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Nucleophilic displacement versus electron transfer in the reactions of alkyl chlorosilanes with electrogenerated aromatic anion radicals

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Abstract

Anion radicals of a series of aromatic compounds (C₆H₅CN, C₆H₅COOEt, anthracene, 9,10-dimethyl-, 9,10-diphenyl- and 9-phenylanthracene, pyrene and naphthalene) react with trialkyl chlorosilanes R¹R²R³SiCl (R¹³ = Me, Et; R¹,2 = Me, R³ = t-Bu) in multiple ways, following classical bimolecular schemes. The ratio of one-electron transfer (ET) to a two-electron process (SN₂-like nucleophilic attack of the reduced form of mediator on the chlorosilane, with k₂ ≈ 10²-10⁸ M⁻¹ s⁻¹) is inversely related to the steric availability of Si for nucleophilic displacement reactions. The nucleophilic substitution pathway mainly results in mono- and disilylated aromatic products. Paralleling the electrochemical data with DFT calculations, the role of silicophilic solvent (DMF) in SN process was shown to be quite complex because of its involvement into coordination extension at silicon, dynamically modifying energetics of the process along the reaction coordinate. Although 2,2'-bipyridine also forms delocalized persistent anion radicals, they do not induce neither ET nor SN reactions in the same manner as aromatic mediators. Silicophilicity of 2,2'-bipyridine being superior to that of DMF, a R₃SiCl·bipy

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complex of hypercoordinated silicon with electroactive ligand was formed instead, whose reduction requires about 1 V less negative potentials than bipyridine itself.

**Keywords:** Chlorosilanes, aromatic anion radicals, silicophiles, electrochemical reduction, redox catalysis

1. **Introduction**

Silyl protection-deprotection methodology as well as many synthetic procedures of organosilicon compounds are based on nucleophilic reactions exploiting large versatility of electrophilic properties and steric bulk of R₃SiY (Y = Hal, AlkO, MeCOO, R₂N, CN etc) precursors [1,2]. With all importance of the chemistry of introduction and removal of silyl groups, it is surprising that relatively few quantitative studies on the fundamentals of reactivity of chlorosilanes are available [2]. Corriu evoked the possibility of both single electron transfer (ET) and a pure nucleophilic pathway in nucleophilic reactions of chlorosilanes [3]. The first one involves one-electron transfer from an electron-rich nucleophile to an electrophilic chlorosilane, supposedly with the intermediacy of an anion radical of the chlorosilane [4]. Since the reduction of chlorosilanes requires very negative potentials [5] and –at least of those with aliphatic substituents– occurs via dissociative ET mechanism [6,7], the ET pathway seems less probable, though in the case of aryl chlorosilanes this possibility cannot be ruled out [7,8]. On the other hand, it is well documented that heterogeneous ET to alkyl chlorosilanes induces cleavage of the Si-Cl bonds leading to the reduction products with Si-Si or Si-H bonds [9].

Direct cathodic reduction of chlorosilanes, pioneered by Bobersky [10], Hengge [11] and Corriu [5, 12], includes two-electron cleavage of the Si-Cl bond resulting in silyl anions. The nucleophilic attack of these latter on the starting molecule or on other chlorosilane, added to the solution [13-15], leads to stable final products via the formation of a Si-Si bond (eq. 1). The intermediacy of silyl radicals and radical pathway of formation of disilanes were ruled out already in earlier works: the addition of PhOH during the electroreduction of Ph₃SiCl lead to the
quantitative protonation of triorganosilyl anion and no disilane products were formed under these conditions [5], eq. (2).

\[
\text{eq. (2)}
\]

The reduction of chlorosilanes looks therefore quite similar to that of haloalkanes [16]. Dissociative electron transfer triggering the reduction of alkyl chlorosilanes requires about 1.5 V more negative potentials than the reduction of silyl radicals to the corresponding silyl anions, which totally bans the occurrence of any radical reactions in this process. Indeed, the reduction of the majority of chlorosilanes is usually observed at -3.2…-2.4 V vs. SCE [9], whereas the \( E_{1/2} \) of the couple \( \text{Ph}_3\text{Si}^\bullet/\text{Ph}_3\text{Si}^- \), estimated by photomodulated voltammetry, is -1.39 V vs SCE [17]; this latter also agrees with the generation of silyl radicals from the oxidation of silyl anions at close potentials, as shown by real-time EPR-spectroelectrochemistry [18]. Thus this fundamental limitation precludes not only the intermediacy of silyl radicals and radical-based reactions in the direct cathodic reduction of \( \text{R}_3\text{SiCl} \) compounds but also the use of many electrophilic reagents susceptible to react with \( \text{R}_3\text{Si}^- \) anions because these electrophiles undergo own reduction at less negative potentials. A possible solution for debugging this situation could be the use of redox mediators, e.g. aromatic anion radicals, which would convey homogeneous character to the process and expectedly reduce the applied potentials by up to 0.6 V. Since first reports in mid-seventies on the reduction of aliphatic halides by anion radicals of aromatic hydrocarbons –homogeneous redox catalysis [19-21],– a great progress was accomplished in this field as summarized in the comprehensive review [22]. An analytical approach for such reactions has been developed by Savéant \textit{et al} using direct consideration of homogeneous redox catalysis [23-
26] and by Lund and Daasbjerg using competition method between ET and coupling of alkyl radicals with the mediator [27-30].

Meanwhile, σ-carbanions of different nature (benzyl [31], aryl, allyl, vinyl [32] and alkyl [33]), electrogenerated via the reductive cleavage of C-X (X = Cl, Br, I) bonds at less negative potentials than those of the reduction of chlorosilanes, act as efficient C-nucleophiles towards the chlorosilanes themselves. These reactions were reported to result in silylated products with Si-C_{sp^3} bond. Therefore in order to minimize such S_N2-like nucleophilic interactions, similar to those between aromatic anion radicals and alkyl halides [34], and to act as outer-sphere mediators, the anion radicals must be rather of π-type, quite delocalized and weakly nucleophilic. So far, only few accounts were available on homogeneous reduction of germanium [35] and silicon chlorides [36,37] using such π-anion radicals.

On the other hand, in spite of some similarities outlined above, the patterns of bimolecular substitution mechanisms at C and Si are quite different: while S_N2 in carbon chemistry is a classical example of this type of processes, nucleophilic displacement at Si involves, by virtue of coordination extension ability of Si, the formation of penta- or hexacoordinate intermediates. Depending on whether Berry pseudorotation occurs or not in such transients, it results in the products with retention or inversion of configuration [1]. Moreover, nucleophilic reactions at silicon are often promoted by silaphilic co-reagents such as N,N-dimethylaminopyridine, HMPA or DMF [1,38] that induce pentacoordination at Si prior its interaction with the proper nucleophile (eq. 3). Silaphilic additives such as DMPU (tetrahydro-1,3-dimethyl-2(1H)-pyrimidinone), HMPA or DMF were commonly used in organosilicon electrosynthesis and voltammetry [32,33,36,39-42] though their effect on the process studied is quite difficult to quantify.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cl} & \quad \text{Si} \quad \text{R} \quad \text{Nu} \\
\text{R} & \quad \text{Si} \quad \text{R}^1 \quad \text{Nu} \\
\text{R} & \quad \text{Si} \quad \text{R}^1 \quad \text{Nu} \\
\text{R} & \quad \text{Si} \quad \text{R}^1 \quad \text{Nu}
\end{align*}
\]
Given the wide use of chlorosilanes as protecting groups in organic and organosilicon chemistry, examination of the reactions of electrogenerated anion radicals with alkyl chlorosilanes might provide an important insight into the ratio between electron transfer and nucleophilic substitution (SN) pathways in their reactivity. In the present paper, we checked the feasibility and efficiency of redox mediated reduction of model alkyl chlorosilanes versus silylation of aromatic mediators in view of assessing the synthetic potential of these processes for preparing the corresponding organosilicon products.

