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Halogen Bonding in Halothiophene Building Blocks

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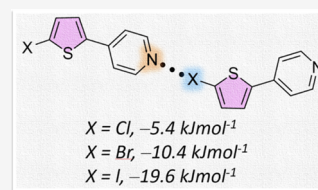
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ABSTRACT: Thiophenes bearing monotopic and symmetric ditopic halogen substituents and asymmetric ditopic halogen and pyridine substituents that act as halogen bond acceptors were evaluated for their halogen bonding interactions with 1,4-diodotetrafluorobenzene and N-iodosuccinimide. The combinations resulted in C/N–I...X' (X' = Cl, Br, I) and C/N–I...N_{py} (Py = pyridine) interactions, the former characterized by an interaction energy (ΔE_{int}) ranging from -4.4 to -18.7 kJ mol⁻¹ and the latter from -26.3 to -56.0 kJ mol⁻¹. X-ray crystallography studies show that the ditopic asymmetric systems consisting of both halogens and pyridine self-associate through C–X...N_{py} (X = Cl, Br, I) halogen bonding, and in their optimized structures the energies range from -5.4 to -19.6 kJ mol⁻¹ depending on the type of halogen atom present. The ¹H NMR association constants of N–I...N_{py} halogen bonds range between 1405 and 6397 M⁻¹. The σ -hole strengths of halogens have been useful in describing the interaction energies and solution models.



INTRODUCTION

Thiophene-based small molecules and polymers have gained a lot of attention as active components in organic electronics, owing to their wide range of attractive features including solution processability, tunable energy levels and absorption properties, high carrier mobility, and thermal stability.^{1–3} These materials have been used in the development of a variety of devices, such as field-effect transistors,^{4,5} sensors,⁶ and photovoltaics.^{7,8} Through theoretical and experimental research, it has been shown that even small alterations to the structure of thiophene lead to many noncovalent bonds, such as C–H... π and S...S interactions, which produce a highly aligned supramolecular architecture that affects charge-transfer mobility along the direction of the stacking.^{3–5} This prompted the development of rational design principles that allow for the careful placement of functional groups onto thiophenes to produce energetically favourable molecular packings utilizing directional noncovalent interactions like hydrogen bonds and coordination bonds.⁹ For example, the alkyl-urea-alkyl groups attached to thiophene and 2,2'-bisthiophene self-assemble into ribbon-like networks via N–H...O hydrogen bonds.¹⁰ This causes the thiophene moieties to form a closely packed supramolecular network that provides an effective pathway for charge transport via π – π stacking. These hydrogen-bonded complexes have charge carrier mobilities (5×10^3 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹) comparable to non-hydrogen-bonded polythiophene derivatives (7×10^3 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹) whose packing is mostly stabilized by π – π interactions. In another instance, Bao et al. used Fe(III)-nitrogen coordination bonds to prepare metallo-supramolecular polymers based on diketopyrrolopyrrole-thiophene-pyridyl derivatives with field-effect mobilities of 2.2 cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹, which is two times higher than its parent

polymer.¹¹ Despite remarkable advances in recent years that have resulted in the commercialization of devices, considerable efforts are still being made to improve their performance, stability, and functionality. Halogen bonding (XB),¹² a promising tool and more recent addition to the noncovalent interaction toolbox has gained a great deal of attention^{13,14} as an equivalent and alternative to the ubiquitous hydrogen bonding.¹⁵ Materials involving thiophenes as XB acceptors have been overlooked, with only a handful of halogen-bonded complexes investigated by Watkins et al.^{16–18} and others.^{19–24} It is important to further explore the use of XB-driven self-assembly of polythiophenes or other semiconducting polymers in organic electronics,²⁵ prior to which one must understand the interactions that dictate the assembly of corresponding small-molecule-based building blocks, which is the journey we embarked on in this work.

Halogen bonding is an attractive interaction of the type R–X...B, where X generally represents iodine or bromine and B can be any kind of Lewis base (N, O, S, etc.).¹² This interaction is based on the occurrence of a σ -hole, a region of lower electron density along the extension of an R–X bond arising from the anisotropic charge distribution around the X atom. Clark et al. explained this preference by performing natural bond order analysis on alkyl halides and proposing an approximate $s^2p_x^2p_y^2p_z^1$ configuration (where z is the direction

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of the R–X bond) that explains head-on interactions of a halogen's electron-density-deficient site or σ -hole with nucleophiles.²⁶ As shown in Figure 1, pairing between the

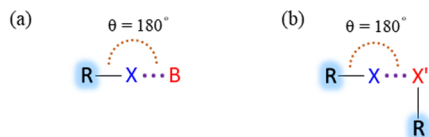


Figure 1. General representation of the XB interactions.

electron-rich region of one halogen substituent and the σ -hole of another halogen can also result in a R–X...X'–R (where X is a halogen and XB donor, X' is a halogen and XB acceptor) type XB interaction.²⁷ In general, the XB strength decreases as the electronegativity of the halogen increases, i.e., in the order I > Br > Cl > F.²⁸ By including electron-withdrawing substituents, the σ -hole on the X atom can be enhanced, and such alterations lead to stronger XB interactions.²⁹ The very compact and electronegative fluorine atom only participates in XB under very specific conditions.³⁰ Because of the high directionality and broad range of tunable properties, there has been a rise in interest in halogen bonding studies in disciplines ranging from organic synthesis³¹ to exert control over biological and polymeric assemblies.^{32–34}

