Mechanistic Analysis of Azine N-Oxide Direct Arylation: Evidence for a Critical Role of Acetate in the Pd(OAc)$_2$ Precatalyst

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Detailed mechanistic studies on the palladium-catalyzed direct arylation of pyridine N-oxides are presented. The order of each reaction component is determined to provide a general mechanistic picture. The C–H bond cleaving step is examined in further detail through computational studies, and the calculated results are in support of an inner-sphere concerted metalation–deprotonation (CMD) pathway. Competition experiments were conducted with N-oxides of varying electronic characters, and results revealed an enhancement of rate when using a more electron-deficient species, which is in support of a CMD transition state. The effect of base on reaction rate was also examined and it was found that a carboxylate base was required for the reaction to proceed. This led to the conclusion that Pd(OAc)$_2$ plays a pivotal role in the reaction mechanism as more than merely a precatalyst, but also as a source of acetate base required for the C–H bond cleavage step.

Introduction

The formation of carbon–carbon bonds via direct arylation has undergone significant advances in recent years with efforts focused toward expanding substrate scope and novel catalyst development. In light of these studies, direct arylation of aryl halides has become an attractive alternative to the use of stoichiometric organometallic reagents in the preparation of biaryl compounds. Our group and others have been successful in developing a range of methods allowing for the coupling of electron-rich, -neutral, and -poor arennes (Scheme 1). While these reactions are synthetically useful, the development of novel catalysts which show increased reactivity at lower temperatures and catalyst loadings still remains a challenge. A better mechanistic understanding of direct arylation is crucial to the development of new catalysts as there are relatively few of these studies published to date. Such studies would be useful when developing new reactions, allowing for improvements to be made to existing reaction conditions and in the development of specialty

designed catalysts to reveal the necessary reactivity for an even broader range of direct C–H bond transformations in organic synthesis.

Of the studies directed toward elucidating the mechanism of direct arylation, computational studies have been prominently featured while little experimental evidence in support of the various proposals has been brought forth. Electrophilic, nucleophilic, and electron-neutral palladium aryl species have all been suggested to interact with aromatic substrates of varying electronic characters. Moreover, few if any of these studies deal with the relationship between precatalyst and active catalyst. Studies of this kind have been crucial to the development of very active catalysts in other palladium-catalyzed processes. In our previous report of this chemistry, the development of very active catalysts in other palladium-catalyzed processes have all been suggested to interact with aromatic substrates of the various proposals has been brought forth. Electro-philic, nucleophilic, and electron-neutral palladium aryl species.

The generally accepted mechanism for palladium-catalyzed direct arylation of aryl halides and simple arenes is shown in Scheme 3. The active Pd(0) catalyst undergoes oxidative insertion into the aryl halide, followed by C–H bond cleavage of the simple arene. Reductive elimination provides the diaryl species. This is then followed by reductive elimination of the biaryl from Pd(II) would form the desired carbon–carbon bond as well as regenerate the catalytically active Pd(0) species.

Results and Discussion

1. Kinetics. The generally accepted mechanism for palladium-catalyzed direct arylation of aryl halides and simple arenes is shown in Scheme 3. The active Pd(0) catalyst undergoes oxidative insertion into the aryl halide, followed by C–H bond cleavage of the simple arene. Reductive elimination provides the ligand on the precatalyst in the active catalyst formed in direct arylation. These studies have led to the advancement of a catalytic cycle for direct arylation of pyridine N-oxide.

The most discussed mechanisms of direct arylation are the carbopalladation or Heck-type pathway,7 the oxidative insertion pathway,8–10 the electrophilic palladation or electrophilic aromatic substitution (SeAr) pathway,2,6 and the concerted metalation–deprotonation (CMD) pathway3,5,11 (Scheme 2).