2. Experimental

A PAR-2273 and an EG&G 362 potentiostats were used for voltammetry and large-scale electrolyses, respectively. For cyclic voltammetry, a 2 mm in diameter glassy carbon (GC) and a 1 mm Pt disk working electrodes were used. A 2.5×50 mm GC rod, separated from the analyte by a sintered glass diaphragm, was used as counter electrode. Peak potentials $E_p$ were measured relative to Pt wire electrode electrochemically covered with polypyrrole and corrected using ferrocenium/ferrocene reversible system ($E_{0\text{Fc+/Fc(DMSO)}} = 0.31$ V vs. SCE [43]). The working electrode was carefully polished with Struers FEPA P 4000 paper and rinsed consecutively with acetonitrile, ethanol and diethyl ether before each run. Large-scale electrolyses were carried out in a 40 mL two-compartment cell fitted with a 30×20×0.5 mm Pt plate cathode and a 2.5×75 mm GC rod anode.

Chromatographic control of the electrolyses and GC-MS analyses, providing the distribution of products before any separation or a macro work-up, were performed using an HP-5973 MSD (EI mode, 70 kV) apparatus (Agilent Technologies) with a 0.25 mm × 30 m capillary column (OPTIMA-240 from Mackerel-Nägel).

DMF was used as a solvent (kinetic measurements) or was added to THF (approx. 1/10 v/v) for large-scale electrolyses. Analytical grade DMF (Aldrich) was passed through a column with vacuum-activated (at 150 °C) neutral Al₂O₃. CH₃CN and THF were distilled before using from CaH₂ and from sodium benzophenone ketyl, respectively. Et₃SiCl and M₃SiCl were kept...
over Mg turnings and distilled prior to the electrolyses. The supporting electrolytes, Bu₄NPF₆ or
Bu₄NBF₄ (Aldrich), activated in vacuum at 80°C for 10 hours and kept in a vacuum desiccator
over P₂O₅, were used as 0.1 M solutions. The mediators used, all from ACROS, were used as
received. 2,2'-Bipyridine (Aldrich) was additionally sublimed before using. All experiments were
carried out under an inert Ar atmosphere.

Typically, preceding the main process, a pre-electrolysis was carried out for in situ
drying the solution, as was suggested by Biran [44]. For this, the solution of 1 mmol of Me₃SiCl in 20
mL THF/0.1 M Bu₄NBF₄, containing the mediator and 1-2 mL of DMF, was electrolyzed at −1.0
V for 1.5 h to reduce the protons arising from the hydrolyses of the chlorosilane by residual
water. After the pre-electrolysis was over, the target chlorosilane (10 mmol) was added through
the syringe and the potential of the working electrode was switched to the E_p of the mediator
used. At the end of the electrolysis, the catholyte was quenched with saturated aqueous solution
of NaCl in order to transform unreacted chlorosilane into the corresponding R₃SiOSiR₃. The
mixture was extracted by cyclohexane, the organic phase was then dried over Na₂SO₄,
concentrated and filtered through a 3 cm SiO₂ cartridge. The products were analyzed by GC-MS
by comparing with the authentic samples.

ZPE-corrected energies, NBO charges and profiles of potential energy have been
calculated using Gaussian 03 suite [45] on DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ non-zero frequency optimized
structures.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 General considerations

Several organic mediators (P) that form, upon one-electron uptake, relatively stable
delocalized anion radicals (Q) and ranked according the reducing power that they provide to
homogeneous electron transfer to chlorosilanes were considered (Table 1). 9,10-Dimethyl
anthracene and benzonitrile were previously used for proving dissociative character of the
cleavage of Si-Cl bond in Me₃SiCl via its indirect electroreduction. The synthetic outcome of
this process was not studied then [36]. Three monochlorosilanes \( R^1 R^2 R^3 \text{SiCl} \) \((R^1-3 = \text{Me}; R^1-3 = \text{Et}, \text{and } R^{1.2} = \text{Me, } R^3 = \text{t-Bu})\), widely used both in silyl protection and in synthesis of silicon organic products, were considered as substrates all showing single irreversible two-electron reduction steps at -3.10, -2.87 and -2.82 V vs. SCE, respectively.

All mediators listed in Table 1 show the catalytic effect when a chlorosilane is added to the solution. As exemplified in Fig. 1 in case of naphthalene, the one-electron reduction current \((i_p^d)\) of the mediator increases upon progressive addition of \(\text{Et}_3\text{SiCl}\); at the same time the oxidation current of naphthalene anion radicals decreases up to its total disappearance (at the ratio \([\text{Et}_3\text{SiCl}]/[P] \geq 12/1\)). It is seen that at this point the normalized kinetic current \(i_p^{\text{cat}}/i_p^d\) of the mediator only reaches the value of 2; other mediators show quite similar behavior (fig. 2). This indicates that the reaction between the reduced form Q and the chlorosilane is not limited to pure electron transfer and includes a substrate-mediator addition [46,47]; the contribution of this side process limits the propagation of the catalytic scheme (eq. 5b).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{p} & \quad \text{e} & \quad \text{Q} \\
\text{Q} & + \quad \text{R}_3\text{SiCl} & \quad \text{R}_3\text{Si}^\cdot & + \quad \text{P} \\
& & \quad \text{R}_3\text{SiQ} \\
& & \quad \text{C}^\cdot \quad \text{Cl}^- \\
& & \quad k_1 \quad k_2
\end{align*}
\]

(4)

(5a)

(5b)

Under such circumstances, it is difficult to check whether primary \(\text{R}_3\text{Si}^\cdot\) radicals undergo second ET (either homo- or heterogeneous), or dimerization or else other radical reactions with the components of the solution. This situation can be simplified considering the following. With the mediators used in this study, the primary product \(\text{R}_3\text{SiQ}\) (eq. 5b, 10 and 11) may only contain Si-C or Si-O bonds, both stable enough for not allowing any reverse reactions (supposing \(\text{R}_3\text{SiQ}\) to be kinetic product) that might lead to the disilane (thermodynamic) products. Though radical-radical dimerization is very fast and usually occurs at the diffusion limit (for \(\text{Me}_3\text{Si}^\cdot\), \(k = 3 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}\) [48] and for \(\text{Et}_3\text{Si}^\cdot\), \(k = 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}\) [49]), the efficient reducing potential in the reaction
space is such that the silyl radicals\(^5\) (with own reduction potentials \(E \approx -0.5 \ldots -1.4\) V \([17,18]\)) are instantaneously transformed into silyl anions, which is consistent with the results of Corriu \([12]\). It is quite obvious then that if a disilane is formed in the process starting with eqs. (1, 4, 5a), it could only have arisen from the reactions following the reduction of \(R_3\text{Si}^+\) radicals (eqs. 6, 6a).

An \(S_N\)-like nucleophilic pathway is therefore assumed the only one accounting for the formation of Si-Si products.

\[
\begin{align*}
R_3\text{Si} & \overset{e}{\rightarrow} R3Si \\
R_3\text{Si} & \overset{R_3\text{SiCl}}{\underset{el}{\rightarrow}} R_3\text{SiSiR}_3
\end{align*}
\]

In an \textit{in situ} electrochemically dried solution (when the protonation of silyl anions is minimized), the nucleophilic attack of \(R_3\text{Si}^-\) (eq. 6a) on starting \(R_3\text{SiCl}\) is faster compared to its addition across the \(C=O\) or \(C\equiv N\) bonds \([1,4]\) of the most electrophilic among the used mediators. Therefore, with \(R_3\text{Si}^-\) produced in the solution through eqs. (4-6), the yield of the corresponding disilane can roughly be considered as reflecting the contribution from pure ET, reaction (5a), \(k_1\).