Here, we investigate the R–X...B and R–X...X'–R halogen bonding in 2-halothiophenes (1–3), 3-halothiophenes (4–6), 2,5-dihalothiophenes (7–9), and 5-(4-pyridyl)-2-halothiophenes (10–12) using 1,4-diiodotetrafluorobenzene (Dipfb) and *N*-iodosuccinimide (NIS) as XB donors. X-ray crystallography and solution NMR studies supported by computational calculations are used in tandem to explain our findings. Dipfb is a commonly used XB donor in materials chemistry,³³ however, since its iodine atoms are known to generate relatively weak XBs with both halogens and pyridine nitrogen, it is challenging to estimate (Dipfb)C–I...X/N binding in solution using NMR methods. As a result, for comparison purposes, NIS, which has strong electron-accepting iodine due to the presence of neighbouring C=O groups,³⁵ is utilized to evaluate the binding affinities of (NIS)N–I...X/N XB. We believe that this study will be helpful in the design and understanding of the intricate supramolecular interactions that help to design oligomeric and polymeric thiophenes and the functional materials that may arise from them (Figure 2).

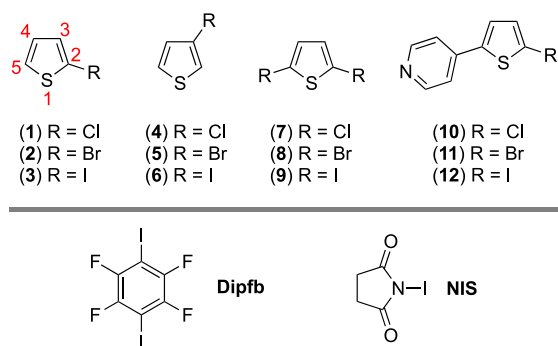


Figure 2. Chemical structures of thiophene XB acceptors (1–12) and XB donors, 1,4-diiodotetrafluorobenzene (Dipfb), and *N*-iodosuccinimide (NIS).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

DFT Computations. The evaluation of the local positive and negative electrostatic surface potentials of halogen and pyridinic nitrogen atoms is the first logical step in determining whether these molecules have the ability to form halogen bonds. The local positive electrostatic surface potential ($V_{s,max}$) of halogens and local negative electrostatic surface potential ($V_{s,min}$) of halogens as well as pyridinic nitrogen are computed at the PBE0-D3/def2-TZVP^{36–42} level of theory to estimate the size of the halogen's σ -hole and electron belt, as well as the nitrogen atom's electron density. The iodine $V_{s,max}$ values are more positive than those of both bromine or chlorine, and they are in the expected order, I > Br > Cl (Figure 3 and Table S1).

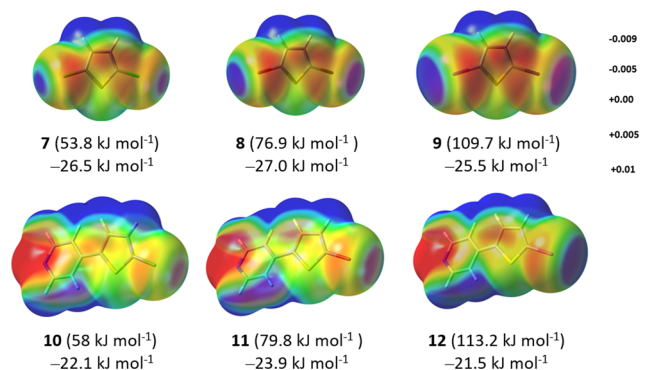


Figure 3. Computed electrostatic potential surface at the PBE0-D3/def2-TZVP level of theory projected on the 0.001 au electron density surfaces of halothiophenes (7–12) with $V_{s,max}$ (shown in parentheses) and $V_{s,min}$ values.

The σ -hole magnitude of the iodine in iodothiophenes (3, 6, 9, and 12) varies between 97 and 113 kJ mol⁻¹, with the maximum of the range larger than commonly used iodine XB donors in crystal engineering studies, e.g., 1-iodoethynyl-4-iodobenzene (107 kJ mol⁻¹), 3,5-difluoro-1-iodobenzene (98 kJ mol⁻¹),¹⁸ but smaller than Dipfb (>137 kJ mol⁻¹). The $V_{s,min}$ of C₅-pyridinic nitrogen in 10–12 is –147 to –148 kJ mol⁻¹, which suggests that their C₂-halogen atoms have little effect on the nitrogen $V_{s,min}$. On the other hand, the C₂-halogen atoms have the largest $V_{s,max}$ (and smallest $V_{s,min}$) values of any halothiophene derivative examined in the present study, implying that resonance effects and/or π -conjugation operate between the C₂-halogen and C₅-pyridine groups. The σ -hole strength of the C₂-halogen atom in the 2-halo, 2,5-dihalo, and 5-(4-pyridyl)-2-halothiophene series is influenced by the C₅-substituent. For instance, the C₅-group in the 2-chlorine series (1, 7, and 10) comprises hydrogen, chlorine, and the pyridyl ring, respectively. The decrease in C₂-chlorine $V_{s,max}$ values in the order 10 > 7 > 1 suggests that the electron-withdrawing propensity of the C₅-substituent decreases from the C₅-pyridyl to C₅-chlorine to hydrogen. The higher $V_{s,max}$ of C₂-chlorine in 10 may be attributed to effective π -delocalization caused by a larger π -surface area between the pyridine and thiophene systems.

