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DFT investigation of the 1-octene metathesis reaction mechanism with the Phobcat precatalyst

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Abstract The productive self-metathesis reaction of 1-octene in the presence of the Phobcat precatalyst $[RuCl_2(Phoban Cy)_2(=CHPh)]$ using density functional theory was investigated and compared to the Grubbs 1 precatalyst $[RuCl_2$ $(PCy_3)_2(=CHPh)]$. At the GGA-PW91/DNP level, the geometry optimization of all the participating species and the PES scans of the various activation and catalytic cycles in the dissociative mechanism were performed. The formation of the catalytically active heptylidene species is kinetically and thermodynamically favored, while the formation of *trans*tetradecene is thermodynamically favored.

Keywords Alkene metathesis · DFT · Grubbs 1 · Molecular modeling · Phobcat

Abbreviations

ΔE	Energy difference
СМ	Cross-metathesis
CPU	Central processing unit
Су	Cyclohexyl group, C_6H_{11}
DFT	Density functional theory
DNP	Double numeric polarized
GGA	Generalized gradient approximation
Grubbs 1	Grubbs' first generation catalyst
	[(PCy ₃) ₂ Cl ₂ Ru=CHPh]
Grubbs 2	Grubbs' second generation catalyst
	(H ₂ IMes)(PCy ₃)Cl ₂ Ru=CHPh]
H ₂ IMes	1,3-bis-(2,4,6-trimethylphenyl)-2-
	imadazolidinylidene

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¹ H-NMR	Proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy
HDD	Hard disk drive
IRP	Intrinsic reaction path
LST/QST	Linear synchronous transit/quadratic syn-
	chronous transit
MEP	Minimum energy pathway
Mes	1,3-bis-(2,4,6-trimethylphenyl)
NEB	Nudged elastic band
NHC	N-heterocyclic carbene
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy
PCy ₃	Tricyclohexyl phosphine
PES	Potential energy surface
Ph	Phenyl group, C_6H_5
Phoban-Cy	9-cyclohexyl-9-phosphabicyclo-[3.3.1]-
	nonane
Phobcat	First generation Phoban Grubbs-type
	precatalyst [(Phoban-Cy) ₂ Cl ₂ Ru=CHPh]
PW	Perdew and Wang
RAM	Random access memory
RCM	Ring-closing metathesis
ROMP	Ring-opening polymerization
SCF	Self-consistent field
SM	Self-metathesis
SMP	Secondary metathesis product
TS	Transition state

Introduction

In recent years alkene metathesis has extensively been used for the formation of carbon-carbon double bonds [1-5]. During the catalytic reaction, linear alkenes are transformed into homologs of shorter and longer carbon chains. The ruthenium precatalysts [(PCy₃)₂Cl₂Ru=CHPh] (I) [6–10] and [(H₂IMes)(PCy₃)Cl₂Ru=CHPh] (II) [11–19] (Fig. 1),



Fig. 1 Structures of Grubbs 1 (I), Grubbs 2 (II) and Phobcat (III) precatalysts

commonly referred to as the first and second generation Grubbs precatalysts, are useful for many metathesis applications such as ring-closing metathesis (RCM), crossmetathesis (CM) and ring-opening polymerization (ROMP) [20-26]. The catalytic activity and selectivity of the [(PCy₃)₂Cl₂Ru=CHPh] (I) precatalyst toward primary metathesis products of the 1-octene metathesis reaction were reported to be high even at an alkene/Ru molar ratio of 10000 [27, 28]. Replacement of the phosphine ligand(s) by N-heterocyclic carbene (NHC) ligands improved the lifetime reactivity and selectivity of the metal carbene complex even further [29]. This is due to the bulkiness and increased basicity of the NHC-ligand compared to PCy₃ [12]. In contrast to their successful use in organic synthesis, the application of the first and second generation precatalysts on an industrial scale has too date not been successfully demonstrated [30]. For example, the selfmetathesis (SM) of linear unfunctionalized α -olefins catalyzed by first generation Grubbs precatalysts display relatively short life times at temperatures above 50 °C [31]. Although the second generation systems display enhanced activity and thermal stability relative to first generation precatalysts, the formation of secondary metathesis products (SMPs) under certain circumstances can be a significant cause of low selectivities in these systems [16, 18, 32-38]. In an attempt to alleviate these concerns and to improve catalyst life time, the development of a new first generation Phoban Grubbs-type precatalyst, "Phobcat" [(Phoban-Cy)₂Cl₂Ru=CHPh] (III), bearing Phoban-Cy (9-cyclohexyl-9-phosphabicyclo-[3.3.1]-nonane) instead of PCy₃ as ligands (Fig. 1), which exhibits significant improved stability and conversion compared to traditional first generation precatalysts was reported [30, 31, 39, 40].

