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Double Role of the Hydroxy Group of phosphoryl in Palladium(II)-catalyzed *ortho*-Olefination: A Combined Experimental and Theoretical Investigation

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Abstract: Density functional theory (DFT) calculations have been carried out on Pd-catalyzed phosphoryl-directed *ortho*-olefination to probe the origin of the significant reactivity difference between methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonates and dimethyl benzylphosphonates. The overall catalytic cycle is found to include four basic steps: C–H bond activation, transmetalation, reductive elimination

and recycling of catalyst, each of which is constituted from different steps. Our calculations reveal that the hydroxy group of phosphoryl plays a crucial role almost in all steps, which can not only stabilize the intermediates and transition states by intramolecular hydrogen bonds, but also act as a proton donor so that the η^1 -CH₃COO⁻ ligand could be protonated to form a neutral acetic acid for easy removal. These findings explain why only the methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonates and methyl hydrogen phenylphosphates were found to be suitable reaction partners. Our mechanistic findings are further supported by theoretical prediction of Pd-catalyzed ortho-olefination using methyl hydrogen phenylphosphonate which is verified by experimental observations that the desired product was formed in a moderate yield.

1. INTRODUCTION

The transition-metal-catalyzed cross-coupling reactions such as Heck,¹ Negishi² and Suzuki–Miyaura³ reactions are very useful protocols for the creation of C–C and C–heteroatom bonds. These methods have been extensively studied and some of them have proven to be exploited in the fine chemical industrials, agrochemical and pharmaceutical.⁴ However, two disadvantages for these types of transformations are poor atom economy and non-green halogen by-products.⁵ Since 2000, transition-metal-catalyzed C–H bond activation reactions have attracted increasing attention owing to the high efficiency and atom economy for C–C bond and C–heteroatom bond formation.⁶ Gratifyingly, several distinct C–H functionalization strategies have been successfully applied in natural products synthesis.⁷ To gain more insight into these important reaction mechanisms, a number of experimental⁸ and theoretical⁹ studies were carried out. The common acceptable mechanism involves four basic steps: C–H activation, transmetalation, reductive elimination and recycling of catalyst (Scheme 1).

Recently, the directing groups such as carboxyl¹⁰ and hydroxyl¹¹ have been widely utilized for

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transition-metal-catalyzed *ortho* C–H activation reactions, providing a potentially useful procedure for the construction of structurally sophisticated compounds. For instance, Kim and co-workers reported a phosphoryl- directed Pd-catalyzed *ortho*-olefination (Scheme 2).¹² It is very interesting to note that methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonates (**1a**) and methyl hydrogen phenylphosphates (**1b**) were found to be suitable reaction partners, whereas dimethyl benzylphosphonates (**2a**) and dimethyl phenylphosphates (**2b**) as the substrates did not give *ortho*-olefination products under the same reaction conditions.¹² Although a plausible reaction mechanism was proposed by the authors,^{12b} however, many questions remain elusive, for instance, (i) How does each of the catalytic steps take place? (ii) What is the barrier for each step? (iii) Why are methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonates and methyl hydrogen phenylphosphates more reactive than dimethyl benzylphosphonates and dimethyl phenylphosphates? (iv) Why does AgOAc improve the reaction significantly? Herein, our ongoing interest in organophosphorus chemistry¹³ has led us to investigate the detailed reaction mechanisms on the different reactivities of the substrates summarized by Scheme 2.

Scheme 1. Common Acceptable Mechanism of Transition-metal-catalyzed C-H Bond Activation Reactions



Scheme 2. Phosphory-related Directed Pd-catalyzed ortho-Olefination.



2. COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

In the density functional theory (DFT) calculations, geometry optimizations and frequency calculations were performed via the Gaussian 03 programs.^{14a} DFT method B3PW91¹⁵ which has been chosen in recent mechanistic studies on Pd-catalysed reactions,¹⁶ with a mixed basis set employing 6-31+G(d)¹⁷ for C, H, O and LANL2DZ¹⁸ for P, Pd, Ag were used. Polarization functions were added for P (ξ_d = 0.387), Pd (ξ_f = 1.472) and Ag (ξ_f = 1.611) to the standard LANL2DZ basis set.¹⁹ Transition states were examined by vibrational analysis and then submitted to intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) calculations to determine two corresponding minima. Energies in solution (1,4-dioxane) have been calculated by means of single point calculations (IEF-PCM method with the Bondi radii)²⁰ via the Gaussian 09 program^{14b} with the B3PW91 method using SDD²¹ pseudo-potential for the metal center and the extended 6-311++G(2d,p)²² basis set for the other atoms. The gas-phase geometry was used for all of the solution phase calculations. A similar treatment was also used in many recent computational studies.²³ The free energy correction from frequency calculation was added to the single-point energy to obtain the free energy in solution. All the solution-phase free energies reported herein correspond to the reference state of 1 mol/L, 298 K.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 C-H bond activation

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The model substrate methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonate (1a), dimethyl benzylphosphonate (2a), styrene, catalyst Pd(OAc)₂ and oxdant AgOAc were chosen. Relative free energies in solution (1,4-dioxane) are employed to analyze the reaction mechanism. Figure 1 depicts the C-H bond activation step for Pd(II)-catalyzed ortho-olefination of methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonates (Figure 1a) and dimethyl benzylphosphonates (Figure 1b), respectively. In 2007, Yu and co-workers reported the first carbonyl directed Pd-catalyzed ortho-C-H bond activation/C-C coupling reactions and mechanistic rationalization of unusual kinetics in Pd-catalyzed C-H olefination.^{24h,i} Based on their findings and previous proposed mechanisms,²⁴ the reaction may start when **1a** combines with the Pd(OAc)₂ catalyst, concomitant with $\eta^2 \rightarrow \eta^1$ hapticity change in the CH₃COO⁻ ligand. Three transition states were identified for this transformation (Figure 2), because 1a has different P-bonded oxygen atoms, which can use their lone pairs to coordinate to the Pd center respectively. Our calculations show that the most favorable process occurs when the oxygen atom of P=O attacks Pd center (TS1A). The free energy of TS1A is lower than those of TS1C and TS1D by 5.0 kcal/mol and 6.9 kcal/mol, respectively. In addition, natural bond orbital (NBO)²⁶ analysis shows that negative charges of three oxygens in 1a are -1.13 (P=O), -1.06 (P-O-H) and -0.88 (P-O-Me), respectively, indicating the oxygen of P=O is more nucleophilic. Thus, TS1A was selected for the further study.

Initially, model substrate methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonate (Figure 1a) binds to the Pd(OAc)₂ catalyst to produce a complex **IN1A** by a hydrogen bond O6–H···O1 with a positive energy of 8.1 kcal/mol. Our calculations show that this complexation is a endergonic process and the major contribution to the free energy comes from the entropy changes.²⁷ From **IN1A**, a pentacoordinated Pd(II) transition state **TS1A** is located with a distorted tetragonal pyramid structure. Then a four-coordinated Pd(II) complex **IN2A** (0.7 kcal/mol) is formed, where the O5 uses its lone pair to

coordinate to the Pd center. The overall barrier from **IN0** to **TS1A** is 16.2 kcal/mol. Based on the complex-induced proximity effect proposed by Beak and Snieckus²⁸ and the first C–H insertion intermediate from simple carboxylic acids isolated by Yu^{8h}, the substrate C7–C8 bond subsequently coordinates to the Pd center to form **IN3A** via the **TS2A** transition state (activation barrier is 15.0 kcal/mol).