Interaction energies (ΔE_{int}) were calculated in the gas phase, using the geometries obtained from single-crystal X-ray diffraction studies as the initial input for the geometry optimization, for the 1:1 halogen-bonded adducts formed by the donor and acceptor ligands (Figures 4a–c, S1–S4 and Table 1). All complexes demonstrate C/N–I...X'/N distances that are less than the sum of the van der Waals radii of the

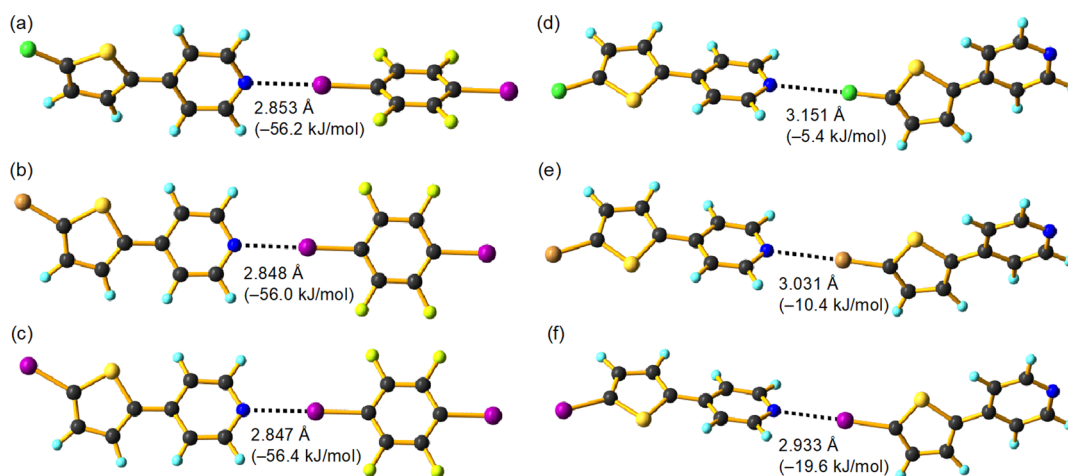


Figure 4. DFT-optimized halogen-bonded complexes of (a) Dipfb-10, (b) Dipfb-11, and (c) Dipfb-12 and homodimers of 10–12, (d) 10₂, (e) 11₂, and (f) 12₂. The black broken lines represent the XB interactions. Atom color code: carbon, black; nitrogen, blue; hydrogen, cyan; sulfur, yellow; fluorine, light green; chlorine, dark green; bromine, brown; purple, iodine.

Table 1. Interaction Energies Calculated at the PBE0-D3/def2-TZVP Level of Theory and ¹H NMR Association Constants (K_a M⁻¹, 293 K) for NIS Complexes in CDCl₃

complex ^a	ΔE_{int} (kJ mol ⁻¹)	complex	K_a , M ⁻¹ (CDCl ₃)	ΔE_{int} (kJ mol ⁻¹)
Dipfb-1	-4.85	NIS-1	^a	-9.67
Dipfb-2	-5.56	NIS-2	^a	-12.3
Dipfb-3	-6.53	NIS-3	^a	-16.69
Dipfb-4	-5.82	NIS-4	^a	-11.59
Dipfb-5	-6.49	NIS-5	^a	-14.35
Dipfb-6	-7.45	NIS-6	^a	-18.7
Dipfb-7	-4.39	NIS-7	^a	-8.95
Dipfb-8	-4.89	NIS-8	^a	-11.46
Dipfb-9	-5.89	NIS-9	^a	-15.77
Dipfb-10	-24.64	NIS-10	3188	-56.15
Dipfb-11	-25.31	NIS-11	6397	-55.94
Dipfb-12	-25.36	NIS-12	1405	-56.4

^a K_a values estimation unsuccessful due to weak binding.

interacting atoms. The overall XB distances in Dipfb and NIS complexes range from 2.847 to 3.820 Å and 2.528 to 3.405 Å, respectively (see Table S2). The optimized C–I...N_{py} distances of Dipfb-10–12 complexes are 0.01–0.137 Å longer than XB contacts reported for cocrystals of iodoperfluorobenzenes and thiophene-bound pyridines,^{16–18} which is to be expected given that crystal packing forces might have an impact on bond distances. Among the Dipfb complexes, the strongest XB interaction is observed for C–I...N_{py} with -25 kJ mol⁻¹. The energies of C–I...X'–C (-4.4 to -7.5 kJ mol⁻¹) are small because the $V_{s,\text{min}}$ potentials of the halogen atoms are only modestly negative. The energies of the C–I...N_{py} XB are smaller than those reported for C–I...N_{py} formed by 1,3-difluoro/nitro-5-(iodoethyl)benzene and 4-(5-(furan-2-yl)thiophen-2-yl)pyridine, and 4-([2,2'-bithiophen]-5-yl)pyridines.¹⁸ We attribute this to the more electrophilic iodine in 1,3-difluoro/nitro-5-(iodoethyl)benzene ($V_{s,\text{max}} > 156$ kJ mol⁻¹) than the iodine atoms in Dipfb ($V_{s,\text{max}}$ 139 kJ mol⁻¹). The higher energies of iodoethyl systems may also be attributed to stronger XB-accepting properties of the N_{py}, whose nucleophilicity is enhanced by the larger π -system, enabling a tight overlap between the N_{py} lone pair and the σ -hole of the halogen.⁴³ The interaction energy of C–I...N_{py} XBs

in 1:2 Dipfb:10–12 trimer complexes was found to be -23.6 kJ mol⁻¹, which is ~ 1 kJ mol⁻¹ smaller than the interaction energy of the C–I...N_{py} XBs in 1:1 Dipfb:10/11/12 dimer complexes (for details, see Figure S5). The ΔE_{int} 's of N–I...X'–C in NIS-complex range from -8.9 to -16.7 kJ mol⁻¹, while those of N–I...N_{py} are flat at -56 kJ mol⁻¹. Note the enhanced XB acceptor properties of the thiophene-bound halogen atoms with NIS iodine ($V_{s,\text{max}}$ 176 kJ mol⁻¹), which are reflected by their higher bond energies, suggesting that halogens are better XB acceptors in the presence of strong XB donors.

