for different reactions.

Scheme 3.3 Mukaiyama aldol reactions catalyzed by lanthanide catalysts.

^a prepared from mischmetal, $\frac{b}{c}$ LnBr₃(THF)_{2.6} (20 mol %), $\frac{c}{c}$ not reported, $\frac{d}{c}$ LnBr₃(THF)_{2.6} (10 mol %)

Another variation of the lanthanide-catalyzed Mukaiyama aldol reaction is carried out in aqueous media using a catalytic amount of ytterbium triflate. These aqueous reactions between formaldehyde and silyl enol ethers **3.7** to yield hydroxymethylated adducts **3.8** are shown in **Scheme 3.4** and results are shown in **Table 3.3**. 40

Scheme 3.4 Mukaiyama aldol reactions catalyzed by ytterbium trifluoromethanesulfonate in aqueous conditions. 40

Table 3.3 Reaction conditions for Mukaiyama aldol reactions catalyzed by ytterbium

trifluoromethanesulfonate in aqueous conditions.

 $^{\rm a}$ dr 3:2; $^{\rm b}$ dr (anti/syn) 9:1.

In addition to using cosolvents with water, lanthanide-Lewis-acid–surfactant-combined precatalysts are used for Mukaiyama aldol reactions in water (**Schemes 3.5** and **3.6**).41,42 The reaction between benzaldehyde and silyl enol ether, **3.9**, to yield aldol adduct **3.10** (**Scheme 3.5**) suggests that the amount of surfactant, sodium dodecyl sulfate, influences the reaction yield (**Table 3.4**). The aqueous Mukaiyama aldol reactions of α,β-epoxyaldehydes **3.11** with enol silane **3.12** to yield products **3.13** also have been reported using sodium dodecyl sulfate (**Scheme 3.5** and **Table 3.5**).⁴²

Scheme 3.5 The Mukaiyama aldol reaction catalyzed by a ytterbium trifluoromethanesulfonate– surfactant combined precatalyst.⁴¹

Table 3.4 Reaction conditions used for **Scheme 3.5**.

Scheme 3.6 Mukaiyama aldol reactions catalyzed by Lanthanide trifluoromethanesulfonate Lewis acid–surfactant combined precatalysts.⁴²

Table 3.5 Reaction conditions used for **Scheme 3.6**.

^a Starting material was used as a racemic mixture of R,R- and S,S-stereoisomers.

Another variation of the Mukaiyama Aldol reaction is the enantioselective formation of β-hydroxycarbonyls in organic solvents. As an example, a chiral lanthanide-containing catalyst has been used for the asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction in nonaqueous media.⁴³ The precatalyst is prepared by reacting equimolar amounts of a lanthanide trifluoromethanesulfonate and bis(sulfonamide) disodium salt [prepared by deprotonation of the corresponding bis(sulfonamide) with excess sodium hydride] at 40 $^{\circ}$ C in tetrahydrofuran (THF) for 12 h. The THF is evaporated and replaced by dichloromethane before use in the Mukaiyama aldol reaction. The chiral Ln³⁺-catalyst catalyzes the Mukaiyama aldol reactions between aldehydes 3.14 and silyl acetal **3.15** to produce β-hydroxycarbonyls **3.17** (**Scheme 3.7**). The results (**Table 3.6**) demonstrate that yields increase from La^{3+} to Eu^{3+} to Yb^{3+} . Interestingly, when the La^{3+} complex of **3.16** is used, only β-hydroxycarbonyl products are observed as opposed to trimethylsilyl ethercontaining products.⁴³ However, when Eu^{3+} or Yb^{3+} complexes of **3.16** are used, both the hydroxy-containing product and the trimethylsilyl ether-containing products are observed. It seems that the reactivity difference among Yb^{3+} , Eu^{3+} , and La^{3+} affects the reactivity of the corresponding metal alkoxide intermediates towards silylation. The yields observed with precatalyst **3.16** are inferior to those obtained using a combination of lanthanide triflate and pybox **3.19** (**Scheme 3.8**) to catalyze Mukaiyama aldol reactions between silyl enol ether **3.17** and pyruvic esters **3.18** to produce chiral products **3.20**. These results (**Table 3.7**) suggest that when pybox **3.19** is combined with lanthanides with smaller ionic radii, higher er's and yields are obtained relative to when larger ions are used.

Scheme 3.7 Mukaiyama aldol reactions catalyzed by lanthanide complexes.⁴³

R ¹	$Ln(OTf)_{3}$	Yield $(\%)$	er(S/R)	Ref
Ph	$La(OTf)_{3}$	42	74:26	43
Ph	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	59	70:30	43
Ph	$Yb(OTf)$ ₃	71	67:33	43
$4-O_2NC_6H_4$	$La(OTf)_{3}$	71	71:29	43
$4-O_2NC_6H_4$	Eu(OTf)	71	70:30	43
$4-O_2NC_6H_4$	$Yb(OTf)_{3}$	71	72:28	43
(CH ₂) ₂ Ph	$La(OTf)_{3}$	19	70:30	43
(CH ₂) ₂ Ph	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	34	70:30	43
(CH ₂) ₂ Ph	$Yb(OTf)$ ₃	55	70:30	43

Table 3.6 Reaction conditions used for **Scheme 3.7**.

Scheme 3.8 Mukaiyama aldol reactions catalyzed by a lanthanide–pybox complex.⁴⁴

Ln^{3+}	Ionic	R^1 = Et			R^1 = Me			R^1 = CHPh ₂			Ref
	radius (\AA)	Time (d)	Yield $(\%)$	er(S:R)	Time (d)	Yield $(\%)$	er(S:R)	Time (d)	Yield (%)	er(S:R)	
Lu^{3+}	0.977		70	97.5:2.5	4	70	92.5:7.5	4	95	99.75:0.25	44
Yb^{3+}	0.985	-5	55	89.5:10.5	$\overline{4}$	50	80.5:19.5	5	52	91:9	44
Ho^{3+}	1.015	-5	45	62:38	4	41	50:50	1.5^{a}	32	28:72	44
Y^{3+}	1.019	-5	41	74:26	$\overline{4}$	37	50:50	1.5^{a}	30	20:80	44
Eu^{3+}	1.066		39	69.5:30.5	$\overline{4}$	40	69.5:30.5	1.5^{a}	30	16:84	44

Table 3.7 Reaction conditions used for **Scheme 3.8**.

 a_{20} °C

In addition to the reactions already described in this chapters, the asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction can be carried out in aqueous media using lanthanide trifluoromethanesulfonates combined with chiral crown ethers such as **3.21** and **3.22** (**Scheme 3.9** and **Table 3.8**). Asymmetric β-hydroxycarbonyl compounds **3.25** can be obtained by the addition of aldehydes **3.23** and silyl enol ether **3.24** to a mixture containing the lanthanide–crown ether complex. Analogous chiral crown ethers which afford different selectivities can be used in place of **3.21** and **3.22**. 45,46

Scheme 3.9 Synthesis of optically active β-hydroxycarbonyl compounds in aqueous solvent using chiral crown ether–lanthanide trifluoromethanesulfonate complexes.

R^1	Temperature	Time	Catalyst	Yield $(\%)$	syn:anti	er ^a (R:S) (syn)	Ref	
Ph	0 °C	18 _h	3.21 (12 mol %) and 85 $Pr(OTf)_{3}$ (10 mol %)		91:9	89:11	45	
Ph	0 °C	18 _h	3.21 (24 mol $\%$) and $Ce(OTf)_{3}$ (20 mol %)	-78	93:7	91:9	46	
$4-MeOC6H4$	$0^{\circ}C$	18 _h	3.21 (12 mol $\%$) and 91 $Pr(OTf)_{3}$ (10 mol %)		92:8	87.5:12.5	45	
$2-MeOC6H4$		18 _h	3.21 (12 mol %) and 96		95:5	91.5:8.5		
	0 °C		$Pr(OTf)_{3}$ (10 mol %)				45	
$4-CIC6H4$	0 °C	18 _h	3.21 (12 mol %) and 87 $Pr(OTf)_{3}$ (10 mol %)		90:10	91.5:8.5	45	
1-naphthyl	0 °C	48 h	3.21 $(12 \text{ mol } \%)$ and 96 $Pr(OTf)_{3}$ (10 mol %)		91:9	90.5:9.5	46	
2-thienyl	0 °C	48 h	3.21 $(12 \text{ mol } %)$ and quantitative $Pr(OTf)$ ₃ (10 mol %)		91:9	86:14	45	
2-pyridyl	$0^{\circ}C$	48 h	3.21 $(24 \text{ mol } \%)$ and $Pr(OTf)_{3}$ (20 mol %)	99	85:15	92.5:7.5	45	
Ph	-25 °C	168h	3.22 (48 mol %) and 92 Eu(OTf) ₃ (20 mol $\%$)		97:3	96.5:3.5	47	
$4-CIC6H4$	-25 °C	168h	3.22 $(48 \text{ mol } \%)$ and 75 Eu(OTf) ₃ (20 mol %)		95:5	95.5:4.5	47	
4-Tol		168h	3.22 (48 mol %) and 73		96:4	95:5		
	-25 °C		Eu(OTf) ₃ (20 mol $\%$)				47	
(E) $CH3CH=CH$	-25 °C	168h	$(48 \text{ mol } %)$ and 65 3.22 Eu(OTf) ₃ (20 mol $\%$)		95:5	96.5:3.5	47	
(CH ₂) ₅ Me	-25 °C	168h	3.22 $(48 \text{ mol } \%)$ and 22 Eu(OTf) ₃ (20 mol $\%$)		96:4	98:2	47	
Cy	-25 °C	168 _h	3.22 $(48 \text{ mol } \%)$ and 12 Eu(OTf) ₃ (20 mol $\%$)		2:98	$97.5:2.5^{b}$	47	
^a For syn isomer unless otherwise stated, ^b For anti isomer.								

Table 3.8 Reaction conditions used for **Scheme 3.9**.

3.5 Conclusion

The knowledge of different conditions, catalysts, and substrates used for Mukaiyama aldol reaction was important for me in the design of my studies. The next chapter describes the specific Mukaiyama aldol reaction that I used for my studies as well as my new mechanistic investigations of this reaction acquired by adapting luminescence-decay measurements.

CHAPTER FOUR

Dynamic Measurements of Aqueous Lanthanide Triflate-Catalyzed Reactions Using Luminescence Decay

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(1) Dissanayake, P.; Allen, M. J. Dynamic Measurements of Aqueous Lanthanide Triflate-Catalyzed Reactions Using Luminescence Decay. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2009,** *131,* 6342–6343. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society. (2) Mei, Y.; Dissanayake, P.; Allen, M. J. A New Class of Ligands for Aqueous, Lanthanide-Catalyzed, Enantioselective Mukaiyama Aldol Reactions. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2010,** *132,* 12871–12873. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society. and (3) Averill, D. J.; Dissanayake, P.; Allen, M. J. The Role of Water in Lanthanide-Catalyzed Carbon–Carbon Bond Formation. *Molecules* **2012,** *17,* 2073–2081.

4.1 Introduction

There is a great interest in water-compatible, lanthanide-triflate-based precatalysts for carbon−carbon bond-forming reactions; however, poor understanding of the mechanism of these precatalysts in aqueous systems severely limits the ability to increase their utility. In this chapter, I describe dynamic measurements of the water-coordination number of lanthanide-triflate-based catalysts using luminescence-decay measurements in a variety of aqueous systems. This characterization method is a reliable, convenient, and fast approach to analyze lanthanide-based catalysts in aqueous systems. Additionally, I describe my use of luminescence-decay measurements to unveil mechanistic information regarding a new precatalyst for the asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction. This chapter ends with a description of the water-coordination number measurements of a series of lanthanide salts to investigate the potential use of other lanthanide salts as catalysts in aqueous media.

4.2 Examining triflate dissociation using luminescence-decay measurements

Although lanthanide triflates, $Ln(OTf)_{3}$, are used as water-compatible precatalysts for a wide range of important carbon-carbon and carbon-heteroatom bond-forming reactions, attempts to use these water-tolerant precatalysts in stereoselective reactions have been successful only in cases of limited substrate scope.^{48–49} I hypothesized that a major hindrance preventing the widespread use of lanthanide triflates in aqueous, asymmetric carbon-carbon bond formation was the nominal mechanistic understanding of the precatalysts in aqueous solution. Specifically, an unanswered question in aqueous lanthanide triflate-based catalysis was if complete loss of triflate from the precatalyst occurs during catalysis: is *x* greater than zero in **Scheme 4.1**? **Scheme 4.1** Hydration of lanthanide triflates

aqueous catalysis
 En(H₂O)_q (OTf)_x + (3-x)OTf

conditions $Ln(OTf)₃$ –

While knowledge of triflate dissociation should aid in the design of catalysts for aqueous asymmetric reactions, inconclusive support both for and against complete dissociation existed before I began my research.^{7,50} My strategy for examining triflate dissociation was to use luminescence-decay measurements, which are commonly used to study water-coordination number with lanthanide-based contrast agents for magnetic resonance imaging.^{21,51} Compared to other methods, such as X-ray crystallography and IR spectroscopy, this characterization method is advantageous because it allows for the direct, quantitative observation of reactions in aqueous solution. In addition to being water-tolerant, luminescence-decay measurements are fast (∼10 ms) and dynamic, making them perfectly suited for the study of lanthanide-based aqueous

catalysis. I hypothesized that these properties would allow me to examine discrete reaction coordinates without perturbing the system being studied. The Eu^{3+} ion was used in these studies because it has a large energy gap between its emissive and ground states ($\Delta E = 1.23 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and a long lived (9.67 ms) excited state in aqueous media.⁴ Further, Eu^{3+} is commonly used to represent all of the lanthanides because it is centrally located in the series and, like all lanthanides, has a maximum water-coordination number, q , between 8 and 9.^{3,21}

As demonstration of the applicability of luminescence-decay measurements to study lanthanide-based catalysts, I examined the Mukaiyama aldol reaction in **Scheme 1.1** because the Mukaiyama aldol reaction is one of the most important carbon-carbon bond-forming reactions. $34,52$ To answer the question of triflate dissociation in the Mukaiyama aldol reaction using luminescence-decay measurements, I divided the catalytic cycle of the reaction into three reaction coordinates (**Scheme 4.2**).

^{*a*} The subscripts *a*, *q*, *x*, *y*, and *z* represent the number of 2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl) cyclohexanone, water, triflate, THF, and benzaldehyde ligands, respectively. Charges have been omitted for simplification.

 This division made possible the separate examination of each reaction coordinate. The first reaction coordinate was generated by dissolving $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ in mixtures of water and tetrahydrofuran (THF). While many water-miscible solvents can be used for these reactions, I chose THF to avoid complications that could arise from solvents containing $O-H$ or $N-H$ oscillators.²⁰ The second and third reaction coordinates were generated by adding benzaldehyde or 2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone to the first reaction coordinate solutions, respectively. For each reaction coordinate, the concentration of precatalyst and substrate matched reported reaction conditions.⁷ The amount of water was varied from 1 to 100%, and the validity of the method in each solvent was confirmed by measuring the water-coordination number of a control complex, **4.3**, 2,2′,2′′-(10-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7 triyl)triaceto europium(III) (**Figure 4.1**). This complex has a water-coordination number of one, 21 and I obtained a water-coordination number of one for this complex using luminescencedecay measurements in every ratio of water to THF that I used (**Table A1, Appendix A**).

 Figure 4.1 Control complex, **4.3,** with a water-coordination number of one.

4.2.1 Determination of *q* **values for reaction coordinates of a catalytic cycle**

Luminescence decay measurements were acquired using a HORIBA Jobin Yvon Fluoromax-4 spectrofluorometer in decay-by-delay scan mode using the phosphorescence life time setting. For luminescence-decay measurements of control complex, **4.3**, an excitation wavelength of 395 nm and an emission wavelength of 594 nm were used. For measurements of Eu(OTf)₃, an exicitation wavelength of 394 nm and an emission wavelength of 591 nm were used. Other parameters were kept constant: excitation and emission slit width (5 nm), flash count (200), initial delay (0.01 ms), maximum delay (13 ms), and delay increment (0.01 ms). The natural log of the intensity of the scan was plotted against time, and the slope was used as the decay rate. This procedure was performed in H2O and D2O versions of each solvent (**Figures 4.2** and **4.3**).

Figure 4.2 Luminescence-decay curve of complex 4.3 in D_2O . The inset shows the natural log plot of the data, and the slope acquired from the natural log plot is the luminescence-decay rate 1 2 \overline{a} τ_{D_2O} ⁻¹.

Figure 4.3 Luminescence decay curve of complex 4.3 in H_2O . The inset shows the natural log plot of the data, and the slope acquired from the natural log plot is the luminescence-decay rate 1 2 \overline{a} τ_{H_2O} .

For each solvent, the decay rates in H₂O ($\tau_{H,o}^{-1}$) 2 \overline{a} $\tau_{H_2O}^{(-1)}$) and D₂O ($\tau_{D_2O}^{(-1)}$ 2 $\overline{}$ τ_{D_2O} ⁻¹) were used in **Eq 4.1**, empirically derived by Horrocks and coworkers, 21 to determine the number of water molecules, *q*, coordinated to the Eu³⁺ ion. For control complex, **3**, **Eq 4.2** was used because *q* is less than or equal to one for this complex.²⁰

Eq 4.1
$$
q = 1.11 \left(\left| \tau_{H_2O} \right|^{-1} - \tau_{D_2O} \right|^{-1} \left| -0.31 \right)
$$

Eq 4.2
$$
q = 1.2 \left(\left| \tau_{H_2O} \right|^{-1} - \tau_{D_2O} \right| - 0.6666 \right)
$$

For *q* measurements of the first reaction coordinate, solutions of $Eu(OTf)_{3}$ (1 mM) were prepared for each solvent studied (1–10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and 100% v/v of H₂O in THF). The luminescence-decay measurements for the second reaction coordinate were acquired using the Eu(OTf)₃ solutions after addition of benzaldyhyde in a 1:9 molar ratio of Eu³⁺ to benzaldyhyde (9 mM benzaldehyde). The third reaction coordinate, solutions of Eu(OTF), (1 mM) were prepared
for each solvent studie $\left[\frac{V_{\text{tot}}}{V_{\text{tot}}}\right] = \frac{V_{\text{tot}}}{V_{\text{tot}}}$. The time theorem and the shope acquired from the natural

of 2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone to freshly prepared $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ solutions in a 1:9 molar ratio of Eu^{3+} to 2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl)-cyclohexanone. 2-Hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone was not soluble in $H₂O/THF$ ratios above 70%; thus, for $80-100\%$ H₂O or D₂O in THF, a molar ratio of 1:1 (Eu³⁺ to 2hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone) was used. The solutions composed of 100% $H₂O$ or $D₂O$ were sonicated for 10 min after the addition of 2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone.

4.2.2 Water-coordination numbers for reaction coordinates of the catalytic cycle

Water-coordination numbers, *q*, were determined for the three reaction coordinates using luminescence-decay measurements (**Tables A2–A4**). Data reported in these tables are the result of three to six replicates for each reaction coordinate. For the first reaction coordinate (**Figure 4.4**, solid dots), water saturation $(q = 8.3)^{21}$ of the Eu³⁺ containing precatalyst was determined by measurements in 100% water, and the results matched expected values.²⁰ Furthermore, *q* values near the saturation level were observed in solvents composed of 20–90% water. Below 20% water, *q* values decreased to 5.1 at 1% water. These results indicate that triflate is almost completely dissociated from the precatalyst in H_2O -THF solutions containing over 20% $H_2O(x)$ $+$ *y* \approx 0 in **Scheme 4.2**) and at least partially dissociated in solutions containing over 1% H₂O (*x* $+$ $y \ge 0$ in **Scheme 4.2**). Upon addition of benzaldehyde, a decrease of up to 0.34 in watercoordination number was observed for each solution containing greater than 1% water (**Figure 4.4**, hollow dots), indicating that water is partially displaced by benzaldehyde at water concentrations above 1% ($z > 0$ in **Scheme 4.2**). The differences in water-coordination numbers between the first and second reaction coordinates are significant at a 95% confidence interval from 2 to 90% H2O (Student *t* test). Finally, the water-coordination numbers of the third reaction coordinate were not different from the values of the first reaction coordinate (**Figure 4.4**, solid

dots).These data indicate that product inhibition does not occur to a measurable extent in the aqueous $Ln(OTf)$ ₃-catalyzed Mukaiyama aldol reaction ($a = 0$ in **Scheme 4.2**).

Figure 4.4 Water-coordination number, q , of Eu³⁺ in solvents containing different amounts of $H₂O$ before \bullet and after (o) the addition of benzaldehyde. Standard error bars are smaller than the data points.