In a similar way, model substrate dimethyl benzylphosphonate (Figure 1b) forms a complex IN1B with the Pd(OAc)₂. After several step, a four-coordinated Pd(II) complex IN3B with two η^1 -CH₃COO⁻ ligands is generated with a higher free energy of 24.3 kcal/mol than **IN0**. It is important to note that the hydroxy group of phosphoryl can assist the first two steps. When dimethyl benzylphosphonate was chosen as model substrate, the free energy of cooresponding transition states (TS1B and TS2B) are 8.0 kcal/mol and 14.3 kcal/mol higher than those of TS1A and TS2A, respectively, which can be mainly attributed to the activation of the Pd-O1 bond and stabilizing the corresponding transition states by an intramolecular hydrogen bond O6-H···O1. For instance, the Pd-O1 bond length (2.064 Å) in IN1A is longer than that (2.053 Å) in IN1B. Furthermore, the Pd–C8 bond length (2.622 Å) in TS2B is much shorter than that (2.741 Å) in TS2A, indicating IN2B requires more energies to reach TS2B. The corresponding intermediate IN3A is more stable than IN3B by 15 kcal/mol. Interestingly, IN3A (9.3 kcal/mol) formed through TS2A is feathered by not only an η^2 -complex, but also a spontaneous hydrogen transfer from O6 to O1, forming an intramolecular hydrogen bond O6…H–O1, which could subsequently generate a more stable intermediate IN4A (6.6 kcal/mol relative to IN0) via the removal of the neutral acetic acid.

The final step in C–H activation process of **1a** is accomplished by forming a new intermediate **IN5A** (-0.1 kcal/mol relative to **IN0**) *via* the **TS4A** structure. In **TS4A**, the bond lengths of Pd–C8,

C8–H and H–O5 are 2.121, 1.345 and 1.368Å. In contrast to the process of **2a**, intermediate **IN3B** proceeds through a intramolecular six-membered transition state **TS3B**, which involves the cleavage of the C8–H bond and the η^1 -CH₃COO⁻-mediated hydrogen transfer, forming a new intermediate **IN4B** (19.7 kcal/mol relative to **IN0**). After the removal of the neutral acetic acid, a more stable intermediate **IN5B** is generated.

Comparing the possible C–H bond activation pathways of the two substrates **1a** and **2a**, one can realize that the hydroxy group of phosphoryl plays a key role in the first C–H activation step. It not only stabilizes the intermediates and transition states by an intramolecular hydrogen bonds, but also acts as a proton donor so that the η^1 -CH₃COO⁻ ligand could be protonated to form a neutral acetic acid for easy removal. Thus, the free energies of the intermediates and transition states of **1a** (Figure 1a) are much lower than those of **2a** (Figure 1b). As a consequence, activation of the C–H bond in **1a** is more favorable than that in **2a** both kinetically and thermodynamically.



Figure 1. Free energy profile for the C–H activation step for Pd(II)-catalyzed *ortho*-olefination of methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonates (a) and dimethyl benzylphosphonates (b) (R = Me). The energies are given in kcal/mol.



Figure 2. The structures and relative free energies of three transition states with different oxygen atoms binding to the Pd center.²⁵ For clarity, the hydrogens of C–H are not shown. Bond lengths are given in Å and energies in kcal/mol.

3.2 Transmetalation and reductive elimination

The transmetalation and reductive elimination steps (Figures 3 and 4) start with the dissociation of the η^2 -CH₃COO⁻ ligand to create a vacant coordination site on Pd(II) and allow for the coordination of the C-C double bond of styrene. IN5A can form two different η^2 -coordinated intermediates with styrene depending on the orientation of the phenyl ring relative to the CH₃COOH ligand (Figure 3, A-IN6A and **B-IN6A**). Gratifyingly, the hydroxy of phosphoryl also plays a crucial role in $\eta^2 \rightarrow \eta^1$ hapticity change in the CH₃COO⁻ ligand and stabilizing intermediates and transition states. For example, from **IN5A**, the η^2 -CH₃COO⁻ ligand dissociation and C-C double bond coordination give η^2 -Pd(II) intermediate A-IN6A that is exothermic by -1.8 kcal/mol, concomitant with a hydrogen transfer $(O6-H\rightarrow O3-H)$, forming an intramolecular hydrogen bond $O6\cdots H-O3$. The energetically favorable intermediate A-IN6A proceeds via a three-membered transition state A-TS5A (activation barrier is 17.9 kcal/mol), leading to a complex A-IN7A. From A-IN7A, two possible reaction routes could be located: (i) Direct hydrogen transfer from C9 to O6 through transition state A-TS6A with an activation barrier of 8.6 kcal/mol. (ii) Hydrogen transfer from C9 to O3 through two transition states A-TS7A (activation barrier of 9.0 kcal/mol for β -H elimination) and A-TS8A (activation barrier 3.3 kcal/mol), respectively. Our calculations suggested that these two pathways may occur due to the similar activation barrier, leading to an intermediate IN9A (-8.5 kcal/mol relative to IN0). Although path A is energetically accessible under the experimental conditions $(383 \text{ K})^{29}$ it is necessary to examine path B (Figure 3) from unfavorable intermediate B-IN6A, because a more stable starting material