The C₅-pyridyl nitrogen and C₂-halogen in thiophenes 10–12 can form 1D chain-like structures via C–X...N_{py} interactions. Not only would computing the bond energies of C–X...N_{py} in homodimers help in the design and development of novel oligomeric and polymeric 4-pyridyl-halothiophene building blocks, but the influence of C₂-halogens on the XB acceptor properties of pyridinic nitrogen could be understood by comparing them to C–X...N_{py} halogen bonds in Dipfb-10–12. From Figure 4, it is evident by comparing 10₂, 11₂, and 12₂ to Dipfb-10–12 that the electronegativity of the passive C₂-halogens, meaning halogens that are not participating in XB, have no influence on the C–X...N_{py} bond distances or energies, but they are only determined by the σ -hole strength of the XB-donating halogen. The C–I...N_{py} distance of 12₂ (2.933 Å) is comparable to values reported for cocrystals, Dipfb-12, 9·(4,4-bipyridine),²¹ and 9·(1,2-bis(2-pyridyl)-ethylene,²¹ but it is about 0.160 Å shorter than, e.g., 9·(phenazine)²¹ and 9·(tetramethylpyrazine).²¹

X-ray Crystallography. Only 9–12 and DIFTB-11 yielded single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction analysis, while attempts to crystallize ligands 1–8 and Dipfb/NIS complexes produced gel-like materials. Crystals of 9 belong to the orthorhombic space group *Pbca* with one molecule per asymmetric unit, which is consistent with a literature complex.⁴⁴ The C₂- and C₅-iodides function as XB donor and acceptor, and molecules of 9 self-associate through I...I interactions at distances of 3.721(5) Å ($\angle\text{C–I...I}' = 174.2^\circ$) and 3.821(5) Å ($\angle\text{C–I...I}' = 157.2^\circ$). These I...I distances have interaction energies of -2.0 and -3.6 kJ mol⁻¹, respectively, which are smaller than those of the I...I energies calculated for Dipfb- and NIS-iodothiophene complexes. In

addition, the thiophene rings are organized in an offset π - π stacking mode with a short contact of 3.95 Å between the centroid of the thiophene ring and the iodine substituent (Figure S6). These additional interactions contribute to the assembly's stability. In all three **10**–**12** structures, the thiophenes form 1D chains via C–X \cdots N_{py} halogen bonds at distances of 3.075(2) Å (\angle C–Cl \cdots N = 168.3°; **10**), 3.007(2) Å (\angle C–Br \cdots N = 169°; **11**), and 2.862(3) Å (\angle C–I \cdots N = 176.4°; **12**) that are less than the sum of the van der Waals radii of the corresponding interacting atoms (Cl + N = 3.30 Å; Br + N = 3.40 Å; I + N = 3.53 Å;⁴⁵ Figure 5). There is no π - π

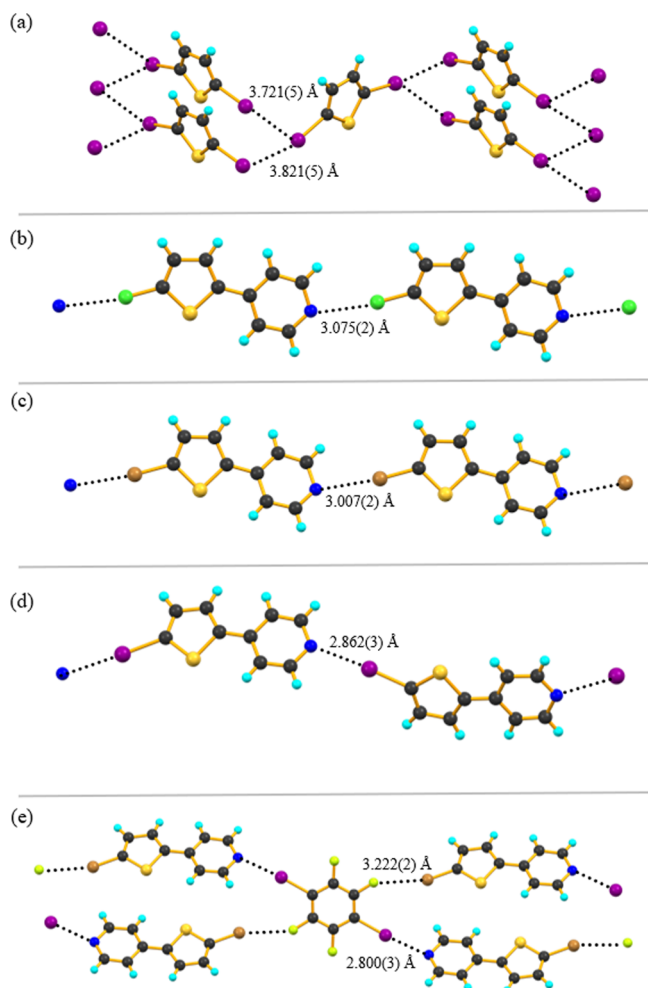


Figure 5. Partial polymeric halogen-bonded chain view of (a) **9**, (b) **10**, (c) **11**, (d) **12**, and (e) Dipfb-**11**. The black dotted lines represent halogen bonding interactions.