These observations of the reaction coordinates of the catalytic cycle of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction are important because they provide support for a reaction mechanism that involves triflate dissociation. These measurements represent time averaged values, and there may be minor amounts of other species that could be active catalysts in solution including hydroxides.⁵³ However, it has been shown that protons produced from aqua acid complexes of lanthanides are not active catalytic species in the reaction.⁷ Interestingly, the maximum yield for the reaction that we studied was reported in a solution containing 20% water.⁷ Our observations suggest that maximum yields are observed in 20% water solution because that is where the largest opportunity for benzaldehyde activation occurs; in our data, 20% water represents the largest difference in water-coordination number between the first and second reaction coordinates (**Figure 4.4**, largest difference between solid and hollow dots). Additionally, in this solvent the inner-sphere environment of Eu^{3+} is nearly saturated with water before the addition of substrate. High yields in 20% water may also be because at this concentration of water an advantageous dynamic occurs leading to open coordination sites on the metal for benzaldehyde coordination. Additionally, the use of this method to study asymmetric variations of these reactions should allow for the design of powerful water-tolerant asymmetric catalysts with wide substrate scopes which is described in **section 4.3**.

4.3 Luminescence-decay measurements of a new class of aqueous-stable chiral ligands coordinated to lanthanides

A new class of ligands for aqueous, lanthanide-catalyzed, asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reactions for the synthesis of chiral β-hydroxy ketones was synthesized by Yujiang Mei, a former postdoctoral researcher in our laboratory. This set of ligands for generating enantiopure βhydroxy carbonyl compounds is important because these subunits compose many bioactive compounds⁵⁴ and the ability to synthesize these groups in water has environmental and cost benefits.⁷ The ligand design was inspired by macrocyclic gadolinium containing contrast agents for magnetic resonance imaging.²¹ These complexes were chosen as his starting point because they are water-tolerant, and we hypothesized that the multidenticity of these ligands would allow for facile incorporation of chiral centers (**Figure 4.5**).

Figure 4.5 Structures of (**4.4**) a common gadolinium-containing polyaminopolycarboxylatebased contrast agent and (**4.5**) the precatalyst with two types of water-binding sites labeled.

Yujiang modified the ligands because the contrast agents have only one open coordination site, and we hypothesized that a larger number of coordination sites is associated with higher turnover frequencies.²⁴ To increase the number of open coordination sites, he replaced two of the aminocarboxylic acid arms with ethers to yield a hexadentate C_2 -symmetric system. The resulting complexes have three sites at which the substrate can coordinate: two "side" positions near the ethers in the macrocycle that are equivalent through a C_2 -rotation and one "top" site between the two side sites. This new class of ligands takes advantage of the low degree of conformational flexibility and the water tolerance of lanthanide complexes of macrocyclic polyaminopolycarboxylate based ligands. Additionally, Yujiang stereospecifically introduced methyl groups at the methylene positions of the two remaining arms with the goal of imparting chirality. Furthermore, by converting the carboxylic acids into esters, possible binding sites for substrate molecules were controlled through changing the size of the R groups of the esters. We hypothesized that this feature would be a powerful tool for studying structure–activity relationships of these ligands with the goal of improving product enantioselectivity. My contribution to this research was the metalation of chiral ligands followed by the determination of *q* values of the resulting chiral lanthanide catalysts and ultimately the use of my *q* values to propose a mechanism of catalysis. Furthermore, I derived the equilibrium constant for the substrate-coordinated chiral ligand and water coordinated chiral ligand based on *q* values. This derivation is described in detail in the section **4.3.2**.

4.3.1 Determination of *q* **values of metalated chiral ligands.**

The new C_2 -symmetric ligands (R,R) -4.6−4.12 were prepared in 97−98% yields by a simple two-step protocol starting from commercially available (*S*)-2-bromopropanoic acid (95% ee) by Yujiang (**Scheme [4.3](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/full/10.1021/ja107197p#sch1)**). The ligands were complexed with $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ in situ prior to catalysis. Eu³⁺ was chosen because it is an effective promoter of the activation of aldehydes in aqueous media^{[7,55](javascript:void(0);)} and because it enables luminescence-decay measurements.^{[20,25](javascript:void(0);)}

Scheme 4.3 Metalation of chiral ligands (4.6−4.12) with Eu³⁺ to form chiral lanthanide-based precatalysts (**4.6***ʹ***−4.12***ʹ*)*.

***** R = CH3, C2H5, *n*-C3H7, *n*-C4H9, *i*-Pr, *t*-Bu, and H for **4.6−4.12** or **4.6***ʹ***−4.12***ʹ*, respectively.

The luminescence-decay measurements for the metalated chiral ligand solutions (1 mM) of **4.6***ʹ***−4.12***ʹ* were acquired using following parameters which were kept constant during luminescence-decay measurements: excitation and emission slit width (5 nm), flash count (100), initial delay (0.001 ms), maximum delay (2.0 ms), and delay increment (0.02 ms). The excitation and emission wavelengths are listed in **Table 4.1**. Benzaldehyde (5 mM) was added to each solution, and the measurements were repeated. All solutions were prepared and measured 3–6 times, and the results of these measurements are listed in **Table 4.2**. The natural log of the intensity of the scan was plotted against time, and the resulting slope was used as the decay rate

 (τ^{-1}) . The decay rates were used in **Eq 4.1** to determine the number of water molecules, q, coordinated to the Eu^{3+} ion.²⁰

	Excitation	Emission
Sample	wavelength (nm)	wavelength (nm)
4.6'	395	590
$4.6'$ + benzaldehyde	395	590
4.7'	395	590
$4.7'$ + benzaldehyde	395	590
4.8'	394	590
$4.8'$ + benzaldehyde	394	590
4.9'	394	590
$4.9'$ + benzaldehyde	394	590
4.10'	395	590
$4.10'$ + benzaldehyde	395	590
4.11'	395	591
$4.11'$ + benzaldehyde	395	591
4.12'	395	589
$4.12'$ + benzaldehyde	395	589

Table 4.1 Excitation and emission wavelengths used in the determination of *q* values.

Chiral ligand		q (complex) q (complex plus benzaldehyde) Δq	
4.6 $(syn:anti = 4:1)$	2.39 ± 0.02 1.77 ± 0.01		-0.62
4.6 (syn: anti = 5:1)	2.49 ± 0.02 1.93 ± 0.01		-0.56
4.6 (R,R)	2.58 ± 0.02	1.90 ± 0.01	-0.68
4.7 $(syn:anti = 4:1)$	2.20 ± 0.02	1.80 ± 0.02	-0.40
4.8 (syn: anti = 4:1)	2.25 ± 0.02	1.80 ± 0.02	-0.45
4.9 $(syn:anti = 4:1)$	2.41 ± 0.01 1.92 ± 0.01		-0.49
4.10 $(syn:anti = 4:1)$ 2.81 ± 0.01		2.62 ± 0.02	-0.19
4.11 $(syn:anti = 1:1)$ 2.83 ± 0.01 2.69 ± 0.02			-0.14
4.12 $(syn:anti = 3:1)$ 2.61 ± 0.04 2.52 ± 0.03			-0.09

Table 4.2 Number of H₂O molecules, *q*, coordinated to complexes of Eu³⁺ with chiral ligands **4.6−4.12.***

**q* values are listed as mean ± standard error

 $Eu³⁺$ complexes of each ligand had water-coordination numbers between 2 and 3 prior to the addition of benzaldehyde. This range is expected for a hexadentate ligand. Upon addition of benzaldehyde, a decrease in water-coordination number was observed for each precatalyst. The change in water coordination number is listed as Δ*q* in **Table 4.2**. A negative Δ*q* value implies displacement of water by benzaldehyde (**Scheme 4.4**) and thus a shift in the equilibrium from the hydrated precatalyst (**4.6** in **Scheme 4.4**) toward coordinated (activated) benzaldehyde (**4.6*** in **Scheme 4.4**).

Scheme 4.4 Proposed equilibrium leading to activation of **4.6** for nucleophilic attack by benzaldehyde.

 For linear R groups (ligands **4.6−4.12**), we observed displacements of 0.40–0.68 water molecules upon addition of benzaldehyde. These Δ*q* values are larger than those observed for unchelated Eu³⁺ (**Table 4.2**).²⁴ This observation suggests that the ligands induce an interaction with the aldehyde, potentially hydrophobic or nonclassical hydrogen bonding,⁵⁶ that causes a favorable binding of aldehyde to the metal. Due to these binding interactions, we expected a correlation between Δ*q* and yield percentage for the Mukaiyama aldol reaction shown in **Table 4.3**, larger absolute values of Δ*q* can be used to account for increased yields in a set time. Much smaller Δ*q* values were observed for bulkier R groups (ligands **4.10** and **4.11**), suggesting that the steric bulk hinders the binding of substrate and leads to lower yields. The equilibrium constant *K* listed in **Table 4.3** was calculated for the equilibrium shown in **Scheme 4.6**, and its derivation is shown in following section **4.3.2.**

Table 4.3 Relationships among yield and water-coordination number.*^a*

^{*a*} Reaction conditions: To a mixture of ligand (48 mol $\frac{\%}{\%}$) and Eu(OTf)₃ (20 mol $\%$), which was stirred at 50 °C for 2 h and then cooled to -25 °C, was added 4.13 (48.8 µmol, 1.5 equiv) and **4.14** (32.5 μmol, 1.0 equiv). *^b*isolated yields. *^c*based on the equation in **Scheme 4.6**.

4.3.2 Derivation of an equation for *K*

For the equilibrium shown in **Scheme 4.5**, B is benzaldehyde; L is the non-H₂O ligands; q_i is the measured number of water molecules coordinated to Eu³⁺ prior to the addition of B; q_b is the number of water molecules coordinated to Eu^{3+} after the addition of B, and q_e is the measured number of water molecules coordinated to Eu^{3+} at equilibrium. Assuming that L is not labile; that B can replace H₂O; that at equilibrium both B and H₂O are in excess; that no other Eu^{3+} -

containing species exist in solution; that the maximum number of B that can coordinate per Eu^{3+} is one $(q_b = q_i - 1)$; and that the volume change of the system upon addition of benzaldehyde is negligible; at equilibrium, **Eq. 4.3** is true. Because the volume is constant, **Eq. 4.3** reduces to **Eq.4.4**, which is the ratio of the number of molecules of LEuB H_2O and LEu H_2O . Furthermore, the measured value q_e is the weighted average of the species in solution; thus, this term can be written as shown in **Eq 4.5**. Rearranging the equation yields **Eq 4.6**, and substituting $(q_i - 1)$ for q_b changes **Eq 4.6** to **Eq 4.7**. Combining **Eq 4.7** with **Eq 4.4** and the definition of Δq in **Eq 4.8** yields **Eq 4.9**. *e q* $LEuB|$ H_2O $|$ J $\big(H_2 O \big)$ L \int_{H_2} *i q* $|LEu|$ H_2O $|$ J $\big(H_2 O \big)$ L \int_{H_2}

Scheme 4.5 Equilibrium between hydrated chiral lanthanide and benzaldehyde-coordinated chiral lanthanide complex.

$$
LEu(H_2O)_{q_i(aq)} \xrightarrow{\hspace{0.5cm} \longrightarrow \hspace{0.5cm} \hspace{0.5cm} LEuB(H_2O)_{q_b(aq)}}
$$

$$
\textbf{Eq. 4.3} \quad K = \frac{LEuB\left(H_{2}O\right)_{q_{b}}}{LEu\left(H_{2}O\right)_{q_{i}}}
$$

Number of LEuB
$$
\left(H_2O\right)_{q_e}
$$
 molecules

\n**Eq. 4.4** $K = \frac{N_b}{\text{number of } LEu\left(H_2O\right)_{q_i}}$ molecules

Eq. 4.5
$$
q_e = \frac{N_b(q_b) + N_i(q_i)}{(N_b + N_i)}
$$

\n**Eq. 4.6** $\frac{N_b}{N_i} = \frac{q_i - q_e}{q_e - q_b}$
\n**Eq. 4.7** $\frac{N_b}{N_i} = \frac{q_i - q_e}{q_e - q_i + 1}$
Eq. 4.8 $\Delta q = |q_e - q_i|$ **Eq. 4.9** $K = \frac{1}{\Delta q + 1}$ $=\frac{\Delta}{\Delta}$ *q* $K = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta q}$

4.3.3 Proposed transition state for the studied asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction

We have proposed a transition state for the asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction with our new ligands **4.6−4.12** (**Figure 4.6**). In this model, benzaldehyde coordinates to the metal at the top position on the basis of the Δq data in **Table 4.3** (bulky R groups would block this position). When the aldehyde is coordinated in this position, the silyl enol ether can attack only from one side because the opposite face is blocked by an ester. Benzaldehyde is unlikely to bind with the H and Ph groups reversed from the arrangement in **Figure 4.6** because of unfavorable steric interactions between the phenyl ring and the macrocycle. If benzaldehyde were bound to the side positions, contradicting our Δ*q* data, attack of the silyl enol ether would be blocked by the methyl group at the chiral center or by the ester.

The contribution I made to deduce structural information using my luminescence-decay studies and use of that structural information with the stereochemistry of the product to purpose a mechanism was important to the scientific community to unveil mechanistic information regarding asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction in aqueous media. Further, upon these achievements I was interested in studying other commercially available lanthanide salts other than lanthanide triflates to use as potential aqueous precatalysts and this research is explained in **section 4.4**.

Figure 4.6 Proposed transition state in the asymmetric Mukaiyama aldol reaction using the new ligands **4.6−4.11**.

4.4 Effect of counter anion identity on the inner-sphere hydration of lanthanides

I studied the water-coordination numbers of solvated Eu^{3+} salts including Eu(OTf)₃, Eu(NO₃)₃, EuCl₃, and Eu(OAc)₃ because these salts are commercially available. Although $Eu_2(CO_3)$ ₃ and $Eu_2(SO_4)$ ₃ can be purchased, I did not do further studies with these two salts because they are not water soluble. As shown in **Figure 4.7**, q values of EuCl₃ are similar to those of $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ in solvents containing more than 3% water (EuCl₃ was not soluble in solutions containing under 2% water).

Figure 4.7 Effect of Ln salts on *q*: Eu(OTF)₃(\bullet), EuCl₃(\circ), Eu(NO)₃(\blacktriangle), and Eu(OAc)₃(\blacksquare).

Due to the similarity of the obtained q values of EuCl₃ and Eu(OTf)₃, it was my hypothesis that these ions should lead to similar yields in carbon–carbon bond-forming reactions. However, the published yields (**Table 4.4**) of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction in **Scheme 1.1** were not the same with these two salts. (In the literature, Yb^{3+} was used in place of Eu³⁺, but with the same anions; therefore, I expect the trend in yield to be the same.)

Table 4.4 Published yields of Yb^{3+} salts used to catalyze the Mukaiyama aldol reaction in **Scheme 1.1**. 7

Yb^{3+} salt	Yield $(\%)$
$Yb(OTf)_{3}$	91
Yb(CIO ₄) ₃	88
Yb(OAc) ₃ · 8H ₂ O	14
$Yb(NO3)3·5H2O$	7
YbCl ₃	3
$Yb(SO_4)_3$ 5H ₂ O	trace

This conflict between my hypothesis and the literature lead me to search for an explanation for this difference between my observations and reported yields. One possible explanation is the differences in yield are caused by a change in pH. I measured pH values of EuCl₃ and Eu(OTf)₃ (1 mM) in H₂O and found them to be 5.77 and 6.23, respectively. Based on this pH difference, I hypothesized that if the pH value of the medium is maintained at 6.22, the water-tolerant catalytic ability of EuCl₃ should be similar to that of Eu(OTf)₃. Therefore, I carried out one set of reactions using $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ at pH values of 5.77 and 6.22. Another reaction was carried out using EuCl₃ at pH 6.22. To maintain the pH of the medium, 2-(*N*morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES) buffer was used. Surprisingly, my data (**Table 4.5**) were almost the same despite the pH differences.

Table 4.5 Yields of a Eu³⁺-salt-catalyzed Mukaiyama aldol reaction at 19 h. (The rest of the reaction mixture contained unreacted starting material).

These results prompted me to run both EuCl₃ and Eu(OTf)₃ catalyzed reactions in 20% water without buffer. The pattern of the results that I obtained (**Table 4.7**) were in disagreement with the literature values (**Table 4.6**). Therefore, to further investigate this conflict, I used gas

chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (GC–MS) as a quantitative analytical method. My purpose was to determine the yield for each salt at different water percentages using a GC– MS-derived calibration curve. Unfortunately, due to the high temperature in the GC–MS, a retroaldol reaction lead to the decomposition of my product to cyclohexanone. To confirm that cyclohexanone production was due to the decomposition of the product and not to the decomposition of silyl enol ether, I analyzed product and silyl enol ether individually. The GC– MS data confirmed the appearance of cyclohexanone peak due to product decomposition and not from the silyl enol ether. My attempts to calculate yields by analyzing the unreacted limiting substrate benzaldehyde did not give promising results due to the retro-aldol reaction. Therefore, Derek Averill (Graduate Student in Allen lab) performed investigations using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) coupled with a photodiode array detector. HPLC avoids the retro-aldol induced by heat of the GC–MS. Due to the limited water solubility of the silyl enol ether, we were unable to study the reaction at water percentages above 40% H_2O in THF (v/v). To test our hypothesis that water-coordination numbers influence the final yield of this reaction, the yields of $Eu(OTf)₃$ - and $Eu(NO₃)₃$ -catalyzed Mukaiyama aldol reactions were measured by Derek after 48 h in solvent mixtures ranging from 1 to 40% H_2O in THF (v/v) using HPLC **(Figure 4.8**). We chose to use these two precatalysts from $Eu(OTf)_{3}$, $Eu(NO_{3})_{3}$, $EuCl_{3}$, and Eu(OAc)₃ because of the wide range of water-coordination numbers $(3.2 \text{ to } 8.6)$ accessible under these conditions. Due to the incomplete solubility of the substrates with EuCl₃ and Eu(OAc)₃, these precatalysts were not further studied.

Figure 4.8 Yields of the reaction shown in **Scheme 1.1** catalyzed by Eu(OTf)₃ or Eu(NO₃)₃ after 48 h as a function of solvent composition.*⁵⁷

*Conditions: solvent mixtures of 1 to 40% H₂O/THF containing 7 mol % Eu(OTf)₃ (\circ) or Eu(NO₃)₃ (\Box). Size of the standard error bars are smaller than the sizes of the dots, and squares, and not included for clarity. Figure courtesy of Derek Averill.

From these measurements, we found a correlation between water-coordination number as well as between yield and solvent composition. This observation can be rationalized based upon relative binding affinities of the anions for Eu^{3+} , which affect the water-coordination numbers of the precatalysts: triflate has a lower binding affinity for Ln^{3+} ions than nitrate.¹¹ This difference in europium binding affinities between triflate and nitrate results in higher water-coordination numbers for $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ compared to $Eu(NO₃)$ ₃ and, ultimately, corresponds to higher europium accessibility because each water molecule coordinated to $Eu³⁺$ represents a potential site for benzaldehyde coordination and activation for reaction.

In general, increasing water percentage resulted in an increase of yield and reached a maximum and remained constant at solvent mixtures containing greater than 10% H₂O in THF

 (v/v) (**Figure 4.8**). This solvent composition corresponds to the lowest H_2O concentration at which the water-coordination number, *q*, is at a maximum value (**Figure 4.7**). The increase of yield percentage of $Eu(NO₃)₃$ -catalyzed reactions over the entire range of solvents in this study can be attributed to the water-coordination number of $Eu(NO₃)₃$ that increases without reaching a maximum with increasing H_2O in THF from 1 to 40%.

4.5 Conclusions

I demonstrated the applicability of luminescence-decay measurements as a dynamic tool that is useful in mechanistic studies of water-tolerant lanthanide-based catalytic systems. This method is widely applicable for the study of other important water tolerant lanthanide-catalyzed reactions, including solid-supported catalysts.⁵⁸ However, the major limitation of this study was the determination of the effect of THF on *q* values, which resulted the additional workload need to validate each solvent composition with the control complex **3**. The major reason for this validation was that **Eq 4.1** and **4.2** does not account for the differences in the inner- and outersphere luminescence quenching ability between water and other solvents because these equations were empirically derived in pure water. To overcome this major limitation, I investigated variations of inner- and outer-sphere dynamics with respect to commonly used organic solvents, and empirically derived equations that enable fast and accurate determination of inner-sphere coordination behavior in commonly used binary solvent systems. Chapter five in this thesis gives a full description of these studies.

I have demonstrated the further applicability of luminescence-decay measurements to study lanthanide-based chiral catalytic systems in aqueous medium that is the determination of a thermodynamic parameter, *K*. Furthermore, structural and mechanistic information was obtained us these measurements for potent chiral precatalysts for carbon-carbon bond-forming reactions in aqueous media.

Finally, the use of luminescence-decay measurements to probe the coordination environment of europium-based precatalysts in solution enabled the study of the influence of precatalyst coordination-environment on reaction yield. These results are useful in the design of new precatalysts to be used for aqueous, enantioselective, lanthanide-catalyzed bond-forming reactions.

