

Theoretical studies on the Mo-catalyzed asymmetric intramolecular Pauson-Khand-type [2+2+1] cycloadditions of 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates

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Abstract Density functional theory (DFT) was used to investigate the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular Pauson-Khand reaction of 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates. All intermediates and transition states were optimized completely at the B3LYP/6-31 G(d,p) level [LANL2DZ(f) for Mo]. In the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular Pauson-Khand reaction, the C–C oxidative cyclization reaction was the chirality-determining step, and the reductive elimination reaction was the rate-determining step. The carbonyl insertion reaction into the Mo–C(*sp*³) bond was easier than into the Mo–C=C bond. And the dominant product predicted theoretically was of (*S*)-chirality, which agreed with experimental data. This reaction was solvent dependent, and toluene was the best among the three solvents toluene, CH₃CN, and THF.

Keywords Mo(CO)₆ · Pauson-Khand reaction · Propynylphosphonate · Reaction mechanism · DFT

Introduction

The Pauson-Khand reaction (PKR), formally a [2+2+1] cycloaddition reaction between an alkene, an alkyne, and

carbon monoxide to form a cyclopentenone, was first discovered in the 1970s [1–4]. The PKR is a powerful synthetic tool giving a significant upgrade of molecular complexity in a single step. Many transition metals, such as Ti, Fe, Co, Ni, Zr, Ru, Rh, Pd, Ir, and Mo, have been found to be able to catalyze this reaction [5–17]. In addition, the PKR is compatible with many functional groups and enables the construction of relatively complex fused bicyclic structures [6–10]. Vinylphosphonates are important organic intermediates [18–20], and they also possess considerable pharmacological activity [21–23]. Vinylphosphonates produced using octacarbonyldicobalt as a catalyst were reported to undergo an intramolecular PKR to give selective formation of exocyclic 1,3-dienes versus Pauson-Khand cyclopentenone products [24]. Recently, Srebnik and co-workers [25] reported the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR of propynylphosphonates (Scheme 1), and suggested a likely mechanism (Scheme 2) that suggested that the reaction proceeded by the initial complexation to the triple bond [8, 9, 25]. The complexation of the initially formed alkynyl complex with a C–C double bond then results in a Mo-alkynyl-alkenyl complex **B** (Scheme 2). Hence, the Mo-alkynyl-alkenyl complex **B** plays an important role in the Mo(CO)₆-catalyzed intramolecular PKR of propynylphosphonates. Srebnik et al. [25] also proved that the reaction was solvent dependent and that the dominant product was of (*S*)-chirality.

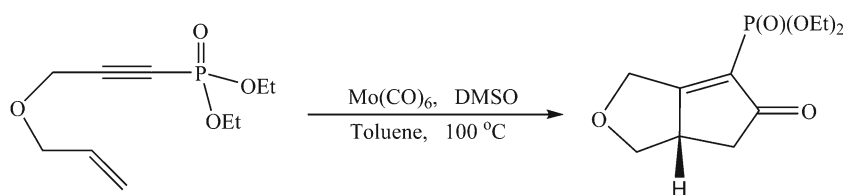
Computational studies on the PKR were performed for the alternative catalysts based on iron [26], cobalt [27], ruthenium [28], and rhodium [29, 30]. Imhof et al. [26] studied the mechanism of the Fe₂(CO)₉-catalyzed [2+2+1] cycloaddition reaction between diazabutadiene, carbon monoxide and ethylene at the B3LYP/6-311++G(d,p) level. The calculations indicated that the starting point of the catalytic cycle was the [(diazabutadiene)Fe(CO)₃] complex of square-pyramidal geometry. However, Gimbert et al. [31]

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Scheme 1 The Mo-catalyzed intramolecular Pauson-Khand reaction (PKR) of substituted diethyl 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates



found using electrospray ionization coupled to tandem mass spectrometry that the loss of CO from the PK complex preceded alkene coordination and insertion. Pericàs et al. [27] studied the $\text{Co}_2(\text{CO})_8$ -catalyzed enantioselective PKR of brucine N-oxide (BNO) at the M06/6-31 G(d) level (LANL2DZ for Co), and proved that this reaction was solvent-dependent. Wang and Wu [28] studied the mechanism of the $\text{Ru}_3(\text{CO})_{12}$ -catalyzed Pauson-Khand-type [2+2+1] and related [2+2+1+1] cycloadditions at the BP86/6-31 G(d) level (SDD for Ru), and found that insertion into the Ru–C(O) bond was easier than into the Ru–C=C bond. Baik et al. [29, 30] studied the rhodium(I)-catalyzed [2+2+1] carbocyclization reaction of dienes and CO at the B3LYP/6-31 G(d,p) level (LACVP for Rh). They discovered that the addition and removal of CO to control the electron density at the metal center was crucial to facilitating the oxidative addition to form the metallocycle and the reductive elimination to liberate the final product cyclopentenone.