The Heck-type pathway (path A) is characterized by syn-addition of a palladium–carbon bond across a double bond of the aromatic coupling partner. While anti-β-hydride elimination is a high-energy process, the formation of a α-xyl species is often proposed, which could then isomerize to allow for a lower energy syn-β-hydride elimination. 7a

Less described in the literature is the oxidative addition of a Pd(II) species to a Pd(IV) species through an insertion into a C–H bond of an aromatic coupling partner (path B). A double reductive elimination would then afford the biaryl product as well as regenerate the catalytically active Pd(0) species.

To date, the most commonly suggested hypothesis for the mechanism of direct arylation is electrophilic palladation (path C). Originally proposed for the arylation of electron-rich heteroaromatics, this has since been referenced numerous times for other direct arylation reactions.2,6,12 An electrophilic palladation or electrophilic aromatic substitution (SeAr) type process would involve a rate-determining nucleophilic attack by the arene on an electrophilic Pd(II)-aryl species followed by rapid deprotonation of the resulting Wheland intermediate. Subsequent reductive elimination of the biaryl from Pd(II) would form the desired carbon–carbon bond as well as regenerate the active catalyst.

Our group and others have found computationally that for simple or electron-deficient aromatics, a CMD pathway (path D) is the lowest energy process, which was consistent with experimental observations.3,4,13,14 In a CMD pathway, the Pd–C bond formation occurs concurrently with the cleavage of the C–H bond of the arene to afford a Pd(IV) diaryl species. This is then followed by reductive elimination of the biaryl product, regenerating the active catalyst. While convincing computational evidence has been reported,13 there have been very few reports of in-depth experimental support for a CMD mechanism.

(14) Biswas, B.; Sugimoto, M.; Sakaki, S. Organometallics 2000, 19, 3895.)
desired biaryl product and regenerates the active Pd(0) catalyst. With the goal of obtaining a more detailed understanding of the catalytic cycle, and more specifically the intimate role of each of the primary reaction components, the order for each reagent in the coupling of 4-nitropyridine N-oxide and 5-bromo-m-xylene was obtained. Using either Pd(OAc)\(_2\) and tri-tert-butylphosphonium tetrafluoroborate salt or Pd(P\(_{\text{tBu}}\)_3)\(_2\) as the catalyst, the concentration of each reaction component was varied and the progression of the reaction at 110°C was monitored. The initial time (\(t_0\)) of each kinetic run corresponded to the time at which the reaction flask was placed into the oil bath, which was preheated to 110°C. During the course of the reaction, aliquots of the reaction mixture were removed, at which point the N-oxide readily precipitated from solution, thus stopping the reaction. The solvent was then removed and the resulting samples were analyzed by NMR spectroscopy for the formation of product with trimethoxybenzene as an internal standard.

There are several mechanistic scenarios to be considered for the direct arylation of pyridine N-oxides. One possible scenario involves oxidative addition as the rate-determining step of the reaction. In this case, one would expect to observe a first-order behavior in both aryl bromide and palladium catalyst, while zero-order behavior in pyridine N-oxide may be expected. However, if the catalyst resting state is at the Pd(II) species, then first-order behavior in the aryl halide, palladium catalyst, and the pyridine N-oxide may be expected. However, if the catalyst was saturated as a Pd(II) species formed after oxidative addition, the aryl bromide would then be expected to exhibit zero-order behavior, while first-order behavior may still be

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(15) The choice of substrate was mainly guided for analytical simplicity as all analyses was done with \(^1\)H NMR.

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established for both the Pd catalyst and the N-oxide. The same observed kinetic consequences could be expected if reductive elimination was the rate-determining step, but these two cases may be distinguished by looking for the presence or absence of a significant kinetic isotope effect at the C2 position of the N-oxide (vide infra).

The order in 5-bromo-m-xylene was determined by plotting the log of the initial rate versus the log of the concentration, using 5 mol % of Pd(OAc)\(_2\) as the precatalyst (Figure 1a). A slope of 0.04 was obtained revealing that varying the concentration of the aryl halide from 0.2 to 0.6 M has no effect on the reaction rate, thus establishing zero-order behavior in this system. The zero-order dependence in 5-bromo-m-xylene is indicative of a fast oxidative addition in which the palladium catalyst is saturated as a Pd(II)-aryl species and thus ruling out the possibility of oxidative insertion being the rate-determining step.