The anion radical of the mediator does not solely act as an outer-sphere electron donor towards Si-Cl substrates and the process involves several successive steps. Considering the process in its whole complexity, - involving multiple instable species and their interconversion depending on the reaction conditions, - in the absence of data on the coordination state of silyl intermediates and their interactions with various nucleophiles in the solution seems a non-realistic task, at least at the present. In fact, it would involve too many adjustable variables for obtaining reliable results. Therefore, we reduced the case to a simplified model, neglecting several seemingly secondary reactions (e.g. protonations and radical coupling of secondary radicals) and based on steady-state assumption for major intermediates (which holds sound in most practical situations \([26]\)), developed for homogeneous reduction of alkyl halides \([23]\). In the following principal steps, provided an over-equimolar presence of DMF prior any ET, we

\(^5\) Dimerization of homologous \(\text{Ph}_3\text{Ge}\) radicals was postulated in \([35]\). However provided \(E_{1/2}(\text{Ph}_3\text{Ge}/\text{Ph}_3\text{Ge}^-) = -0.61\) V vs SCE \([17]\), an increase in the driving force of their reduction to germyl anions at the potential of \(E = -2.1\) V, required for the reductive cleavage of Ge-Cl bond, is by \(5\times10^{12}\) times at the level of \(k_c\). Most probably, no radical coupling could therefore compete with their reduction under these conditions.
assume \([R_3SiCl] = [R_3Si(DMF)Cl]\) (eq. 3). Otherwise, the competition between \(k_f\) and the processes with \(k_1\), \(k_2\), and \(k_6\) should be considered.

\[
P^e \xrightleftharpoons[k_f]{k_f} Q
\]  

(4)

ET (1e):

\[
R_3SiCl \xrightarrow{k_f} [R_3Si(DMF)Cl]
\]  

(7)

\[
Q \xrightarrow{k_1} R_3SiP
\]  

(5a)

\[
2R_3Si \xrightarrow{k_{dim}} R_2SiSiR_3
\]  

(8)

\[
R_3Si \xrightarrow{k_1} R_3SiP
\]  

(9)

\[
R_3Si \xrightarrow{k_4} R_3SiQ
\]  

(10)

SN (2e):

\[
Q \xrightarrow{k_{Cl}} R_3SiQ
\]  

(11)

\[
R_3SiQ \xrightarrow{k_3} R_3SiP
\]  

(12)

\[
2R_3SiQ \xrightarrow{k_{dim2}} R_3SiQSiR_3
\]  

(13)

\[
R_3SiQ \xrightarrow{k_3} R_3SiQSiR_3
\]  

(14)

Two competing electron transfers (ET) trigger this sequence: a one-electron transfer, eq. 5a with ensuing radical coupling (eq. 8, \(k_{dim}\)), and a two-electron (SN2-like) attack of the mediator anion radical (by its site with highest negative charge localization) on the chlorosilane (eq. 11). The steps with \(k_1\) and \(k_2\) are supposed to be chemically irreversible since both involve Si-Cl bond cleavage (plus Q-Si bond formation, eq. 10, 11).

Admitting steady-state for \([R_3Si^\bullet]\) in the ET scheme implies that \(k_1\) is rate-limiting, i.e. \(k_1 \ll (k_{dim} + k_3 + k_4)\), and the concentration of silyl radicals is mainly determined by the competition between \(k_1\) and their consumption in reactions 8-10. The competition with the SN-process (eq. 11-14) brings \(k_2\) into the kinetic equation. Thus, without taking into account diffusion of reagents and the contribution of direct reduction of radical species at the cathode due to homogeneous character of the process, the rate law is

\[
-d[Q]/dt = [Q]((k_1 k_2)[R_3SiCl] (k_3 k_4)[R_3Si ] k_3([R_3SiQ ])
\]  

(15)

Steady-state for \([R_3Si^\bullet]\) (eq. 16) implies that \(k_{dim}[R_3Si^\bullet]^2 \rightarrow 0\), even if \(k_{dim}\) is close to the diffusion limit

\[
d[R_3Si ]/dt = k_1[Q][R_3SiCl] - k_{dim}[R_3Si ]^2 - (k_3 k_4)[Q][R_3Si ] = 0
\]  

(16)
\[ [R_3Si \] \ k_1[R_3SiCl]/(k_3 \ k_4) \]  

With the concentration of \([R_3SiQ^-]\) expressed as

\[ d[R_3SiQ^-]/dt = [Q](k_2[R_3SiCl] - k_3[R_3SiQ^-]) = 0 \]  

\[ [R_3SiQ^-] = k_2[R_3SiCl]/k_3 \]  

and with the ratio \([R_3Si^-]/[R_3SiQ^-] = k_1/k_2\), one obtains

\[ -d[Q]/dt = (2k_1 2k_2)[Q][R_3SiCl] k_1^ap[Q][R_3SiCl] \]  

The corollary of this model is that \(k_3 = k_3 + k_4\), i.e. the rate of consumption (SET, eq. 12) of the primary radical product of the SN step (eq. 11), neglecting its dimerization under the conditions of voltammetry, equals the sum of the rates of disappearance of silyl radicals \((k_3 + k_4)\) produced in the step 5a \((k_i)\). Both electron transfers – one-electron (ET) and electron-pair (SN) – are reflected in the kinetic law through the apparent rate constant\(^6\) \((k_1^ap = 2k_1 + 2k_2)\). Therefore, considering the mediator P/Q couple (through \(i_p(P)\)) in terms of the \(\lambda - i_p^{cat}/i_p^{d}\) analysis of redox catalytic mechanisms [23], the response of this system will be complex including the contributions form the two pathways. At this point, it is not possible to distinguish these contributions since they have similar reactants’ energy profile and similar pre-exponential factors; their competition intervenes through the interplay of the corresponding activation energies in \(k_1\) and \(k_2\) in the apparent rate constant \(k_1^ap\).

Now supposing for the process a catalytic EC mechanism with an additional solution electron transfer (SET) (eq. 9) while \(k_1^ap\) remains rate limiting step and using the working curve CAT – log(\(\lambda\)) (fig. 1 from [23]; with \(\lambda = k_1[P]\delta^2/D\), where \(\delta\) and \(D\) are diffusion layer thickness and the diffusion coefficient of P) with catalytic efficiency taken as CAT = 2\((i_p^{cat} - i_p^{d})/i_p^{d}\)SiCl (here \(i_p^{cat}, i_p^{d}\) and \(i_p^{d}\)SiCl are peak currents of P in the presence and the absence of \(R_3SiCl\) and the peak current of \(R_3SiCl\), respectively) provided the values of \(\log(k_1^ap)\), plotted as a function of \(E_{p/Q}^0\) in fig. 3.

\(^6\) Similar expression would result in the extreme case if the reduction of \(R_3Si^-\) (eq. 6) entirely occurs at the cathode, via heterogeneous ET (i.e. when \(k_3 = 0\)).
Reduction of Me$_3$SiCl, Et$_3$SiCl and t-BuMe$_2$SiCl with the mediators listed in table 1 corresponds to an activation controlled process with the $\Delta \log(k_1)/\Delta E_0^{P/Q}$ slopes of -1/105 mV [36], 1/112 mV and 1/108 mV, respectively. For none of these chlorosilanes the zone of diffusion control by the back process was attained [25], so simple determination of $E_0^{(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^*+Cl^-)}$ by extrapolation of the line with 1/58 mV slope to $\log(k_D)$ is not possible. However, some estimation concerning their values can be made here. First, Cabasso et al [8] reported that Ph$_2$SiCl$_2$ and MePhSiCl$_2$ show, at T = -41 °C, reversible reduction with $E_{app}^0$ (as an average of $E_p^c$ and $E_p^a$) of -2.8…-3.0 V vs SCE. This value can be taken as lower limit for $E_0^{0(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^*+Cl^-)}$ which is expected not to be more negative. Then, considering the shape of the $\log(k_1)$-$E_0^{P/Q}$ plot (in an ideal case when $\alpha = 0.5$) can give another idea of the cathodic limit of $E_0^{0(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^*+Cl^-)}$.