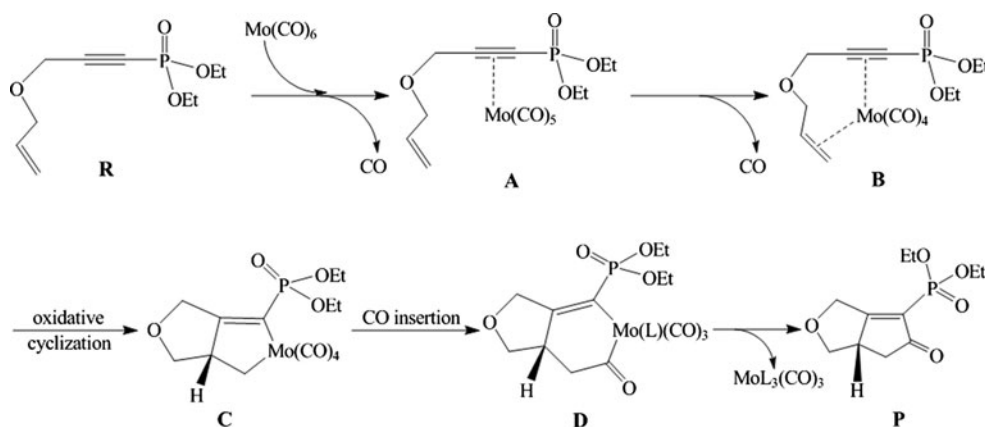
In order to understand the reaction mechanism of the Mo-catalyzed PKR of propynylphosphonates in detail, the Mo(0)-catalyzed intramolecular PKR of substituted dimethyl 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates was studied in the present work. Specifically, the present study focused on: (1) the energetics of the overall catalytic pathway in the intramolecular PKR; (2) the structural features of intermediates and transition states; (3) the formation of the chiral product; (4) the two pathways of carbonyl insertion; and (5) the effect of the solvent (toluene, CH_3CN , and THF) on the reaction mechanism.

Computational details

All calculations were carried out with the Gaussian 03 program package [32]. The geometries of all species were fully optimized using density functional theory (DFT) [33] using B3LYP method [34, 35] with the 6-31 G(d,p) basis set for all atoms except molybdenum, which was described by the LANL2DZ [36–38] adding one set of *f*-polarization function with an exponent of 1.043 [39]. Frequency calculations were performed to confirm each stationary point to be either a minimum (M) or a transition (T) structure. The transition states were verified by intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) [40] calculations, and by animating the negative eigenvector coordinates with a visualization program (Molekel 4.3) [41, 42]. In addition, bonding characteristics were analyzed by natural bond orbital (NBO) theory [43–46]. NBO analysis was performed by utilizing NBO5.0 code [47]. Furthermore, based on the gas phase optimized geometry for each species, the solvent effects of toluene, CH_3CN , and THF were studied by applying a self-consistent reaction field (SCRF) [48, 49] using the polarizable continuum model (PCM) [50] approach at the same computational level.

Molecular orbital compositions and the overlap populations were calculated with the AOMix program [51, 52]. The analysis of MO compositions in term of occupied and unoccupied fragment molecular orbitals (OFOs and UFOs, respectively), charge decomposition analysis (CDA), and the construction of orbital interaction diagrams were performed using AOMix-CDA [53]. In addition, the electron densities, ρ , at the bond critical points (BCPs) or ring critical

Scheme 2 Proposed mechanism of the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR of substituted diethyl 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates



points (RCPs) for some species were calculated with the AIM 2000 program package [54, 55].

Results and discussion

Our hypothesis on the reaction mechanism is illustrated in Scheme 3. In the chiral complexes **M3** and **M3'**, as shown in Scheme 4, carbonyl insertion has two possible pathways: C7 attacking C6 was denoted “a”, while C7 attacking C1 was denoted “b”. The relative free energies, $\Delta G(\text{sol})$ including solvent energies, and the relative gas phase free energies, ΔG , enthalpies ΔH , and ZPE corrected electronic energies, ΔE , were relative to $[\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_4 + \text{R}]$, and are summarized in Table S1. Unless otherwise noted, the energies discussed in the following are the relative free energies [$\Delta G(\text{sol})$].