The Hérisson-Chauvin metal carbene mechanism is the generally accepted mechanism for the alkene metathesis reaction (Fig. 2) [41]. The mechanism consists of successive [2+2]- cycloadditions followed by cycloreversions. This involves the coordination of the alkene to the metal center to form a π -complex followed by the formation of a metallacyclobutane intermediate, which in turn can revert to a new π -complex to yield the products after dissociation.



Fig. 2 A [2+2]-cycloaddition between a transition metal alkylidene and an alkene

Although many aspects of the alkene metathesis mechanism in the presence of I were elucidated by various techniques including kinetic measurements [9, 42, 43], there are still aspects that need to be investigated. This includes determining the species that is the most active in the metathesis reaction as well as elucidating the mechanism when the benzylidene and not the methylidene are used as precatalyst. The alkene metathesis reaction with Ru-carbene complexes has been studied by molecular modeling using simple substrates and simplified ligands. Adlhart and Chen [44] have summarized the mechanistic pathways, which can be divided into two main categories, i.e., an associative and dissociative mechanism. Recent studies indicate that the dissociative mechanism, which is initiated by the dissociation of a phosphine ligand from RuX₂(PR₃)₂(=CHR) to form a 14-electron species, is preferred [43-45]. Chen and coworkers [46] confirmed this by the identification of the 14electron species by gas-phase mass spectrometry. The rate of phosphine dissociation and initiation of the alkene metathesis reaction by $RuX_2L(PR_3)$ (=CHR) type precatalysts have been investigated theoretically and experimentally by Sanford et al. [43].

Theoretical studies performed in our laboratories showed the usefulness of molecular modeling in supporting observed ¹H NMR and other experimental results [47]. These studies were useful to gain insight into the complete productive mechanism of the 1-octene metathesis reaction with **I**. The modeling results indicated that the formation of the heptylidene species was kinetically and thermodynamically more favorable than the formation of the methylidene species.

The only theoretical studies performed on Phobcat to date consist of rotational isomerism studies and decomposition behavior of the methylidene species [30, 40]. There have been no studies on the complete mechanism of 1-octene metathesis with the first generation Phobcat precatalyst.

In this study we report on our findings regarding the mechanism of 1-octene metathesis with the first generation Phobcat precatalyst **III**. Using a DFT conceptual model the complete mechanism is presented. The results from our quantum-mechanical calculations are presented and compared to those previously reported for Grubbs 1 (**I**) [47] to gain an insight into the complete productive mechanism of the 1-octene metathesis reaction with Grubbs-type precatalysts. Our results are also compared to some of the observed experimental results reported previously for Phobcat [30, 31, 39, 40, 48].

Fig. 3 The dissociation (A to B) and activation (B to F) steps in the mechanism of productive 1-octene metathesis using A1, A2, A3 and A4



Computational details

Hardware

Two types of hardware were used for the molecular modeling: two personal computers with one CPU and one cluster with 52 CPU's.