The order in 4-nitropyridine N-oxide was also determined in a similar manner by varying its concentration from 0.1 to 0.8 M (Figure 1b). A slope of 1.16 was obtained indicating a first-order behavior in pyridine N-oxide. A first-order dependence on pyridine N-oxide suggests that a single molecule of the N-oxide participates at the transition state of the reaction, which is consistent with arene metalation or reductive elimination being the rate-determining step. Reductive elimination was discarded as a possible rate-determining step due to the observation of a significant kinetic isotope effect (KIE) in a side-by-side comparison of rates (\(k_H/k_D = 3.3\)) using pyridine N-oxide or pyridine N-oxide-\(d_5\) as the starting azine.\(^{(16)}\)

The rate-constant’s dependence on catalyst concentration was determined by using Pd(P\(t\)Bu\(_3\))\(_2\) as the catalyst in order to eliminate catalyst preactivation. PivOH (30 mol %) was consequently added to account for the acetate that is normally in solution when Pd(OAc)\(_2\) is used. The reaction rate was measured over a range of catalyst loadings of Pd(P\(t\)Bu\(_3\))\(_2\), varying from 1 mol % to 20 mol %. This order was determined with respect to an aryl bromide concentration of 0.3 M and an N-oxide concentration of 0.6 M, and a slope of 0.56 was obtained from the kinetic plot (Figure 1c), which is consistent with half-order behavior in catalyst. This behavior has been associated with systems in which the catalyst resting state is a dimer, while the active form of the catalyst is a monomer.\(^{(17)}\) According to the zero-order dependence on aryl bromide and first-order dependence on the N-oxide, the dimeric resting state should be found between the oxidative addition and arene metalation steps.

Finally, the order in ligand was determined, also using 5 mol % of Pd(P\(t\)Bu\(_3\))\(_2\) as the catalyst. No change in rate was observed over a range of ligand concentrations from a 1:2 Pd:ligand ratio to a 1:6 ratio (Figure 1d), thus establishing a zero-order behavior in this system. It has been previously determined that the oxidative addition product of Pd(P\(t\)Bu\(_3\))\(_2\) into the C–Br bond of an aryl bromide is a T-shaped complex bearing a single phosphine ligand and a free coordination site.\(^{(18)}\)

\(^{(16)}\) For results from a one-pot KIE experiment, please see ref 4a.

and as such, the arene metalation transition state should have at most one bound phosphine ligand. Additionally, the zero-order dependence on phosphine ligand supports the arene metalation transition state containing a single phosphine ligand and hence it is unlikely that dissociation of P\textsubscript{3}Bu\textsubscript{3} from Pd occurs before the rate-determining step of the reaction.

With a basic understanding of the catalytic cycle, the mechanism of the C−H bond cleavage was investigated in greater detail through both computational and experimental studies.

2. Computational Analysis. Quantum chemical\textsuperscript{19} density functional theory\textsuperscript{20} calculations were used to assist in differentiating among the four possible mechanistic scenarios and determining the lowest energy pathway for the C−H bond cleavage step. All computations were performed at the Hybrid B3LYP level\textsuperscript{21} with a TZVP\textsuperscript{22} basis set for all atoms except palladium, for which a DZVP\textsuperscript{23} basis set was used. The ligand (either PMe\textsubscript{3}Bu\textsubscript{3} or P\textsubscript{3}Bu\textsubscript{3}) in the reaction was approximated with PMe\textsubscript{3} in all computations in order to reduce computational time. This is a commonly used technique\textsuperscript{3,5,11} and was not expected to change the qualitative findings of the calculations. Energy diagrams show the relative Gibbs Free Energies for the various transition states, intermediates, and products involved in each of the potential mechanisms. Calculations were performed in both the gas phase and with a solvent correction for toluene.\textsuperscript{24} The initial structures for all calculations are pyridine N-oxide (A) and a palladium(II) species (B, F, or F') coordinated by one PMe\textsubscript{3} ligand after oxidative insertion into the C−Br bond of bromobenzene. In the case of species F the bromide has been replaced by a bicarbonate anion while species F' contains an acetate anion in place of bromide. The relative geometry between the aryl group and the other anionic ligand is denoted as trans where the cis isomer is only marginally higher in energy.