4.6 Experimental Section

Commercial chemicals were of reagent-grade purity or better and were used without further purification. Water was purified using a PURELAB Ultra Mk2 water purification system (ELGA). Flash chromatography was performed using silica gel 60, 230–400 mesh (EMD Chemicals).⁵⁹ Analytical thin-layer chromatography (TLC) was carried out on ASTM TLC plates precoated with silica gel 60 F254 (250 μm layer thickness). TLC visualization was accomplished using a UV lamp followed by charring with potassium permanganate stain $(3 \text{ g KMnO₄, 20 \text{ g})$ K₂CO₃, 5 mL 5% w/v aqueous NaOH, 300 mL H₂O). ¹H NMR spectra were obtained using a Varian Unity 300 (300 MHz) or a Varian Mercury 400 (400 MHz) spectrometer, and ¹³C NMR spectra were obtained using a Varian Mercury 400 (100 MHz) or a Varian Mercury 500 (125 MHz) spectrometer. Chemical shifts are reported relative to residual solvent signals unless otherwise noted (CDCl₃: ¹H: δ 7.27, ¹³C: δ 77.23; D₂O: ¹H: δ 4.79, ¹³C: δ 39.51 for an internal standard of dimethyl sulfoxide- d_6). ¹H NMR data are assumed to be first order with apparent singlets and multiplets reported as "s" and "m", respectively. Italicized elements are those that are responsible for the shifts. High-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectra (HRESIMS)

were obtained on an electrospray time of flight high-resolution Waters Micromass LCT Premier XE mass spectrometer. Liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry (LC–MS) analysis was performed on a Shimadzu LC–MS system equipped with a C18 column (Restek International, Viva C18, 5 μ m, 250 \times 4.6 mm) equilibrated with 0.4% v/v formic acid, using a binary gradient method (pump A: water; pump B: acetonitrile; 5–95% B over 70 min; flow rate: 1 mL/min). 2- (Hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone was synthesized following a previously described procedure.⁷

4.6.1 Synthetic Procedures and Characterization of Eu-complex 4.3

Scheme 4.6 Synthesis of $q = 1$ Eu-complex (4.3) via compound 4.1–4.2.

 Synthesis of *tert-***Butyl 2,2',2''-(10-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7 triyl)triacetate (4.1):**

To a mixture of anhydrous acetonitrile (10 mL) and anhydrous K_2CO_3 (247 mg, 1.79 mmol, 5 equiv) under an atmosphere of N₂ was added *tert*-butyl-2,2',2"-(1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7- triyl)triacetate (184 mg, 0.358 mmol, 1 equiv) followed by 2-bromoethanol (127 μL, 1.79 mmol, 5 equiv). The resulting mixture was stirred at 70 $^{\circ}$ C for 12 h. After cooling to ambient temperature and removing excess K_2CO_3 by filtration, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. Purification was performed using silica gel chromatography (10:1 dichloromethane/methanol) to yield 198 mg (99%) of **4.1** as a light yellow oil. ¹H NMR (400) MHz, CDCl3, δ): 1.45 (s, C*H*3, 27H), 2.54–2.57 (m, C*H*2, 4H), 2.72–2.77 (m, C*H*2, 12H), 2.79– 2.82 (m, C*H*2, 4H), 3.32 (s, C*H*2C=O, 6H); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl3, δ): 28.8 (*C*H3), 48.1 (*C*H₂), 51.3 (*C*H₂), 52.8 (*C*H₂), 57.8 (*C*H₂), 81.4 (*C*(*C*H₃)₃), 171.9 (*C*=O); TLC: $R_f = 0.25$ and 0.27 (18:1 dichloromethane/methanol); HRESIMS (m/z) : $[M + H]$ ⁺ calcd for C₂₈H₅₅N₄O₇, 559.4071; found, 559.4063.

Synthesis of 2,2',2''-(10-(2-Hydroxyethyl)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7 triyl)triacetic acid (4.2):

A solution of **4.1** (180 mg, 0.322 mmol) in concentrated HCl (15 mL) was stirred at ambient temperature for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated under reduced pressure, and the resulting residue was dissolved in H2O (3 mL) and freeze dried to afford 124 mg (99%) of **4.2** as a white solid. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, D2O, δ): 3.13 (m, C*H*2, 8H), 3.49 (m, C*H*2, 10H), 3.63–3.65 (m, C*H*2, 4H), 3.98–4.01 (m, C*H*2, 4H); ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, D2O, δ): 49.5 (*C*H2), 49.8 (*C*H2), 52.1 (*C*H2), 53.4 (*C*H2), 54.5 (*C*H2), 56.4 (*C*H2), 56.5 (*C*H2), 56.9 (*C*H2), 60.9 (*C*H2), 61.1 (*C*H2), 64.1 (*C*H2), 67.6 (*C*H2), 68.1 (*C*H2), 170.4 (*C*=O); 174.3 (*C*=O); 175.8 (*C*=O); HRESIMS (*m/z*): [M -H][–] calcd for C₁₆H₂₉N₄O₇, 389.2036; found, 389.2042.

Synthesis of 2,2',2''-(10-(2-Hydroxyethyl)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7 triyl)triacetoeuropium(III) (4.3):

To a solution of **4.2** (18 mg, 47 µmol, 1 equiv) in H₂O (3 mL) was added EuCl₃ hexahydrate (35 mg, 96 μmol, 2 equiv), and the resulting reaction mixture was stirred at ambient temperature for 24 h while maintaining the pH between 6.9 and 7.1 by the addition of 0.1 M aqueous NH4OH. The pH of the mixture was increased to 12 to precipitate excess $Eu³⁺$ as $Eu(OH)₃$. After removing $Eu(OH)$ ₃ by filtration through a 0.2 μ m filter (Millipore, IC Millex-LG), the remaining filtrate was freeze dried. The resulting white solid was dissolved in $H₂O$ (2 mL) and dialyzed against $H₂O$ (cellulose ester, 100–500 Dalton molecular weight cut off, Spectra/Por Biotech). The entire dialysate volume was changed after 3, 7, and 17 h. After dialysis, the solution inside the membrane was freeze dried to yield 21 mg (85%) of **4.3** as a white solid. The purity of the product was confirmed by LC–MS characterization. HRESIMS (m/z) : $[M + H]$ ⁺ calcd for $C_{16}H_{28}N_4O_7$ ¹⁵¹Eu, 539.1173; found 539.1183.

4.6.2 Procedure for metalation of chiral ligands 4.6−4.12 with lanthanides

Metalated Chiral Ligand Solutions (4.6'–**4.11'):** A mixture of chiral ligand (**4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9,** or **4.10** in Scheme 4.3) (1.2 mM, 1.2 equiv) and $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ (1 mM, 1 equiv) was stirred at ambient temperature for 5 h in a solution of H₂O and THF (10% v/v). This procedure was repeated using D_2O in THF (10% v/v). These solutions were used directly in the luminescencedecay measurements.

Metalated Chiral Ligand Solution (4.11'): A mixture of chiral ligand (**4.11** in **Scheme 4.3**) (3 mM, 3 equiv) and Eu(OTf)₃ (1 mM, 1 equiv) was stirred at 40 $^{\circ}$ C for 45 min and then at ambient temperature for 24 h in a solution of H_2O and THF (10% v/v). This procedure was repeated using D_2O and THF (10% v/v). The resulting solution was used directly in the luminescence-decay measurements.

Metalated Chiral Ligand (**4.12'):** This metalation of chiral ligand **4.12** (**Scheme 4.3)** was done by Yijiang Mei,⁶⁵ and solutions (1 mM in H₂O and THF (10% v/v) or D₂O and THF (10% v/v)) of this solid were used in the luminescence-decay measurements.

CHAPTER FIVE

Luminescence-Decay as an Easy-to-Use Tool for the Study of Lanthanide-Containing Catalysts in Aqueous Solutions

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5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes my adaptation of luminescence-decay measurements into a simple and fast technique to determine inner-sphere water-coordination numbers of Ln^{3+} -based complexes in binary solvent systems that are useful for catalysis. These solvents include tetrahydrofuran (THF), EtOH, MeOH, *N,N*-demethylformamide (DMF), dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), acetone, and acetonitrile as cosolvents with water. The luminescence-decay rates of well defined Eu^{3+} containing complexes were used to perform this study. I expect that the increased knowledge regarding the inner-sphere coordination environment of precatalysts that my equations enable will be useful in the study of lanthanide-catalyzed reactions and new precatalysts.

5.2 Inner- and outer-sphere coordination environments of lanthanide ions in binary solvents

When water-miscible organic solvents are used with water in binary solvents in lanthanide-catalyzed organic transformations, the inner- and outer-sphere coordination environments of the lanthanide ions become complex relative to the coordination environment in water (**Figure 5.1**). Specifically, when water-miscible solvents occupy the inner-coordination sphere, the luminescence quenching arising from inner-sphere vibrations and the number of inner-sphere water molecules is different than the quenching observed for the same complexes in only water.

Figure 5.1 Coordination environments of lanthanide ions in pure solvent (left) and binary solvents (right). The symbols *q*, *qʹ*, and *n* represent the number of inner-sphere water molecules in pure water, the number of inner-sphere water molecules in binary solvent systems, and the number of inner-sphere solvent molecules in binary solvent systems, respectively.

To determine how *q* changes to *q'* in binary solvent systems, I chose well defined Eu^{3+} containing complexes (known *q* values in pure solvent) **5.1**–**5.6**, **(Figure 5.2)**. While it is likely that these complexes exist as multiple species (hydroxides, hydrates, and oxides) in equilibrium in solution, these complexes displayed a single peak for the ${}^{7}F_0 \rightarrow {}^{5}D_0$ transition; therefore, I made the assumption that the Eu^{3+} complexes in this study existed in a single form or that different forms were in equilibrium to give an average value of *qʹ*. The monoexponential luminescence decay values that I obtained for both H₂O and D₂O solutions ($R^2 \ge 0.99$) further support this assumption.^{20,60} In this chapter, I explain the stepwise procedure that I developed to investigate inner-sphere water molecules in binary solvent systems. For the rest of this thesis, I will refer to the number of inner-sphere water molecules coordinated to $Eu³⁺$ in binary solvent systems as *qʹ*.

Figure 5.2. Complexes with *w* values ranging from 0 to 3, where *w* represents the remaining coordination sites after ligand binding.

Determination of *qʹ* is important because the number of inner-sphere water molecules plays an important role in the mechanism of the aqueous lanthanide-based catalysis.^{24,47} However, application of the empirically derived Horrocks equation (**Eq 5.1**)²⁰ to determine *q'* is limited because **Eq 5.1** was derived in the absence of cosolvents. To determine *qʹ*, I examined changes to the parameters in Horrocks's equation $(a \text{ and } A)$ with respect to commonly used binary solvent systems. This determination was important because *α* accounts for the influence of non-coordinated molecules including binary solvents on luminescence decay, and consequently, the proportionality constant *A* (water molecules.ms) has an effect on *α.* Using a similar strategy as Horrocks, I plotted $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]$, which is the difference of the measured decay rates in protic and deuterated solvent systems, against *qʹ* (**Figure 5.3**). The data in **Figure 5.3** can be described by **Eq 5.2**, which enabled me to determine new α and A values in binary solvents.

Eq 5.1
$$
q = A \left| \tau_{H_2O}^{-1} - \tau_{D_2O}^{-1} \right| - \alpha)
$$

q'

Figure 5.3. Plot of H ^{*D*} $\left|$ ^{*m*} $\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}$ versus q' used to determine α and A . The intercept of the plot equals α and reciprocal of the slope is the proportionality constant, A .

Eq 5.2
$$
\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_m = \frac{1}{A} q' + \alpha
$$

However, I could not directly adapt Horrocks's method because the luminescence decay I measured arose from both inner- and outer-sphere nonwater solvent molecules. To overcome the

difficulties associated with non-water solvent molecules, I developed and implemented a six-step procedure to solve for *q*' and the non-water inner-sphere solvent-coordination number, *n*, in binary solvent systems. This stepwise procedure was applied to complexes **5.1**–**5.6** (**Figure 5.2**) as well as $Eu(OTf)_{3}$. These complexes were chosen because they represent a range (0–3 and 9) of well-defined numbers of coordination sites that remain after ligand coordination, which I will define as *w*. The use of complexes that span a wide range of *w* values is important because it enables my results to be used for any lanthanide-based precatalysts. Values of *w* were obtained from published values, $61-66$ but because complexes **5.4** and **5.6** did not have published coordination numbers, the number of open sites was established as 1 and 3, respectively, using *q* measurements in H_2O^{20} Additionally, because not all of the complexes were soluble in every solvent system studied, I used multiple complexes for some values of *w*: complex **5.1** or **5.2** for *w* values of zero and complex **5.3** or **5.4** for *w* values of one. The six-step procedure is described followed by a description of my validation of the resulting equations, an example of the use of my results to study a known system, and a flowchart that I expect will enable my results to be used routinely by the scientific community.

5.3 The six-step procedure to determine *q***' and** *n*

Step 1: Measure the luminescence-decay rates of Eu³⁺-containing complexes of known values of *w* in commonly used binary solvent systems with water percentages ranging from 1 to 100% (**Figure 5.2**). The observed decay rates are a combination of both inner- and outer-sphere decay as illustrated by **Eq 5.3**, where $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{B}$ $|\tau_{H}^{-1} - \tau_{D}^{-1}|$ is the absolute value of the difference of luminescence quenching rate due to inner-sphere solvent molecules and $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{OS}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\infty}$ is the absolute value of the difference of luminescence quenching rate due to outer-sphere solvent

molecules. The measured values of $\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ have maximum values in 100% water, and these values decrease with decreasing water concentration (**Tables 5.1–5.7**). This decrease is likely due to the presence of both inner- and outer-sphere non-water solvent molecules that have a lower decay rate per solvent molecule compared to water molecules.

Eq 5.3
$$
\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_m = \left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{IS} + \left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{OS}
$$

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in			$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{m}$ (ms ⁻¹)		
MeOH					
D_2O or	in 5.1 or 5.2	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
methanol- d_4	$(w = 0)$	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.35^a	1.15	1.99	2.79	7.84
90	0.35^a	1.11	1.87	2.66	7.56
80	0.35^a	1.08	1.80	2.64	7.43
70	0.33^a	1.07	1.64	2.63	7.21
60	0.30^a	1.06	1.52	2.50	7.13
50	0.30^a	0.98	1.45	2.49	7.12
40	0.30^a	0.96	1.35	2.38	7.09
30	0.29^a	0.96	1.30	2.37	6.96
20	0.25^a	0.96	1.31	2.34	6.81
10	0.22^a	0.93	1.32	2.31	6.48
9	0.21^a	0.93	1.28	2.31	6.36
8	0.16^a	0.92	1.22	2.25	6.31
τ	0.14^a	0.91	1.20	2.29	6.21
6	0.12^a	0.89	1.20	2.24	6.21
5	0.12^{b}	0.85	1.17	2.24	5.93
$\overline{4}$	0.12^{b}	0.84	1.16	2.13	5.44
3	0.10^{b}	0.82	1.17	1.92	5.35
$\overline{2}$	0.10^{b}	0.81	1.08	1.86	5.00
$\mathbf{1}$	0.10^{b}	0.80	1.01	1.84	4.87

Table 5.1. Mean $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for MeOH and methanol- d_4 .

a complex **5.1**; *b* complex **5.2**

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in EtOH				$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{m}$ (ms ⁻¹)		
D_2O _{or} ethanol- d	1n	5.1 or 5.2 $(w = 0)$	5.3 $(w = 1)$	5.5 $(w = 2)$	5.6 $(w = 3)$	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$ $(w = 9)$
100		0.35^a	1.15	1.99	2.79	7.84
90		0.28^a	1.07	1.82	2.70	7.56
$80\,$		0.27^a	1.05	1.68	2.66	7.46
70		0.25^a	1.03	1.66	2.64	7.35
60		0.21^a	1.01	1.61	2.60	7.29
50		0.22^a	0.98	1.59	2.60	7.26
40		0.20^a	0.97	1.54	2.56	7.10
30		0.20^a	0.97	1.55	2.50	7.04
20		0.27^a	0.93	1.50	2.43	6.79
10		0.25^a	0.87	1.45	2.46	6.56
9		0.24^a	0.87	1.35	2.46	6.41
$\,8\,$		0.13^a	0.87	1.33	2.50	6.40
$\overline{7}$		0.12^a	0.83	1.34	2.48	6.39
6		0.11^{b}	0.86	1.32	2.45	6.40
5		0.11^{b}	0.76	1.32	2.35	6.09
$\overline{4}$		0.10^{b}	0.75	1.15	2.22	5.56
$\overline{3}$		0.10^{b}	0.77	1.18	1.90	5.23
$\overline{2}$		0.10^{b}	0.76	1.16	1.88	5.15
$\mathbf{1}$		0.10^{b}	0.75	1.15	1.87	5.15

Table 5.2. Mean $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for EtOH and ethanol-*d*.

a complex **5.1**; *b* complex **5.2**

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O D_2O _{or}	in		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{m}$ (ms ⁻¹)		
DMSO	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 0)$	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.35	1.15	1.99	2.79	7.84
90	0.30	1.08	1.47	1.91	6.66
80	0.24	0.88	1.33	1.46	6.25
70	0.22	0.87	1.21	1.52	5.40
60	0.20	0.81	0.98	1.56	4.46
50	0.19	0.76	0.84	1.36	3.82
40	0.18	0.67	0.74	1.27	3.42
30	0.17	0.58	0.66	0.94	2.64
20	0.14	0.33	0.44	0.72	1.21
10	0.12	0.22	0.26	0.35	0.68
9	0.12	0.17	0.23	0.35	0.68
$\,$ $\,$	0.10	0.14	0.20	0.32	0.68
$\overline{7}$	0.08	0.13	0.17	0.30	0.64
6	0.06	0.13	0.17	0.31	0.64
5	0.04	0.12	0.16	0.23	0.49
$\overline{4}$	0.01	0.03	0.04	0.10	0.29
$\overline{3}$	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.08	0.21
$\overline{2}$	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.16
$\mathbf{1}$	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.14

Table 5.3 Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for DMSO.

Table 5.4 Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for acetone.

^{*a*} complex **5.1**; ^{*b*} complex **5.2**; ^{*c*} ns = not soluble; ^{*d*} complex **5.3**; ^{*e*} complex **5.4**

^{*a*} complex **5.1**; ^{*b*} complex **5.2**; ^{*c*} ns = not soluble; ^{*d*} complex **5.3**; ^{*e*} complex **5.4**

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{m}$ (ms ⁻¹)			
D_2O or acetonitrile	in 5.1 or 5.2 $(w = 0)$	5.3 or 5.4 $(w = 1)$	5.5 $(w = 2)$	5.6 $(w = 3)$	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$ $(w = 9)$
100	0.35 ^a	1.15 ^d	1.99	2.79	7.84
90	0.31 ^a	1.06 ^d	1.80	2.76	7.59
80	0.29 ^a	1.06 ^d	1.53	2.76	7.50
70	0.29 ^a	1.05 ^d	1.57	2.73	7.50
60	0.29 ^a	1.01 ^d	1.49	2.73	7.47
50	0.25 ^a	1.01 ^d	1.39	2.72	7.44
40	0.26 ^a	1.01 ^d	1.33	2.68	7.40
30	0.25 ^a	1.01 ^d	1.33	2.65	7.40
20	0.24 ^a	1.01 ^d	1.30	2.64	7.37
10	0.26 ^b	1.07 ^d	1.11	2.65	7.21
9	0.26 ^b	1.05 ^d	1.13	2.54	7.08
8	0.26 ^b	1.06 ^d	1.13	2.42	6.94
$\overline{7}$	0.26 ^b	1.09 ^d	1.12	2.39	6.82
6	0.26 ^b	1.04 ^d	1.14	2.35	6.62
5	0.20 ^b	0.93 ^d	ns^c	2.06	6.60
$\overline{4}$	0.20 ^b	0.93 ^e	ns^c	2.08	6.59
$\overline{3}$	ns^c	0.89 ^e	ns^c	1.83	6.17
$\overline{2}$	ns^c	0.79e	ns^c	1.79	5.89
$\mathbf{1}$	ns^c	0.70 ^e	ns^c	1.56	5.34
^a complex 5.1; ^b complex 5.2; ^c ns = not soluble; ^d complex 5.3; ^e complex 5.4					

Table 5.6. Mean $\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for acetonitrile.