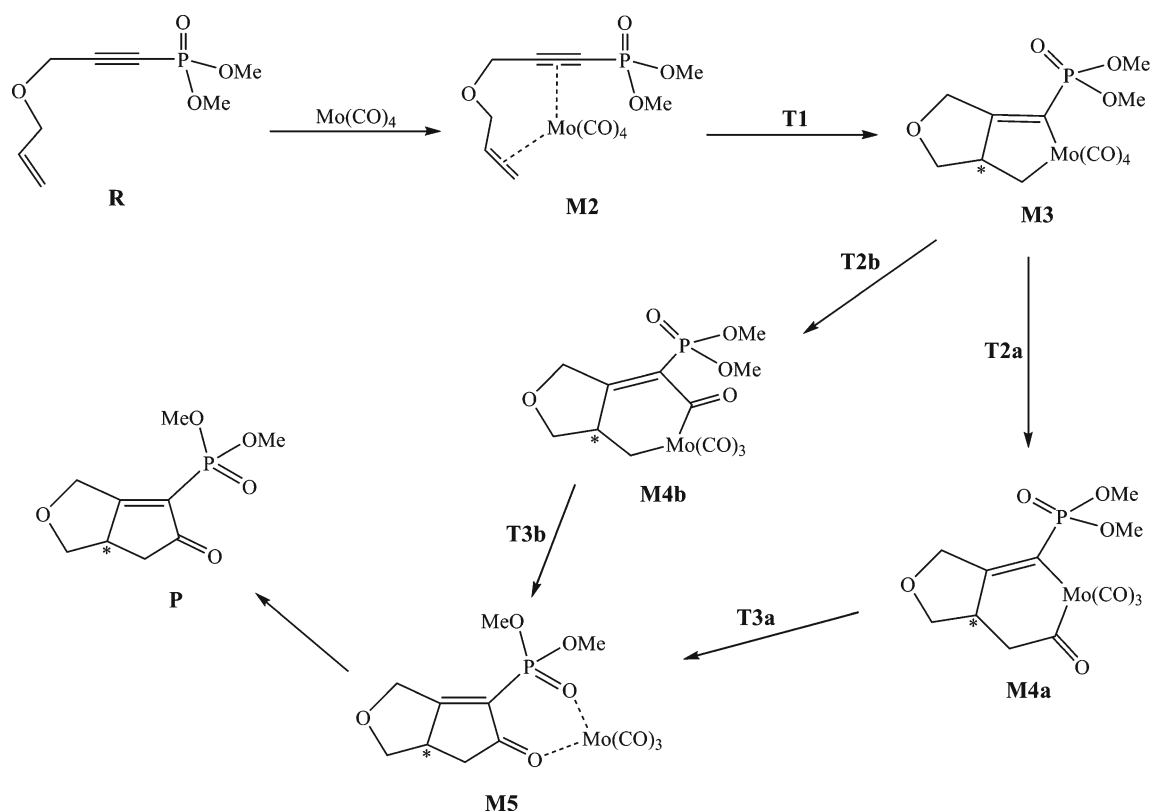
The complexation reaction of 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates and $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_6$

The complexation reaction of $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_6$ with 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates (**R**) led to four possible complexes: **M1**, **M1'**, **M2**, and **M2'** (Fig. 1). The first two were formed through a π backdonation between molybdenum and a C–C double or triple bond, while the latter two were formed through two π backdonations between molybdenum and

C–C double and triple bonds. The exchange of a CO ligand with an alkene or alkyne molecule (the double or triple bond of **R**) required about 73.8 or 82.5 kJ/mol, respectively. The exchange of two CO ligands with **R** required about 165.4 and 164.6 kJ/mol, forming **M2** and **M2'**. The barriers of 165.4 and 164.6 kJ/mol were too high to take place, which was consistent with the report of Imhof et al. [26].