stacking in **10**–**12**; instead, these molecules are stabilized via C–H \cdots π interactions (ca. 2.80–2.98 Å) between pyridine and thiophene rings as shown in Figure S7. The cocrystal Dipfb-**11** crystallizes in the triclinic space group *P*-1 (No. 2) and its asymmetric unit contains one molecule of **11** and half a molecule of Dipfb (see Figure S9, for PXRD data). The overall stoichiometry is two XB acceptors per Dipfb. Each Dipfb molecule forms a C–I \cdots N_{py} XB via iodine to a nitrogen on **11**. The bond is characterized by an I \cdots N distance of 2.800(3) Å (\angle C–I \cdots N = 174.6°). Each Dipfb molecule further forms an unexpected XB via one of its fluorine atoms with the bromine of **11** at distances of 3.222(2) Å (\angle C–Br \cdots F = 163.3°). These C–Br \cdots F halogen bonds are probably the result of packing

forces, yet they are essential for stabilizing the crystals. In contrast to **10**–**12**, the presence of Dipfb contributes to the observation of two distinctive π -stacking interactions between two Dipfb molecules at distances of 3.66–3.98 Å and two thiophene molecules at a distance of 3.98 Å. It should be noted that, although XB and π - π stacking plays the most competitive role in the crystal structures, several Dipfb-related secondary interactions, including F \cdots H and F \cdots C (Figure S8), were observed in Dipfb-**11** due to the Dipfb's tendency to generate F- and π -centered contacts.⁴⁶

Packing analysis of **10**–**12** reveals that adjacent 1D chains are interconnected to form a 2D layer via other noncovalent interactions such as C–H \cdots π and C–H \cdots N. We performed Hirshfeld surface (HS) analysis^{47–49} to gain a deeper understanding of the different noncovalent interactions, particularly the non-halogen-based intermolecular interactions, that are present in crystals **10**–**12**. This information is crucial, especially when designing and developing oligomeric and polymeric thiophenes containing halogen and pyridyl groups and identifying which noncovalent interactions are key to stabilizing the molecules and the bulk. The HS analysis is a valuable tool for quantifying intermolecular interactions in crystal molecular packing. The parameters mapped onto the HS are d_e and d_i , which are defined as the distances from the surface to the nearest atom exterior and internal to the created HS. A d_{norm} mapped HS is produced by adding their normalized d_e and d_i values to the respective atoms' van der Waals radii. Red spots appear on a norm surface when the distance between the contact atoms is less than the sum of their van der Waals radii. Contacts that are closer to or near van der Waals radii are white, while longer contacts have a blue contour. Figure 6 depicts an example of the d_{norm} surface of ligand **10**. A d_e and d_i 2D plot using the HS describes quantitatively the nature and type of noncovalent contacts in crystals.

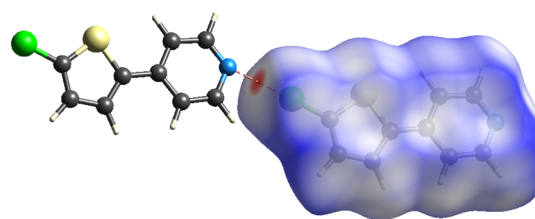


Figure 6. Ball-and-stick model and a Hirshfeld surface of **10** mapped over d_{norm} (on the right side) in the range -0.1372 and $+1.0679$ au displaying C–Cl \cdots N interaction (the red-hot spot). The surface is generated by using the software CrystalExplorer.⁵⁰ Atom color code: carbon, black; nitrogen, blue; hydrogen, white; sulfur, yellow; chlorine, dark green.

The distribution of the average of individual intermolecular interactions in the three ligands is shown by the pie chart in Figure 7. The HS analysis reveals that in the molecular packing, the role of hydrogen-centered intermolecular interactions is prominent. The highest proportion of C \cdots H interactions that are a measure of C–H \cdots π contacts were observed, constituting 24.7% of the surfaces. The analysis shows high contributions of attractive intermolecular H \cdots H contacts (18.1%), which agrees with the volume of H atoms present on the ligand backbone. The overall S \cdots H and N \cdots H interactions each contribute only 10.4 and 7.7% to the surfaces, yet these directional hydrogen bonds act in concert to

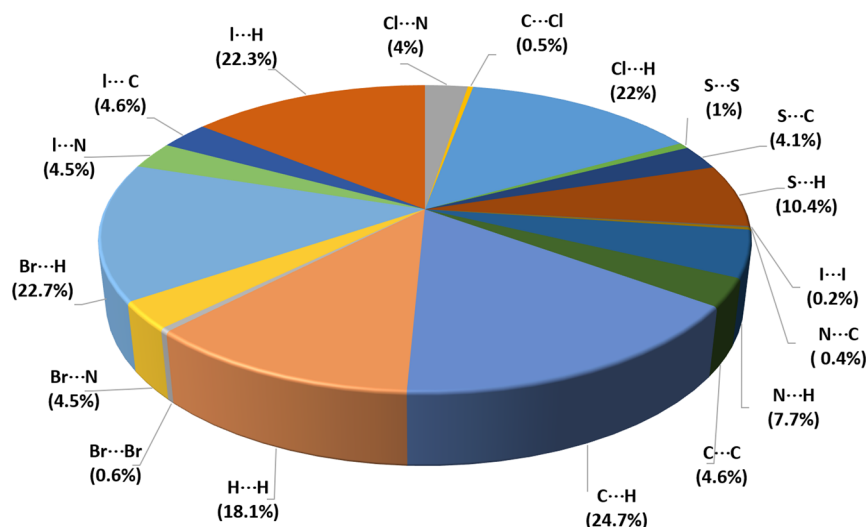


Figure 7. Distribution of the average of the individual intermolecular interactions in 10–12 crystal structures.