^{*a*} complex **5.1**; ^{*b*} complex **5.2**; ^{*c*} ns = not soluble; ^{*d*} complex **5.3**; ^{*e*} complex **5.4**

$\%$ (v/v) of $H2O$ in DMF or D_2O in DMF- d_7	$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right $ (ms^{-1})				
	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 0)$	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.35	1.15	1.99	2.79	7.84
90	0.35	1.07	1.67	2.13	6.58
60	0.31	0.93	1.29	1.63	5.16
20	0.29	0.61	0.88	1.25	4.18
9	0.24	0.49	0.73	1.09	4.02
5	0.24	0.44	0.69	1.10	3.89
3	0.14	0.23	0.52	0.67	2.43
1	0.10	0.21	0.47	0.64	2.17

Table 5.7. Mean $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for DMF and DMF- d_7 .^{*}

* Fewer measurements were performed with DMF-containing solutions because of the high price of DMF-*d*7.

Step 2: Measure the luminescence-decay rate caused by outer-sphere molecules using Eu3+ complexes **5.1** and **5.2** that are composed of ligands that saturate the inner-coordination sphere of the metal. By completely blocking the inner-coordination sphere $\left(\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right| \right)$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{IS} = 0$ in **Eq 5.3**), I was able to isolate and measure luminescence decay caused by outer-sphere solvent molecules as illustrated in **Eq 5.4.**

Eq 5.4
$$
\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_m = \left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{OS}
$$

The results obtained for Step 2 are included in **Tables 5.1–5.7** ($w = 0$). The luminescence decay caused by outer-sphere solvent molecules were maximum in 100% water, and these values decreased with decreasing concentration of water. These results provide further evidence that non-water outer-sphere solvent molecules contribute less to luminescence quenching than water on a per-molecule basis.

Step 3: Calculate the inner-sphere decay component by subtracting the outer-sphere component (the data obtained from Step 2) from the measured data in Step 1. The isolated innersphere component is composed of decay arising from water molecules and non-water solvent molecules (Eq 5.5), where $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{\mathcal{B}_{\text{water}}}$ is the inner-sphere decay rate difference per water molecule and $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{\mathcal{B}_{sobent}}$ is the inner-sphere decay rate difference per non-water solvent molecule. The isolated value of $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{B}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{IS}$ is the sum of $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{IS_{water}}$ multiplied by the number of water molecules (q') and $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{\mathcal{B}_{sobent}}$ multiplied by the number of solvent molecules (*n*). The results obtained for Step 3 are shown in **Tables 5.8–5.14**, where complexes **5.1** and **5.2** have been omitted because the value of $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{IS}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ for these complexes is 0 by definition.

Eq 5.5
$$
\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS} = q' \left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS_{\text{water}}} + n \left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS_{\text{solvent}}}
$$

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in MeOH		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}(ms^{-1})$				
D_2O or	in 5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$		
methanol- d_4	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$		
100	0.76	1.54	2.44	7.49		
90	0.76	1.53	1.91	7.21		
80	0.74	1.45	1.80	7.08		
70	0.74	1.31	1.80	6.88		
60	0.76	1.22	1.80	6.62		
50	0.68	1.15	1.79	6.41		
40	0.67	1.06	1.78	6.19		
30	0.67	1.01	1.78	6.07		
20	0.72	1.07	1.79	6.06		
10	0.71	1.11	1.79	5.96		
9	0.72	1.08	1.79	5.86		
8	0.77	1.12	1.80	5.76		
$\overline{7}$	0.83	1.15	1.78	5.70		
6	0.81	1.13	1.72	5.68		
5	0.72	1.08	1.72	5.30		
$\overline{4}$	0.72	1.09	1.71	5.33		
$\overline{3}$	0.72	1.11	1.72	5.25		
$\overline{2}$	0.71	1.08	1.70	4.90		
$\mathbf{1}$	0.70	1.07	1.71	4.67		

Table 5.8. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\text{re}}$ values for MeOH and methanol- d_4 .

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in EtOH	$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}$ $\rm (ms^{-1})$				
D_2O or	5.3 in	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
ethanol- d	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$	
100	0.80	1.64	2.44	7.49	
90	0.73	1.48	2.36	7.22	
80	0.73	1.36	2.34	7.14	
70	0.68	1.31	2.29	7.00	
60	0.70	1.30	2.29	6.98	
50	0.66	1.27	2.28	6.94	
40	0.68	1.25	2.27	6.81	
30	0.69	1.27	2.22	6.76	
20	0.66	1.23	2.16	6.52	
10	0.62	1.20	2.21	6.31	
9	0.63	1.11	2.22	6.17	
8	0.74	1.20	2.37	6.27	
$\overline{7}$	0.71	1.22	2.36	6.27	
6	0.75	1.21	2.34	6.29	
5	0.65	1.21	2.24	5.98	
$\overline{4}$	0.65	1.05	2.12	5.46	
3	0.67	1.08	1.80	5.13	
$\overline{2}$	0.66	1.06	1.78	5.05	
$\mathbf{1}$	0.65	1.05	1.77	5.05	

Table 5.9. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for EtOH and ethanol-*d*.

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O D_2O in or DMSO	$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}}$ (ms ⁻¹)				
	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
	$(w=1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$	
100	0.80	1.64	2.44	7.49	
90	0.78	1.17	1.61	6.36	
80	0.64	1.09	1.22	6.01	
70	0.65	0.99	1.30	5.18	
60	0.61	0.78	1.36	4.26	
50	0.57	0.65	1.17	3.63	
40	0.49	0.56	1.09	3.24	
30	0.41	0.49	0.77	2.47	
20	0.19	0.30	0.58	1.07	
10	0.10	0.14	0.23	0.56	
9	0.05	0.11	0.23	0.56	
8	0.04	0.10	0.22	0.58	
$\overline{7}$	0.05	0.09	0.22	0.56	
$\frac{6}{5}$	0.07	0.11	0.25	0.58	
	0.08	0.12	0.19	0.45	
$\overline{4}$	0.02	0.03	0.09	0.28	
$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	0.01	0.03	0.07	0.20	
$\overline{2}$	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.15	
$\mathbf{1}$	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.13	

Table 5.10. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\infty}$ values for DMSO.

$\%$ (v/v of H ₂ O D_2O in or acetone)		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}(ms^{-1})$		
	5.3 or 5.4	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.80 ^a	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	0.75^a	1.54	2.47	7.30
80	0.75^a	1.51	2.41	7.24
70	0.74^a	1.47	2.36	7.21
60	0.75^a	1.46	2.32	7.07
50	0.74^a	1.44	2.32	6.89
40	0.76^a	1.44	2.28	6.68
30	0.73°	1.44	2.24	6.52
20	0.75^a	1.43	2.26	6.58
10	0.76^a	1.39	2.24	6.59
9	0.76^a	1.27	2.20	6.61
8	0.76^a	1.19	2.16	6.62
$\overline{7}$	0.69^a	1.12	2.07	6.51
6	0.68^a	1.13	2.06	6.46
5	0.70^a	1.10	2.04	6.47
$\overline{4}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}
$\overline{3}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$
$\overline{2}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}
	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^b

Table 5.11. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $\left|\tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right|_{\infty}$ values for acetone.

^{*a*} complex **5.3**; ^{*b*} not determined because of solubility of complexes **5.1** and **5.2**.

$\%$ of (v/v) H_2O or D_2O		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}(ms^{-1})$		
in THF	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	$0.80^{\overline{a}}$	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	0.80 ^a	1.58	2.36	7.25
80	0.78 ^a	1.58	2.33	7.15
70	0.78 ^a	1.46	2.36	7.18
60	0.79 ^a	1.49	2.34	7.15
50	0.74 ^a	1.35	2.34	7.08
40	0.75 ^a	1.36	2.40	7.06
30	0.74 ^a	1.36	2.43	7.11
20	0.77 ^a	1.38	2.42	7.15
10	0.79 ^a	1.32	2.42	6.92
9	0.75 ^a	1.27	2.35	6.74
8	0.76 ^a	1.33	2.42	6.77
$\overline{7}$	0.76 ^a	1.28	2.41	6.80
$\frac{6}{5}$	$0.78^{\,a}$	1.35	2.47	6.83
	0.79 ^a	1.32	2.45	6.67
$\overline{4}$	nd^{b}	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$
$\overline{3}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}
$\overline{2}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$
$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$

Table 5.12. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $\left[\tau_{H}^{-1} - \tau_{D}^{-1}\right]_{\infty}$ values for THF.

^{*a*} complex **5.3**; ^{*b*} not determined because of solubility of complexes **5.1** and **5.2**.

$\%$, (v/v) of H ₂ O D_2O in or acetonitrile		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}(ms^{-1})$		
	5.3 or 5.4	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.80 ^a	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	0.75 ^a	1.49	2.45	7.28
80	0.77 ^a	1.24	2.46	7.21
70	0.76 ^a	1.28	2.44	7.21
60	0.72 ^a	1.20	2.44	7.18
50	0.76 ^a	1.14	2.46	7.18
40	0.75 ^a	1.08	2.43	7.15
30	0.76 ^a	1.09	2.41	7.15
20	0.76 ^a	1.06	2.40	7.13
10	0.81 ^a	0.86	2.40	6.95
9	0.79^a	0.87	2.28	6.82
$8\,$	0.79 ^a	0.86	2.15	6.67
$\boldsymbol{7}$	0.76 ^a	0.85	2.12	6.55
6	0.77 ^a	0.87	2.08	6.35
5	0.72 ^a	nd^c	1.86	6.40
$\overline{4}$	0.73^{b}	nd^c	1.88	6.39
\mathfrak{Z}	nd ^c	nd ^c	nd ^c	nd ^c
$\overline{2}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,c}$	nd^c	nd^c	nd^c
1	nd ^c	nd^c	nd^c	nd^c

Table 5.13. Mean $\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{K}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for acetonitrile.

^{*a*} complex **5.3**; ^{*b*} complex **5.4**; ^{*c*} not determined because of solubility of complexes **5.1** and **5.2**.

Step 4: Determine the inner-sphere decay rate difference per molecule in the absence of water. To determine the values of the per molecule decay rate differences in **Eq 5.5,** one of the two differences was set to zero. First, I set *q*' to 0 in **Eq 5.5** by using each cosolvent in the absence of water (**Eq 5.6**).

Eq 5.6
$$
\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{IS} = n \left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{IS_{\text{so}^{bent}}}
$$

In **Eq 5.6**, *n* can be replaced by *w* when *q*' is equal to 0, using the relationship shown in **Eq 5.7**, where *w* equals the total number of coordinated water and solvent molecules. When *n* was replaced by *w*, **Eq 5.8** was obtained, and $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\text{IS solvent}}$ $\left[\tau_{H}^{-1} - \tau_{D}^{-1}\right]_{T}$ for each complex was divided by the *w* value of each complex $(Eq 5.9)$ to calculate the inner-sphere decay rate per solvent molecule for all of the solvents studied. The calculated $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{\text{IS solvent}}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values are listed in **Table**

5.15.

Eq 5.7 $q' + n = w$ $\mathbf{Eq\ 5.8}\ \left|\mathbf{\tau}_{H}^{-1}-\mathbf{\tau}_{D}^{-1}\right|_{\mathcal{B}}=w\left|\mathbf{\tau}_{H}^{-1}-\mathbf{\tau}_{D}^{-1}\right|_{\mathcal{B}\ solvent}$ $\mathbf{Eq\ 5.9}$ $\frac{1}{W}$ $\frac{D_{\parallel}}{W}$ $=$ $\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{\text{IS solvent}}$ $H^{-1}D|_{I\ S}$ *w* $1 - -1$ $1 - -1$ -1 -1 $=$ $|\tau_H^{-1}$ \overline{a} $\tau_{\rm tr}-\tau$ $\tau_{\rm m}-\tau$

solvent	$\left \tau_H^{-1}-\tau_D^{-1}\right _{lS}$				
water	0.83				
methanol	0.41				
ethanol	0 44				
DMSO	0				
acetone	0				
THF	0				
acetonitrile	0				
DMF	0				
\ast $\left \tau_{\scriptscriptstyle H}^{\scriptscriptstyle -1}-\tau_{\scriptscriptstyle D}^{\scriptscriptstyle -1}\right _{\scriptscriptstyle I\!S}$					

Table 5.15. Calculated decay per inner-sphere solvent molecule.

I observed values of zero for the decay per inner-sphere solvent molecule for THF, DMSO, DMF, acetonitrile, and acetone. This result is likely because these solvents do not contain vibrational oscillators capable of quenching the $Eu³⁺$ excited state energy. For MeOH and EtOH, the decay- per- inner-sphere- solvent- molecule values were greater than zero due to the presence of O–H oscillators.

Step 5: Repeat **Step 4** using 100% water to determine inner-sphere decay rate per water molecule when no cosolvent is present ($n = 0$ from **Eq 5.5**). Here, q' in **Eq 5.5** was replaced by w to obtain **Eq 5.10**, and **Eq 5.11** shows the rearrangement of **Eq 5.10** used to calculate the innersphere decay rate per water molecule. The calculated $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\text{IS water}}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ value is listed in **Table 5.15.** The decay per inner-sphere solvent molecule for MeOH and EtOH was approximately half that of inner-sphere water (**Table 5.16**). This observation is not surprising because there are half as many O–H oscillators in MeOH or EtOH as there are in water.

Eq 5.10
$$
\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{IS} = w \left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{IS \ water}
$$

Eq 5.11
$$
\frac{\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS}}{w} = \left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS\ water}
$$

Step 6: Determine *q*' and *n* by combining **Eqs 5.5** and **5.12** for each complex in all the studied solvent systems. This determination is important because solving for *q*' in binary solvent systems is the key step to determination of α and *A* (**Figure 5.3**). However, the measured luminescence rates were due to the experimental number of coordination sites not occupied by a multidentate ligand, *w*'. This experimental *w*' is different than *w* because many of the *w* values were determined in a static environment using X-ray crystallography while *w*' is measured in a dynamic environment. The experimental *w*' was calculated for each studied complex by dividing the $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_{IS}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{IS}$ values in 100% water by $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{IS \, water}$ $\left[\tau_{H}^{-1} - \tau_{D}^{-1}\right]_{\tau_{E}}$. All measured *w*' values are less than or equal to the respective *w* values (**Table 5.16**). Using *w*', I re-wrote **Eq 5.7** as **Eq 5.12** to account for solution dynamics. **Eq 5.12** was used with **Eq 5.5** and the data from **Tables 5.8–5.14** to create a system of two equitations and two variables (*q*' and *n*). This system allowed for *q*' and *n* to be solved for in all of the solvent systems studied. The calculated values of *q*' and *n* in the DMSO/water binary system are shown in **Table 5.17** as a representative system. The *q*' and *n* values for each complex in all of the studied solvent systems are shown in Appendix B. The maximum calculated *q*' value was obtained in 100% water for each complex, and these values decreased with decreasing concentration of water. Further, the maximum calculated *n* values were observed at the lowest water percentages.

Eq 5.12
$$
q' + n = w'
$$

complex	w	w'
5.1	0	0
5.2	0	0
5.3	1	0.96
5.4	1	0.96
5.5	2	1.97
5.6	3	2.95
$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	9	9.00

Table 5.16. values of w' for complexes **5.1–5.5** and Eu(OTf)₃.

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O	5.3		5.5		5.6		$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
DMSO or \sin	$(w = 1)$		$(w = 2)$		$(w = 3)$		$(w = 9)$	
D_2O in DMSO	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}
100	0.96	0.00	1.97	0.00	2.95	0.00	9.00	0.00
90	0.84	0.12	1.68	0.29	1.94	1.01	7.66	1.34
80	0.78	0.18	1.50	0.47	1.48	1.47	7.24	1.76
70	0.79	0.17	1.16	0.81	1.57	1.38	6.25	2.75
60	0.84	0.12	0.94	1.03	1.64	1.31	5.13	3.87
50	0.65	0.31	0.78	1.19	1.41	1.54	4.37	4.63
40	0.61	0.35	0.57	1.40	1.31	1.64	3.91	5.09
30	0.62	0.34	0.46	1.51	0.94	2.01	2.98	6.02
20	0.73	0.23	0.59	1.38	0.70	2.25	1.30	7.70
10	0.72	0.24	0.68	1.29	0.28	2.67	0.68	8.32
9	0.75	0.21	0.61	1.36	0.28	2.67	0.68	8.32
8	0.85	0.11	0.71	1.26	0.27	2.68	0.70	8.30
7	0.85	0.11	0.79	1.18	0.26	2.69	0.68	8.32
6	0.86	0.10	0.74	1.23	0.30	2.65	0.69	8.31
5	0.75	0.21	0.62	1.35	0.23	2.72	0.54	8.46
4	0.74	0.22	0.64	1.33	0.11	2.84	0.34	8.66
3	0.74	0.22	0.69	1.28	0.08	2.87	0.24	8.76
$\overline{2}$	0.72	0.24	0.63	1.34	0.05	2.90	0.18	8.82
$\mathbf{1}$	0.69	0.27	0.60	1.37	0.04	2.91	0.15	8.85

Table 5.17. Calculated *q*' and *n* values for DMSO binary systems.

5.4 Derivation of *α* **and** *A* **for binary solvent systems**

After calculating q' values, I made plots to derive α and α using the same strategy as Horrocks and coworkers. To achieve this goal, the $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values from Step 1 were plotted against the q' values for complexes **5.1–5.6** as well as Eu(OTf)₃ in all of the binary mixtures studied. For complexes in MeOH and EtOH, $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ values were plotted against $(q' + \frac{n}{2})$ because these solvents have a decay per solvent molecule that is approximately half that of one water molecule. A representative plot is shown in **Figure 5.4** using the DMSO binary solvent

system with 60% water (v/v). The remaining $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ $\left|\tau_{H}^{-1} - \tau_{D}^{-1}\right|_{m}$ versus *q*' and $\left|\tau_{H}^{-1} - \tau_{D}^{-1}\right|_{m}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ versus $(q' +$ \boldsymbol{n}

 $\frac{n}{2}$) plots are shown in Appendix B.

Figure 5.4. $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_m$ $|\tau_{H}^{-1} - \tau_{D}^{-1}|$ versus *q*' for 60% H₂O (v/v) in DMSO.

The data in **Figure 5.4** and Appendix B indicate that decay rates have a linear dependence on *q*' values in all of the measured solvent systems. Because complexes **5.1–5.6** do not contain nonsolvent ligand-based O–H oscillators, the intercept of these plots can be used to determine changes outside of the inner-sphere $(a \text{ in } \mathbf{Eq} 5.1)$ for each unique binary solvent system (**Table 5.18**). Additionally, the *A* value was calculated as 1.2 using the reciprocal of the slope of the best fit line of the plots, and this value was independent of solvent system.
$H2O\%$	methanol	ethanol	DMSO	acetone	THF	acetonitrile	DMF
(v/v)							
100	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35
90	0.35	0.33	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.31	0.35
80	0.36	0.32	0.29	0.29	0.30	0.30	$nd*$
70	0.34	0.32	0.24	0.30	0.30	0.29	$nd*$
60	0.31	0.29	0.20	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.31
50	0.31	0.29	0.19	0.24	0.28	0.25	$nd*$
40	0.31	0.27	0.18	0.26	0.27	0.24	$nd*$
30	0.30	0.26	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.23	$nd*$
20	0.26	0.25	0.12	0.21	0.23	0.21	0.29
10	0.23	0.23	0.12	0.20	0.19	0.19	$nd*$
9	0.22	0.22	0.12	0.19	0.19	0.18	0.24
8	0.15	0.14	0.09	0.18	0.16	0.18	$nd*$
7	0.11	0.13	0.08	0.18	0.16	0.17	$nd*$
6	0.12	0.13	0.06	0.16	0.14	0.17	$nd*$
5	0.13	0.12	0.04	0.16	0.11	0.13	0.24
$\overline{4}$	0.11	0.11	0.01	nd	nd	0.11	$nd*$
3	0.10	0.11	0.01	nd	nd	nd	0.14
$\overline{2}$	0.09	0.11	0.01	nd	nd	nd	$nd*$
$\mathbf{1}$	0.07	0.11	0.01	nd	nd	nd	0.10

Table 5.18. *α* values for each binary solvent system studied.

nd = not determined due to insolubility.

nd* = not determined because of the high price of DMF-*d*7.

The results in **Table 5.18** indicate that the maximum value for the outer-sphere contribution to luminescence decay, *α*, was obtained in 100% water. This is likely because water molecules have more efficient vibrational quenchers (two O–H oscillators) than the other solvents studied. Furthermore, values of α tend to decrease with decreasing water percentage in each solvent system, and this reduction is proportional to the relative affinity of the solvents to the Eu³⁺ center.²² Interestingly, values of α for solvents without O–H oscillators were not equivalent. This difference is likely due to the different strengths of the interactions of these solvents with water leading to changes in the vibrations of the water molecules. $67-70$ $67-70$ Because these vibrations are responsible for quenching in the outersphere, changes to these vibrations from hydrogen bonding, density, or van der Waals interactions are expected to influence α. To enable the determination of α at any water percentage as opposed to the 19 set values in this study, the α values from **Table 5.18** were plotted against water percentage (v/v) for each solvent system. These plots were fitted using Microsoft Excel version 2007 using exponential, linear, logarithmic, polynomial, and power trend-line options, and the best fit equations for each solvent are shown in **Table 5.19**.