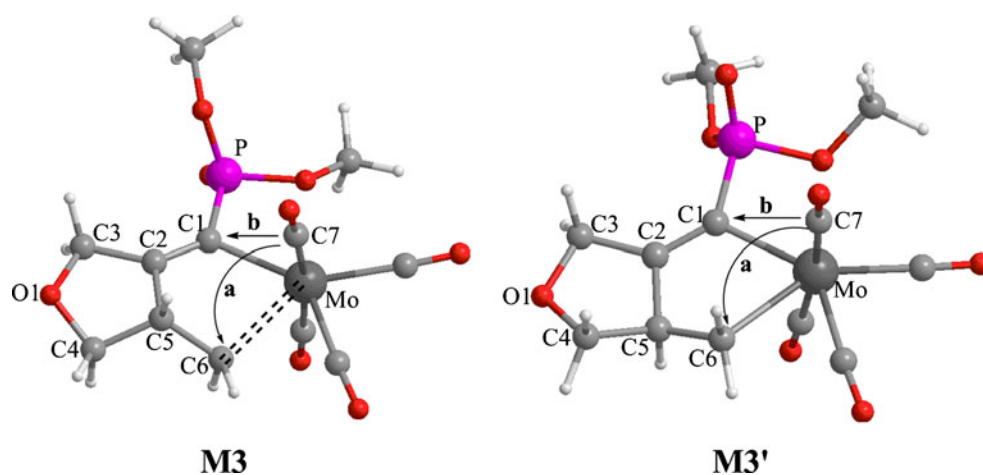
The decomposition of two CO ligands from the catalyst $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_6$ resulted in the activated catalyst $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_4$, which coordinated with the reactant **R** to give the complexes **M2** and **M2'**. The formation of **M2** and **M2'** was exergonic, and the total free energies released were –124.0 and –124.8 kJ/mol, respectively. Obviously, the complexation reaction of the reactant with $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_4$ was easier than that with $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_6$. Therefore, in our hypothesis on the reaction mechanism (Scheme 3), the first step was the complexation reaction of $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_4$ with 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates (**R**), which agreed with the report of Imhof et al. [26]. It must be pointed out here that the transition states for the formation of the intermediates **M1**, **M1'**, **M2**, and **M2'** were not obtained by means of the optimization of structures.

The Mo-alkynyl-alkenyl complexes **M2** and **M2'** have similar geometry and energy. The difference is in the relative position of the alkenyl ligand relative to the other ligands. Atom C5 is sp^2 -hybridized, and is a prochiral carbon, so **M2**



Scheme 3 Possible reaction mechanism of the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR of substituted dimethyl 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates

Scheme 4 Two possible pathways of the carbonyl insertion reaction in complexes **M3** and **M3'**



and **M2'** have a different prochiral surface. In **M2**, the lengths of the Mo–C1, Mo–C2, Mo–C5, and Mo–C6 bonds were 2.441, 2.486, 2.604, and 2.525 Å, respectively. In **M2'**,

the lengths of the Mo–C1, Mo–C2, Mo–C5, and Mo–C6 bonds were, respectively, 2.371, 2.399, 2.680, and 2.558 Å. The C2–Mo–C5 angles were 68.7° for **M2** and 69.6° for