Among the processes examined, the C−H oxidative insertion pathway (Scheme 4) was found to be the highest in energy, thus making it an unlikely candidate as the acting mechanism of the reaction. This pathway was found to proceed through transition state C having an energy of 56.6 kcal/mol and the resulting pentacoordinate Pd\textsuperscript{IV} intermediate D has an energy of 51.7 kcal/mol. Reductive elimination of HBr gives the common intermediate E having an energy of 36.8 kcal/mol. The Heck-type pathway (Scheme 5) is only slightly lower in energy than the C−H oxidative insertion pathway having a transition state (G) with an energy of 53.4 kcal/mol, though this results in an intermediate H with a relatively low lying energy of 16.6 kcal/mol.

When investigating the CMD pathway two variants must be considered: an inner-sphere mechanism and an outer-sphere mechanism (Figure 2).\textsuperscript{3,5,11,25,26} An inner-sphere mechanism is characterized by an internal base coordinated to palladium participating in the CMD process. This base

\begin{scheme}
\begin{center}
\textbf{SCHEME 4. Free Energy Diagram ($\Delta G^\ddagger_{298K}$, kcal-mol\textsuperscript{-1} in toluene) for the Relevant Intermediates, Transition States, and Products in the Oxidative Insertion Pathway}
\end{center}
\end{scheme}

\begin{scheme}
\begin{center}
\textbf{SCHEME 5. Free Energy Diagram ($\Delta G^\ddagger_{298K}$, kcal-mol\textsuperscript{-1} in toluene) for the Relevant Intermediates, Transition States, and Products in the Heck-Type Pathway}
\end{center}
\end{scheme}
can be either the halide from the aryl halide or a carbonate/carboxylate anion from a ligand exchange on palladium. Differentiated from this is the outer-sphere mechanism in which the deprotonation is performed by an external base (a carbonate or carboxylate anion).

Both CMD variants were found to be substantially lower in energy than the alternate pathways (Schemes 6 and 7). Starting with species B and bicarbonate as the external base, the outer-sphere mechanism had a transition state L energy of 40.3 kcal/mol and the inner-sphere mechanism starting from F as the Pd(II) species had a transition state J energy of 32.4 kcal/mol. The inner-sphere mechanism with bromide as the base was found to have no thermodynamic barrier and arrives at the product E (36.8 kcal/mol) with subsequent loss of HBr (Scheme 6). This pathway led to higher energy products than if bicarbonate was used as the base, and thus it was discarded. Calculations were also performed with acetate as the base. The relative energies of the transition states reflected those found when bicarbonate was used as the base, although the absolute values were found to be slightly lower (Scheme 7).

Efforts were made to locate the transition state energy leading to the Wheland intermediate in an SE Ar type pathway (Scheme 8) starting with F as the initial Pd(II) species. However, only the intermediate I (18.9 kcal/mol), a η²-π-complex having no cationic character on the aromatic ring, could be located. Departing from intermediate I this reaction pathway converges with that of the inner-sphere CMD pathway at transition state J (34.9 kcal/mol). Formation of the carbon–palladium bond and loss of H₂CO₃ yields products K (15.9 kcal/mol). The possibility of an SE Ar mechanism was thus discarded on the basis that no Wheland intermediate or complex containing arene cationic character could be located computationally.