The intercepts of the activation-controlled portion of the $\log(k_1)$-$E_0^{P/Q}$ plot (fig. 3) with two adjacent diffusion-controlled portions (with 0 and 1/58 mV slopes) are equidistant relative to $E_0^{0(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^*+Cl^-)}$ (at $E_0^{0(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^*+Cl^-)} - E_0^{0,P/Q} = 0$). Such symmetry of the activation zone also implies that $\Delta E_0/0.058 < 2(\log(k_D) - \log(k_i))$ [24]. Therefore, from the half-spans of the visible activation zones, the values of $E_0^{0(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^*+Cl^-)}$ of the chlorosilanes in question cannot be more negative than -2.13, -2.25 and -2.10 V for Me$_3$SiCl, Et$_3$SiCl and t-BuMe$_2$SiCl, respectively (fig. 3).

The contribution of pure ET into $k_1^{app}$ was estimated through fitting the experimental points with Marcus curve [26] defining $\log(k_1)$ as

$$
\log(k_1) = \log Z - \frac{F}{2.3RT} G_0 + 1 \frac{G_0^9}{4 G_0} \ G_0^{2 \ G_0^9}
$$

with homogeneous collision frequency $Z$ estimated ($6.7 \times 10^{10}$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ for Me$_3$SiCl) from Debye-Smoluchovski equation [50], and $\Delta G_0 = \lambda/4 = 0.125(\lambda_p + \lambda_{SiCl})$. For aromatic anion radicals, solvent reorganization energies $\lambda_p$ have close values that can be taken, following Kojima and Bard [51], as 0.63 eV. For chlorosilanes, the term $\lambda_{SiCl}$ can be estimated as $\lambda_{SiCl} = D_{Si-Cl} + \lambda_0$.
It has been previously shown [7,52] that in solution the Si-Cl bond undergoes substantial polarization preceding the electroreduction of chlorosilanes. If the gas phase bond strength $D_{Si-Cl}$ (5.49 eV [53]) sustained in the solution, chlorosilanes would not be reducible before -6 V vs SCE. So a good estimation of the effective Si-Cl bond energy in solution, $D_{Si-Cl}^{sol}$, is needed for assessing $\lambda_{SiCl}$ and then $\Delta G_0^{\neq}$. First, it can be obtained according to the approximate equation 22 [54]

$$\frac{D_{Si-Cl}^{sol}}{2/3} = (E_p - E_{Cl/CT}^0 + C$$

which, with $E_p = -3.1$ V, and taking after Savéant $E_{Cl/CT}^0 = 1.89$ V and $C = 0.3$ eV (for C- and N-haloderivatives [54-56]), provides $D_{Me_3Si-Cl}^{sol} \approx 70.5$ kcal mol$^{-1}$ (3.06 eV) as first estimate. Using more recent value $E_{Cl/CT}^0 = 2.12$ V [57] and $C = 0.27$ eV that was directly calculated for the chlorosilane (as $C = 2\{(RT/\alpha F)\ln(Z_{het}(RT/\alpha F \nu D)) - 0.78(RT/\alpha F) - \lambda \alpha/2 - T(S_{Me_3SiCl} - S_{Me_3Si} - S_{Cl})\}/3$ [56] for $\nu = 0.1$ V s$^{-1}$ with heterogeneous collision frequency $Z_{het} = (kT/2\pi M)^{1/2}$ [58], diffusion coefficient D form Stokes equation and the corresponding entropies obtained by DFT calculations at B3LYP/Lanl2DZ level), one obtains $D_{Me_3Si-Cl}^{sol} \approx 74.04$ kcal mol$^{-1}$ (3.21 eV). Provided that bond strength is enthalpy, both these approaches have to treat the entropic contribution to energy, included in term C, either supposing it to be small and practically constant [54,55] or explicitly calculating it. A more complete way for estimation of $D_{Si-Cl}^{sol}$ ($\Delta G_{Si-Cl}$) can be calculating the profile of Gibbs energy of the reaction via frequency analysis (here at DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ level) when solvation is taken into account using an appropriate model (e.g. [59]). For Me$_3$Si-Cl, thus obtained free enthalpy of Si-Cl bond dissociation in DMF amounts to 2.048 eV (see section 3.2). Similarly obtained values for other chlorosilanes seem consistent and were used in the following (table 2).

Standard potentials $E^0$ of ET to alkylchlorosilanes, $E^0_{(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^+/Cl^-)}$, necessary for $\Delta G_0^{\neq}$ determination, were obtained according to the thermochemical scheme [60] which proved efficient for calculating $E^0$ of alkyl halides [61]. Here, given the lack of consistent data on free
enthalpies of formation of silyl radicals $\Delta G_f^0(R_3Si^\bullet)$ [53], the necessary energies of formation have been calculated for all entities at DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ level at $T = 298.15K$ and $P = 1$ bar (Ox = $R_3SiCl$, Red = $R_3Si^\bullet + Cl^-$). Solvation has been taken into account using Tomasi's isodensity polarized continuum model (IPCM) for model reaction field and analytic DFT energies calculation [59]. Obtained from DFT calculations, the values of $E^0$ are not related to any reference electrode, so they were brought to the SCE scale ($E_{SCE} = 0.241$ V vs. NHE), using recent value of absolute potential of standard hydrogen electrode proposed by Gennaro, $E^0_{H^+/H_2} = 4.281$ V [57]. The influence of ion pairing with $Bu_4N^+$ was supposed to be small, see [62].

Now with $D_{Si-Cl}^{sol}$ and $E^0_{(R_3SiCl/R_3Si^\bullet+Cl^-)}$, in hands, the corresponding standard activation energy $\Delta G_0^\ddagger$ could be determined and hence, from eq. 21, the theoretical $k_1$ (Table 2). Plotted versus $E^0_{P/Q}$, the $k_1$ values (dotted lines in fig. 4) thus correspond to the pure ET scheme. As is seen for Me$_3$SiCl, a fair fit of the experimental points with Marcus parabola, assuming pure ET (fig. 4), was found with $Z = 6.7 \times 10^{10}$ and $E^0_{(Me_3SiCl/Me_3Si^\bullet+Cl^-)} = -2.06$ V for $\Delta G_0^\ddagger = 0.34$ eV.

Similar trends with close values of $\Delta G_0^\ddagger$ were found for Et$_3$SiCl and $t$-BuMe$_2$SiCl. Obviously, such standard activation energy appears too small for a process including bond-breaking. Therefore, either the reduction of the chlorosilanes is not dissociative in its nature and involves transient anion radicals (though not detectable by voltammetry), as was supposed for the reduction of ClCH$_2$TMS [36], or that bond breaking in chlorosilanes requires in fact much lower energy than estimated above. Following the model of parallel ET and $S_N$ processes, it might also mean that the whole set of experimental log$(k_1^{ap})$ values is uplifted relative to pure ET process ($k_1$) due to the contribution of parallel nucleophilic interaction of Q with $R_3SiCl$. Taking into account possible partial contamination of the catalytic current with some contribution from eq.
would not explain such a large gap since this contribution is expected to be smaller than that of SN. It is to be noted that similar excessive log(\(k_1\)) values were observed for homogeneous reduction of \(n\)-BuI compared to \(sec\)- and \(tert\)-BuI \[61\] when a substantial contribution from an \(S_N2\) process was supposed.

