

Toward an Improved Understanding of the Unusual Reactivity of Pd⁰/Trialkylphosphane Catalysts in Cross-Couplings of Alkyl Electrophiles: Quantifying the Factors That Determine the Rate of Oxidative Addition**

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Palladium- and nickel-catalyzed cross-couplings are widely used tools in synthetic chemistry.^[1] No doubt, such processes would be even more broadly employed if they were not largely restricted to reactions of *aryl* and *vinyl* halides and sulfonates. Recognizing the significance of this limitation, several groups have recently turned their attention to the development of methods for cross-coupling *alkyl* halides and sulfonates.^[2–7] Among the palladium catalysts that have been described to date, the majority are based on sterically demanding trialkylphosphanes (PCy₃ or P(*t*Bu)₂Me).^[8]

The catalytic cycle for most cross-coupling reactions presumably includes a sequence of oxidative addition, transmetalation, and reductive elimination (Figure 1). With regard to the challenge of coupling alkyl electrophiles, the difficulty

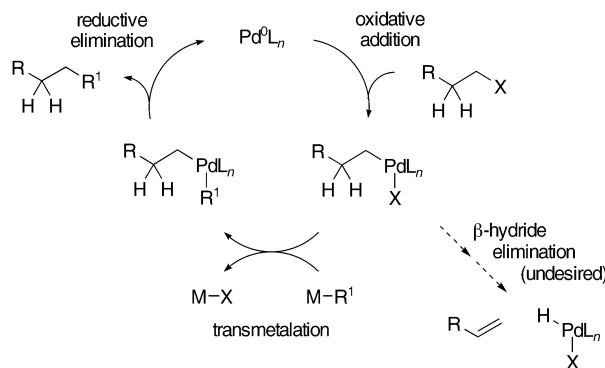


Figure 1. Generalized mechanism for a palladium-catalyzed cross-coupling reaction.

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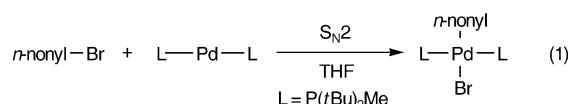


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has generally been attributed to relatively slow oxidative addition and to facile β -hydride elimination (Figure 1). To complement our methods-development studies of Pd/trialkylphosphane catalysts for coupling alkyl electrophiles, we have recently initiated mechanistic work on these systems. As part of this new program, in this communication we describe a wide-ranging investigation of the initial step of the catalytic cycle, oxidative addition of an alkyl electrophile to a Pd/trialkylphosphane complex.

In an earlier study, we discovered that PdL_2 ($\text{L} = \text{PCy}_3$ or $\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me}$) can react with an alkyl electrophile ($\text{R}-\text{X}$) to generate an oxidative-addition adduct that, in the absence of a cross-coupling partner, can be isolated and even crystallographically characterized.^[9] The relative stability of PdL_2RX toward β -hydride elimination was a pleasant surprise for us. Recognizing that there are no systematic, quantitative investigations of oxidative addition of alkyl electrophiles to palladium(o),^[10] we decided to remedy this deficiency.

Through kinetics studies, we have determined that, for the oxidative addition of *n*-nonyl bromide to $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$ [Eq. (1)],^[11] the activation parameters are: $\Delta G^\ddagger = 20.8 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ at 20°C ; $\Delta H^\ddagger = 2.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$; $\Delta S^\ddagger = -63 \text{ eu}$. The large



negative ΔS^\ddagger is consistent with the associative $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ -type pathway suggested by our earlier stereochemical investigations.^[12]

The addition of $\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me}$ (e.g., 2 or 4 equiv) to the reaction illustrated in Equation (1) does not affect the rate, suggesting that the alkyl bromide oxidatively adds to PdL_2 , not PdL or PdL_3 .^[13] In contrast, in the case of cross-couplings of aryl bromides that are catalyzed by $\text{Pd}/\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_3$, the available data indicate that a palladium-monophosphane adduct undergoes oxidative addition.^[14]

We have examined the relationship between solvent polarity and the rate of oxidative addition. As illustrated in Table 1, we have determined that an increase in polarity^[15] leads to a decrease in the activation energy, consistent with the expectation for an $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ -type nucleophilic attack of PdL_2 on $\text{R}-\text{X}$.^[16]