minimize the global electrostatic repulsions of molecules in crystals. The electron-deficient sulfur atoms have areas of positive and negative electrostatic potentials that are available for attractive interactions with nucleophiles and electrophiles. It implies that σ -hole bonding can occur between identical molecules via the same atom (e.g., S...S), with the σ -hole on one sulfur interacting with a negative region (e.g., S...I) on the other, as shown in Figure S6. Note that the position and number of sulfur atoms in thiophenes play an important role in molecular π -conjugation, the formation and strength of sulfur intermolecular contacts, and the performance of devices, and this has attracted a lot of attention in engineering thiophene building blocks in the field of organic electronics.^{51,52} In haloaryl compounds 10–12, the negative electron belt orthogonal to the σ -hole of C–X bonds considerably demands X...H (22% in 10, 22.7% in 11, and 22.3% in 12) and I...C (4.6%) interactions as structure-directing motifs, whereas the lowest contributions of Cl/Br...C (<0.6%) and I...I (<0.2%) imply that these are merely an outcome of packing factors. In addition, the C...C contacts (4.6%), a measure of π - π interactions, are observed between thiophene and pyridyl rings. Contributions associated with the XB are Cl...N (4%), Br...N (4.5%), and I...N (4.5%), N...C (2%), and O...N (1%).

Solution NMR. Considering the computed interaction energies as well as the presence of halogen substituents and pyridinic nitrogen atoms in 10–12, we hypothesized that when combined with Dipfb/NIS, C/N–I...X'/N_{Py} (X' = Cl, Br, I), XBs might be detectable in solution. To verify this, ¹H NMR spectroscopy was used to examine a 1:1 equiv mixture of Dipfb and 3 in CDCl₃. Unfortunately, the chemical shifts of Dipfb:3 and pure 3 were identical, indicating no XB. Similar behavior was seen with a 1:1 mixture of NIS and 3, where the protons from NIS –CH₂– showed the same chemical shift as the pure NIS. The test results indicate that the X'/N-acceptor of (Dipfb)C–I...X'/N and (NIS)N–I...X' is too weak to allow significant binding, even in the XB non-competitive solvent CDCl₃. In the cases of (Dipfb)C–I...X' and (NIS)N–I...X', we can also attribute this to the weak electron-donating power of thiophene-bound halogens, and this is reflected by their nearly similar $V_{s,\min}$ values (the maximum difference between $V_{s,\min}$ of the halogen atoms was 3.5 kJ mol^{−1} for 2-halo, 4.7 kJ

mol^{−1} for 3-halo-, 1.5 kJ mol^{−1} for 2,5-dihalo-, and 2.4 kJ mol^{−1} for the 5-halo-2-pyridyl series).

Large chemical shift differences were found for NIS protons in complexes of NIS-10–12 when compared to pure NIS –CH₂– signals, confirming the XB complexation in solution. The NIS methylene chemical shift changes were used to assess the N–I...N_{Py} interactions (Figures S5–S7). K_a values were calculated using the online Bindfit tool.⁵³ The experimental K_a values of NIS-10, NIS-11, and NIS-12 were 3188, 6397, and 1405 M^{−1}, respectively, and they demonstrated a 1:1 fitting binding model. In NIS-10–12, it is clear that the pyridinic nitrogen atoms interacted with the NIS donor because the ¹H NMR test results of NIS-3 did not show any chemical shift changes. The modest electron-donating capacity of C₅-halogens makes the N–I...X'–C halogen–halogen interactions in this presumed 1:1 solution model appear insignificant. Based on solution NMR and DFT data, we hypothesize that the $V_{s,\min}$ of thiophene-bound halogen atoms should be near to the $V_{s,\min}$ of C₅-pyridyl nitrogen, or that the $V_{s,\max}$ of thiophene-bound halogen atoms should be higher than the $V_{s,\max}$ of NIS to obtain K_a values for C/N–I...X'–C XBs using NMR methods.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, halogenothiophenes and pyridylhalothiophenes interact with Dipfb and NIS XB donors, forming C/N–I...X'/N_{Py} (X' = Cl, Br, I) XB interactions. Computational results demonstrate that thiophene-bound halogen atoms are good XB acceptors and donors. In the latter case, the σ -hole potentials are comparable to those of commonly used iodo- and bromoethynyl XB donors. Interaction energies of C/N–I...X' and C/N–I...N_{Py} XBs are in the −4.4 to −18.7 kJ mol^{−1} and −26.3 to −56.0 kJ mol^{−1} range, respectively. X-ray crystallographic analysis of 5-(4-pyridyl)-2-halothiophenes suggests that their 1D polymeric chain assemblies are driven by intermolecular C–X...N halogen bonds and energetically competitive C–H... π noncovalent interactions, whereas in the cocrystal formed between 1,4-diiodotetrafluorobenzene and 5-(4-pyridyl)-2-bromothiophene by XB and π -stacking. This observation suggests that (i) the technique of having XB donor and acceptor atoms on a thiophene structure and XB-mediated self-assembly in their native state, as demonstrated using 10–12, can be applied to prepare oligo- and

polythiophene-based conductive π -conjugative polymers, and (ii) in the cocrystal case, numerous types of noncovalent bonds coexist, with all fluorine atoms of the Dipfb involved, implying that XBs and fluorine can work together and exert a distinct level of control over the supramolecular structure, demonstrating their role as structure-directing components for designing functional materials. HS analysis was applied on halopyridylthiophenes to quantify numerous noncovalent connections that are not immediately apparent from the molecular packing structures. Through this study, a high distribution of H-centered interactions (>70%) represents structure-directing interactions in addition to C–X \cdots N halogen bonds. In solution, the C/N–I \cdots X' XBs are too weak to be measured with ^1H NMR spectroscopy. Yet association constants of N–I \cdots N $_p$ XBs as large as 6697 M^{-1} could be obtained for three complexes. This systematic study provides experimental and theoretical data that can serve as fundamental knowledge while designing thiophene-based materials for applications in organic electronics.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