From these results, the inner-sphere CMD mechanism was determined to be the most likely pathway for the C–H bond cleavage step in direct arylation. Computational results were also correlated to experimental findings to further support the proposal for a CMD mechanism. An Arrhenius plot was
constructed for the coupling between 4-nitropyridine N-oxide and 5-bromo-m-xylene (Figure 3) and the Arrhenius energy of activation was determined to be 18.5 kcal/mol. This value is in good agreement with the calculated ΔE° of 17.6 kcal/mol (at 298 K, in toluene), suggesting that the inner-sphere CMD pathway is an energetically viable process.

The regioselectivity of the reaction was also examined and proved to be particularly illustrative. Computationally, the energies for arylation to take place at each position on the pyridine N-oxide ring were calculated for the inner- and outer-sphere mechanisms by using both carbonate and acetate as the base (Figure 4). In both cases, the inner-sphere mechanism was predicted to arylate preferentially at the C2 position, followed by C4 and with arylation at the C3 position being the highest in energy, while the outer-sphere mechanism was predicted to have the opposite selectivity, favoring arylation at the C4 position while arylation at the C2 position was the highest energy process. Pyridine N-oxide is known to be amphoteric acting as both a nucleophile and an electrophile. The N-oxide moiety also imparts an increased acidity of the C-H bonds at positions 2 and 4 on the pyridine ring. While our initial hypothesis was that an increased acidity of the C-H bond was a necessary component for the CMD mechanism, recent computational results from our group have shown that a more important factor is electropositive character at the position ortho to the nitrogen in the aromatic ring (as present at the C2 position of pyridine N-oxide). Experimentally, the regiochemical outcome for the direct arylation of pyridine N-oxide is such that only arylation at the C2 position is observed, which is in agreement with calculated predictions for the inner-sphere mechanism.

The inner-sphere CMD mechanism also accurately predicts the site selectivity for substituted pyridine N-oxides (Table 1). When pyridine N-oxides bearing a phenyl or methylester substituent at the C3 position are used, the regioselectivity is sterically controlled and arylation takes place preferentially at the C6 position, suggesting that a steric bias for the less hindered site is controlling the regiochemical outcome of the reaction. A smaller C3 substituent, such as a methoxy group, results in nonselective arylation when P'tBu3 is used as the ligand, which is in agreement with a steric argument for the selectivities observed, while selectivity for the C2 position is observed when the smaller P'tBu2Me is used. This apparent ligand effect has been observed with other pyridine N-oxide and aryl halide substrates, and along with the observed zero-order in ligand during kinetic experiments, it is also in agreement with the phosphine ligand being present on the metal at the CMD step.

SCHEME 8. Relevant Intermediates, Transition States, and Products in the SAr Pathway

![Scheme 8](image)

(a) Andersson, H.; Almqvist, F.; Olsson, R. Org. Lett. 2007, 9, 1335.
In general, sterics seem to be the overriding factor in the observed selectivity. However, when smaller substituents are present, subtle electronic factors come into play. This is exemplified by the inversed regioselectivity to the C2 position when a small C3 electron-withdrawing substituent, such as a nitro, cyano, or fluoro group, is present. The electron-withdrawing substituent could impart an electropositive character to the C2 position of the N-oxide through resonance and inductive effects, thus stabilizing the developing negative charge of the CMD transition state that involves the development of a negative charge at the C2 position. In all cases, the elaborated DFT model accurately predicts regiochemistry.

Additionally, one-pot competition experiments and computational predictions of relative rates under a CMD mechanism were performed (Figure 5) and it was found that the experimental values correlated well with the calculated ones. It was seen that in all cases, the aryl bromide reacted most readily with the more electron-deficient arene, which is contrary to what would be expected if SE Ar was the acting mechanism. The greater reaction rate of the methoxy-substituted N-oxide over the methyl-substituted N-oxide is due to the σ-withdrawing effect of the methoxy substituent to the meta position of the arene, which is also reflected in the positive σ_{meta} value of a methoxy substituent. The results of these competition experiments are also in agreement with the obtained Hammett plot, which provides a side-by-side comparison of the different N-oxides’ reaction rates (Figure 6). In the past, Hammett studies conducted for direct arylation reactions have generally resulted in negative F values, and this observation was commonly used as the main argument in support of the SE Ar mechanism. However, the obtained Hammett plot gives a ρ value of +1.53. The positive ρ value suggests the enhancement of rate with increasing electron-withdrawing ability of the substituent located at the C4 position of the N-oxide, which is in support of the CMD pathway. An electron-withdrawing substituent would be expected to stabilize the development of a negative charge at the CMD transition state, and thus lower the energy of the process.