Fig. 4 Catalytic cycle in the mechanism of productive 1-octene metathesis using A1, A2, A3 and A4 The specifications of the personal computers (HP) were as follows:

Operating system: Microsoft Windows XP with Service Pack 2

Processor: Intel Pentium 4, 3.0 GHz Memory: 1.5 GB RAM



Table 1 Theoretical values of
key bond lengths and angles of
Grubbs 1 and Phobcat

	Grubbs 1 Nguyen [59]	Grubbs 1		Phobcat (A1)	
		Jordaan [47]	Calculated ^a	Dwyer [40]	Calculated ^a
Bond lengths (Å)					
Ru=C	1.838	1.878	1.877	-	1.882
Ru-Clavg	2.390	2.452	2.451	-	2.453
Ru-Pavg	2.416	2.490	2.491	2.445	2.445
Bond angles (°)					
Cl-Ru-Cl	168.21	160.97	160.51	-	167.65
P(1)-Ru-P(2)	161.90	163.35	163.72	159.60	159.56
Ru=C-R	136.70	136.04	136.10	-	137.03

^a DMol³ GGA/PW91/DNP – full DFT calculation of geometries

The specifications of the cluster were as follows:

52 CPU cluster (HP Proliant CP4000 Linux Beowulf with Procurve Gb/E Interconnect on compute nodes):
1× Master node: HP DL385 - 2×2.8 MHz AMD Opteron 64,
2 GB RAM, 2×72 GB HDD
12× Compute nodes: HP DL145G2 - 2×2.8 MHz AMD Opteron 64,
2 GB RAM, 2×36 GB HDD
Operating system on compute nodes: Redhat Enterprise Linux 4
Cluster operating system: HPC CMU v3.0 cluster.

Software

The quantum-chemical calculations were carried out by density functional theory (DFT) since it usually gives realistic geometries, relative energies and vibrational frequencies for transition metal compounds. All calculations were performed with the DMol³ DFT code [49-51] as implemented in Accelrys Materials Studio 3.2 and 4.2. [52]. The non-local generalized gradient approximation (GGA) functional by Perdew and Wang (PW91) [53] was used for all geometry optimizations. The convergence criteria for these optimizations consisted of threshold values of 2×10^{-5} Ha, 0.004 Ha/Å and 0.005 Å for energy, gradient and displacement convergence, respectively, while a self-consistent field (SCF) density convergence threshold value of 1×10^{-5} Ha was specified. DMol³ utilizes a basis set of numeric atomic functions, which are exact solutions to the Kohn-Sham equations for the atom [54]. These basis sets are generally more complete than a comparable set of linearly independent Gaussian functions and have been demonstrated to have small basis set superposition errors [54]. In this study a polarized split valence basis set, termed double numeric polarized (DNP) basis set has been used. All geometry optimizations employed highly efficient delocalized internal coordinates

[55]. The use of delocalized coordinates significantly reduces the number of geometry optimization iterations needed to optimize larger molecules compared to the use of traditional Cartesian coordinates. Some of the geometries optimized were also subjected to full frequency analyses at the same GGA/PW91/DNP level of theory to verify the nature of the stationary points. Equilibrium geometries were characterized by the absence of imaginary frequencies. Preliminary transition state (TS) geometries were obtained by the integrated linear synchronous transit/quadratic synchronous transit (LST/QST) algorithm available in Materials Studio 3.2 and 4.2. This approach was used before in computational studies in homogeneous trimerisation and metathesis [30, 40, 56, 57]. These preliminary structures were then subjected to full TS optimizations using an eigenvector following algorithm. For selected transition state geometries confirmation calculations, involving intrinsic reaction path (IRP) calculations were performed in which the path connecting reagents, TS and products are mapped. The IRP technique used in Materials Studio 3.2 and 4.2 also corresponds to the intuitive minimum energy pathway (MEP) connecting two structures and is based on the nudged elastic band (NEB) algorithm of Henkelman and Jónsson [58]. The IRP calculations, performed at the same GGA/PW91/DNP level of theory, ensured the direct connection of transition states with the respective reactant and product geometries.