Table 5.19. Equations describing *α* as a function of water percentage for each binary solvent system studied. The variable x is the water percentage (v/v) .

cosolvent	α *
methanol	$0.0722 \ln x + 0.0285$
ethanol	$0.0598 \ln x + 0.055$
DMSO $(x = 1-9)$	$0.0018x^2 - 0.0033x + 0.0092$
DMSO $(x = 10-100)$	10^{-5x^2} + 0.001x + 0.1051
acetone	$0.1132 x^{0.2219}$
THF	$0.064 \ln x + 0.0301$
acetonitrile	$0.0587 \ln x + 0.0427$
DMF	$0.0523 \ln x + 0.1123$

5.5 Validation of empirically derived *α* **equations**

To validate my empirically derived equations for *α* (**Table 5.19**) relative to the values obtained using Horrocks's equation in 100% water (**Eq 5.1**), I recalculated α with $x = 100$ using the equations in **Table 5.19**. My empirically derived α values for 100% water are within the range of 0.31–0.36 (**Table 5.20**). I subsequently recalculated the number of inner-sphere water molecules in 100% H₂O for all of the complexes that I studied using the α value that I obtained for 100% H₂O (Results for q' determinations were rounded to two significant figures).^{[71](javascript:void(0);)} This comparison enabled me to determine the accuracy of *q*′ values derived from our equations compared to *w* values that were obtained from published values. $61-66$ Further, I extended my recalculations of inner-sphere water molecules in nonwater solvent systems, by using $x = 100$ (100% H2O) in my new empirically derived equations for α. **Table [5.20](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/full/10.1021/cs200213a#tbl15)** shows the resulting values that display at most ± 0.1 water molecules of uncertainty relative to *w*. For comparison, I analyzed my data from the 100% water system (water in **Table [5.20](http://pubs.acs.org/doi/full/10.1021/cs200213a#tbl15)**) using the commonly accepted Horrocks equation^{[20](javascript:void(0);)} and found *w* values of 0.12, 1.1, 1.8, 2.7, and 8.3 for **5.1**, **5.3**, **5.5**, **5.6**, and Eu(OTf)₃, respectively. This comparison demonstrates that the calculated values using my equations more closely $(\pm 0.1 \text{ vs } \pm 0.7)$ reflect the actual system (*w*) than the Horrocks equation. It should be noted that my equations can be used with systems for $w \le 9$, where Horrocks's equations are only applicable to complexes $w \le 1$ ($\alpha = 0.25$) and for $1 \le w \le 6$ ($\alpha =$ 0.31).^{[20](javascript:void(0);)} My range is extended because I extended the determination of q' up to nine free coordination sites for Eu^{3+} complexes where other studies have stopped at six.^{[20](javascript:void(0);)} It is also worth noting that ligand systems that contain aromatic groups in close proximity to the $Eu³⁺$ ion might display back energy transfer and lead to less accurate determinations of q' ;^{[72](javascript:void(0);)} however, I did not observe this problem for complex **5.2**.

solvent	α	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
		$(w = 0)$	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
water	0.35	0.00	0.96	1.97	2.93	8.99
DMF	0.35	0.00	0.96	1.96	2.93	8.99
acetonitrile	0.31	0.05	1.00	2.01	2.98	9.03
THF	0.32	0.03	0.99	2.00	2.97	9.02
acetone	0.31	0.05	1.00	2.01	2.98	9.03
DMSO	0.31	0.05	1.00	2.01	2.98	9.03
ethanol	0.33	0.02	0.98	1.99	2.96	9.01
methanol	0.36	0.00	0.95	1.95	2.92	8.97

Table 5.20. Recalculated α values and number of inner-sphere water molecules in 100% H₂O for all the complexes**.**

To demonstrate an application of my empirically derived equations, I recalculated the watercoordination measurements from an earlier study.²⁴ **Figure 5.5** shows the previously published *q* and recalculated q' values of the first reaction coordinate of $Eu³⁺$ in the catalytic cycle of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction. The recalculated *q*' values were significantly different at a 95% confidence interval (student's *t* test) from the published *q* values. Further, an increase of upto 0.86 in water-coordination number was observed upon application of my empirically derived *A* and α values to determine q' . The increased q' values at low water percentages are due to both reduced *α* values and an increased *A* value. The observed increase of *q*' values at higher water percentages is due to increased *A* value. However, the use of my recalculated *q*' values are more appropriate for THF/water binary system because of the consideration of solvent effects.

Figure 5.5. Comparison between published *q* values taken from reference 7 \bullet and recalculated q' (o) of Eu³⁺ in the first reaction coordinate of the catalytic cycle. Standard error bars are smaller than the size of the dots.

Finally, I derived a simple three-step procedure for applying my results to the study of lanthanide-catalyzed reactions. The equations listed in **Table 5.20** can be applied easily to study the water-coordination number of any Ln^{3+} -based precatalysts that are soluble in any water percentage in the binary systems in this study using the three-step flowchart in **Figure 5.6.** The results of this chapter can also be easily calculated using the 'α calculator' that I have developed using java applets, which can be found at http://chem.wayne.edu/allengroup/teaching.html.

Figure 5.6. Flowchart description of my method to determine the number of inner-sphere water molecules of a Eu^{3+} complex in a binary solvent system.

5.6 Conclusion

I have empirically derived equations that enable fast and accurate determination of the water-coordination number of lanthanides in synthetically useful binary solvent systems. This determination is extremely important to understand the dynamics of the inner- and outer-sphere environments of Ln^{3+} -based precatalysts in aqueous solvent mixtures that can enable the easy acquisition of mechanistic and structural information regarding water-tolerant catalysts. The present work opens a gateway for the study of any lanthanide-catalyzed reactions and is a powerful tool for catalyst design.

5.7 Experimental Section

Materials. Commercial chemicals were of reagent-grade purity or better and were used without purification unless otherwise noted. Water was purified using a PURELAB Ultra Mk2 water purification system (ELGA). THF was purified using a solvent purification system (Vacuum Atmospheres Company). Ethanol was distilled from calcium hydride.⁷³ Tris $(2,6$ pyridinedicarboxylate)europium(III) (5.1) ,⁷⁴ 1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10tetrayltetramethylenetetra(benzylphosphinate)europium(III) (5.2) , ⁶¹ $2.2'$, 2'', 2'''-(1,4,7,10tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetrayl)tetraacetoeuropium(III) (5.3) ,⁷⁵ 2,2',2"-(1,4,7,10tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7-triyl)triacetoeuropium(III) (5.5) ,⁷⁶ and 2,2'-(1,7-dioxa-4,10diazacyclododecane-4,10-diyl)dipropanoeuropium(III) (**5.6**) ⁴⁷ were synthesized following published procedures.

Characterization. ¹H NMR spectra were obtained using a Varian Mercury 400 (400 MHz) spectrometer, and ¹³C NMR spectra were obtained using a Varian Mercury 400 (101 MHz) or a Varian Mercury 500 (125 MHz) spectrometer. Chemical shifts are reported relative to residual solvent signals unless otherwise noted (CDCl₃: ¹H: δ 7.27, ¹³C: δ 77.23; D₂O: ¹H: δ 4.79, ¹³C: δ 39.51 for an internal standard of dimethyl sulfoxide- d_6). ¹H NMR data are assumed to be first order with apparent singlets, and multiplets reported as "s" and "m", respectively. Italicized elements are those that are responsible for the shifts. High-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectra (HRESIMS) were obtained on an electrospray time-of-flight high-resolution Waters Micromass LCT Premier XE mass spectrometer. IR spectra were measured using KBr pellets from 4000 to 400 cm^{-1} on a Bruker TENSOR 27 FTIR spectrophotometer. IR maximum absorption peaks are reported in cm^{-1} where the absorptions are s, strong; vs, very strong; and br,

broad. Liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry (LC–MS) analysis was performed on a Shimadzu LC–MS system equipped with a C18 column (Restek International, Viva C18, 5 μm, 250×4.6 mm) equilibrated with formic acid (0.4% v/v), using a binary gradient method (pump A: water; pump B: acetonitrile; 5–95% B over 70 min; flow rate: 1 mL/min). Exponential, linear, logarithmic, polynomial, and power trend line options as well as best fit equations were obtained using Microsoft Excel version 2007.

2,2',2''-(10-(2-Methoxyethyl)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7-

triyl)triacetoeuropium(III) (5.4) (Scheme 5.1):

To a mixture of *tert*-butyl 2,2',2"-(1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7-triyl)triacetate (179 mg, 0.348 mmol, 1 equiv) and anhydrous K_2CO_3 (247 mg, 1.79 mmol, 5 equiv) in anhydrous acetonitrile (10 mL) under an atmosphere of Ar was added 2-bromoethylmethylether (164 μL, 1.75 mmol, 5 equiv). The resulting mixture was stirred at 70 ºC for 12 h. After cooling to ambient temperature and removing solids by filtration, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. The crude product was purified using silica gel chromatography (10:1 dichloromethane/methanol) to yield 194 mg (97%) of the methoxyethyl-functionalized product **5.4a** as a light yellow oil. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, δ): 1.20–1.50 (m, CH₃, 27H), 1.60–3.60 (m, CH₃ and CH₂, 29H); ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, CDCl₃, δ): 27.9 (CH₃), 28.0 (CH₃), 53.0 (CH₂), 56.9 (*C*H2), 57.2 (*C*H2), 58.9 (*C*H3), 68.6 (*C*(CH3)3), 81.9 (*C*H2), 82.0 (*C*H2), 171.9; TLC: *R^f* = 0.36 (18:1 dichloromethane/methanol); HRESIMS (m/z) : $[M + H]$ ⁺ calcd for C₂₉H₅₇N₄O₇, 573.4227; found, 573.4215.

A solution of the methoxyethyl-functionalized product **5.4a** (99 mg, 0.17 mmol) in concentrated HCl (7.5 mL) was stirred at ambient temperature for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated under reduced pressure, and the resulting residue was dissolved in $H₂O$ (3 mL) and freeze dried to afford 70 mg (99%) of the ligand for complex $5.4b$ as a white solid. ¹H NMR $(400 \text{ MHz}, \text{D}_2\text{O}, \delta)$: 2.90–3.22 (m, CH₂, 8H), 3.26–3.28 (m, CH₃, 3H), 3.32–3.66 (m, CH₂, 14H), 3.68–3.76 (m, C*H*2, 2H), 4.17 (s, C*H*2, 2H); ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, D2O, δ): 49.4 (*C*H2), 49.9 (*C*H2), 52.4 (*C*H2), 53.4 (*C*H2), 54.4 (*C*H2), 55.0 (*C*H2), 56.1 (*C*H2), 60.2 (*C*H3), 67.3 (*C*H2), 170.0, 175.6; HRESIMS (m/z) : $[M - H]$ ⁻ calcd for C₁₇H₃₁N₄O₇, 403.2193; found, 403.2205.

To a solution of the ligand $5.4b$ (20 mg, 48 mmol, 1 equiv) in $H₂O$ (3 mL) was added EuCl₃ $6H₂O$ (39.0 mg, 106 mmol, 2.2 equiv), and the resulting reaction mixture was stirred at ambient temperature for 24 h. The pH of the reaction mixture was maintained between 6.9 and 7.1 with dropwise addition of 0.1 M aqueous NH4OH. When the pH of the mixture was constant for 24 h it was increased to 12 to precipitate excess Eu^{III} as $Eu(OH)$ ₃. The $Eu(OH)$ ₃ was removed by filtering through a 0.2 μm filter (Millipore, IC Millex-LG), and the remaining filtrate was freeze dried. The resulting white solid was dialyzed against $H₂O$ (cellulose ester, 100–500 dalton molecular weight cut off, Spectra/Por Biotech). The entire dialysate volume was changed after 3, 7, and 17 h. After dialysis, the solution inside the membrane was freeze dried to yield 26 mg

(83%) of **5.4** as a white solid. The purity of the product was confirmed by LC–MS (supporting information); HRESIMS (m/z) : $[M + H]^+$ calcd for $C_{17}H_{30}N_4O_7^{151}Eu$, 553.1317; found 553.1313.

Luminescence-decay measurements to determine *q***'**

Luminescence-decay measurements were performed using a HORIBA Jobin Yvon Fluoromax-4 spectrofluorometer. Solutions of Eu(OTf)₃ (1 mM) as well as each Eu³⁺ complex **5.1–5.6** were prepared using binary aqueous mixtures as solvents. Cosolvents included tetrahydrofuran (THF), EtOH, MeOH, dimethylsolfoxide (DMSO), acetone, or acetonitrile. Water was used at 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and 100% (v/v) with each cosolvent for a total of 109 unique solvent systems. This sample preparation was repeated with D₂O mixtures of THF, ethanol-*d*, methanol-*d*₄, DMSO, acetone, and acetonitrile. Prior to dissolving the Eu^{III} -containing samples in deuterated solvent systems, the samples were repeatedly $(3x)$ dissolved in D₂O and concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure. The sample preparation was also repeated with DMF/H₂O and DMF- d_7 /D₂O at 1, 3, 5, 9, 20, 60, 90, and 100% (v/v) H₂O or D₂O, respectively.

Samples were sealed in cuvettes that were purged with Ar prior to filling. Luminescencedecay measurements were acquired using the excitation (λ_{ex}) and emission (λ_{em}) wavelengths listed in **Table 5.22.** All other parameters were kept constant during the luminescence-decay measurements (excitation and emission slit widths (5 nm), flash count (100), initial delay (0.001 ms), maximum delay (2 ms), and delay increment (0.02 ms)). The decay rates (τ^{-1}) were obtained as the slopes of plots of the natural log of luminescence intensity versus time. This

procedure was performed for every solution, and all solutions were independently prepared and measured three to nine times. The resulting mean decay rates have standard errors ≤ 0.05 s⁻¹.

Table 5.21. Wavelengths (λ_{ex} and λ_{em}) used in the determination of inner-sphere watercoordination numbers.

complex	$\lambda_{\rm ex}$ (nm)	$\lambda_{\rm em}$ (nm)
5.1	397	593
5.2	395	595
5.3	395	594
5.4	395	594
5.5	395	592
5.6	394	591
$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	394	591

CHAPTER SIX

Adaptations of ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopy to the determination of exchange rates of the Ln-based catalytic cycles

6.1 Introduction

This chapter contains an introduction to the properties of 17 O nuclei that is needed to understand a second analytical tool that I adapted to study lanthanide-catalyzed carbon–carbon bond-forming reactions in aqueous systems: variable temperature $(VT)^{17}O NMR$ spectroscopy. In this chapter, I also summarize previous research that used $17O$ NMR spectroscopy to determine water-exchange rates. Finally, I describe my efforts towards the use of this technique to determine substrate-binding and product-dissociation rates of Ln-based catalytic cycles.

6.2 ¹⁷O nuclear properties

Oxygen has three isotopes $(^{16}O, ^{17}O,$ and $^{18}O)$, but only the ^{17}O nucleus is NMR active. The ¹⁷O nucleus has a nuclear spin, *I*, of 5/2 and possesses a quadrupolar magnetic moment (*Q*).⁷⁷–⁷⁸ Because of the asymmetric distribution of electrons around quadrupolar nuclei, electric field gradients are generated. The quadrupolar magnetic moment interacts with these electric field gradients resulting in quadrupolar relaxation. The quadrupolar relaxation rate influences the longitudinal relaxation rate, $\frac{1}{n}$, which can be determined using **Eq 6.1**, where *I* is the nuclear spin, *η* is the term describing the asymmetry of the electric field, *Q* is the quadrupole moment, *E* is the electric field gradient, τ_c is the rotational correlation time, e is the charge of the electron, and \hbar is the reduced Planck constant that is equal to $h/2\pi$.^{77–78} In solution, electric field gradients 1 *T*

are negligible; hence, quadrupolar relaxation is averaged to zero, and $17¹⁷O$ frequencies are determined by chemical shielding and *J-*coupling interactions.⁷⁷

Eq 6.1
$$
\frac{1}{T_1} = \frac{3}{40} \frac{2I + 3}{I^2 (2I - 1)} \left(1 + \frac{\eta^2}{3} \right) \left(\frac{e^2 EQ}{\hbar} \right)^2 \tau_c
$$

Quadrupolar relaxation causes ^{17}O signals to be relatively broad with low signal intensity compared to ${}^{1}H$ and ${}^{13}C$ NMR signals. Moreover, larger molecules with less symmetry produce large quadupolar moments, and consequently, fast relaxation of quadrupolar nuclei occurs resulting in broad signals.⁷⁸ This quadrupolar relaxation coupled with a low natural abundance $(0.037%)$ makes high concentrations (molar) or 17 O-enrichment necessary to acquire spectra with good signal-to-noise ratios. However, there is a wide chemical shift range for $\rm ^{17}O$ containing functional groups, and this property is useful to differentiate broad peaks (**Figure** 6.1).^{77,79}

Figure 6.1 Chemical shift range for 17 O nuclei in different functional groups. 77,79

Applications of quadrupolar relaxation include the determination of protein hydration dynamics in aqueous medium;⁸⁰ the study of hydrogen bonding;⁸¹ the structural determination of oligopeptides and polymers; the study of organic molecules, 8^{1-82} nucleic acids, and amino acids;⁸¹ water mobility and binding studies;⁸³ the investigation of the hydration of ionic surfactant micelles; 84 and the study of the dynamics of water in electrolyte-containing solutions.⁸⁵ In addition to the many applications of $17O$ quadrupolar relaxation, the transverse relaxation of $17O$ is also coupled with various clinical and biomedical applications as well as structure–function determinations.⁸⁶ Because the determination of ligand exchange rates of lanthanide ions related to catalysis was one of my goals, section **6.2.1** gives a brief review of the determination of water-exchange rates in the presence of paramagnetic ions using 17 O transverse relaxation.

6.2.1 ¹⁷O transverse relaxation in the presence of paramagnetic ions

Paramagnets have a positive magnetic susceptibility that can change the orientation of the magnetic moment of nearby ¹⁷O nuclei. To determine the effect of paramagnetic ions on the relaxation rate of 17 O in water, Poulson and coworkers measured the line width (width at half height) obtained for ^{17}O NMR peaks at room temperature with a natural abundance of ^{17}O in water in solutions containing paramagnetic transition metal ions (**Table 6.1**).⁸⁷

Added substance ^a	concentration (mM)	relative intensity	linewidth (ppm)
no added salt		4.4	12
MnCl ₂	10	2.1	16
CuSO ₄	1	1.4	14
Fe(NO ₃) ₃	2	2.3	17
Fe(NO ₃) ₃	4	1.2	28
CoCl ₂	0.1	1.8	20
NiCl ₂	0.01	1.3	25
CrCl ₃	1000	2.0	15

Table 6.1. Line widths for $\frac{17}{2}$ NMR peaks in paramagnetic solutions.⁸⁷

 a ^a All solutions, except CrCl₃, contained 10 mM HClO₄.

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The line broadening that Poulson and coworkers observed for salt solutions relative to water with no added salt is a qualitative indication of an increased transverse relaxation rate in the presence of salts. However, the data in **Table 6.1** show that $Cr³⁺$ salts have a smaller effect on line broadening than other metals. This result was in agreement with Hunt's observations that inner-sphere water molecules of Cr^{3+} ions exibit slow exchange with bulk water.⁸⁸ Further, Stover and coworkers assumed that the transverse relaxation of the spin of the $17O$ nucleus is influenced by two independent changes: changes of the residency lifetime of the ¹⁷O nucleus at the metal, T_{2P} , and changes of the relaxation time in the diamagnetic bulk water in the absence of paramagnetic ion, T_{2D} (Eq 6.2). T_2 was calculated using Eq 6.3, where $\Delta \omega$ is the width from peak to peak in the derivative curve.⁸⁹ Poulson and coworkers performed simple calculations to

determine the lower limit for water-exchange rates by substituting the value of T_2 obtained from **Eq 6.3** $(2.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1})$ into **Eq 6.2**. Assuming that Fe³⁺ in a 4 mM solution of Fe(NO₃)₃ is hexacoordinated, they calculated total concentration of inner-sphere water to be $6 \times 4 \times 10^{-3}$ mM. Therefore, the T_{2P} value obtained for a water molecule was determined by dividing total inner-sphere water concentration by 55.5 M bulk water, and calculated T_{2P} value was 9×10^{-7} s $([2.0 \times 10^{-3} \times 6 \times 4 \times 10^{-3}]/55.5)$. The rate constant k_1 for the equilibrium shown in **Scheme 6.1** was determined to be as $1/T_{2P}$, which is 1.1×10^6 s⁻¹.⁸⁷

Eq 6.2
$$
\frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{1}{T_{2D}} + \frac{1}{T_{2P}}
$$

Eq 6.3 $T_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}\Delta\omega}$ $=$ 3 $T_2 = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}$

Scheme 6.1 The equilibrium for water exchange between bulk and inner-sphere water, where *k*¹ is the rate constant for water exchange.

$$
Fe(H_2O^{17})^{3+} + H_2O \quad \xrightarrow{k_I} \quad Fe(H_2O)^{3+} + {}^{17}OH_2
$$

Later, Stover and coworkers re-measured this preliminary data, which was obtained using the natural abundance of ^{17}O in water, using ^{17}O -enriched water, 89 and the rate constant values, k_1 , obtained from both experiments are shown in **Table 6.2**. The major limitation for these experiments was that only lower limits for the rate constants were obtained. The reason for lower limit determination was the lack of knowledge about the overall relaxation, specifically, whether the speed of water exchange between inner-sphere and outer-sphere or the speed of $\frac{17}{0}$ nuclear relaxation in the inner-sphere limits overall relaxation.