3. Base Effects. Further experiments were performed to examine the nature of the base in the CMD process. The three-coordinate arylpalladium halide complex 1 (Table 2), a possible intermediate in the catalytic cycle, was synthesized according to a procedure reported by Hartwig et al. and was stoichiometrically reacted with 4-nitropyridine N-oxide in the presence of K_2CO_3 and/or KOPiv as a base. Reactivity was found to depend heavily on the presence of pivalate base in the reaction mixture. While no product is observed in the absence of any base, surprisingly low reactivity was observed when using K_2CO_3 (Table 2, entries 1 and 2). However, in the presence of pivalate, with or without K_2CO_3, the desired coupling product is obtained in approximately 30% yield (Table 2, entries 3 and 4).

The reaction rate was also found to depend heavily on the identity of the base present in the reaction mixture. Kinetic experiments were run with Pd(PBu_3)_2 as the catalyst in order to eliminate catalyst preactivation as a potentially significant factor.
Using K$_2$CO$_3$ with a substoichiometric amount of PivOH and preventing its binding to the substrate. This effect may also be the result of excess carboxylate saturation of the catalyst. 32,33

To probe this hypothesis, the aryl palladium acetate complex 2 was synthesized and reacted stoichiometrically with 4-nitropyridine N-oxide in the presence and absence of K$_2$CO$_3$. The conditions used were chosen to mimic the conditions used in the catalytic reaction. In both cases, the obtained yields were identical, revealing little dependence of the stoichiometric reaction on the presence of K$_2$CO$_3$ (Scheme 9). The yields of these stoichiometric reactions are comparable to that of the analogous catalytic reaction.35 These stoichiometric studies suggest that 2 is a likely intermediate in the catalytic cycle. Furthermore, the observed identical yields between the reactions run with and without K$_2$CO$_3$ are in support of acetate, and not carbonate, performing the necessary deprotonation at the CMD step.

The participation of complex 2 in the catalytic cycle is further supported by its ability to act as a competent catalyst as well as by the similarity in initial rates between a reaction run with catalytic Pd(P$_3$Bu$_3$)$_2$ with PivOH and one run with a catalytic amount of 2 (Figure 8). A catalytic amount of KOPiv (5 mol %) was added to the reaction run with 2 as the catalyst in order to mimic the ratio of Pd to carboxylate base that is present when Pd(OAc)$_2$ is used as the catalyst.

FIGURE 7. Dependence of rate on the identity of the base used. Conditions: (●, light blue) Pd(P$_3$Bu$_3$)$_2$, 2 equiv of K$_2$CO$_3$; (●, red) 5 mol % of Pd(P$_3$Bu$_3$)$_2$, 2 equiv of KOPiv; (▲, green) Pd(P$_3$Bu$_3$)$_2$, 2 equiv of K$_2$CO$_3$, 30 mol % of PivOH; and (●, dark blue) Pd(OAc)$_2$, 15 mol % of P$_3$Bu$_3$-HBF$_4$, 2 equiv of K$_2$CO$_3$.

FIGURE 8. Initial rate of a reaction run with a catalytic amount of 2. Conditions: (●, blue) 1 equiv of bromobenzene, 2 equiv of K$_2$CO$_3$, 5 mol % of KOPiv; (●, red) 1 equiv of 3-bromo-m-xylene, Pd(P$_3$Bu$_3$)$_2$, 2 equiv of K$_2$CO$_3$, 30 mol % of PivOH.