Fig. 5 Rotational isomers of Phobcat A1, A2 and A3

All transition structure geometries exhibited only one imaginary frequency in the reaction coordinate. All results were mass balanced for the isolated system in the gas phase. The energy values that are given in the results are the electronic energies at 0 K and therefore only the electronic effects are in consideration in this paper.

Results and discussion

Model system and notations

Conceptually the productive metathesis of 1-octene in the presence of Grubbs carbene complexes is illustrated in Figs. 3 and 4. This mechanistic model is mainly based on the dissociative mechanism proposed by Grubbs et al. [43, 45], modeled by Adlhart and Chen [44] and the modeling and experimental results of Jordaan et al. [47]. The generic labels A-N are given to the individual ruthenium carbene and derived species involved in the reaction mechanism. A numerical suffix is used to differentiate between the various precatalysts, for example A4 refers to Grubbs 1. The mechanism consists of the initial loss of a phosphine ligand from the precatalyst (A) to yield the 14-electron catalytic active species (B). This is followed by activation steps, B-F (Fig. 3), and catalytic steps, F-N (Fig. 4). The different stereochemical approaches of 1-octene toward the catalytically active species F leads to two catalytic cycles (a and b notations for \mathbf{F} to \mathbf{J} in Fig. 4). The cycle consists of several successive formal [2+2]-cycloadditions to form a metallacyclobutane and cycloreversions to form the respective catalytically active species. Before the precatalyst can enter the catalytic cycle, there is an initiation phase (activation) in which the precatalyst first has to be converted from the benzylidene complex (A) to the heptylidene (F). This takes place through the coordination of 1-octene to the metal center of the 14-electron intermediate (B) to form the π -complex (C), which undergoes a formal [2+2]-cycloaddition to form a metallacyclobutane ring (**D**) which in turn can revert to a new π -complex (E). The liberation of the alkene from the new π -complex leads to the new catalytically active heptylidene species (F) that enters the catalytic cycle. The alkyl chain points out of the plane of the page upon entering the catalytic cycle. Within the catalytic cycle the heptylidene (F) is converted to the methylidene (J), which is again converted back to the heptylidene (F) until all the 1-octene has been consumed or the precatalyst has decomposed. During the conversion of the heptylidene to the methylidene, cis- and trans-7-tetradecene is formed, while ethene forms when the methylidene is converted to the heptylidene.



Fig. 6 The dihedral angles of A1, A2, and A3 measured as described by Dwyer et al. [52]

Validation of computational method

To compare different Grubbs-type precatalysts it is necessary to get a better idea of the validity of the computational

	Cisoid-cisoid (A1)	Transoid-transoid (A2)	Cisoid-transoid (A3)
Dwyer [52]	2.22	0.00	0.72
Calculated ^a	2.22	0.00	0.65

Table 2 The energy difference (kcal mol⁻¹) between the rotational isomers of Phobcat

^a DMol³ GGA/PW91/DNP - full DFT calculation of geometries

method. To do this we compared calculated key bond lengths and angles of both Grubbs 1 and Phobcat with those reported by Jordaan et al. [47] and Dwyer et al. [40] (Table 1). A good correlation was obtained. Jordaan et al. [47] reported that an acceptable correlation is obtained between calculated and crystallographic data when bond lengths and angles are compared. From Table 1 it is clear that our calculated values are nearly identical to those obtained by Jordaan et al. [47] and the limited values of Dwyer et al. [40]. The small differences in calculated values can be attributed to small differences in the calculation methods. What can also be seen is that the bond lengths and bond angles of Grubbs 1 and Phobcat are in the same order. The average Ru-P bond length of Phobcat is 0.046 Å shorter than those of Grubbs 1. This would suggest a stronger Ru-P bond might be present which is consistent with observed experimental data [31]. In the underlying sections the individual phases and steps of the mechanism will be discussed under the following headings:

- · Initiation step,
- Activation step,
- Catalytic cycle.