(intermediate) may not lead to a more favorable transition state (Curtin-Hammett Principle).³⁰ From **B-IN6A**, an η^1 -CH₃COO⁻ transition state **B-TS5A** can be identified with an activation barrier of 19.0 kcal/mol, subsequently forming an unstable intermediate **B-IN7A** (16.9 kcal/mol relative to **IN0**). Next, the reductive elimination takes place by 11.9 kcal/mol, leading to the formation of **IN9A**. Comparing the two possible pathways, we found that the path B is unfaorable because it is too energy-demanding.

For comparison of two model substrates, a similar pathway of dimethyl benzylphosphonate was also located (Figure 4, Path C). The free energy of transiton state **C-TS5B** is computed to be 30.0 kcal/mol, which is 14.0 kcal/mol higher than that of **A-TS5A**. Then the C8–C9 bond formation gives the intermediate **C-IN7B**. Sequentially, the hydrogen was transfered from the C9 atom to the O1 atom *via* a six-membered transition state **C-TS6B**, leading to the formation of a more stable intermediate **IN9B**. In addition, similar processes may take place from **C-IN7B** through two transition states **C-TS7B** (23.5 kcal/mol) and **C-TS8B** (12.6 kcal/mol), respectively.

In the transmetalation and reductive elimination steps, the activation barrier (17.6 kcal/mol) for the rate-determing step of methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonate is much lower than that (28.2 kcal/mol) of dimethyl benzylphosphonate. Moreover, the process of the **IN5A** \rightarrow **IN9A** is more exothermic than that of **IN5B** \rightarrow **IN9B**. The methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonate is again favorable for this transformation, in line with the experimental observations that dimethyl benzylphosphonate was unreactive for the *ortho*-olefination reaction.



Figure 3. Free energy profile for the transmetalation and reductive elimination steps using methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonate (1a) as model substrate. The free energies are given in kcal/mol.



Figure 4. Free energy profile for the transmetalation and reductive elimination steps using dimethyl

benzylphosphonate (2a) as model substrate. The free energies are given in kcal/mol.

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3.3 Recycling of catalyst

Note that when methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonate was treated with ethyl acrylate (2 equiv) using $Pd(OAc)_2$ (10 mol %) and Ag(I) salts, the reaction was improved significantly.¹² The yields of the *ortho*-olefination product were changed with the oxidants as follows: AgOAc (2 equiv), 71%; Ag₂CO₃ (2 equiv), 32%; Ag₂O (2 equiv), 57% and AgOAc (3 equiv), 95%. In order to investigate the role of AgOAc in the reaction, we turn our attention to the recycling of Pd(OAc)₂ catalyst step. As shown in Figure 5, it starts with a more stable intermediate **IN10A** (-22.6 kcal/mol) *via* a removal of one CH₃COOH molecule from **IN9A** followed by a coordination with AgOAc. As experimental study³¹ showed that the Ag–Ag bond is relatively strong (bond dissociation energy is 38.3 kcal/mol), the formation of Ag₂ might be facile in the oxidation process. Indeed, when AgOAc was further added, a relatively more stable intermediate **IN11** (-30.7 kcal/mol) was formed. Then the recycling of the catalyst Pd(OAc)₂ was achieved by a transition state **TS9**. The barrier from **IN11** to **TS9** is +29.7 kcal/mol, in line with the experimental observation that this *ortho*-olefination reaction was carried out at 110 °C.²⁹ Finally, separation of Ag₂ leads to regenerate the catalyst Pd(OAc)₂ and Ag₂ could build up as the reaction proceeds,³² facilitating a forward shift in chemical equilibrium.