As mentioned above, left sides of eqs. (5a) and (5b) are similar but these reactions have different transition states. Now, provided the rate constants \(k_1\) and \(k_2\) are included into \(k_1^{ap}\) through eq. 20, it is possible to separate them from figure 4 \((k_1^{ap} - 2k_1 = 2k_2)\), using the calculated \(k_1\) for pure ET case, and to determine the rate of the nucleophilic attack of the anion radical of any given mediator on the chlorosilane (table 1). It is to note that with the \(\Delta G_0^\neq\) estimated form the approximate model (eq. 22), the \(k_2\) values are superior to \(k_1\) by the factor of ca. \(10^5\) - \(10^6\) (e.g. for Me3SiCl/naphthalene, \(k_1 = 1.98 \times 10^2\) and \(k_2 = 6.27 \times 10^7\) M\(^{-1}\) s\(^{-1}\)), which seems greatly underestimating the contribution of ET. Using \(\Delta G_{Si-Cl}\) from DFT calculations (see 3.2) provides better agreement with the experiment. Thermodynamic parameters of the \(S_N\) process can then be assessed from the values of \(k_2\) using a retro-procedure through the transition state theory equation for the rate constant of a bimolecular reaction, \(k_2 = \kappa P (kT/h) \exp(-\Delta G^\neq/RT)\) \[63\]. Here, the values of the transmission coefficient \(\kappa\) and steric factor \(P\) (as \(\exp(\Delta S_{ster}^\neq/R)\), \[64\]) are not known; in first approach they are assumed to be equal to unity for Me3SiCl and Et3SiCl though they are supposedly smaller for \(t\)-BuMe2SiCl. Thus estimated \(\Delta G^\neq\) values correspond to quite low activation barriers (table 2), which is consistent with high reactivity of chlorosilanes in \(S_N\)-reactions.

3.2. \textit{DFT} calculations

Consistency of the electrochemical results was checked considering theoretical energy profiles of the corresponding processes. Potential energy (PE) and free Gibbs energy profiles for an ET-induced reductive cleavage of Si-Cl bond in Me3SiCl have been calculated at DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ level in gas phase and in DMF (IPCM calculations, solvent cavity built using
Remarkably, the PE profile for (Me₃Si⁺ + Cl⁻) system in the gas phase shows a shallow minimum which can be related to a -0.202 eV stabilized Me₃SiCl⁺ intermediate with ≈20% stretched Si-Cl bond (figure 5a). In DMF, solvation of the fragments overruns this stabilization and only repulsive part appears; the situation thus corresponds to a pure dissociative ET (figure 5b). For t-BuMe₂SiCl (figure 6a), such a minimum is less pronounced and is shifted to longer l_{Si-Cl}, corresponding to long-term coordination interactions between t-BuMe₂Si⁺ radical and Cl⁻.

For both chlorosilanes, Si-Cl bond dramatically weakens when going form the gas phase to solution (figures 5, 6). Solution bond energies from the PE profiles seem more appropriate for calculating ΔG₀ than those obtained using the approximate model (eq. 22). Yet even better way of assessing Si-Cl energies and intrinsic barriers is to consider pure Gibbs energies (figure 5c) available from frequency analysis of the optimized configurations along the PE profile. Using these free energies of bond dissociation in DMF (table 2), theoretical ET rate constants (k₁) are closer to the experimentally obtained k₁⁰ (figure 4). Now, realizing the risk of direct comparison of the results of voltammetry and of large-scale electrolysis, a rough approximate of the ratio k₁/k₂ can be obtained from the practical ratio of ET to S_N products in large scale reductions, which is roughly ranging from ≈1:10 to ≈1:100 (e.g. for Me₃SiCl and Et₃SiCl using anthracene anion radicals, table 3). Then the k₁ are supposed to be of the order of k₁⁰/(20…200), which is in a good accordance with the above theoretical estimates.

In DMF, which is more efficient silicophile than pyridine or even Me₃N [2], Si-Cl bond is affected not only by solvation but also by nucleophilic assistance of the solvent. To take this interaction into account, energy profile of the system Me₃SiCl+DMF along the ET process has been calculated (figure 5d). Its striking feature is that the minimum related to the ground state geometry (l_{Si-Cl}^eq) is now only slightly marked: all following geometries (for l_{Si-Cl} > 2.25 Å) are almost equivalent in energy. The curve of the products shows that past equilibrium geometry, the energy decreases linearly with distance until ~3.7 Å, after which it remains practically.
unchanged. The feature is quite similar for t-BuMe₂SiCl, though bond breaking energy is more pronounced (figure 6c), probably because approaching of DMF molecule is impeded by higher steric demand. Equilibrium geometries for both chlorosilanes clearly correspond to pentacoordinate species. Evidently, bond energies D_{Si-Cl} in this situation are not the same and are not suitable for using in the model considered in 3.1.

Although electrochemistry of hyper-coordinate silicon species is still to be developed, some idea on relative electrophilicity of silicon in DMF-coordinated Me₃SiCl with respect to its non-coordinated form can be obtained from NPA charges and from the relative LUMO levels in these species (scheme 1).

Scheme 1. NPA (bold) and Mulliken (italic) charges in Me₃SiCl, Me₃SiCl·DMF and chlorosilatrane in DMF from DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ calculations.

In spite of smaller partial positive charge on Si (1.608 vs. 1.721), LUMO level in DMF-associated penta-coordinated chlorosilane is 0.408 eV lower than in the non-associated form rendering the electron uptake easier. In Cl-silatrane, reduced at quite similar potentials and having strong intramolecular N→Si coordination [65], the charge at Si is remarkably more positive (2.228) while LUMO energy is only 0.1 eV higher than in Me₃SiCl·DMF. It seems that electron uptake in these systems is mainly orbital-controlled.

Thus donor interactions from an external or an internal silicophile do not increase LUMO energy in such species and therefore do not make their reduction more difficult, contrary to a common sense inspired by carbon chemistry. This additional energy is used for rearrangement of the orbitals of Si upon coordination expansion, generally lowering LUMO energy, promoting nucleophilicity and rendering the reduction easier. Evidently, careful quantification of nucleophilic assistance of silicophiles is needed for the development of a more elaborated model of reactivity of chlorosilanes.

3.3. Large scale reductions
3.3.1. Anthracene

When reducing anthracene in the presence of sub-equivalent amounts of Me₃SiCl, a kinetic pre-peak ($E_{pp}$) with $\Delta E = E_p - E_{pp} \approx 300$ mV appears on the voltammogram, caused by a fast nucleophilic attack of anthracene anion radicals on the chlorosilane. Very electrophilic character of Me₃SiCl renders its reactions with even poorly nucleophilic delocalized anion radicals quite efficient. Indeed, with $E^0_{P/Q} - E_p$ of 1.21 V, the estimated ratio of the rate constants of homogeneous ET to SN between Q and Me₃SiCl (table 1) can be compared with the reported alkylation of aromatic anion-radicals in a formal SN2 process [26]. In the case of alkyl halides, the contribution from SN2 was essentially neglected compared to ET mechanism [66]. For alkyl chlorosilanes, and to the greatest extent for Me₃SiCl, the situation is inversed: SN-type process is systematically favored compared to ET.

[Equation 24]

[Equation 25]

[Equation 26]

In the large scale reduction of the anthracene/chlorosilane mixture, only traces of the disilane (ET product) were observed by GC-MS. Instead, 9- and 9,10-silylated anthracenes were formed as main products (table 3). Silyl-substitution at the benzylic position 9 in anthracene does not affect much electronic demand of the primary silylated radical but it neutralizes the negative charge of this species. Since neutral radicals are usually easier to reduce than the starting neutral molecule ($|E_2| < |E_1|$), once nucleophilic attack (eq. 25) produces silylated dihydroanthryl radical, it undergoes immediate reduction to form the corresponding anion. The mono-silylated anion follows second silylation at the position 10. Small amount of di-9,9'-silylated dimer of
anthracene was also formed, arising from 10,10'-dimerization of 9-substituted intermediate radicals, in a way similar to that reported by Hammerich and Parker [67].