Initiation step

Initiation takes place when one of the phosphine ligands dissociates from the precatalyst (A) to produce the 14electron catalytic active species (B). The possibility of rotational isomerism of Phobcat has already been reported by Dwyer et al. [40]. We conducted a conformer search as described by Dwyer et al. [40] and calculated nearly identical energy values for the respective conformers.



Fig. 7 Alkene coordination in the dissociative pathway

Calculations were conducted on a series of structures of which the dihedral angle of $C_{carbene}$ -Ru- P_{bottom} - C_{Cy} in A2 was incrementally changed by 20° to complete a full rotation of the lower cyclohexylphoban ligand through 360°. Only the scenario for rotation of one ligand was considered. The top cyclohexylphoban ligand was left unchanged (and unconstrained) along the *transoid* P-Cy/ $C_{carbene}$ orientation. The orientation of the benzylidene moiety is used to differentiate between the different rotational isomers. The orientation is illustrated in Fig. 5, both cyclohexyl rings *cisoid* (A1), both cyclohexyl rings *transoid* (A2), one cyclohexyl ring lying *cisoid* and one cyclohexyl ring lying *transoid* (A3).

Upon identifying the lowest energy rotational isomers we performed a geometry optimization calculation without any constrains in place on any of the ligands. The resulting dihedral angles are illustrated in Fig. 6. A comparison of our calculated values of the energy differences between the three geometry optimized isomers of Phobcat and those of Dwyer et al. [40] is given in Table 2. The small energy difference between calculated values of the cisoid-transoid isomers can be attributed to small differences in the calculation method and the fact that in our calculations the dihedral angle was left unconstrained. Dwyer et al. [40] concluded from their NMR experiments and calculations that A2 would be the most abundant isomer in the crystal structure, since it is the energetically more favorable structure. This however does not account for the catalytic activity of the precatalyst. Which rotational isomer is the most active precatalyst is a question that still needs to be addressed.



Fig. 8 Ligand dissociation from A2 and A3 to yield the identical product B2 or B3

 Precatalyst
 Energy ratios $\Delta E_{B-A}/\Delta E_{B-C}$ ΔE_{B-C} (B-C) kcal mol⁻¹

 A1
 2.14
 -14.06

 A2
 1.38
 -27.21

 A4
 2.39
 -9.16

Table 3 Comparison of electronic energies of the π -coordination intermediate containing 1-octene

Activation step

After initiation an alkene coordinates to the unsaturated intermediate **B** to form the corresponding π -complex, **C**. According to Adlhart and Chen [44] the coordination of the alkene can be in two discrete, perpendicular orientations. In our study only the coordination parallel to the Ru=C plane was investigated, **C**_{||}. This correlates with a recent study by Janse van Rensburg et al. [30] which found that the parallel coordination, **C**_{||}, was energetically more favorable than the perpendicular coordination **C**_⊥, (Fig. 7).

To compare the Phobcat rotational isomers with Grubbs 1 it is necessary to point out that there are essentially only two isomers worth considering. Once a ligand dissociates from the *cisoid-transoid* isomer it is identical to either the *cisoid-cisoid* or *transoid-transoid* isomer (Fig. 8). The precatalyst structure (A) energy difference will be a constant energy difference between the isomers. Therefore only A1 and A2 will be compared to Grubbs 1 (A4).

As Jordaan et al. [47] already pointed out the coordination of the substrate to the 14-electron species

(B-C) is a step that is in competition with the recoordination of the phosphine ligand (B-A). In theoretical models there is usually only one substrate molecule competing with one phosphine, although in a catalytic system with precatalyst to substrate ratios of 1:500 or more this competition is statistically favored toward the substrate. A model usually excludes this statistical competitiveness. The competition can be described by comparing the energy of coordination of the phosphine to the energy of coordination of the substrate by taking the ratio of the respective energy differences. These values are summarized by the ratio $\Delta E_{\mathbf{B-A}}/\Delta E_{\mathbf{B-C}}$ in Table 3 for the metathesis of 1-octene with A1, A2 and A4. From these ratios it is clear that A2 has a very strong affinity for substrate coordination while A1 has a weaker affinity that is almost identical to that of A4.