Solution	$k_1(s^{-1})^{68}$	$k_1(s^{-1})^{7}$
Cu(CIO ₄) ₂	3.3×10^{6}	6×10^6
Fe(CIO ₄) ₃	2.4×10^{4}	1.1×10^{6}
Mn(CIO ₄) ₂	2.2×10^{7}	1×10^7
Ni(CIO ₄) ₂	3.2×10^{4}	4×10^4
Co(CIO ₄) ₂	3.1×10^{5}	2×10^5

Table 6.2 Comparison of k_1 values obtained from samples containing ¹⁷O -enriched water versus natural abundance water. 87,89

To resolve this limitation, Connick and coworkers further studied the rate constants using temperature studies.⁹⁰ They considered the experiments done by Bernheim and coworkers to determine the temperature dependence of proton longitudinal and transverse relaxation times in aqueous solutions of paramagnetic ions.⁹¹ Bernheim studied the contributions of dipolar and scalar interactions to T_1 and T_2 relaxation times. In this study, the Bloembergen–Solmon equation was extended to include a temperature term to correlate the dependence of T_1 and T_2 on temperature.⁹¹ Bernheim and coworkers made the assumptions that T_1 is governed by a dipolar mechanism and that T_2 is mainly controlled by a scalar mechanism. With the knowledge of Bernheim's investigations, Connick and coworkers used the apparatus shown in **Figure 6.2** for their temperature studies. Heated air was passed through the coil for the elevated temperature studies (the upper limit was 100 °C), and dry cooled N_2 was used for low temperature studies (the lower limit was 0° C).⁹⁰

Figure 6.2 Cross section of the all-glass sample holder employed in the temperature studies, drawn bolted into an NMR probe. The lettered parts are (A) a brass block; (B) a brass bolt welded to the probe; (C) a rubber gasket; (D) a glass coil (2 mm outer diameter); (E) a nonsilvered Dewar; (F) a receiver coil; (G) a thermocouple well; (H) a solution surface; and (I) a orifice for filling and evacuating. Reprinted with permission from *J. Chem. Phys*. **1962,** *37,* 307– 320; Copyright 1962, American Institute of Physics.

In this study, Connick and coworkers investigated the temperature dependence of T_1 and T_2 for ¹⁷O-enriched water containing Mn²⁺, Fe²⁺, Co²⁺, Ni²⁺, or Cu^{2+ 90} They derived **Eq 6.4** for paramagnetic solutions in water and used this equation to determine the water-exchange rate for the ions in their experiment. In Eq 6.4, $\frac{1}{T}$ is equal to $\left| \frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T} \right|$ $\bigg)$ \setminus $\overline{}$ \setminus ſ $\overline{}$ T_2 T_{2D} 1 1 , 2 1 *T* is the measured $\rm ^{17}O$ NMR relaxation rate of the paramagnetic solution, $\frac{1}{T_{2D}}$ is the measured ¹⁷O NMR relaxation rate T_{2r} 1 1

of a diamagnetic solution, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ is the reduced transverse ¹⁷O relaxation rate, T_{2m} ⁻¹ is the relaxation rate of the inner-sphere ¹⁷O water molecule, and $\Delta \omega_m$ is the chemical shift difference between bound water and bulk water.⁹⁰ T_{2r} 1 is the reduced transverse 17 Q relaxation rate T^{-1} 2 T_{2m} ⁻

Eq 6.4
$$
\frac{1}{T_{2r}} = \frac{1}{\tau_m} \frac{T_{2m}^{-2} + \tau_m^{-1} T_{2m}^{-1} + \Delta \omega_m^2}{(\tau_m^{-1} + T_{2m}^{-1})^2 + \Delta \omega_m^2}
$$

Based on **Eq 6.4**, there are two mechanisms for the relaxation process, in one process T_{2m} is involved, and in the other process $\Delta\omega_m$ is involved. Because Connick and coworkers were doing temperature-dependence studies, they derived **Eq 6.5** and **Eq 6.6** to depict the correlations between τ_m and temperature and between $\Delta \omega_m$ and temperature, where ΔH^{\ddagger} and ΔS^{\ddagger} are the enthalpy and entropy for the activation of water exchange between the bulk and the innercoordination sphere, respectively; *I* and *S* are the spins of the nucleus of the paramagnetic ion and the electron, respectively; γ_e and γ_N are the gyromagnetic ratios for the nuclei and for the electron, respectively; *A* is the Arrhenius constant; and k_B is the Boltzmann constant.⁹⁰

$$
\mathbf{Eq 6.5} \quad \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega} = \frac{4I(I+1)S(S+1)\gamma_e A}{9k_B T \gamma_N}
$$
\n
$$
\mathbf{Eq 6.6} \quad \tau_m = \left(\frac{k_B T}{h}\right)^{-1} \exp\left(\frac{\Delta H^{\ddagger}}{RT} - \frac{\Delta S^{\ddagger}}{R}\right)
$$

Eqs 6.4–**6.6** can be used to determine water-exchange rates, but these equations were derived only for dilute solutions. Fiat and coworkers suggested that to determine the waterexchange rates for solutions containing paramagnetic ions, more concentrated solutions must be used to obtain meaningful data.⁹² Fiat's argument was that in the presence of paramagnetic lanthanide ions, larger chemical shifts could be obtained and less line broadening would occur, except for Gd^{3+} ions (the relaxation of unpaired electron spins of Gd^{3+} is relatively slow). Therefore, they suggested that the Connik and Swift equations (**Eqs 6.4–6.6**) are inappropriate for water-exchange analysis of lanthanide solutions and derived equations that are applicable to concentrated lanthanide solutions with fast exchange rates.

Fiat and coworkers used spherical cells for the measurements to minimize line broadening due to inhomogenities of the magnetic field at the edges of solution. Their spherical cell was attached to a sample holder using a glass joint. They measured $17O$ line widths for acidified perchlorate solutions containing Pr^{3+} , Nd^{3+} , Sm^{3+} , Eu^{3+} , Tb^{3+} , Dy^{3+} , Ho^{3+} , Er^{3+} , Tm^{3+} , or Yb^{3+92} After analyzing the correlation between concentration and ¹⁷O line width, they obtained reasonable estimations of water-exchange rates using **Eq 6.7**, where *n* is the number of water molecules coordinated to the metal ion and C_m is the ratio between metal molar concentration, c , and water concentration, 55.5 ($C_m = c/55.5$).

Eq 6.7
$$
\frac{1}{T_{2r}} = \frac{1 - nC_m}{T_{2D}} + \frac{nC_m}{T_{2P}} + (1 - nC_m)^2 nC_m \tau_m \Delta \omega_m^2
$$

To minimize the effect of paramagnetic line broadening in concentrated samples, Fiat and coworkers analyzed diamagnetic samples including La^{3+} , Lu^{3+} , and Y^{3+} at a variety of concentrations (**Figure 6.3**).⁹² Because Lu³⁺ had the maximum linewidth for a given temperature, smaller ionic radii were suggested to cause more line broadening. To account for the contribution from ionic radius on T_2 , equation **Eq 6.8** was used, where *r* is the ionic radius in angstroms.

Figure 6.3 The concentration dependence of the 17 O linewidth in acidified solutions of La^{3+} , Lu³⁺, and Y^{3+} perchlorates. Adapted with permission from *J. Chem. Phys.* **1969,** 51, 4918–4927 ; doi: 10.1063/1.1671884. Copyright 1969 American Institute of Physics.

Eq 6.8
$$
\frac{1}{\pi T_2} = 48.6 + 6.60 r^{-4.6} c + 3.59 r^{-4.6} c^2
$$

In this investigation of the temperature dependence of the 17_O linewidth, results were normalized using **Eq 6.8** to eliminate the effect of ionic radius on linewidth and two temperature regions were observed: a region from 15 to 100 $^{\circ}$ C with a lower activation energy (2 kcal/mol) and a low temperature region down to about -20 °C with a higher activation energy (10 kcal/mol) (**Figure 6.4**). Fiat and coworkers suggested that linewidth increases with decreasing temperature because exchange rates are slower at lower temperatures; consequently, T_2 is mainly influenced by τ_m . Therefore, to determine the effect of τ_m on the linewidth, they compared the correlation of temperature and 17 O relaxation rate in pure water, in a diamagnetic lanthanum

perchlorate solution and in paramagnetic solutions. Their results suggest that the effect of τ_m on linewidth is negligible. 92

Figure 6.4 'Normalized' ¹⁷O linewidth in perchlorate solutions containing paramagnetic ions versus 1000/T. Adapted with permission from *J. Chem. Phys*. **1969,** *51,* 4918–4927; doi: 10.1063/1.1671884. Copyright 1969, American Institute of Physics.

A 'microdynamic behavior of water' model was used to interpret the results in **Figure 6.4** with an assumption that the 17_O quadrupolar coupling constant is temperature independent. According to this model, there is a group of water molecules that are "free" and not hydrogen bonded. These free water molecules need less activation energy for the exchange process at elevated temperatures. The number of free molecules is smaller at low temperature because of increased hydrogen bonding resulting in the observation of higher activation energy at low temperatures.⁹²

However, the work done by Fiat and coworkers is limited by the low magnetic field (1.4 T) and the high concentrations necessary to acquire signals with high signal-to-noise ratios. Merbach and coworkers used high field strength magnets, 4.7 and 8.5 T, for VT studies to determine water-exchange rates using less concentrated samples.⁹³ Eq 6.4 was modified by adding the outer-sphere contribution to the relaxation, \perp (Eq 6.9). In this equation, P_m is the molar fraction of the bound water 17 O nuclei, and calculations of water-exchange rates were performed using nine for the coordination number of $Ln³⁺$ in dilute perchlorate solutions. Merbach and coworkers determined the water-exchange rates, k^{298} , for several Ln³⁺ ions as perchlorate solutions at 298.15 K (Table 6.3).⁹³ A gradual decrease of k^{298} was observed with decreasing ionic radius, suggesting that an increase of charge density in Ln^{3+} ions causes longer water-residency lifetimes. The advantage of using high field strength magnets is that the kinetic contribution to relaxation is maximized. Magnetic inhomogeneity was taken into account by applying a Carr–Purcell pulse sequence. T_{2os} 1

Eq 6.9
$$
\frac{1}{T_{2r}} = \frac{1}{P_m} \left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_{2A}} \right) = \frac{1}{\tau_m} \frac{T_{2m}^{-2} + \tau_m^{-1} T_{2m}^{-1} + \Delta \omega_m^{-2}}{(\tau_m^{-1} + T_{2m}^{-1})^2 + \Delta \omega_m^{-2}} + \frac{1}{T_{2os}}
$$

\ln^{3+}	k^{298} (s ⁻¹)
Tb^{3+}	5.0×10^8
Dy^{3+}	3.9×10^{8}
Ho^{3+}	1.9×10^{8}
Er^{3+}	1.2×10^{8}
Tm^{3+}	8.1×10^{7}
Yh^{3+}	4.1×10^{7}

Table 6.3 Calculated water-exchange rates for Ln^{3+} perchlorate solutions at 298.15 K.⁹³

Later, Merbach and coworkers showed that outer-sphere contributions to water-exchange rate are negligible by using a control complex with no inner-sphere water molecules, Gd[(TETA)]⁻ (TETA⁴⁻ = 1,4,8,11-tetraazacyclotetradecane-*N,N',N''*,N'''-tetraacetate).⁹⁴ They measured $1/T_1$ and $1/T_{2A}$ as a function of temperature for Gd[(TETA)]⁻ and compared their results with the data obtained for Gd^{3+} -containing complexes with one inner-sphere water molecule; $[\text{Gd}(\text{DTPA})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^2$ and $[\text{Gd}(\text{DOTA})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]$ (Figure 6.5).⁹⁴ They observed a negligible increase in the transverse relaxation rate for Gd[(TETA)]– and concluded that the outer-sphere contribution to water-exchange rates is negligible.

Figure 6.5 Temperature dependence of ¹⁷O NMR transverse relaxation rates due to the presence of $[\text{Gd}(\text{DTPA})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^2$ (•, \circ), $[\text{Gd}(\text{DOTA})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]$ (•, \Box), and $[\text{Gd}(\text{TETA})]$ (\blacktriangle , Δ). Filled and open symbols correspond to measurements at 9.4 and 4.7 T, respectively. Adapted with permission from Micskei, K.; Helm, L.; Brücher, E.; Merbach, A. E. Inorg. Chem. **1993,** *32,* 3844–3850. Copyright 1993 American Chemical Society.

As described throughout the section **6.2.1**, many investigations have been performed to determine accurate water-exchange rates in the presence of paramagnetic lanthanide ions, resulting in the derivation of complex equations such as **Eq 6.9**. In section **6.2.2**, I describe my investigations to adapt VT $¹⁷$ O NMR measurements to determine exchange rates important to</sup> lanthanide catalytic cycles.

6.2.2 Determination of substrate- and product-exchange rates of lanthanide catalytic cycles using ¹⁷O transverse relaxation.

As described in the previous section, it is well known that the rate of exchange between an inner-sphere water molecule and bulk water is related to the transverse relaxation rate of $\rm ^{17}O$ in water, and this value can be estimated using $17O$ NMR spectroscopy performed at variable temperatures.²¹ Based on this concept, I proposed that substrate exchange rates (k_{substate}) and product dissociation rates ($k_{product}$) can be studied using ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopy using ¹⁷O-labeled substrates and products (**Scheme 6.2**). Using ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde, I attempted this study for the same Mukaiyama aldol reaction that I studied using luminescence-decay measurements (Chapters 4 and 5, **Scheme 1.1**).

Scheme 6.2 Simplified catalytic cycle of the Mukaiyama aldol reaction showing rates of exchange between bound and unbound substrate $(k_{\text{substrate}})$ and product $(k_{\text{product}})^a$.

a The subscripts a , q , x , y , and z represent the number of 2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl) cyclohexanone, water, triflate, THF, and benzaldehyde ligands, respectively. Charges have been omitted for simplification.

To master the technique of VT 17 O NMR spectroscopy, my initial studies were carried out using $Gd[(DOTA)(H_2O)]$. This complex was chosen because the water- exchange rate (k_{ex}) of the coordinated water molecule is reported in the literature.²¹ I measured the ¹⁷O linewidth at half maximum $(v_{1/2})$ of ¹⁷OH₂ in Gd[(DOTA)(H₂O)]⁻ (10 mM) in 100% water) with respect to temperature. I used the relationship between the residence life time of the bound water molecule

 (τ_m) and the spectral linewidth at half maximum to calculate τ_m using **Eq 6.10**, and Origin nonlinear fitting. In **Eq 6.10**, $v_{1/2}^{agent}$ is the spectral linewidth at half maximum for Gd[(DOTA)(H₂O)][–] , and I measured this value at 15 temperatures ranging from 5 to 75 °C. In the 17 O measurements, an external reference is used, which is a solution of an analogous diamagnetic complex of the same concentration and pH as the paramagnetic sample. For this purpose, I used Y^{3+} because it is the best choice because of its similar size and charge to Gd^{3+} . In **Eq 6.10**, $v_{1/2}^{H_2O}$ are the spectral linewidths at half maximum for the reference complex at the same temperatures as $v_{1/2}^{agent}$. I use the term "reduced transverse (R_2) ¹⁷O relaxation rate" in the rest of this chapter, where R_2 is $\pi(\nu_{1/2}^{agent} - \nu_{1/2}^{H_2O})$. In **Eq 6.10**, T_{2m} is the relaxation time of the bound water, and τ_m is the residency life time of the bound water, which can be used to calculate k_{ex} ($\tau_m = 1/k_{ex}$). For my VT ¹⁷O measurements, I used an NMR tube with a coaxial insert that contained a locking solution (**Figure 6.6**). The resulting spectral linewidths at half maximum for $Gd[(DOTA)(H_2O)]$ ⁻ and Y[(DOTA)(H2O)]– are shown in **Table 6.4**. After reaching a specific temperature, I waited 7–10 min to allow the sample temperature to reach equilibrium. As expected, linewidths increased gradually from 5 to 35 \degree C and decreased with increasing temperature from 35 to 75 \degree C. This linewidth pattern is common for Ln^{3+} -containing complexes with one inner-sphere water molecule.²¹

Eq 6.10

$$
\pi\left(\nu_{172}^{\text{gen}}-\nu_{172}^{H_2O}\right)=\left(\frac{q\left[G(d\right]\right)\left(\left[S(S+1)\left(A\right)^2\right]^{-1}\left[\left(k_{\text{ex}}^{-28}T\frac{dH}{R\left(2815\text{ }\overline{T}\right)}\right]\right]+\left(\frac{1}{T_{\text{ex}}^{-28}e^{-R^{-\left(\frac{1}{T}-\frac{1}{2815}\right)}}}\right)\right]^{-1}\left[\left(k_{\text{ex}}^{-28}T\frac{dH}{R\left(2815\text{ }\overline{T}\right)}\right]\right]^{-1}
$$

Figure 6.6 Schematic drawing of an NMR tube with a coaxial insert.

Table 6.4 Measured ¹⁷O spectral linewidths.

Using my measurements of spectral linewidths at half maximum for Gd(DOTA)⁻ and $Y(DOTA)^{-}$, I calculated the reduced transverse $(R_2)^{17}O$ relaxation rates. After plotting R_2 versus

temperature as shown in **Figure 6.7**, I determined the k_{ex} of water for Gd[(DOTA)(H₂O)]⁻ to be 6 \times 10⁶ s⁻¹ (literature value: 4 \times 10⁶ s⁻¹).²¹ I then analyzed Gd(OTf)₃ to determine the k_{ex} of coordinated water molecules and obtained a k_{ex} value of 806 \times 10⁶ s⁻¹ (literature value: 804 \times 10⁶ s⁻¹).²¹ The linewidths at half maximum for Gd(OTf)₃ and Y(OTf)₃ decreased with increasing temperature which is common for complexes with more than one inner-sphere water molecule **(Table 6.4).**²¹

Figure 6.7 Reduced transverse 17 O relaxation rates versus temperature for $Gd(DOTA)^{-}$ (\circ) and $Gd(OTf)_{3}(\bullet)$.

After successfully reproducing exchange rates reported in literature, I attempted to determine the exchange rate ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde ($k_{substrate}$, **Scheme 6.2**) using the VT ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopy. For this determination, I synthesized ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde as described at the end of this chapter. ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde (90 mM) was dissolved in 15% H₂O in THF (v/v) in which 10 mM Eu(\overline{OTf})₃ was present (sample **6.1**, **Figure 6.8**). This sample was used because with Eu(OTf)₃, optimal initial reaction rates were observed in 15% water.⁵⁷ However, with this sample, I observed four ¹⁷O peaks (**Figure 6.8**, peaks A, B, C, and D), which were due to the presence of 17 O-labeled benzaldehyde, the natural abundance of 17 O in water, the natural abundance of ^{17}O in D₂O, and the natural abundance of ^{17}O in THF. To differentiate these peaks, I prepared a series of samples that separated the components of the mixture in sample **6.1**: sample 6.2 contained water only; sample 6.3 contained water and D_2O ; and sample 6.4 contained water, D_2O , and THF. I identified the ${}^{17}OH_2$ peak by acquiring the spectrum of a sample containing 17 OH₂ in the insert and water (sample **6.2**, **Figure 6.9**) in the annular space. For this sample, I observed a peak for 17 OH₂ that I referenced to zero. By replacing water in annular space with D_2O , I prepared sample **6.3** (**Figure 6.9**). The introduction of D_2O to the annular space led to the observation of two peaks, and I assigned them as ${}^{17}OD_2$ and ${}^{17}OH_2$. Sample **6.4** (not shown) was prepared by adding THF and ${}^{17}OH_2$ to the annular space, and this sample was used to assign the ¹⁷O-THF peak (3.38 ppm). The chemical shift that I obtained for ¹⁷Obenzaldehyde peak (563 ppm) was comparable to the literature value (564 ppm).⁷⁷

Figure 6.8 (Left) Schematic drawing of an NMR tube containing sample **6.1**; (Right) ¹⁷O NMR spectrum obtained for solution **6.1** where the insert shows portion of the spectrum that contains peaks B, C, and D.