3.3.2. Naphthalene

With naphthalene, the contribution of ET process amounts to $\approx$8%, according to the amount of formed disilane. Instead, the silylation of naphthalene was quite efficient. Interestingly, two disilylated isomers - 1,4-bis(triethylsilyl)-1,4-dihydronaphthalene and 1,2-di(triethylsilyl)-1,2-dihydronaphthalene - were formed (table 1), arising from two radical anion forms of naphthalene (eq. 27). The ratio of these products is 1:1.7, the major isomer being supposedly 1,2-silylated one. These results agree with those observed for the reaction of chemically prepared naphthyl lithium with Me$_3$SiCl [68] and Me$_3$SiCN [69]. Interestingly, the recovery of starting naphthalene was reported in the chemical version of this process, presuming that the Naph$^-$ also intervenes as electron transfer reagent providing an electron for the reduction of intermediate monosilylated naphthyl radical to the corresponding anion [68].

$$\text{Naph} + e^{-} \rightarrow \text{Naph}^-$$

For comparison, Li-reduction of PhH in the presence of Me$_3$SiCl yielded 1,4-bis(trimethylsilyl)-1,4-dihydrobenzene [70] in a "silyl Birch reduction" of aromatics.

3.3.3. Benzonitrile
Although providing a considerable driving force for the ET ($E_\text{p} - E_\text{p}^{0}/Q$, Table 1) comparable to that of methylbenzoate, and being most efficient as ET reagents in the reaction series considered (table 3), the anion radicals of benzonitrile have quite complex own reactivity.

The elimination of CN$^{-}$ anion might generate Ph$^+$ radical whose reactions could explain the formation of the silylated biphenyl, PhC$_6$H$_4$SiEt$_3$. This product might arise from radical phenylation of PhSiEt$_3$, formed through eq. 28, or from nucleophilic substitution of (C$_6$H$_4$)$_2$ anion radical on Et$_3$SiCl. Due to small electron-withdrawing effect ($\sigma_p = 0.02$ [71]), Et$_3$Si-group cannot lower the reduction potential of PhSiEt$_3$ to ensure its efficient separate reduction; in addition, electroreduction of the homologous PhSiMe$_3$ was reported to result in silylated cyclohexa-1,4-dienes [72]; such products were not formed in the electrolysis.

In neutral benzonitrile, charge distribution is such that carbon of the CN-group is most susceptible to nucleophilic attacks, but in the reduced forms of benzonitrile the negative charge is mostly localized on N atom according to ROHF/6-311G calculations. This features account for the formation of the product of addition of Et$_3$Si$^-$ anion across the CN bond followed by N-silylation of the resulting anion (eq. 29); this product (with $m/z = 333$) was tentatively characterized as N-silylated ketimine (sf. [73]).

$$\begin{align*}
C_6H_5 - C = N^- & \llbracket Et_3SiCl \rightarrow C_6H_5SiEt_3 + Et_3Si^- \\
C_6H_5 - C = N^- + Et_3Si^- & \llbracket Et_3SiCl \rightarrow C_6H_5C=NSiEt_3
\end{align*}$$

(28)

$$\begin{align*}
C_6H_5 - C = N^- & \llbracket Et_3SiCl \rightarrow C_6H_5SiEt_3 + Et_3Si^- \\
C_6H_5 - C = N^- + Et_3Si^- & \llbracket Et_3SiCl \rightarrow C_6H_5C=NSiEt_3
\end{align*}$$

(29)

3.3.4. Methylbenzoate

Supposedly, because of large affinity of Si for O favoring the formation of O-silylated products, no phenyl silylation was detected, as in the reaction of benzophenone anion radical with 2-bromooctane [74]. This is consistent with the fact that O atom in carbonyl anion radicals acts as a nucleophilic center while C-atom mostly intervenes in ET processes [75].
Protonation and silylation of the carbanion resulting from the reduction of the intermediate silylated radical (eq. 31) lead to the main product, corresponding silyl(methyl)acetal. Contribution of pure ET from this mediator to Et₃SiCl, from the yield of Et₃SiEt₃, is 16% only.

3.3.5. Bipyridine

The anion radicals of 2,2'-bipyridine are π-delocalized akin to those of the above aromatic mediators, so they were expected to trigger similar reactions with chlorosilanes. However, 2,2'-bipyridine has lone pairs at N atoms, perpendicular to its π-system, so that it can manifest its silicophilic character both in the neutral form and in the anion radical. Being better silicophile than DMF [1], bipyridine is able to pre-coordinate with chlorosilanes before ET, thus making the whole reaction scheme different. Bipyridine is therefore falling out the reaction series of aromatic mediators (sf. Table 1), though the reduction of chlorosilanes in its presence also results in Si-Cl bond cleavage.

Upon progressive addition of R₃SiCl to 2,2'-bipyridine, initially showing a reversible redox system, the anodic counterpart of the reduction of bipyridine (at Eₚ = -2.21 V) progressively vanished but the reduction peak did not show any catalytic increase. At the same time, this system exhibited a new reduction peak at about Eₚ' = -1.1 V, the exact value depending on the chlorosilane taken.

The E_bipy - Eₚ' for this new peak is too large to be provoked by the kinetic shift of the reduction of bipyridine, so it supposedly corresponds to the reduction of a complex between 2,2'-bipyridine and the chlorosilane. Such complexes have been prepared and isolated in case of triorganobromo- and iodo- silanes and polychlorosilanes [76], but not for monochlorosilanes. However, these complexes might exist in the solution, though with a small stability constant, and
their formation is well seen through their voltammetric response (fig. 7). Here, the peak \( p_1 (E_p = -1.1 \text{ V}) \) arises from the reduction of \( \text{Et}_3\text{SiCl-bipy} \) complex and the peak \( p_2 \) is the oxidation of Cl\(^-\) anion eliminated at the step \( p_1 \). The latter fact suggests the occurrence of intramolecular electron transfer between the two units: from SOMO (\( \pi \)-system of bipy) of the ligand anion radical to LUMO of the chlorosilane (Si-Cl \( \sigma^* \)-bond). The formation of complexes of electrophilic silicon halides with 2,2'-bipy and other N-bases is now well documented [77] and electroreduction of homologous complexes of germanium chlorides with 2,2'-bipyridine has been recently reported [78].

In terms of the reduction potential, the complexation of a chlorosilane with bipyridine formally corresponds to introduction of an acceptor substituent into the bipy moiety. Its equivalent electron-withdrawing ability was estimated through \( E_{1/2} - \rho \sigma \) correlations from the reaction constants (\( \rho = 0.9-1.1 \)) derived from the reduction \( E_{1/2} \) of 4-R-2,2'-bipyridines and the ligand-based reduction of their RuL\(_3\) complexes [79], and ligand-based reduction potentials of Re complexes with substituted bipyridines \( \text{fac-[4,4'}^{-}\)-X\(_2\)-2,2'-bipy\( \text{Re(CO)}_3\text{Etpy}^+ \) [80]. Thus obtained plot (\( E_p = \rho \sigma_p - 2.1 \)) allowed assessing the \( \sigma \)-constant of an equivalent substituent at \( p \)-position of bipyridine that would provoke similar anodic shift in \( E_p \) of bipy as that due to the complexation with \( \text{R}_3\text{SiCl} \). The obtained value, \( \sigma_p = 1.8 \) for a single 4-R substituent (or \( \sigma_p = 0.9 \) for each of two 4,4'-R\(_2\)-substituents), is equivalent to the electron-acceptor effect of \( p \)-\( \text{(CF}_3\text{)}_3\text{CSO}_2 \) group or of two \( p\)-Me\(_2\)S\(^-\) groups [71]. Rough estimation of the complex formation constant, \( K_f \), from \( E^0(\text{bipy}) \) and \( E^0(\text{bipyR}_3\text{SiCl}) \), assuming the reaction between \( \text{bipy}^* \) and \( \text{R}_3\text{SiCl} \) to be total with \( K > 10^4 \), provides \( K_f < 8 \times 10^{10} \). The study of these systems is presently in progress.