Figure 5. Free energy profile for the recycling of catalyst step (R = Me). The free energies are given in kcal/mol.

3.4 Theoretical prediction and experimental realization

Pd-catalyzed C–H bond activation reactions involving a variety of substrates have been studied by various groups and cyclopalladated compounds were proposed for the transformations.²⁴ It is worth noting that in our mechanistic study all cyclopalladated complexes have a six-membered ring. Interestingly, several stable five-membered cyclopalladated complexes were prepared in the previous studies.^{33,8h} Can the five-membered cyclopalladated complexes be the intermediates or transition states in Pd-catalyzed *ortho*-olefination? To test this hypothesis, we first investigate the reaction mechanism with methyl hydrogen phenylphosphonate (**3**) as the substrate theoretically. As shown in Figure 6, the computed reaction barrier is comparable to that with **1a** as the substrate. Thus the substrate **3** is predicated to be reactive in in Pd-catalyzed *ortho*-olefination.



Figure 6. Free energy profile for the Pd-catalyzed *ortho*-olefination using methyl hydrogen phenylphosphonate (**3**). The energies are given in kcal/mol.

To verify this predication, we treated methyl hydrogen phenylphosphonate (**3**) (0.2 mmol) and ethyl acrylate (0.4 mmol) with a mixture of $Pd(OAc)_2$ (0.02 mmol) and AgOAc (0.6 mmol), in 1,4-dioxane at 110 °C for 24 h (Scheme 3). ³¹P NMR and ESI-MS analyses of the crude product showed that the *ortho*-olefination product **4** was obtained, along with the 30% unchanged reactant. For facile purifications, the crude product was methylated by TMS-diazomethane, leading to the methylated product **5** in 66% isolated yield. Not surprisingly, dimethyl phenylphosphonate did not participate in the reaction since no coupled product could be detected in the crude reaction mixture.

Scheme 3. Pd-catalyzed ortho-Olefination using Methyl Hydrogen Phenylphosphonate



4. CONCLUSION

In summary, we have investigated the complete catalytic cycles of palladium(II)-catalyzed phosphory-directed *ortho*-olefination by DFT calculations. Our calculation results reveal that the hydroxy group of phosphoryl plays a crucial role almost in all steps, which can not only stabilize the intermediates and transition states by an intramolecular hydrogen bond, but also act as a hydrogen donor so that the η^1 -CH₃COO⁻ ligand could be protonated to form a neutral acetic acid for easy removal. These findings explain why only the methyl hydrogen benzylphosphonates and methyl hydrogen phenylphosphates were found to be suitable reaction partners. Our mechanistic studies are further supported by theoretical prediction of Pd-catalyzed ortho-olefination using methyl hydrogen phenylphosphonate (**3**) which is verified by experimental observations that the desired product was formed in a moderate yield. These findings provide a useful guide to the design of more efficient directing groups on Pd-catalyzed *ortho*-olefination.

5. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

General Information. ³¹P, ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were measured on 500M or 400M spectrometers. ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR were recorded using tetramethylsilane (TMS) in the solvent of CDCl₃ as the internal standard (¹H NMR: TMS at 0.00 ppm, CHCl₃ at 7.26 ppm; ¹³C NMR: CDCl₃ at 77.0 ppm) and 85% H₃PO₄ as external standard for ³¹P NMR. All coupling constants (J values) were reported in Hertz (Hz). HRMS spectra were recorded on a FT-MS apparatus.