The electronic energy profiles of Phobcat and Grubbs 1 with 1-octene is compared in Fig. 9. The electronic energy of activation of **C** to **D** with 1-octene is 5.57 kcal mol⁻¹ for **A1**, 16.41 kcal mol⁻¹ for **A2** and 13.85 kcal mol⁻¹ for **A4**. The activation of **A2** with 1-octene seems to be less favorable than **A1** and **A4**. The metallacyclobutane intermediates are in all three cases of similar thermodynamic electronic stability. The difference here is that ΔE from **C** to **D** for **A1** is -10.36 kcal mol⁻¹, for **A2** is -2.21 kcal mol⁻¹ and for **A4** is -4.24 kcal mol⁻¹. This once again shows that **A2** has the smallest driving force for 1-octene activation. The other big difference between the activation routes is the dissociation of the product (styrene) to form the alkylidene species **F** (**D** to **F**). In the **A1** and **A2** route the energy increases with 23.58 kcal

40.00 CI 35.00 F2 32.90 30.00 F1 29.30 D4-E4 33.94 Energy (kcal/mol) B2 37.62 F4 18.02 D2-E2 26.12 2-D2 26.82 B1 30.14 25.00 DI-E1 23.38 C4-D4 26.58 B4 21 89 CIAD1 21.65 20.00 2 16.00 C1/16.08 E1 13.57 15.00 CA 12.73 E4 12.54 C2 10.41 çı 10.00 4 8.49 -Ph D2 8.20 D1 5.72 5.00 ci Cl Cl 0.00 0.00 C C

Fig. 9 Electronic energy profiles of the activation steps of the metathesis of 1-octene using Grubbs 1 and Phobcat



Fig. 10 Electronic energy profiles of the cis- and trans-route catalytic steps (F to J) of the metathesis of 1-octene using Phobcat

 mol^{-1} (D1-F1) and 24.7 kcal mol^{-1} (D2-F2) respectively while the A4 route requires 9.53 kcal mol^{-1} (D4-F4). This could severely hamper the activation rate of the two Phobcat isomers A1 and A2. This is in agreement with the observed experimental results of Janse van Rensburg [30] which showed a slower Phobcat activation rate compared to A4.

Catalytic cycle

The catalytic cycle using the heptylidene \mathbf{F} was investigated further; an 1-octene molecule now coordinates to the catalytically active species to yield \mathbf{H} . Stereochemically this coordination can take place in two different modes, the hexyl groups *trans* and the hexyl groups *cis*. The respective energy profiles for **A1** and **A2** are illustrated in Fig. 10 (Only the *trans*-approach is illustrated). The two approaches

 Table 4
 The energy difference between the rotational isomers of

 Phobcat and Grubbs 1
 1

Precatalyst	$\Delta E_{(\mathbf{G-H})-\mathbf{G}} [(\mathbf{G-H})-\mathbf{G}]$ kcal mol ⁻¹	$\Delta E_{(\mathbf{H-I})-\mathbf{H}}[(\mathbf{H-I})-\mathbf{H}]$ kcal mol ⁻¹
A1 trans-route	11.14	18.17
A1 cis-route	22.31	13.08
A2 trans-route	12.57	17.92
A2 cis-route	20.70	10.96
A4 trans-route	11.28	23.38

give rise to transition states with different electronic energies, which is summarized in Table 4. The formation of the metallacyclobutane (**H**) is easier for the *trans*-routes than for the *cis*-routes. The metallacyclobutane intermediates that form then liberates the PMP's *trans*-7-tetradecene and *cis*-7-tetradecene. It would seem from this that the *trans*-route is energetically more favorable than the *cis*-route.