General Information. All solvents used for synthesis and crystallizations are HPLC grade and used as received. Chloroform- d_6 was purchased from Acros Organics. 2-Chlorothiophene (1), 2-bromothiophene (2), 2-iodothiophene (3), 3-chlorothiophene (4), 3-bromothiophene (5), 3-iodothiophene (6), 2,5-dichlorothiophene (7), 2,5-dibromothiophene (8), 2,5-diiodothiophene (9), and N-iodosuccinimide (NIS) were purchased from TCI Chemicals Europe, and 1,4-diiodotetrafluorobenzene (Dipfb) from Apollo Scientifics. 2-Chloro-5-(4-pyridyl)thiophene (10), 2-bromo-5-(4-pyridyl)thiophene (11), and 2-iodo-5-(4-pyridyl)thiophene (12) were synthesized following the literature procedure. Infrared spectra of 10–12 were recorded using Bruker Tensor 27 FTIR spectrometer, attenuated total reflection (ATR) mode (See Supporting Information Figures S11–S18). Melting points of 10–12 are obtained using Stuart SMP10.

X-ray Crystallography. Single-crystal X-ray data of 9–12 were measured using Rigaku SuperNova dual-source Oxford diffractometer equipped with an Atlas detector employing mirror-monochromated Cu- $K\alpha$ ($\lambda = 1.54184$ Å) radiation, whereas Dipfb-11 was collected using single-source Rigaku SuperNova diffractometer equipped with an Atlas or Eos CCD detector using mirror-monochromated Mo- $K\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). The data collection and reduction are performed by using the *CrysAlisPro*.⁵⁴ The structure is solved with direct methods (*SHELXS*)⁵⁵ and refined by full-matrix least-squares on F^2 using the *OLEX2* software,⁵⁶ which utilizes the *SHELXL-2014* module.⁵⁷ The single-crystal X-ray data, experimental details, and CCDC numbers (2286686–2286690) are given below.

Crystal data of 9: CCDC-2286687, $\text{C}_4\text{H}_2\text{I}_2\text{S}$, $M = 335.92$ g mol $^{-1}$, colorless block, $0.048 \times 0.042 \times 0.036$ mm 3 , orthorhombic, space group *Pbca* (No. 61), $a = 5.2377(3)$ Å, $b = 14.9290(7)$ Å, $c = 18.2311(8)$ Å, $\alpha = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 90^\circ$, $\gamma = 90^\circ$, $V = 1425.56(12)$ Å 3 , $Z = 8$, $D_{\text{calc}} = 3.130$ g cm $^{-3}$, $F(000) = 1184$, $\mu = 71.119$ mm $^{-1}$, $T = 120$ K, $\theta_{\text{max}} = 76.57^\circ$, 4723 total reflections, 1324 with $I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$, $R_{\text{int}} = 0.0366$, 1483 data, 64 parameters, 0 restraints, GooF = 1.066, $R_1 = 0.0266$ and $wR_2 = 0.0630$ [$I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$], $R_1 = 0.0315$ and $wR_2 = 0.0653$ (all reflections), $0.764 < d\Delta\rho < -0.937$ eÅ $^{-3}$.

Crystal data of 10: CCDC-2286686, $\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{ClNS}$, $M = 195.66$ g mol $^{-1}$, colorless block, $0.157 \times 0.127 \times 0.055$ mm 3 , monoclinic, space group *P2 $_1$ /c* (No. 14), $a = 9.7481(2)$ Å, $b = 14.3783(3)$ Å, $c = 5.86700(10)$ Å, $\alpha = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 91.712(2)^\circ$, $\gamma = 90^\circ$, $V = 821.96(3)$ Å 3 , $Z = 4$, $D_{\text{calc}} = 1.581$ g cm $^{-3}$, $F(000) = 400$, $\mu = 5.935$ mm $^{-1}$, $T = 120$ K, $\theta_{\text{max}} = 76.917^\circ$, 5334 total reflections, 1594 with $I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$, $R_{\text{int}} = 0.0260$, 1729 data, 109 parameters, 0 restraints, GooF = 1.051, $R_1 = 0.0269$ and $wR_2 = 0.0300$ [$I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$], $R_1 = 0.0679$ and $wR_2 = 0.0716$ (all reflections), $0.346 < d\Delta\rho < -0.326$ eÅ $^{-3}$.

Crystal data of 11: CCDC-2286689, $\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{BrNS}$, $M = 240.12$ g mol $^{-1}$, colorless plate, $0.197 \times 0.114 \times 0.043$ mm 3 , monoclinic, space group *P2 $_1$ /c* (No. 14), $a = 9.8689(2)$ Å, $b = 14.4105(3)$ Å, $c = 5.97100(10)$ Å, $\alpha = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 91.990(2)^\circ$, $\gamma = 90^\circ$, $V = 848.66(3)$ Å 3 , $Z = 4$, $D_{\text{calc}} = 1.879$ g cm $^{-3}$, $F(000) = 472$, $\mu = 8.369$ mm $^{-1}$, $T = 120$ K, $\theta_{\text{max}} = 76.706^\circ$, 5254 total reflections, 1649 with $I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$, $R_{\text{int}} = 0.0205$, 1757 data, 109 parameters, 0 restraints, GooF = 1.064, $R_1 = 0.0200$ and $wR_2 = 0.0510$ [$I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$], $R_1 = 0.0220$ and $wR_2 = 0.0525$ (all reflections), $0.315 < d\Delta\rho < -0.444$ eÅ $^{-3}$.