Figure 6.9 (a) Schematic of an NMR tube containing sample 6.2 (water only), (b) ^{17}O NMR spectrum obtained for sample **6.1**, (c) schematic of an NMR tube containing sample **6.3** (water and D_2O only), (d) ¹⁷O NMR spectrum obtained for sample **6.2**. The letters C and D correspond to the peak labels in **Figure 6.8**.

After assigning ¹⁷O NMR peaks, I performed VT-¹⁷O NMR experiments with sample **6.1** at temperatures ranging from 15 to 55 $^{\circ}$ C. The maximum temperature was 55 $^{\circ}$ C to avoid boiling of the water–THF binary solvent system. I did not perform experiments below 15 \degree C to avoid freezing the solution. Compared to the results shown in **Table 6.4** for ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde in 15% H_2O in THF (v/v) containing 10 mM Eu(OTf)₃, the observed linewidths at halfmax for the peak from ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde did not consistently increase or decrease as a function of temperature (**Figure 6.10**). These observations led me to consider of the possible equilibria in the sample (**Scheme 6.3)**:

Figure 6.10 Observed linewidths for the¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde peak in sample 6.1 plotted as a function of temperature.

Scheme 6.3 Possible equilibria in a solution of 17 O-labeled benzaldehyde in 15% H_2O in THF (v/v) containing 10 mM Eu(OTf)₃. Charges have been omitted for simplicity. Oxygen atoms not labeled as 17 O represent 16 O.

To deconvolute the complicated system depicted in **Scheme 6.3**, I simplified the system by isolating equilibrium involving only Eu^{3+} and water. I did this by performing ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopy on a solution of 100% water containing $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ (10 mM). For this sample, I observed decreasing linewidths with increasing temperature increments for 17 OH₂ linewidths (similar to the linewidth pattern that I observed for $Gd(OTf)$ ₃ in 100% water shown in **Table 6.4**). Surprisingly, upon addition of THF (5–95% v/v) I observed a random fluctuation of linewidth for all ¹⁷O peaks (similar to **Figure 6.10**). This observation of an inconsistent linewidth pattern for the H2O–THF binary system, led me replicate the VT experiments, to see if the fluctuations that I observed were within the error of the measurements. With the repetition of VT experiments using the H_2O-THF binary system, I obtained large error bars (**Figure 6.11**), suggesting that the observed fluctuations were due to random errors likely due to the complexity of the several equilibria in the studied system. Further, I investigated other water-miscible binary systems including H_2O-CH_3CN and $H_2O-C_2H_5OH$. In these systems, I observed fluctuating linewidths as a function of temperature for H_2O-CH_3CN ; however, for $H_2O-C_2H_5OH$, I observed a trend of decreasing linewidth with increasing temperature (**Table 6.5**, **Figure 6.11**). The reason for this observation may due to the temperature dependence of formation of a hydrogen-bond network in water–water miscible binary systems. Due to the random linewidths as a function of temperature, I was unable to determine substrate-exchange rates or productexchange rates for lanthanide-based catalytic cycles in aqueous media.

Table 6.5 Measured ¹⁷O spectral linewidths.

Figure 6.11 Observed linewidths obtained for 17 OH₂ in H₂O–CH₃CN (\bullet), 17 OH₂ in H₂O – C₂H₅OH (\circ), and ¹⁷OH₂ in H₂O–THF (\triangle). Error bars represents the standard error of the measurements for the H₂O–THF system. Measurements for the H₂O–CH₃CN and H₂O– C₂H₅OH systems were not repeated. The regression type for the $H_2O-C_2H_5OH$ system is linear.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter describes the basic properties of 17 O nuclei, investigations regarding its application in various fields of chemistry, biotechnology, and medicinal science, and my attempt to adapt ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopy to determine exchange rates important to catalysis. However, due to the complexity of my samples, I was unable to determine the desired exchange rates. I propose that the solvent interactions with lanthanide ions should be studied in the absence of substrate using 17 O NMR investigations to set a baseline for more complex systems. This suggestion is based on the observation of changes in $\rm{^{17}O}$ chemical shift of variety of molecules as a function of solvent composition.⁹⁵ Based on my observations with ethanol-containing systems, I think that measurements might be possible at lower temperatures with good hydrogen bonding solvents. I suggest that the information obtained from the following proposed investigations (Part A–F) would be helpful to determine important exchange rates of watertolerant Ln^{3+} -based catalysis:

Part A: Monitor the $17O$ chemical shift of $OH₂$ in commonly used aqueous binary systems, including water–THF, water–acetone, water–acetonitrile, water–DMSO, water–DMF in a range of water percentages $(0-100\%$ water v/v).

Part B: Investigate the effect of $Eu(OTf)$ ₃ on the ¹⁷O chemical shifts of the solutions mentioned in Part A.

Part C: Repeat Parts A and B using the ${}^{1}H$ and ${}^{13}C$ chemical shifts of solvents to obtain a thorough understanding of the solvent effect on chemical shift.

Part D: Introduce carbonyl-containing functional groups to the solutions of Parts B and C and repeat the same experiments to study the changes in linewidth as a function of temperature.

Part E: Determine the ^{17}O , ^{13}C , and ¹H chemical shifts with respect to temperature using VT experiments for binary solvent mixtures.

Part F: Determine the linewidth changes with respect to temperature for neat solvents and for binary solutions using ^{17}O , ^{13}C , and ^{1}H NMR spectroscopy for the samples from Parts A, B, and D.

6.4 Experimental Section

Materials. Commercial chemicals were of reagent-grade purity or better and were used without purification unless otherwise noted. Water was purified using a PURELAB Ultra Mk2 water purification system (ELGA). THF was purified using a solvent purification system (Vacuum Atmospheres Company). Ethanol was distilled from calcium hydride.⁷³

Characterization. ¹H NMR spectra were obtained using a Varian Mercury 400 (400 MHz) spectrometer, and ¹³C NMR spectra were obtained using a Varian Mercury 400 (101 MHz) or a Varian Mercury 500 (125 MHz) spectrometer. VT experiments were done using a Varian Mercury 500 (76.18 MHz) spectrometer. Chemical shifts are reported relative to residual solvent signals unless otherwise noted (CDCl₃: ¹H: δ 7.27, ¹³C: δ 77.23, ¹⁷O: δ of water was set to 0). ¹H NMR data are assumed to be first order with apparent singlets, doublets, and tiplets reported as "s", "d", and "t", respectively. Italicized elements are those that are responsible for the shifts. High-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectra (HRESIMS) were obtained on an electrospray time-of-flight high-resolution Waters Micromass LCT Premier XE mass spectrometer.

Synthesis of ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde (Scheme 6.4):

Scheme 6.4. Route used to synthesize ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde.

To a solution of benzylidineaniline **6.1** (181 mg, 1 mmol, 1 equiv) in anhydrous THF (3.5 mL) was added 20% enriched 17 OH₂ (22.5 µL, 1.25 mmol, 1.25 equiv). The resulting mixture was stirred at ambient temperature for 30 min and then saturated with anhydrous HCl at ambient temperature until the precipitation of benzylideneanilinium chloride was complete. The reaction mixture was further stirred for 15 min, and anilinium chloride was filtered off using a celite plug. The filterate was concentrated under a stream of N_2 . The residue was passed through a silica gel plug using THF as mobile phase and concentrated under a stream of N_2 to remove the solvent to yield 83 mg (77%) of O^{17} labeled benzaldehyde as a light yellow liquid. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl3, δ): 7.48–7.54 (t, C*H*, 3H), 7.58–7.64 (t, C*H*, H), 7.84–7.88(d, C*H*, 2H), 10.00(s, *H*C=O, 1H); ¹³C NMR (101 MHz, CDCl3, δ): 129.1 (*C*H), 129.9 (*C*H), 134.6 (*C*H), 136.6 (*C*H), 192.6 (*HC*=*O*); ¹⁷O NMR (76.18 MHz, CDCl₃, δ): 563 ppm; HRESIMS (*m/z*): [M + H]⁺ calcd for $C_7H_6^{17}O$, 108.0539; found, 108.0527.

Summary of Findings

I demonstrated the applicability of luminescence-decay measurements as a dynamic tool that is useful in mechanistic studies of water-tolerant lanthanide-based catalytic systems. Using this technique, I demonstrated that the inner-coordination sphere of solvated $Ln³⁺$ ions is dependent on the coordination properties (denticity of the ligand), leaving group ability of the counter anion, water-saturation level of the Ln^{3+} , composition of the surrounding medium, and the solubilizing properties of the surrounding medium.

With luminescence-decay measurements, I was able to determine equilibrium constants. Furthermore, I obtained structural information using these measurements that led to a hypothesis of a mechanism for potent chiral precatalysts for carbon-carbon bond-forming reactions in aqueous media.

My use of luminescence-decay measurements to probe the coordination environment of europium-based precatalysts in solution enabled the study of the influence of precatalyst coordination environment on reaction yield. I expect these results to be useful in the design of new precatalysts for aqueous, enantioselective, lanthanide-catalyzed bond-forming reactions.

To increase the impact of my findings, I investigated variations of inner- and outer-sphere dynamics with respect to commonly used organic solvents. I empirically derived equations that enable fast and accurate determination of the water-coordination number of lanthanides in synthetically useful binary solvent systems. This determination is important to understand the dynamics of the inner- and outer-sphere environments of $Ln³⁺$ -based precatalysts in aqueous solvent mixtures that can enable the easy acquisition of mechanistic and structural information regarding water-tolerant catalysts. This work opens a gateway for the study of any lanthanidecatalyzed reactions and is a powerful tool for catalyst design.

Finally, I attempted to adapt ¹⁷O NMR spectroscopy to determine exchange rates important to catalysis. However, due to the complexity of my samples, I could not determine the desired exchange rates. I propose that the solvent interactions with lanthanide ions should be studied in the absence of substrate using ¹⁷O NMR investigations to set a baseline for more complex systems.

Future Outlook

Water-tolerant lanthanide-based Lewis acid catalysts are of great interest in organic synthesis because they can catalyze a wide range of important carbon–carbon and carbon– heteroatom bond-forming reactions such as the aldol, nitro-aldol, Mannich, Diels–Alder, Michael, Mukaiyama aldol, and Friedal–Crafts reactions. The compatibility with water, ease of handling, reusability, and low cost of these catalysts have attracted tremendous interest despite the mechanism of the catalysis in aqueous systems being poorly understood. Specifically, identification of the active catalytic species and understanding its interactions with reactants and products are of paramount importance.

I adapted powerful analytical tools including luminescence-decay measurements and ^{17}O NMR spectroscopy to study of the dynamic behavior of the inner-sphere composition and reaction rates of lanthanide-based precatalysts. Through my studies, the scientific community is able to gain mechanistic insight with respect to the influence of counter ion coordination, the effect of solvent coordination, and the identification of intermediates in lanthanide-based catalytic cycles in aqueous media. This knowledge should aid in the design of more powerful catalysts with respect to enantioselectivity and substrate scope.

For the past four years, I have focused on the Mukaiyama aldol reaction as a starting point for the luminescence-decay studies of counter anion displacement, of the influence of binary solutions, and of the structure–activity relationships of chiral lanthanide complexes. However, other carbon–carbon bond-forming transformations including the aldol, nitro-aldol, Mannich, Michael, Diels–Alder, and Friedel–Crafts reactions, which are catalyzed by watertolerant lanthanide catalysts could be investigated using luminescence-decay studies with respect to inner-sphere composition, the identification of intermediates in lanthanide-based catalytic cycles. These studies would help to determine the differences in reaction mechanisms in the presence of water relative to under anhydrous conditions.

Moreover, because my studies used the phosphorescence-decay mode on our spectrofluorometer, my studies cannot be reproduced on every spectrofluorometer because this is not a standard method. However, it is known that the lifetime of 5D_0 excited state of Eu³⁺can be directly calculated using the information obtained from the emission spectra of lanthanides.⁹⁶ Knowing the fact that the excited-state lifetime of a lanthanide is inversely proportional to its decay rate (either in protic or deuterated media), the steady state fluorescence studies could be used to gain the similar information obtained using luminescence-decay measurements. Using steady state fluorescence studies, the contribution from each transition to the total emission which is influenced by the change of coordination environment (electric dipole transitions) of lanthanide ion, which is known as the branching ratio, can be calculated. The, area of the peak due to an individual transition is divided by the total area of the emission spectrum to calculate the branching ratio. Interestingly, because the quantum yield of $Eu³⁺$ emission is independent of the initially populated excited state, specific transitions (for example, ${}^{7}F_0 \rightarrow {}^{5}D_0$) are not necessary; hence, instead of a laser source, commonly used flash lamps (Xe lamps) can be used to determine the branching ratio.⁹⁶ With the use of the relative contribution from each transition to total emission, the lifetime of 5D_0 excited state of Eu³⁺ can be calculated using equations from Judd–Oflet theory.⁹⁶ Further, information regarding the excited-state lifetime of lanthanide ions other than Eu^{3+} can be obtained using the absorption spectra that relate to known luminescent transitions. The results obtained using steady state fluorescence studies would be an analytical

tool that can be more widely used for the study of the inner-sphere composition of lanthanidebased precatalysts.

In addition to luminescence-based studies, there is exciting areas of research that include 17 O NMR spectroscopy. In my adaptations of 17 O NMR spectroscopy with variable temperature studies, I was unable to determine ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde exchange rates because of the complexity of the H₂O–THF binary system that resulted in high fluctuations in the observed linewidths. However, for the $H_2O-C_2H_5OH$ system, linewidth fluctuations were small. Therefore, I hypothesize that the linewidth data with higher precision can be obtained in hydrogen-bonding solvents, like ethanol, compared to non-hydrogen-bonding solvents, like THF. Consequently, I expect that ¹⁷O linewidth studies in hydrogen-bonding binary solvents can be performed as a function of temperature to obtain the $\rm{^{17}O}$ -labeled benzaldehyde exchange rates that I was unable to obtain in THF. However due to the reaction between ^{17}O present in ^{17}O labeled benzaldehyde and water, the concentration of 17 O-labeled benzaldehyde may change with time. Based on my observations, I hypothesized that if ${}^{17}OH_2$ is pre-added to the solution there will be less opportunity to the loss of ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde. For my preliminary studies, I obtained ¹⁷O spectra for three samples with ¹⁷OH₂ (5, 15, and 30 μ L) added to ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde (90 mM) in 15% H_2O in THF (v/v) containing 10 mM Eu(OTf)₃. I measured the linewidth for the peak from 17 O-labeled benzaldehyde at 22 $^{\circ}$ C, 10 min and 24 h after the addition of 17 OH₂. I obtained constant linewidths for 17 O-labeled benzaldehyde peaks in all the samples, suggesting that the $17O$ -labeled benzaldehyde concentration did not change in the studied time period. Using these preliminary observations, I suggest that hydrogen-bonding binary solvents with optimized benzaldehyde concentration, where the ¹⁷O-labeled benzaldehyde concentration is not changing, can be used to obtain $\rm{^{17}O}$ -labeled substance exchange rates.

Apart from exchange studies, direct information on solute-solvent interactions can be obtained using ¹⁷O NMR studies.⁹⁵ Although this technique is not used widely relative to ¹³C NMR due to low natural abundance and relatively high cost of $\rm ^{17}O$ -labeled substances, $\rm ^{17}O$'s sensitivity is higher, and the synthesis of 17 O-enriched substances is generally trivial. Further, due to its quadrupole moment, ¹⁷O relaxes fast (ms), therefore, with a rapid pulse, thousands of scans can be collected using less time relative to acquiring 13 C spectrum. Investigations into changes in chemical shift of ¹⁷O-enriched substance, in commonly used binary solvent systems can be used to study effect of solvent, temperature, and solvent concentration $17O$ relaxation rate.⁹⁵

APPENDIX A

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Table A1. Number of H₂O molecules, *q*, coordinated to Eu³⁺ for the control complex, **4.3**.

% of solvent composed of H_2O	q (mean)	q (standard error)
$\mathbf{1}$	5.08	0.03
$\overline{2}$	5.45	0.03
3	7.29	0.04
$\overline{4}$	7.27	0.03
5	7.20	0.03
6	7.39	0.03
7	7.38	0.04
8	7.35	0.04
9	7.35	0.02
10	7.55	0.03
20	7.85	0.03
30	7.82	0.03
40	7.79	0.06
50	7.82	0.03
60	7.91	0.03
70	7.95	0.03
80	7.92	0.05
90	8.04	0.03
100	8.28	0.03

Table A2. Number of H₂O molecules, *q*, coordinated to Eu³⁺ in the first reaction coordinate of the catalytic cycle.

% of solvent	q	q
composed of H_2O	(mean)	(standard error)
$\mathbf{1}$	5.05	0.03
$\boldsymbol{2}$	5.33	0.02
$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	7.17	0.02
$\overline{\mathcal{L}}$	7.17	0.03
5	7.02	0.03
6	7.27	0.03
$\boldsymbol{7}$	7.26	0.02
8	7.21	0.03
9	7.21	0.05
10	7.39	0.03
20	7.51	0.03
30	7.64	0.03
40	7.61	0.04
50	7.61	0.06
60	7.70	0.05
70	7.76	0.03
80	7.73	0.03
90	7.91	0.03
100	$8.20*$	0.03

Table A3. Number of H₂O molecules, q , coordinated to Eu³⁺ in the second reaction coordinate of the catalytic cycle.

* benzaldehyde was not completely dissolved.

Table A4. Number of H₂O molecules, *q*, coordinated to Eu³⁺ in the third reaction coordinate of the catalytic cycle.

* Eu3+:2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone ratio was 1:1.

** Eu³⁺:2-(hydroxyphenylmethyl)cyclohexanone ratio was 1:1, and the solution was sonicated.

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Varian 500 MBs spectrometer

APPENDIX B

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in MeOH	$\left \tau_{_H}^{-1}-\tau_{_D}^{-1}\right _{^{_{\mathit{IS}}}}(\rm{ms}^{-1})$					
or D_2O in	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$		
methanol- d_4	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$		
100	0.76	1.54	2.44	7.49		
90	0.76	1.53	1.91	7.21		
80	0.74	1.45	1.80	7.08		
70	0.74	1.31	1.80	6.88		
60	0.76	1.22	1.80	6.62		
50	0.68	1.15	1.79	6.41		
40	0.67	1.06	1.78	6.19		
30	0.67	1.01	1.78	6.07		
20	0.72	1.07	1.79	6.06		
10	0.71	1.11	1.79	5.96		
9	0.72	1.08	1.79	5.86		
$\,$ $\,$	0.77	1.12	1.80	5.76		
$\overline{7}$	0.83	1.15	1.78	5.70		
6	0.81	1.13	1.72	5.68		
5	0.72	1.08	1.72	5.30		
$\overline{\mathcal{A}}$	0.72	1.09	1.71	5.33		
$\overline{3}$	0.72	1.11	1.72	5.25		
$\overline{2}$	0.71	1.08	1.70	4.90		
$\,1$	0.70	1.07	1.71	4.67		

Table B1. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\infty}$ values for MeOH and methanol- d_4 .

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in EtOH		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}$ $\rm (ms^{-1})$		
or D_2O in	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
ethanol- d	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.80	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	0.73	1.48	2.36	7.22
80	0.73	1.36	2.34	7.14
70	0.68	1.31	2.29	7.00
60	0.70	1.30	2.29	6.98
50	0.66	1.27	2.28	6.94
40	0.68	1.25	2.27	6.81
30	0.69	1.27	2.22	6.76
20	0.66	1.23	2.16	6.52
10	0.62	1.20	2.21	6.31
9	0.63	1.11	2.22	6.17
8	0.74	1.20	2.37	6.27
$\overline{7}$	0.71	1.22	2.36	6.27
6	0.75	1.21	2.34	6.29
5	0.65	1.21	2.24	5.98
$\overline{4}$	0.65	1.05	2.12	5.46
\mathfrak{Z}	0.67	1.08	1.80	5.13
$\overline{2}$	0.66	1.06	1.78	5.05
$\mathbf{1}$	0.65	1.05	1.77	5.05

Table B2. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for EtOH and ethanol-*d*.

$\%$ (v/v of H ₂ O or D_2O in acetone)		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}}(\mathrm{ms}^{-1})$		
	5.3 or 5.4	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	$0.80^{\frac{a}{a}}$	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	0.75^a	1.54	2.47	7.30
80	0.75^a	1.51	2.41	7.24
70	0.74^a	1.47	2.36	7.21
60	0.75^a	1.46	2.32	7.07
50	0.74^a	1.44	2.32	6.89
40	0.76^a	1.44	2.28	6.68
30	0.73°	1.44	2.24	6.52
20	0.75^a	1.43	2.26	6.58
10	0.76^a	1.39	2.24	6.59
9	0.76^a	1.27	2.20	6.61
8	0.76^a	1.19	2.16	6.62
$\overline{7}$	0.69^a	1.12	2.07	6.51
6	0.68^a	1.13	2.06	6.46
5	0.70^a	1.10	2.04	6.47
$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	nd^{b}	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$
$\overline{3}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}
$\overline{2}$	nd^{b}	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}
1	nd^{b}	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$

Table B3. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for acetone.

a complex **3**; *b* not determined because of solubility of complexes **1** and **2**.