The complete catalytic cycle energy profiles of the transroutes of A1 and A2 was compared to that of A4 (Fig. 11). If the energy of A1 and A2 is compared to that of A4 for the trans-route (Table 4) it is clear that both follow the same trend as A4. The metallacyclobutane ring (H) of A1 and A2 seems to dissociate easier than A4. The main difference between the two precatalysts is intermediate J where the catalysts have a free coordination site. The methylidenes **J1** and **J2** have energies of 43.55 kcal mol^{-1} and 44.09 kcal mol^{-1} respectively while **J4** has an energy value of only 24.08 kcal/mol. The low energy barrier of A4 for the formation of **J** from I (1.84 kcal mol^{-1}) suggests that the methylidene with an open coordination site would be stable in solution for a longer time than the A1 and A2 methylidene. This might be a contributing factor to the thermodynamically unfavorable conversion of the A4 methylidene [47]. The high energy barrier observed during the formation of J, 28.70 kcal mol^{-1} for A1 and 27.13 kcal mol^{-1} for A2 suggests that the formation of the Phobcat methylidene is unfavorable. The catalytic cycle would be slowed down every time this step is reached. This high barrier also suggests that the coordination of an alkene by



Fig. 11 Electronic energy profiles of the complete trans-route catalytic steps of the metathesis of 1-octene using Grubbs 1 and Phobcat

Phobcat is favored over a free coordination site. This might also be a contributing factor to the prolonged lifetime of the precatalysts [39] since it would be better protected from deactivating groups. This barrier might also explain the better stability of Phobcat at higher temperatures during reactions with alkenes [39, 48]. More energy would be needed to get over this barrier for the catalytic cycle to continue.

Finally the second half of the catalytic cycle, J to N, was modeled. The formation of the metallacyclobutane (M) is once again favored over the dissociation thereof (Table 5). The Phobcat catalysts are once again able to dissociate easier than Grubbs 1. This suggests that the Phobcat methylidene is catalytically more active than Grubbs 1. This supports the observed experimental results of Boeda et al. [48] and Forman et al. [39] which clearly show that Phobcat has a higher conversion ratio of 1-octene when compared to Grubbs 1. What also becomes apparent from Fig. 11 is that there appears to be little difference in catalytic activity between A1 and A2. Whether this is a property of the Phoban ligand or is true

Table 5 The energy difference (kcal mol^{-1}) between the rotational isomers of Phobcat

Precatalyst	$\Delta E_{(\mathbf{K-M})-\mathbf{K}}$ [(K-M)- K] kcal mol ⁻¹	$\Delta E_{(\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{N})-\mathbf{M}} [(\mathbf{M}-\mathbf{N})-\mathbf{M}]$ kcal mol ⁻¹
A1 <i>trans</i> -route	6.03	11.31
A2 trans-route	8.65	12.19
A4 trans-route	5.11	21.43

for all ligands of this type can only be confirmed with further investigation. To gain deeper insight into the complete mechanism it is necessary to calculate the Gibbs free energy surfaces, since Janse van Rensburg et al. [30] determined that this gives a more accurate depiction of the mechanism.

Conclusions

Using DMol³ density functional theory calculations we have described the 1-octene metathesis reaction catalyzed by the Phobcat precatalyst via a dissociative mechanism. The DMol³ density functional theory calculations compared well with calculations by other authors. We also found that the same simple models that effectively describe the metathesis of simple substrates with methylidene type catalysts cannot be used to describe the reaction of real systems. It is clear that the mechanism of metathesis with actual catalytic systems are complex if it is done with large substrates like 1-octene and that electronic effects cannot fully account for effects that are observed, like the cis/trans isomerization of the primary metathesis product. Since this was a preliminary computational study of the complete catalytic cycle we could not make any clear conclusions regarding activity. What can be concluded is that the complete catalytic cycle with 1-octene is a very complex reaction and cannot just be considered by using a simple model. Further studies via Gibbs free energy surfaces of the complete system are necessary to fully understand this mechanism.

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