4. Conclusions

In a series of representative alkyl chlorosilanes, the rates of their reactions with electrogenerated aromatic anion radicals were determined by homogeneous redox catalysis
method. Thus found apparent rate constants \( k_1^{\text{ap}} \) are remarkably higher than those of pure one-electron transfer to alkyl chlorosilanes expected according to Marcus model. The difference between these constants arises from the contribution of the parallel two-electron (nucleophilic) interaction between the mediators and chlorosilanes. The rates of nucleophilic displacement at Si by aromatic anion radicals, estimated from the comparison of the experimental \( \log(k_1^{\text{ap}}) \) and theoretical \( \log(k_1) - E_{\text{P/Q}} \) plot, are quite high amounting to \( 10^2-10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \). These values are comparable with those found for the total reaction (including both ET and \( S_N \) contributions) between aromatic anion radicals and hexyl iodide [34] and are higher than those determined for \( n \)-BuI after subtraction of the ET term [61], which agrees with higher electrophilicity of chlorosilanes compared to alkyl iodides.

For an \( S_N \)-like process, the steric demand determining the availability of Si becomes more important when going from Me_3SiCl to \( t \)-BuMe_2SiCl, so the rate of the nucleophilic reaction of alkyl chlorosilanes with the same aromatic nucleophile decreases in average by 4-9 times form Me_3SiCl to Et_3SiCl but may drop by about 200-300 when passing form Et_3Si to \( t \)-BuMe_2Si derivatives. Steric hindrance brought by \( t \)-Bu group in \( t \)-BuMe_2SiCl affects the \( S_N \) process to much lesser extent compared to \( t \)-Bu effect in carbon chemistry. This feature stems from longer Si-C bonds compared to C-C, generally providing poorer shielding of Si by alkyl substituents. Though this order is in good agreement with the general reactivity of electrophilic trialkylsilyl derivatives Me_3Si > Et_3Si >> \( t \)-BuMe_2Si [1-4, 81], steric demand of the nucleophile should also be taken into account for a more strict consideration. Corresponding activation energies agree with the observed contributions from ET and \( S_N \) pathways in all three reaction series. The approximate and the DFT-supported determinations of thermodynamic parameters for the ET model allowed assessing the Si-Cl bond strength in solution, which becomes more than 3 eV weaker compared to the gas phase because of polarization/(coordination) by/(with) the solvent and the interactions with the supporting electrolyte cation [6, 52]. However, even if these two phenomena evidently account for a part of the reorganization energy and therefore influence
the outcome of the formal Marcus treatment, their inclusion in the model is not simple and needs a special consideration. Coordination with the silicophilic solvent (DMF) is effective throughout the whole process. Its contribution supposedly evolves when going form one silylated intermediate to another but at the present state, it is impossible to provide a quantitative account for this phenomenon. Given a large excess of the silicophile at any moment, one can suppose that pseudo-first order conditions for these interactions were maintained, and hence, in a first approach, they could be neglected as supposedly constant.

Electrochemical silylation of delocalized aromatic anion radicals is not so chemoselective as in the case of σ-anions or of non-delocalized alkyl carbanions; charge delocalization and radical coupling account for the formation of multiple silylated products. Interestingly, that in case of t-BuMe₂SiCl, most favorable for observing ET chlorosilane, the t-BuMe₂Si-group is too bulky for an efficient S₇ self-process of the silyl anion with the starting chlorosilane; under these conditions, no disilane was formed and t-BuMe₂Si⁻ anion ends up as an electrochemically inactive hydrosilane t-BuMe₂SiH.

In general, the present study has shown that the use of redox mediators, in spite of its expected advantage as compared to direct cathodic reduction of chlorosilanes, is quite inefficient for preparing disilane products. On the contrary, silylation of the aromatic anion radicals via an S₇-like process seems to be a good complement to the conventional synthetic methods involving aromatic reductions with alkali metals but being free of the inconveniences of the latter. Electroactive silicophilic ligand 2,2'-bipyridine forms electroactive hyper-coordinated species whose low-potential cleavage of Si-Cl bonds merits a special study. Further works in this direction are under the progress.

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References


Figure captions

Scheme 1 NPA (bold) and Mulliken (italic) charges in Me₃SiCl, Me₃SiCl·DMF and chlorosilatrane in DMF from DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ calculations

Figure 1. (a) Reduction of Et₃SiCl (5 mmol L⁻¹) and (b) the voltammograms of electroreduction of naphthalene (10⁻² mol L⁻¹) at a GC disk electrode upon addition of Et₃SiCl (down the arrow: 0, 2, 4, 8 and 16 mmol L⁻¹). Solvent DMF + 0.1 M Bu₄NPF₆. Scan rate v = 500 mV s⁻¹, T = 20 °C.

Figure 2. Normalized kinetic currents iₚ^{cat}/iₚ^{d} of the reduction of: (Δ) naphthalene, (●) PhCN, (□) PhCOOMe and (○) anthracene (Cₚ = 10⁻³ mol L⁻¹ in DMF/0.1 M Bu₄NPF₆) in the presence of Et₃SiCl as a function of Et₃SiCl-to-mediator ratio. v = 500 mV s⁻¹, T = 20 °C.

Figure 3. Log(k¹_{ap}) versus Eₒ of redox mediators for the reaction of their anion radicals Q with triorgano chlorosilanes and the estimation of Eₒ(SiCl/Si•Cl⁻). With Me₃SiCl (■), data from [26] are shown. (●) Et₃SiCl. For comparison, known values of k¹ for Ph₃GeCl (○) and Ph₃GeBr (Δ) [30] are plotted.

Figure 4. Quadratic fits for the experimental k¹_{ap} (solid line) and Marcus plots for pure ET (dashed line: DₓSi-C from eq. 22; dotted line: ΔGₓSi-Cl from DFT calculations) for homogeneous reduction of three trialkyl chlorosilanes with aromatic anion radicals.

Figure 5. Reduction of Me₃SiCl. (A) PE profile in the gas phase, (B) PE in DMF (polarized continuum with ε = 36.7). (C) Free Gibbs energy and ΔS (right scale, ⊗) in DMF. (D) PE profiles for the reduction in the presence of one molecule of DMF in DMF; the arrow corresponds to the structure shown. From DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ.
**Figure 6.** PE profiles for the reduction of t-BuMe₂SiCl: (A) in the gas phase, (B) in DMF. (C) Reduction in the presence of one molecule of DMF (in DMF as solvent). From DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ.

**Figure 7.** Voltammograms of reduction of 2,2'-bipyridine (3×10⁻² mol L⁻¹) in CH₃CN + 0.1 M Et₄NBF₄ at a GC electrode: (a)—before and (b)—after addition of Et₃SiCl (2.4×10⁻² mol L⁻¹). Temperature 21 °C. v = 500 mV s⁻¹. With DMF used as solvent, electrode passivation occurred at [Et₃SiCl] > 3×10⁻³ mol L⁻¹.