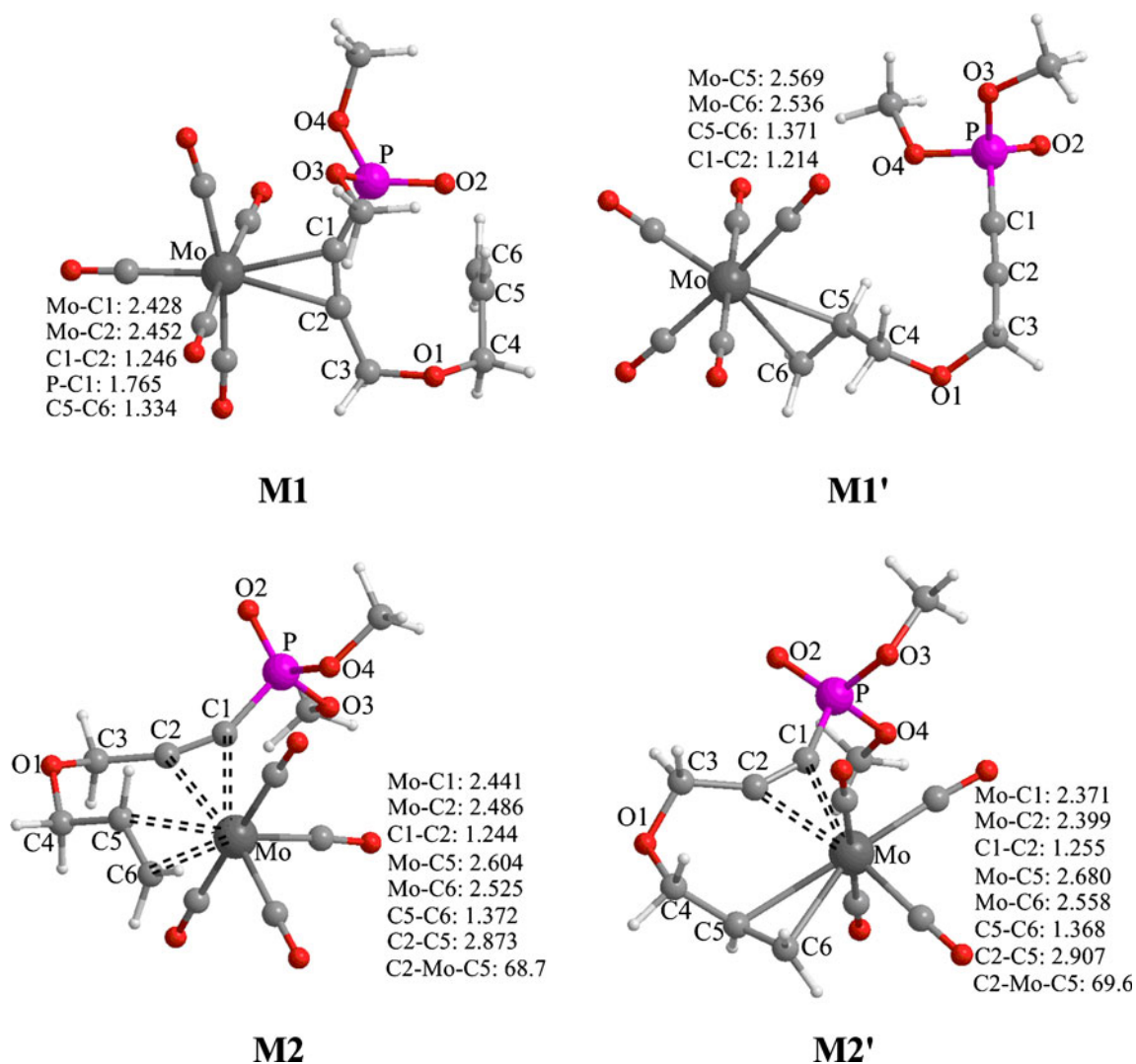


Fig. 1 Optimized structures of the Mo(CO)₅(R) complexes **M1** and **M1'**, and the Mo(CO)₄(R) complexes **M2** and **M2'** (selected bond lengths are given in Å, angles in degrees)

M2'. NBO analysis of **M2** and **M2'** showed there were two π backdonation bonds between molybdenum and π_{C1-C2} or π_{C5-C6} bond. The formation of the π backdonation weakened and activated the C1–C2 and C5–C6 bonds, which resulted in the attack of C2 on C5.

Formation of a product with (*S*)-chirality

Figure 2 shows the potential energy hypersurface for pathways forming the product with (*S*)-chirality **P**. The C–C oxidative cyclization transition state **T1** with Gibbs free energy of -77.1 kJ/mol leading to the complex **M3** was the chirality-determining step in the process of forming **P**. Next, intermediate **M3** underwent a carbonyl insertion through the transition states **T2a** and **T2b** with Gibbs free energies of -64.7 and -62.9 kJ/mol to give complexes **M4a** and **M4b**, respectively. Finally, intermediates **M4a** and **M4b** went through a reductive elimination reaction via transition states **T3a** and **T3b** with Gibbs free energies of -46.5 and -17.1 kJ/mol to form complex **M5**, which readily decomposed to yield the product of (*S*)-chirality **P**. Clearly, **T3a** and **T3b** were the highest stationary point in each reaction channel, so the reductive elimination reaction was the rate-determining step. Reaction pathway “a” was more favorable in the process of forming the product of (*S*)-chirality **P**. Therefore, the carbonyl insertion reaction into the Mo–C(sp^3) bond was easier than into the Mo–C=C bond in the process of forming **P**.

In σ_{C2-C5} bond formation, the distances d_{C2-C5} , d_{Mo-C1} , and d_{Mo-C6} decreased, while d_{C1-C2} and d_{C5-C6} increased (Fig. 3). It was clear that a significant interaction between C2 and C5 occurred, and the C1–C2 and C5–C6 bonds were weakened considerably, as demonstrated by analyzing the changes in the bond orders, P_{ij} , and electron densities, ρ , at the BCPs (Table S3, e.g., C2–C5 bond, P_{ij} , **M2**: 0.000 \rightarrow