$\%$ (v/v) of H_2O or D_2O in THF		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}(ms^{-1})$		
	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.80^a	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	$0.80^{\,a}$	1.58	2.36	7.25
80	0.78 ^a	1.58	2.33	7.15
70	0.78 ^a	1.46	2.36	7.18
60	0.79 ^a	1.49	2.34	7.15
50	0.74 ^a	1.35	2.34	7.08
40	0.75 ^a	1.36	2.40	7.06
30	0.74 ^a	1.36	2.43	7.11
20	0.77 ^a	1.38	2.42	7.15
10	0.79 ^a	1.32	2.42	6.92
9	0.75 ^a	1.27	2.35	6.74
$\frac{8}{7}$	0.76 ^a	1.33	2.42	6.77
	0.76 ^a	1.28	2.41	6.80
$\frac{6}{5}$	0.78 ^a	1.35	2.47	6.83
	$0.79^{\,a}$	1.32	2.45	6.67
	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$
$\begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{array}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$
	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$	nd^{b}	nd^{b}
$\mathbf{1}$	\mathbf{n} d b	\mathbf{n} d b	nd^{b}	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,b}$

Table B4. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\infty}$ values for THF.

^{*a*} complex **5.3**; ^{*b*} not determined because of solubility of complexes **5.1** and **5.2**.

$\%$, (v/v) of H ₂ O or D_2O in		$\left \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right _{I\!S} (\text{ms}^{-1})$		
acetonitrile	5.3 or 5.4	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	$0.80^{\overline{a}}$	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	0.75 ^a	1.49	2.45	7.28
80	0.77 ^a	1.24	2.46	7.21
70	0.76 ^a	1.28	2.44	7.21
60	0.72 ^a	1.20	2.44	7.18
50	0.76 ^a	1.14	2.46	7.18
40	0.75 ^a	1.08	2.43	7.15
30	0.76 ^a	1.09	2.41	7.15
20	0.76 ^a	1.06	2.40	7.13
10	0.81 ^a	0.86	2.40	6.95
9	0.79^a	0.87	2.28	6.82
$\,$ $\,$	0.79 ^a	0.86	2.15	6.67
$\overline{7}$	0.76 ^a	0.85	2.12	6.55
6	0.77 ^a	0.87	2.08	6.35
5	0.72 ^a	nd^c	1.86	6.40
$\overline{4}$	0.73^{b}	nd^c	1.88	6.39
$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	nd^c	nd^c	nd ^c	nd ^c
$\overline{2}$	nd^c	nd^c	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,c}$	\mathbf{nd}^c
$\mathbf{1}$	nd ^c	\mathbf{nd}^c	nd^c	$\mathrm{nd}^{\,c}$

Table B5. Mean $\left| \tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1} \right|_{\mathcal{B}}$ $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|$ values for acetonitrile.

^{*a*} complex **3**; ^{*b*} complex **4**; ^{*c*} not determined because of solubility of complexes **1** and **2**.

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in DMF or $D2O$ in DMF-		$\left \tau_{H}^{-1}-\tau_{D}^{-1}\right _{lS}\left(\text{ms}^{-1}\right)$		
d_7	5.3	5.5	5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$
	$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$	$(w = 3)$	$(w = 9)$
100	0.80	1.64	2.44	7.49
90	0.72	1.32	1.78	6.23
60	0.62	0.98	1.32	4.85
20	0.32	0.59	0.96	3.89
9	0.25	0.49	0.85	3.78
	0.20	0.45	0.86	3.65
3	0.09	0.38	0.53	2.29
	0.11	0.37	0.54	2.07

Table B6. Mean $\left|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right|_{K}$ $\left[\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}\right]_{\infty}$ values for DMF and DMF- d_7 .

$\%$ (v/v) of	5.3			5.5		5.6	$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
H_2O or D_2O	$(w = 1)$		$(w = 2)$		$(w = 3)$		$(w = 9)$	
in THF	q'	n	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}
100	0.96	0.00	1.97	0.00	2.95	0.00	9.00	0.00
90	0.96	0.00	1.90	0.07	2.83	0.12	8.71	0.29
80	0.94	0.02	1.89	0.08	2.79	0.16	8.58	0.42
70	0.94	0.02	1.74	0.23	2.83	0.12	8.63	0.37
60	0.95	0.01	1.78	0.19	2.81	0.14	8.59	0.41
50	0.90	0.00	1.63	0.34	2.82	0.13	8.51	0.49
40	0.91	0.00	1.64	0.33	2.89	0.06	8.49	0.51
30	0.89	0.00	1.63	0.34	2.91	0.04	8.53	0.47
20	0.93	0.00	1.67	0.30	2.91	0.04	8.60	0.40
10	0.95	0.01	1.58	0.39	2.90	0.05	8.32	0.68
9	0.90	0.06	1.52	0.45	2.83	0.12	8.10	0.90
8	0.92	0.04	1.59	0.38	2.90	0.05	8.13	0.87
7	0.92	0.04	1.54	0.43	2.91	0.04	8.17	0.83
6	0.94	0.02	1.62	0.35	2.95	0.00	8.21	0.79
5	0.95	0.01	1.59	0.38	2.95	0.00	8.02	0.98
$\overline{\mathcal{A}}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
$\overline{3}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
$\overline{2}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
$\mathbf{1}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd

Table B7. Calculated *q*' and *n* values for THF binary systems.

nd = not determined

Table B8. Calculated *q*' and *n* values for DMF binary systems.

$\%$ (v/v) of		5.3		5.5		5.6		$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
$H2O$ in DMF		$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$		$(w = 3)$		$(w = 9)$		
or D_2O in		n	q	n	q	n	q	n	
$DMF-d_7$									
100	0.96	0.00	1.97	0.00	2.95	0.00	9.00	0.00	
90	0.87	0.10	1.59	0.38	2.14	0.81	7.50	1.50	
60	0.75	0.22	1.18	0.79	1.60	1.35	5.83	3.17	
20	0.39	0.58	0.71	1.26	1.16	1.79	4.68	4.32	
9	0.31	0.66	0.59	1.38	1.03	1.92	4.55	4.45	
5	0.25	0.72	0.55	1.42	1.03	1.92	4.39	4.61	
3	0.11	0.86	0.46	1.51	0.64	2.31	2.75	6.25	
	0.13	0.84	0.44	1.53	0.64	2.31	2.48	6.52	

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O or		5.3	5.5		5.6		$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
D_2O in acetonitrile		$(w = 1)$	$(w = 2)$		$(w = 3)$		$(w = 9)$	
	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}
100	0.96	0.00	1.80	0.17	2.95	0.00	9.00	0.00
90	0.05	0.05	1.80	0.17	2.94	0.01	8.75	0.25
80	0.03	0.03	1.49	0.48	2.94	0.01	8.66	0.34
70	0.05	0.05	1.54	0.43	2.93	0.02	8.66	0.34
60	0.09	0.09	1.44	0.53	2.94	0.01	8.63	0.37
50	0.05	0.05	1.37	0.60	2.92	0.03	8.63	0.37
40	0.06	0.06	1.30	0.67	2.91	0.04	8.59	0.41
30	0.04	0.04	1.30	0.67	2.89	0.06	8.59	0.41
20	0.04	0.04	1.28	0.69	2.88	0.07	8.56	0.44
10	0.01	0.01	1.03	0.94	2.91	0.04	8.35	0.65
9	0.01	0.01	1.04	0.93	2.74	0.21	8.20	0.80
8	0.00	0.00	1.04	0.93	2.58	0.37	8.01	0.99
τ	0.04	0.04	1.02	0.95	2.55	0.40	7.87	1.13
6	0.03	0.03	1.05	0.92	2.50	0.45	7.63	1.37
5	0.09	0.09	nd	nd	2.24	0.71	7.69	1.31
$\overline{\mathcal{A}}$	0.08	0.08	nd	nd	2.26	0.69	7.68	1.32
$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
$\overline{2}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd
$\mathbf{1}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd

Table B9. Calculated *q*' and *n* values for acetonitrile binary systems.

 $nd = not determined$

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O	5.3			5.5		5.6		$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
or D_2O in	$(w = 1)$		$(w = 2)$		$(w = 3)$		$(w = 9)$		
acetone	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	
100	0.96	0.00	1.97	0.00	2.95	0.00	9.00	0.00	
90	0.89	0.07	1.85	0.12	2.94	0.01	8.77	0.23	
80	0.91	0.05	1.82	0.15	2.90	0.05	8.71	0.29	
70	0.89	0.07	1.77	0.20	2.83	0.12	8.66	0.34	
60	0.90	0.06	1.76	0.21	2.79	0.16	8.50	0.50	
50	0.90	0.06	1.74	0.23	2.79	0.16	8.28	0.72	
40	0.92	0.04	1.73	0.24	2.74	0.21	8.03	0.97	
30	0.88	0.08	1.73	0.24	2.69	0.26	7.84	1.16	
20	0.90	0.06	1.72	0.25	2.71	0.24	7.91	1.09	
10	0.92	0.04	1.67	0.30	2.69	0.26	7.92	1.08	
9	0.92	0.04	1.53	0.44	2.64	0.31	7.95	1.05	
8	0.92	0.04	1.43	0.54	2.60	0.35	7.95	1.05	
$\overline{7}$	0.83	0.13	1.35	0.62	2.49	0.46	7.82	1.18	
6	0.82	0.14	1.36	0.61	2.47	0.48	7.77	1.23	
5	0.84	0.12	1.32	0.65	2.45	0.50	7.77	1.23	
4	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
3	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
$\overline{2}$	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	
	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	

Table B10. Calculated *q*' and *n* values for acetone binary systems.

nd = not determined

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in	5.3		5.5		5.6		$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
ethanol or D_2O in	$(w = 1)$		$(w = 2)$		$(w = 3)$		$(w = 9)$	
ethanol- d)	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q^{\prime}	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}
100	0.96	0.00	1.97	0.00	2.95	0.00	9.00	0.00
90	0.78	0.18	1.57	0.40	2.69	0.26	8.42	0.58
80	0.75	0.21	1.28	0.69	2.63	0.32	8.20	0.80
70	0.63	0.33	1.18	0.80	2.51	0.44	7.87	1.13
60	0.69	0.27	1.13	0.84	2.52	0.43	7.82	1.18
50	0.61	0.35	1.08	0.89	2.51	0.44	7.74	1.26
40	0.65	0.31	1.01	0.96	2.48	0.47	7.43	1.57
30	0.67	0.29	1.08	0.89	2.36	0.59	7.31	1.69
20	0.58	0.38	0.97	1.00	2.21	0.74	6.73	2.27
10	0.50	0.46	0.90	1.07	2.22	0.73	6.23	2.77
9	0.52	0.44	0.70	1.27	2.36	0.59	5.90	3.10
8	0.78	0.18	0.92	1.05	2.72	0.23	6.16	2.84
$\overline{7}$	0.72	0.24	0.96	1.01	2.69	0.26	6.16	2.84
6	0.80	0.16	0.92	1.05	2.63	0.32	6.18	2.82
5	0.57	0.39	0.93	1.04	2.41	0.54	5.46	3.54
$\overline{4}$	0.58	0.38	0.56	1.41	2.12	0.83	4.21	4.79
3	0.74	0.22	0.69	1.28	1.36	0.59	3.45	8.76
$\overline{2}$	0.72	0.24	0.63	1.34	1.31	0.64	3.24	8.82
1	0.69	0.27	0.60	1.37	1.28	0.67	3.24	8.85

Table B11. Calculated *q*' and *n* values for ethanol binary systems.

$\%$ (v/v) of H ₂ O in	5.3		5.5		5.6		$Eu(OTf)_{3}$	
methanol or D_2O	$(w = 1)$		$(w = 2)$		$(w = 3)$		$(w = 9)$	
in methanol- d_4)	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}	q'	\boldsymbol{n}
100	0.96	0.00	1.97	0.00	2.95	0.00	9.00	0.00
90	0.90	0.06	1.83	0.14	2.75	0.20	8.69	0.31
80	0.87	0.09	1.73	0.24	2.74	0.21	8.53	0.47
70	0.87	0.09	1.57	0.40	2.75	0.20	8.29	0.71
60	0.90	0.06	1.46	0.51	2.62	0.33	8.23	0.77
50	0.80	0.16	1.38	0.59	2.61	0.34	8.22	0.78
40	0.79	0.17	1.27	0.70	2.48	0.47	8.19	0.81
30	0.79	0.17	1.21	0.76	2.48	0.47	8.05	0.95
20	0.84	0.12	1.28	0.69	2.49	0.46	7.92	1.08
10	0.83	0.13	1.32	0.65	2.49	0.46	7.56	1.44
9	0.84	0.12	1.29	0.68	2.51	0.44	7.44	1.56
8	0.85	0.11	1.34	0.63	2.50	0.45	7.44	1.56
$\overline{7}$	0.87	0.09	1.38	0.59	2.60	0.35	7.37	1.63
6	0.85	0.11	1.36	0.61	2.52	0.43	7.35	1.65
5	0.85	0.11	1.30	0.67	2.53	0.42	7.02	1.98
$\overline{4}$	0.85	0.11	1.31	0.66	2.40	0.55	6.45	2.55
3	0.85	0.11	1.33	0.64	2.17	0.78	6.36	2.64
$\overline{2}$	0.84	0.12	1.30	0.67	2.11	0.84	5.94	3.06
$\mathbf{1}$	0.83	0.13	1.28	0.69	2.08	0.87	5.79	3.21

Table B12. Calculated *q*' and *n* values for methanol binary systems.

0

0

|*τ^H* –¹– *^τ^D* ___
ក 2

2

|*τ^H* $\frac{1}{\Gamma}$ *^τ^D*

(f)

Figure B2. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

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(j)

(n)

Figure B2. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

(i)

Figure B2. Continued from previous page. $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ versus *q*' for (a) 90%; (b) 80%; (c) 70%; (d) 60%; (e) 50%; (f) 40%; (g) 20%; (i) 10%; (j) 9%; (k) 8%; (l) 7%; (m) 6%; (n) 5%; (o) 4%; (p)3%; (q) 2%; and (r) 1% H_2O (v/v) in DMSO.

0 2 4 6 8

0

(e)

|*τ^H* <u>님</u>
님 *^τ^D* –1|*m*

4

8

(c)

(f)

0

4

8

y = 0.8327x + 0.2521 $R^2 = 1$

> y = 0.8317x + 0.1928 $R^2 = 1$

*q***'**

0 2 4 6 8

*q***'**

y = 0.8317x + 0.2931 $R^2 = 1$

Figure B3. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

159

(b)

Figure B3. Continued from previous page. $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ versus *q*' for (a) 90%; (b) 80%; (c) 70%; (d) 60%; (e) 50%; (f) 40%; (g) 20%; (i) 10%; (j) 9%; (k) 8%; (l) 7%; (m) 6%; and (n) 5% H_2O (v/v) in THF.

Figure B4. $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ versus *q*' for (a) 90% H₂O; (b) 60% H₂O; (c) 20% H₂O; (d) 9% H₂O; (e) 5% H₂O; (f) 3% H₂O; (g) 1% H₂O; (v/v) in DMF. *q***'**

*q***'**

Figure B5. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

0 2 4 6 8

Figure B5 Continued from previous page. $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ versus *q*' for (a) 90%; (b) 80%; (c) 70%; (d) 60%; (e) 50%; (f) 40%; (g) 20%; (i) 10%; (j) 9%; (k) 8%; (l) 7%; (m) 6%; and (n) 5% H_2O (v/v) in acetonitrile.

Figure B6. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

Figure B6. Continued from previous page. $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ versus *q*' for (a) 90%; (b) 80%; (c) 70%; (d) 60%; (e) 50%; (f) 40%; (g) 20%; (i) 10%; (j) 9%; (k) 8%; (l) 7%; (m) 6%; and (n) 5% H_2O (v/v) in acetone.

Figure B7. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

 $\overline{\mathbf{c}}$

Figure B7. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

Figure B7. Continued from previous page. $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ versus *q*' for (a) 90%; (b) 80%; (c) 70%; (d) 60%; (e) 50%; (f) 40%; (g) 20%; (i) 10%; (j) 9%; (k) 8%; (l) 7%; (m) 6%; (n) 5% H₂O (o) 4% H2O; (p)3% H2O; (q) 2% H2O; and (r) 1% H2O (v/v) in ethanol.

0 2 4 6 8

 $q' + \frac{n}{q}$ 2

0

|*τ^H* –¹– *^τ^D* –1|*m*

4

8

2

Figure B8. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

y = 0.8275x + 0.3012 $R^2 = 1$

169

Figure B8. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

Figure B8. Continued from previous page. $|\tau_H^{-1} - \tau_D^{-1}|_m$ versus *q*' for (a) 90%; (b) 80%; (c) 70%; (d) 60%; (e) 50%; (f) 40%; (g) 20%; (i) 10%; (j) 9%; (k) 8%; (l) 7%; (m) 6%; (n) 5% H2O (o) 4% H2O; (p)3% H₂O; (q) 2% H₂O; and (r) 1% H₂O (v/v) in methanol.

Figure B9. Continued on next page. See next page for caption.

Figure B9. Continued from previous page. Intercept versus solvent ($\%$ H₂O v/v) for (a) DMF; (b) acetone; (c) THF; (d) acetonitrile; (e) ethanol%; (f) methanol; (g) DMSO $(10-100 \degree$ (%H₂O v/v); (h) DMSO (1–9 (%H₂O v/v).

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ABSTRACT

NEW ADAPTATIONS OF ANALYTICAL TOOLS FOR THE STUDY OF DYNAMIC INTERACTIONS OF LANTHANIDE-BASED CATALYSIS IN AQUEOUS MEDIA

by

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Major: Chemistry

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Lewis acid catalyzed carbon–carbon bond-forming reactions are of great interest in organic synthesis. However, many conventional Lewis acids, and almost all enantioselective Lewis acid catalysts, must be used under strictly anhydrous conditions to avoid hydrolysis and the difficulties associated with recovery and reuse of the catalysts. Due to these drawbacks of conventional Lewis acids, there is a growing desire to perform many organic transformations using more environmentally friendly aqueous-stable catalysts. The advantages of using aqueous-stable catalysts include the ability to use unprotected functional groups, ease of product separation and catalyst recovery, and avoidance of costly solvent drying procedures. Lanthanide trifluoronmethanesulfonates (triflates), $Ln(OTT)_{3}$, address this goal because they are water-tolerant Lewis acid precatalysts that can catalyze a wide range of important carbon–carbon and carbon– heteroatom bond-forming reactions such as the aldol, nitro-aldol, Mannich, Diels–Alder, Michael, Mukaiyama aldol, and Friedal–Crafts reactions due to their hard, electrophilic, and hydrolysis-stable character.

Despite their favorable properties, the use of lanthanide triflates in asymmetric carbon–carbon bond formation under aqueous conditions has been limited due to lack of mechanistic understanding of these precatalysts in aqueous solution: the influence of counter ion coordination, the effect of solvent coordination, and the identification of intermediates in the catalytic cycle. Further, identification of the rate-determining step and product-dissociation rate of aqueous lanthanide triflate-based catalysis is of fundamental importance for developing more efficient catalysts.

I adapted luminescence-decay measurements to enable the study of the mechanism of lanthanide-based precatalysts in aqueous systems. Because the number of water molecules coordinated to the lanthanide ion is critical to more thoroughly understanding the nature and the reactivity of lanthanide-based precatalysts, I used luminescence-decay studies to measure the dynamics of water molecules coordinated to lanthanide-ions throughout the catalytic cycle of a selected Mukaiyama aldol reaction. Using these luminescence-decay measurements, I determined equilibrium constants as well as structural and mechanistic information regarding lanthanide-based chiral catalytic systems in aqueous medium. Furthermore, I used this analytical tool to study the influence of the coordination environment of europium-based precatalysts including europium nitrates, chlorides, and acetates on reaction rate and yield. I also empirically derived equations that enable fast and accurate determination of the water-coordination number of lanthanides in binary solvent systems. In summary, I adapted luminescence-decay measurements to probe the coordination environment of europium-based precatalysts in aqueous media and the details of my efforts are described in this thesis.

The other analytical tool described in this thesis involves the use of $17O$ NMR spectroscopy with variable temperature for the determination of important exchange rates in lanthanide-catalyzed reactions. The results described in this thesis demonstrate the utility of these two powerful analytical tools to study aqueous, lanthanide-catalyzed bondforming reactions.

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- Professor .C. L. De Silva memorial price in Chemistry awarded by the senate of the University of Colombo, Sri Lanka: 2003
- Graduate Student Professional Travel Award, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, 2009
- Best talk award presented at the12th Annual Chemistry Graduate Research Symposium, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, October $9th$, 2010
- Heller Fellowship, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, 2010–2011
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