**Table 1.** Aromatic redox mediators and the rate constants (M⁻¹ s⁻¹) of the reactions of their anion radicals with chlorosilanes: electron transfer (ET) vs. nucleophilic displacement (SN)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mediator</th>
<th>- Eₒ[Pr]  V   b</th>
<th>Me₂SiCl</th>
<th>Et₂SiCl</th>
<th>t-BuMe₂SiCl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eᵣ(S⁻⁻Cl⁻⁻) V</td>
<td>k₁(ET)</td>
<td>k₂(SN)</td>
<td>k₁(ET)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triphenylphosphine</td>
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<td>4.78×10⁸</td>
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<td>5.61×10⁶</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.34×10⁶</td>
<td>7.01×10⁷</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naphthalene</td>
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<td>6.92×10⁶</td>
<td>3.02×10⁷</td>
<td>6.32×10⁵</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benzonitrile</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.18×10⁵</td>
<td>6.60×10⁵</td>
<td>6.87×10⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methylbenzoate</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>5.13×10⁴</td>
<td>2.94×10⁵</td>
<td>2.74×10⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,2'-Bipyridine</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pyrene</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>2.96×10³</td>
<td>1.79×10⁴</td>
<td>1.21×10³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9,10-Dimethylanthracene</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>2.92×10²</td>
<td>1.78×10³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthracene</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>2.39×10³</td>
<td>1.45×10³</td>
<td>7.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-Phenylanthracene</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>7.074</td>
<td>4.25×10²</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9,10-Diphenylanthracene</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a With ΔG₀ obtained using the ΔG₆⁻Cl from B3LYP/Lanl2DZ frequency analysis. b V, vs SCE; DMF/0.1 M Bu₄NBF₄. c Falls out of the reaction series, see text.

**Table 2.** Parameters of redox-mediated reduction of alkyl chlorosilanes in DMF/0.1 M Bu₄NBF₄

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R₃SiCl</th>
<th>Eᵣ[Pr] V  a</th>
<th>Eᵣ(R₃SiCl⁻⁻S⁻⁻Cl⁻⁻) V  a</th>
<th>λ₀ b</th>
<th>Dₛ⁻Cl⁻⁻  b</th>
<th>k₁(ET) c</th>
<th>ΔG⁺(ET) b</th>
<th>k₂(SN) c</th>
<th>ΔG⁺(SN) b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Me₂SiCl</td>
<td>-3.10</td>
<td>-2.06 (-1.89)</td>
<td>42.36 (1.836) d</td>
<td>74.04 (3.210)</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>19.18 (0.832)</td>
<td>4.73×10⁴</td>
<td>11.07 (0.480)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et₂SiCl</td>
<td>-2.87</td>
<td>-2.11 (-1.94)</td>
<td>42.49 (1.842)</td>
<td>70.40 (3.056)</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>18.51 (0.803)</td>
<td>2.95×10⁴</td>
<td>11.35 (0.492)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-BuMe₂SiCl</td>
<td>-2.82</td>
<td>-2.00 (-1.83)</td>
<td>42.58 (1.846)</td>
<td>69.72 (3.023)</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>18.39 (0.798)</td>
<td>3.61×10³</td>
<td>13.96 (0.605)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a V vs. SCE; in parentheses, the E₀ corrected for liquid-liquid potential for DMF/water, 0.172 V [57]. b kcal mol⁻¹ (eV). c M⁻¹ s⁻¹. d Upper row values: derived with λ₀ from Born model [26] and Dₛ⁻Cl⁻⁻.
from eq. 22; lower row: from DFT B3LYP/Lanl2DZ calculation of reaction ΔG profiles.

**Table 3.** Electrocution of aromatic mediators (P) in the presence of trialkyl chlorosilanes in THF-DMF (10:1 v/v)/0.1 M Bu₄NBF₄

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chlorosilane</th>
<th>Mediator</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>B⁺, %</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>m/z, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Me₃SiCl</td>
<td>AN</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>traces</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>252 (M⁺, 2), 237 (M-Me, 98), 179 (M-Me,Si, 61), 91 (C₅H₅⁺, 21), 77 (Ph), 73 (Me,Si⁺, 31), 65 (C₅H₅⁻, 7), 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>324 (M⁺, 1), 309 (M-Me, 100), 294 (-2Me, 21), 251 (M-Me,Si, 34), 91 (C₅H₅⁺, 37), 77 (Ph), 73 (Me,Si⁺, 24), 65 (C₅H₅⁻), 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et₃SiCl</td>
<td>AN</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>294 (M⁺, 8), 279 (M-Me, 95), 265 (M-Et, 62), 179 (M-Et,Si, 76), 115 (Et,Si, 36), 65 (C₅H₅⁺, 5), 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>408 (M⁺, 379 (M-Et, 5), 350 (M-2Et, 27), 321 (M-3Et, 1), 293 (M-Et,Si, 100), 91, 77, 65, 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et₃SiCl</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>293 (M/2, 19), 279 (M-Me, 71), 265 (M-Et, 100), 179 (M-Et,Si, 52), 115 (Et,Si, 47), 65 (C₅H₅⁺, 51 (C₄H₃⁺, 12), 43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>244 (M⁺, 2), 229 (M-Me, 15), 215 (M-Et, 27), 186 (M-2Et, 1), 157 (M-3Et, 2), 115 (Et,Si, 34), 104, 91 (C₅H₅⁺, 23), 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>248 (M⁺, 2), 457 (M-Et, 9), 243 (M/2, 23), 215 (M/2-2Et, 8), 115 (SiEt⁺, 100), 91, 77, 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et₃SiCl</td>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>486 (M⁺, 2), 358 (M⁺, 8), 343 (M-Me, 32), 329 (M-Et, 11), 243 (M-Et,Si, 15), 115 (SiEt⁺, 100), 91, 77, 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>358 (M⁺, 0.5), 343 (M-Me, 56), 329 (M-Et, 0.5), 301 (M-2Et, 12), 243 (M-Et,Si, 6), 115 (SiEt⁺, 100), 91, 77, 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et₃SiCl</td>
<td>BN</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>486 (M⁺, 2), 457 (M-Et, 9), 243 (M/2, 23), 215 (M/2-2Et, 8), 115 (SiEt⁺, 100), 91, 77, 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et₃SiCl</td>
<td>BN</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>252 (M⁺, 32), 237 (M-Me, 9), 221 (M-Ome, 11), 115 (Et,Si, 98), 122 (C₅H₅O₂⁻, 13), 105 (C₅H₅O⁺, 19), 77 (Ph, 25), 65, 51, 32 (CH₅O, 9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>366 (M⁺, 94), 337 (M-Et, 5), 309 (M-2Et, 8), 251 (M-Et,Si, 23), 123 (C₅H₅O₂⁻, 21), 115 (Et,Si, 105 (C₅H₅O⁺, 8), 77 (Ph, 19), 65, 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Et₃SiCl</td>
<td>BN</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image" /></td>
<td>333 (M⁺, 7), 304 (M-Et, 100), 275 (M-2Et, 18), 218 (M-Et,Si, 47), 115 (Et,Si, 31), 102 (12), 77, 51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
$t$-BuMe$_2$SiCl  AN  3.5  $t$-BuMe$_2$SiH

$^{a}$ AN: anthracene, MBA: methylbenzoate, NP: naphthalene, BN: benzonitrile. $^b$ Ratio [Et$_3$SiCl]/[P].

$^{c}$ Yield of the corresponding disilane (Me$_3$SiSiMe$_3$, m/z: 146 (M$^+$, 17), 131 (M-Me, 38), 115 (M-2Me, 7), 73 (Me$_3$Si, 100); Et$_3$SiSiEt$_3$, m/z: 230 (M$^+$, 15), 201 (M-Et, 16), 115 (Et$_3$Si, 77)). $^{d}$ Yields are based on the reacted R$_3$SiCl. Unreacted R$_3$SiCl was converted into corresponding disiloxane during the work-up procedure (Me$_3$SiOSiMe$_3$, m/z: 147 (M-Me, 100), 131 (M-2Me, 7), 117 (M-3Me, 1) 73 (Me$_3$Si, 15); Et$_3$SiOSiEt$_3$, m/z: 246 (M$^+$, 2), 217 (M-Et, 100), 188 (M-2Et, 79), 115 (Et$_3$Si, 37)). $^{e}$ Supposed structure; $^1$H NMR (CDCl$_3$, TMS): 7.78 (3H), 7.16 (2H), 1.10 (18H, CH$_3$), 0.63 (12H, CH$_2$).
Fig. 2

Fig. 3
Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6
Fig. 7