T1: 0.528 \rightarrow **M3**: 0.864; ρ , **M2**: 0.000 \rightarrow **T1**: 0.104 \rightarrow **M3**: 0.265 $e \cdot \text{\AA}^{-3}$). As illustrated in Fig. 4, the HOMO for **T1** was a mixture of 47.4% HOFO-1, 26.0% HOFO-2 for Mo(CO)₄ (fragment 1) and 15.5% HOFO-1 for **R** (fragment 2). And LUMO was a mixture of 36.4% HOFO, 11.4% LUFO+7 for Mo(CO)₄ and 42.2% LUFO for **R**. Clearly, the reaction between Mo(CO)₄ and **R** occurred dominantly between HOFO-1, HOFO, and HOFO-2 of fragment 1 and LUFO and HOFO-1 of fragment 2. The net charge donation, which included both charge donation and electronic polarization contributions, was 0.05 of electrons. Hence, these facts suggested that, in the oxidative cyclization, Mo(CO)₄ donated electrons to **R**, which would result in the formation of the C2–C5, Mo–C1, and Mo–C6 bonds. The high stabilization energies of 483.8, 459.8, and 386.6 kJ/mol for the $\sigma_{Mo-C6} \rightarrow \sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, $\sigma_{Mo-C1} \rightarrow \sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, $\sigma_{Mo-C1} \rightarrow \sigma^*_{Mo-C6}$ in **T1** (Table 1), which was obtained from the second-order perturbation analysis of donor-acceptor interactions in the NBO analysis and used to estimate the strengths of the donor-acceptor interactions of the NBOs, revealed the strong interaction between σ_{Mo-C6} and $\sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, σ_{Mo-C1} and $\sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, σ_{Mo-C1} and σ^*_{Mo-C6} , and the electron transfer tendency from σ_{Mo-C6} to $\sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, σ_{Mo-C1} to $\sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, σ_{Mo-C1} to σ^*_{Mo-C6} . NBO analysis also indicated that the Mo–C1 and Mo–C6 bonds showed a strong single-bonded character, and the NBO energies of the bonding orbitals σ_{Mo-C1} and σ_{Mo-C6} were -617 and -500 kJ/mol, respectively. In **M3**, Mo–C1, Mo–C6, and Mo–O3 bonds were 2.203, 2.462, 2.417 Å, respectively. Obviously, a significant interaction between Mo and O3 occurred, with a group methoxy of phosphonate coordinating to molybdenum. NBO analysis of **M3** indicated that the Mo–C1 and Mo–C6 bonds showed a strong single-bonded character, so the π back-donation between molybdenum and π_{C1-C2} or

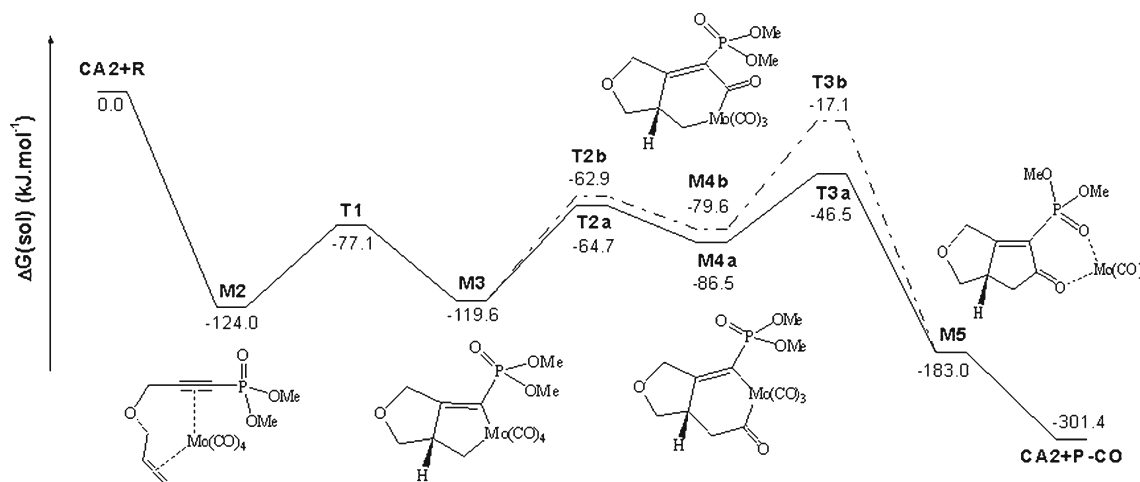


Fig. 2 Free energy profiles for the proposed pathways forming the product of (*S*)-chirality **P**