We have also investigated the impact of the leaving group X on the rate of oxidative addition of alkyl electrophiles $\text{R}-\text{X}$ to $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$ (Table 2). We have established that an alkyl iodide rapidly oxidatively adds to $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$ even at -60°C (entry 1), whereas the corresponding bromide requires a temperature of 0°C to achieve a comparable rate (entry 2). Upon heating to 60°C , an alkyl chloride (entry 3), but not a fluoride (entry 4), reacts with $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$. Finally, we have determined that an alkyl tosylate (entry 5) is intermediate between a bromide and a chloride in reactivity. The relative propensity of alkyl electrophiles to oxidatively add to $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$ (Table 2) is consistent with an $\text{S}_{\text{N}}2$ pathway for oxidative addition.^[17]

Unfortunately, no catalyst, including $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$, has yet been reported to be effective for cross-couplings of

Table 1: Correlation between solvent polarity and the activation barrier for oxidative addition.^[a]

$n\text{-nonyl}-\text{Br} + \text{L}-\text{Pd}-\text{L} \xrightarrow[\text{L} = \text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me}]{\text{solvent, } 0^\circ\text{C}} \begin{array}{c} n\text{-nonyl} \\ \\ \text{L}-\text{Pd}-\text{L} \\ \\ \text{Br} \end{array}$			
Entry	Solvent	Polarity	ΔG^\ddagger [kcal mol ⁻¹]
1	hexane	0.68	> 23.0 ^[b]
2	toluene	1.66	20.0
3	THF	2.08	19.5
4	<i>tert</i> -amyl alcohol	2.46 ^[c]	18.1
5	NMP ^[d]	2.62	18.0
6	DMF ^[e]	2.80	17.8

[a] All data are the average of two runs. [b] No reaction at 0 – 60°C . ΔG^\ddagger was calculated for 60°C . [c] Value for *tert*-butanol. [d] NMP = *N*-methylpyrrolidinone. [e] DMF = dimethylformamide.

Table 2: Effect of the leaving group on the rate of oxidative addition.^[a]

$n\text{-nonyl}-\text{X} + \text{L}-\text{Pd}-\text{L} \xrightarrow[\text{L} = \text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me}]{\text{THF}} \begin{array}{c} n\text{-nonyl} \\ \\ \text{L}-\text{Pd}-\text{L} \\ \\ \text{X} \end{array}$			
Entry	X	$t_{1/2}$	
1	I	2.2 h at -60°C	
2	Br	2.3 h at 0°C	
3	Cl	2.0 d at 60°C	
4	F	< 2% reaction after 43 h at 60°C	
5	OTs ^[b]	10.4 h at 40°C	

[a] All data are the average of two runs. [b] Ts = toluenesulfonyl.

unactivated secondary alkyl electrophiles. Naturally, we were interested in whether this shortcoming may be attributable to a reluctance of these compounds to undergo oxidative addition. We therefore examined the relationship between the rate of oxidative addition to $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$ and the steric demand of the electrophile.

As illustrated in Table 3, the bulk of the electrophile has a large impact on the reaction rate. Branching in the γ -position leads to a roughly fivefold decrease in reactivity relative to an unbranched substrate (entry 2 vs. entry 1), and branching in the β -position attenuates the reactivity by a factor of ~ 20 (entry 3 vs. entry 1). Consistent with the failure of $\text{Pd}(\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me})_2$ to catalyze cross-couplings of secondary alkyl electrophiles, no oxidative addition occurs if the branch is in the α -position (entry 4).

For couplings of primary alkyl electrophiles catalyzed by Pd/PR_3 , in earlier work we observed a remarkable dependence of the efficiency of the reaction on the structure of the phosphane.^[3d,e] We have now determined that cross-coupling efficiency correlates with the propensity of PdL_2 to undergo oxidative addition (Table 4). Thus, adducts of $\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me}$ or PCy_3 readily add *n*-nonyl bromide (Table 4, entries 1 and 2), in keeping with their effectiveness in a range of coupling processes. In contrast, complexes of $\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Et}$ or $\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_3$ are relatively unreactive toward oxidative addition (entries 3 and 4), as well as ineffective at cross-coupling alkyl electrophiles.

The divergent reactivity of PdL_2 complexes of $\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me}$ (cone angle: 161°) and $\text{P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Et}$ (cone angle: 165°),^[18] which

Table 3: Correlation between the steric demand of the electrophile and the activation barrier for oxidative addition.^[a]

$$\text{R-Br} + \text{L-Pd-L} \xrightarrow[\text{L = P}(t\text{Bu})_2\text{Me}]{\text{THF, 0}^\circ\text{C}} \text{L-Pd-L} \begin{matrix} \text{R} \\ \text{Br} \end{matrix}$$

Entry	R-Br	k_{rel}	ΔG^\ddagger [kcal mol ⁻¹]
1		1.0	19.5
2		0.19	20.3
3		0.054	21.0
4		< 0.0001	> 24.0 ^[b]

[a] All data are the average of two runs. [b] Extrapolated from a reaction run at 60 °C.