Crystal data of 12: CCDC-2286690, $\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{INS}$, $M = 287.11$ g mol $^{-1}$, colorless block, $0.162 \times 0.141 \times 0.069$ mm 3 , monoclinic, space group *P2 $_1$ /c* (No. 14), $a = 11.0797(5)$ Å, $b = 5.5556(2)$ Å, $c = 15.6908(7)$ Å, $\alpha = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 109.218(5)^\circ$, $\gamma = 90^\circ$, $V = 912.01(7)$ Å 3 , $Z = 4$, $D_{\text{calc}} = 2.091$ g cm $^{-3}$, $F(000) = 544$, $\mu = 29.235$ mm $^{-1}$, $T = 120$ K, $\theta_{\text{max}} = 76.664^\circ$, 5598 total reflections, 1698 with $I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$, $R_{\text{int}} = 0.0348$, 1861 data, 109 parameters, 0 restraints, GooF = 1.058, $R_1 = 0.0319$ and $wR_2 = 0.0838$ [$I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$], $R_1 = 0.0351$ and $wR_2 = 0.0883$ (all reflections), $1.500 < d\Delta\rho < -1.071$ eÅ $^{-3}$.

Crystal data of DIPFB-11: CCDC-2286688, $\text{C}_{24}\text{H}_{12}\text{Br}_2\text{F}_4\text{I}_2\text{N}_2\text{S}_2$, $M = 882.10$ g mol $^{-1}$, colorless block, $0.191 \times 0.093 \times 0.053$ mm 3 , triclinic, space group *P-1* (No. 2), $a = 3.9836(2)$ Å, $b = 12.3590(4)$ Å, $c = 13.3035(6)$ Å, $\alpha = 94.712(3)^\circ$, $\beta = 90.150(3)^\circ$, $\gamma = 95.438(3)^\circ$, $V = 649.79(5)$ Å 3 , $Z = 8$, $D_{\text{calc}} = 2.254$ g cm $^{-3}$, $F(000) = 414$, $\mu = 5.702$ mm $^{-1}$, $T = 120$ K, $\theta_{\text{max}} = 29.676^\circ$, 4896 total reflections, 2856 with $I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$, $R_{\text{int}} = 0.0237$, 3134 data, 163 parameters, 0 restraints, GooF = 1.093, $R_1 = 0.0290$ and $wR_2 = 0.0572$ [$I_o > 2\sigma(I_o)$], $R_1 = 0.0344$ and $wR_2 = 0.0626$ (all reflections), $0.893 < d\Delta\rho < -0.788$ eÅ $^{-3}$.

Synthesis of 5-Halo-2-(4-pyridyl)thiophenes. 5-Chloro-2-(4-pyridyl)thiophene (10): This compound was synthesized as described previously.⁵⁸ Mp: 119–121 °C; ^1H NMR [500 MHz, CDCl_3]: $\delta = 8.58$ (d, $J = 4.8$ Hz), 7.37 (d, $J = 6.2$ Hz), 7.28 (d, $J = 4.0$ Hz), 6.94 (d, $J = 4.0$ Hz); ^{13}C NMR [125 MHz, CDCl_3]: $\delta = 150.28$, 140.92, 139.48, 132.30, 127.75, 124.96, 119.51; MS calcd for $\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{ClNS}$ 194.99822, found 196.00120; ATR-FTIR $\nu_{\text{max}} = 3073$, 3032, 2981, 1932, 1774, 1588, 1549, 1483, 1432, 1412, 1314, 1257, 1218, 1064, 1015, 988, 962, 889, 859, 802, 730, 710, 694, 663, 642, 611 cm $^{-1}$.

5-Bromo-2-(4-pyridyl)thiophene (11): This compound was synthesized following the literature procedure.⁵⁹ Mp: 156–158 °C; ^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3): $\delta = 8.59$ (s), 7.38 (d, $J = 5.6$ Hz), 7.26–7.23 (m), 7.08 (d, $J = 3.8$ Hz); ^{13}C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl_3): $\delta = 159.29$, 142.43, 140.84, 131.46, 125.84, 119.66, 119.61, 114.73; MS calcd for $\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{BrNS}$ 239.94771, found 239.94794; ATR-FTIR $\nu_{\text{max}} = 3075$, 3031, 2982, 1933, 1774, 1589, 1548, 1484, 1425, 1412, 1312, 1220, 1070, 1061, 993, 983, 952, 889, 860, 799, 730, 693, 663, 630 cm $^{-1}$.

5-Iodo-2-(4-pyridyl)thiophene (12): This compound was synthesized using literature method.⁵⁸ Mp: 210–212 °C; ^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3): $\delta = 8.58$ (d, $J = 5.4$ Hz), 7.39 (dd, $J = 4.6$, 1.6 Hz), 7.27 (d, $J = 3.9$ Hz), 7.16 (d, $J = 3.8$ Hz); ^{13}C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl_3): $\delta = 150.34$, 146.96, 140.63, 138.43, 126.91, 119.73; MS calcd for $\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{INS}$ 287.93384, found 287.93452; ATR-FTIR $\nu_{\text{max}} = 3091$, 3024, 2921, 1940, 1762, 1640, 1588, 1546, 1527, 1484, 1415, 1309, 1219, 1091, 1056, 995, 972, 956, 932, 863, 818, 789, 727, 696, 660, 627 cm $^{-1}$.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.cgd.3c00958>.

DFT computational, NMR, and X-ray crystallographic data (PDF)

Accession Codes

CCDC 2286686–2286690 contain the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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