Methyl hydrogen phenylphosphonate (3). Anhydrous methanol (0.20 mL, 5.0 mmol, 1.0 equiv) was added slowly to an ice cooled solution of $PhP(O)Cl_2$ (970 mg, 5.0 mmol, 1.0 equiv) in diethyl ether (5.0 mL), followed by the subsequent addition of pyridine (0.40 mL, 5.0 mmol, 1.0 equiv). The white precipitate of pyridine HCl was filtered off and the filtrate concentrated *in vacuo*. The crude

intermediate (PhP(O)(OMe)Cl), 1N NaOH (0.50 mL) was stirred in CH₂Cl₂:H₂O (1:2 v/v, 10 mL) under ambient temperature overnight. The reaction was then extensively extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (10 mL \times 5) and the combined organic extract was concentrated *in vacuo*. The crude residue was purified by flash chromatography (CH₂Cl₂/acetone = 1:2) via a short silica plug to afford the desired product **3**³⁴ in 90% yield (774 mg). ¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 7.77-7.87 (m, 2H), 7.51-7.58 (m, 1H), 7.39-7.47 (m, 2H), 3.71 (d, 3H, J = 11.4 Hz); ¹³C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 132.3 (d, J = 3.1 Hz), 131.4 (d, J = 10 Hz), 128.4 (d, J = 15.3 Hz), 128.2 (d, J = 192.7 Hz) and 52.4 (d, J = 5.6 Hz); ³¹P {H} NMR (203 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 20.9. ESI-MS: [M+H]⁺ *m/z* calcd for C₇H₁₀O₃P⁺: 173.0, found: 173.0.

(*E*)-ethyl 3-(2-(dimethoxyphosphoryl)phenyl)acrylate (5). Methyl hydrogen phenylphosphonate 3 (35 mg, 0.2 mmol, 1.0 equiv), Pd(OAc)₂ (4.5 mg, 10 mol %), AgOAc (100 mg, 0.6 mmol, 3.0 equiv), ethyl acrylate (40 mg, 0.4 mmol, 2.0 equiv) and dry dioxane (2.0 mL) were mixed in a sealed vial. The reaction mixture was stirred at 110 °C for 24 h. The mixture was then cooled to 0 °C and 2.0 N HCl solution (1.0 mL) was added. The mixture was extracted with EtOAc (2×10 mL). The organic phase was washed with brine, dried over anhydrous MgSO₄, and concentrated *in vacuo* to yield the crude product, which was diluted with methanol (5.0 mL) and treated with TMS-CHN₂ (0.50 mL, 2M in hexane) at room temperature for 0.5 h. The mixture was evaporated under reduced pressure and purified by silica gel flash column chromatography (hexane/ethyl acetate = 2:1) to afford product 5 in 66% yiled (38 mg). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 8.35-8.25 (d, 1H, J = 15.8 Hz), 8.06-7.99 (m, 1H), 7.84-7.77 (m, 1H), 7.60-7.49 (m, 2H), 6.41-6.34 (d, 1H, J = 15.8), 4.32-4.24 (q, 2H, J = 7.2 Hz), 3.77-3.81 (d, 6H, J = 11.2 Hz), 1.36-1.32 (t, 3H, J = 7.2 Hz); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 166.4, 142.5 (d, J = 4.7 Hz), 138.0, 134.6 (d, J = 9.4 Hz), 132.9 (d, J = 2.6 Hz), 131.9 (d, J = 9.6 Hz), 129.2 (d, J = 14.7 Hz), 126.7 (d, J = 186.1 Hz), 121.5, 60.6, 52.6 (d, J = 6.0 Hz), 14.3; ³¹P {H} NMR (162 MHz,

CDCl₃) δ : 20.5. HRMS: [M+H]⁺ m/z calcd for C₁₃H₁₈O₅P⁺: 285.08864, found: 285.08815.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Copies of ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra for compounds **3**, **5** and the cartesian coordinates for all the species. This material is available free of charge *via* the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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