Table 4: Effect of the phosphane on the activation barrier for oxidative addition.^[a]

$$n\text{-nonyl-Br} + \text{L-Pd-L} \xrightarrow{\text{THF}} \text{L-Pd-L} \begin{matrix} n\text{-nonyl} \\ \text{Br} \end{matrix}$$

Entry	L	ΔG^\ddagger [kcal mol ⁻¹] ^[b]
1	P(<i>t</i> Bu) ₂ Me	19.5 (0 °C)
2	PCy ₃	20.0 (0 °C)
3	P(<i>t</i> Bu) ₂ Et	25.4 (60 °C)
4	P(<i>t</i> Bu) ₃	> 28.4 (60 °C)

[a] All data are the average of two runs. [b] The temperature at which ΔG^\ddagger was measured is noted in parentheses.

at first glance appear to be nearly isosteric, is particularly striking (Table 4, entries 1 and 3; $k_{\text{rel}} > 10^3$). However, computation of the energy of the various conformers of palladium–phosphane adducts leads to a reasonable explanation for this initially surprising difference. Through B3LYP/LanL2DZ DFT calculations, we have determined that conformer **1**, in which Me and Pd are eclipsed, is ~ 3.5 kcal mol⁻¹ lower in energy than conformer **2**, in which Me and Pd are *anti*, due to the presence of additional *syn*-pentane-like interactions in **2** (Figure 2a).^[19] Figure 2b shows that, in the illustrated conformation of Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Et)₂ (**3**), approach of an electrophile to Pd would be impeded significantly by the Me groups. In contrast, higher energy conformation **4** presents a steric environment around Pd that resembles that of Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Me)₂.^[20] We believe that this analysis provides an adequate rationalization for the difference in reactivity between Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Et)₂ and Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Me)₂.

In conclusion, we have described the first systematic investigation of the oxidative addition of alkyl electrophiles to Pd⁰, specifically, adducts of trialkylphosphanes. The reactivity of these complexes is of high current interest due to their unusual effectiveness as cross-coupling catalysts for alkyl electrophiles. We have determined that the species that undergoes oxidative addition is PdL₂ and that the activation parameters for this S_N2 process are: $\Delta G^\ddagger = 20.8$ kcal mol⁻¹ at 20 °C; $\Delta H^\ddagger = 2.4$ kcal mol⁻¹; $\Delta S^\ddagger = -63$ eu. In addition, we

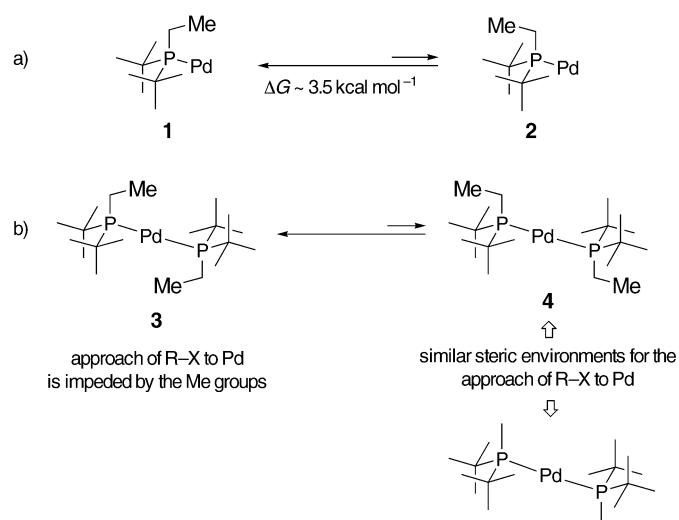


Figure 2. A rationale for the divergent reactivity of Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Me)₂ and Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Et)₂.

have quantified the impact of the following parameters on the rate of oxidative addition of R–X to PdL₂: the solvent, the leaving group (X = I, Br, Cl, F, OTs), and the steric demand of the electrophile (R) and the ligand (L). Furthermore, based on DFT calculations, we have provided a rationale for the remarkable difference in reactivity between Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Me)₂ and Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Et)₂. Additional mechanistic studies of these intriguing cross-coupling catalysts are underway.

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- [13] When Pd(P(*t*Bu)₂Me)₂ is dissolved in THF, the only phosphorus-containing species that is present according to ³¹P NMR spectroscopy is the PdL₂ adduct (e.g., no PdL₁), and there is no change in the spectrum in the presence of excess P(*t*Bu)₂Me (e.g., no PdL₃).
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- [20] The PdL₂ structures in Figure 2b are not the direct result of calculations—they are derived from computed structures **1** and **2**.