4. Summary of Mechanistic Data and Proposed Catalytic Cycle. Given the mechanistic insight we obtained from the results of the computational studies as well as the various...
experiments performed, we are able to propose a revised catalytic cycle for the direct arylation of pyridine N-oxides (Scheme 10). The results from the kinetic experiments suggest a fast oxidative addition of the aryl halide into a Pd(0) species after which the catalyst is saturated as a Pd(II) species. According to the observed half-order dependence on catalyst concentration, this Pd(II) species could possibly exist as an inactive dimer that is in equilibrium with the less favored active monomeric form of the catalyst. Stoichiometric studies with different palladium complexes have pointed to the involvement of an acetate at the transition state as the deprotonating agent. The reaction likely proceeds via an $\kappa^2$-bound acetate on the palladium metal 2 from which the pyridine N-oxide can displace one of the acetate oxygens and coordinate to the metal center. The reaction is then proposed to proceed through a 6-membered inner-sphere CMD transition state, generating the palladium bisaryl species that is also in accord with the prevalence of Pd(OAc)$_2$ being used as a precatalyst in direct arylation reactions and should be considered in the development of new direct arylation processes.

### Conclusion

In conclusion, we have examined through kinetic and computational analysis the mechanism of direct arylation of pyridine N-oxides. The data obtained from these studies allowed for the proposal of a revised catalytic cycle, which points to CMD being the rate-limiting step in the process. The critical role of the base in the CMD process was investigated in further detail in both catalytic and stoichiometric variations of the transformation. The observed dependence of reactivity on the presence of soluble carboxylate indicates that the acetate from the Pd(OAc)$_2$ precatalyst is acting as the deprotonating agent at the CMD step. This observation is also in accord with the prevalence of Pd(OAc)$_2$ being used as a precatalyst in direct arylation reactions and should be considered in the development of new direct arylation processes.

### Experimental Section

#### General Procedure for the Direct Arylation of Pyridine N-Oxides with Aryl Bromides

Pyridine N-oxide (3 equiv), K$_2$CO$_3$ (2 equiv) P$_3$Bu$_3$HBF$_4$ (6−15 mol %), and Pd(OAc)$_2$ (5 mol %) were weighed into a round-bottomed flask equipped with a Teflon stir bar. The flask was fitted with a reflux condenser and the reaction vessel was then evacuated and refilled with argon (repeat 3 times). A solution of 5-bromo-2-methylphenyl $N$-oxide in toluene (0.3 M with respect to aryl bromide) was purged with argon (10−15 min) and added to the reaction flask. The flask was placed in an oil bath and heated to 110 °C with constant stirring. The reaction was allowed to heat at 110 °C overnight after which the flask was removed from the oil bath and allowed to cool to room temperature. The reaction was then filtered through Celite (washing with CH$_2$Cl$_2$) and the filtrate was concentrated under reduced pressure then loaded onto a short silica gel column for chromatography.

**2-(3,5-Dimethylphenyl)-4-nitropyridine N-oxide:** $^1$H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl$_3$, 293 K) δ 8.36 (1H, d, $J = 2.7$ Hz), 8.26 (1H, d, $J = 3.2$ Hz), 8.02 (1H, dd, $J = 3.2, 7.2$ Hz), 7.39 (2H, s), 7.16 (1H, s), 2.40 (6H, s); $^{13}$C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl$_3$, 293 K) δ 150.8, 142.0, 141.3, 138.4, 132.5, 130.6, 126.7, 121.6, 118.3, 21.4; HRMS calcd for C$_{13}$H$_{12}$N$_2$O$_3$ (M$^+$) 244.0848, found 244.0846; IR ($\nu_{\text{max}}$/cm$^{-1}$) 3106, 3085, 3055, 2917, 2859, 1520, 1341, 1278; mp 174−175 °C.

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#### Supporting Information Available

Detailed experimental procedures for kinetics as well as results of DFT calculations. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.