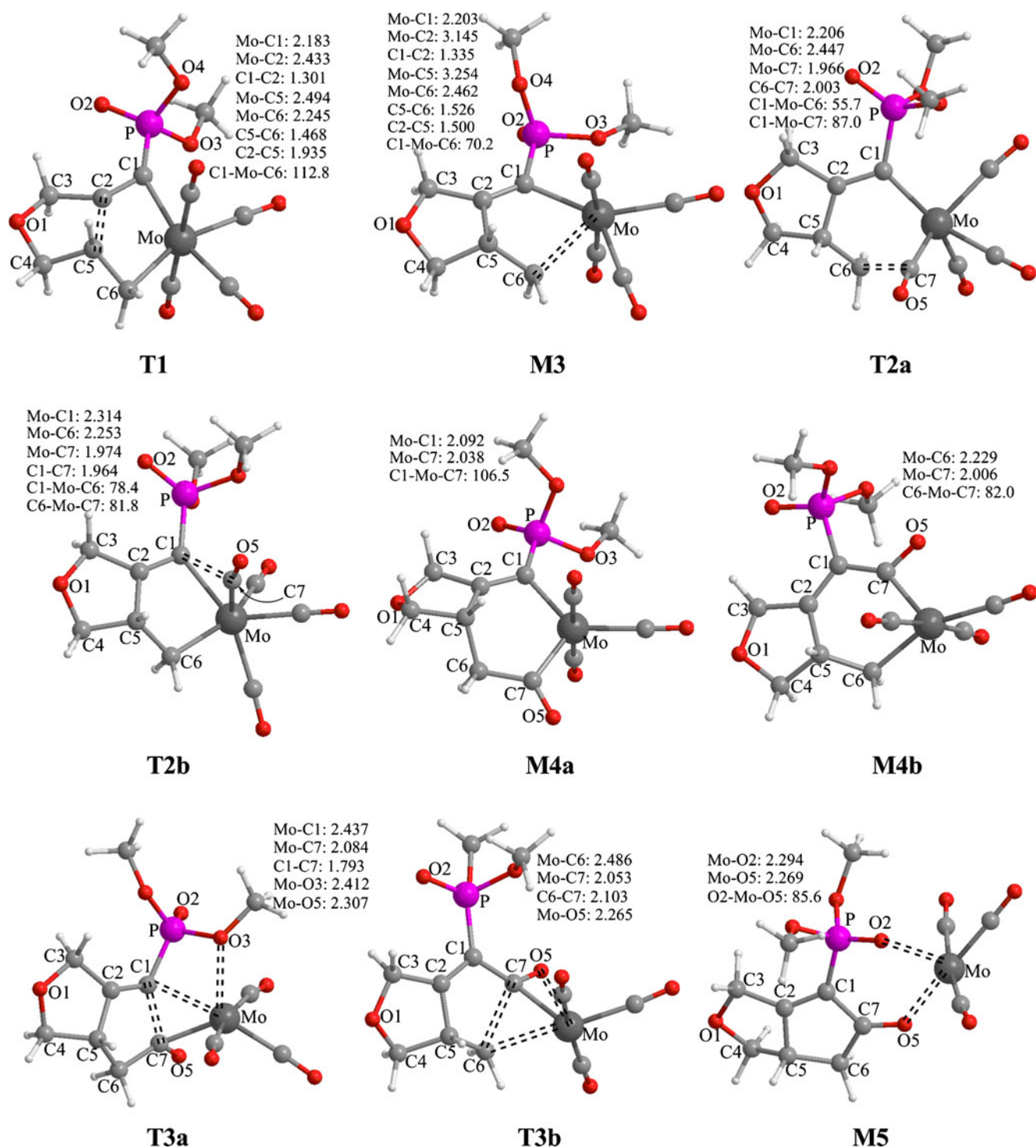


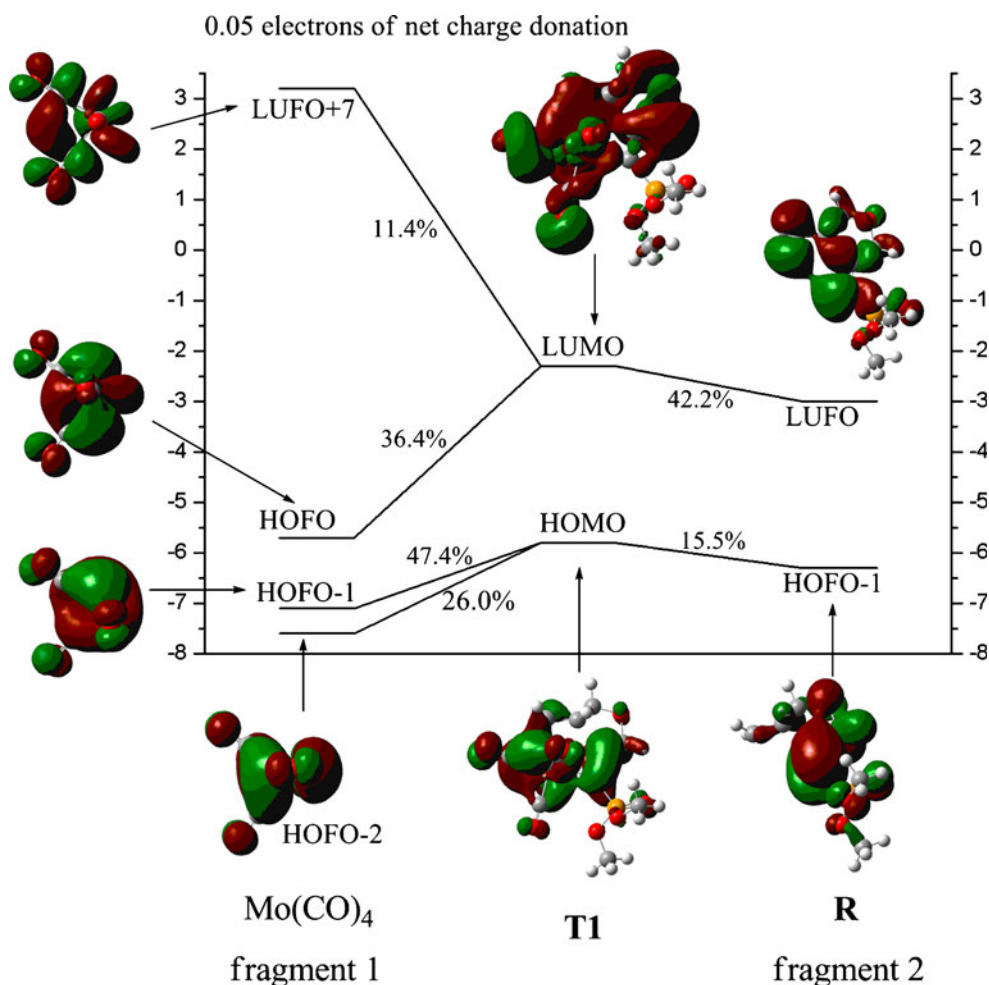
Fig. 3 Intermediates and transition states of the formation of the product of (*S*)-chirality in the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular Pauson-Khand reaction (PKR) (selected bond lengths are given in Å, angles in degrees)

π_{C5-C6} bond was disrupted. The atom C5 was sp^3 -hybridized, and was of (*S*)-chirality. There was one Mo-C1-C2-C5-C6 five-membered ring, and the electron density of the RCP was $0.03 \text{ e}\cdot\text{\AA}^{-3}$.

The carbonyl insertion had two possible reaction pathways. **T2a** and **M4a** involved a Mo-C1-C2-C5-

C6-C7 six-membered ring, and the electron densities of the RCPs were 0.02 and $0.02 \text{ e}\cdot\text{\AA}^{-3}$, respectively. NBO analysis of **M4a** indicated that the Mo-C1 and Mo-C7 bonds showed a strong single-bonded character, and NBO energies were $-1,053$ and $-1,140 \text{ kJ/mol}$, respectively. **T2b** and **M4b** involved a Mo-C7-C1-

Fig. 4 Orbital interaction diagram for **T1**, which was formed by $\text{Mo}(\text{CO})_4$ and 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates (**R**). The AOMix-CDA calculation, based on the B3LYP/6-31 G(d,p) results [LANL2DZ(f) for Mo]. The net charge donation $\text{CT}(1 \rightarrow 2) - \text{CT}(2 \rightarrow 1)$ was 0.05 electrons



C2–C5–C6 six-membered ring, and the electron densities of the RCPs were 0.02 and 0.02 $e \cdot \text{\AA}^{-3}$, respectively. The Mo–C6 and Mo–C7 bonds of **M4b** showed strong single-bonded character.

T3a and **T3b** were the transition states of the reductive elimination reaction, and involved a C1–C2–C5–C6–C7 five-membered ring; the electron densities of the RCPs were 0.03 and 0.03 $e \cdot \text{\AA}^{-3}$, respectively. The Gibbs free energy of

Table 1 Selected stabilization interaction energies $E(2)$ for **T1** and **T3a** (kJ/mol)

T1		T3a	
Donor NBO → acceptor NBO	$E(2)$	Donor NBO → acceptor NBO	$E(2)$
BD Mo–C(CO) → BD* Mo–C6	232.6	BD C1–C7 → BD* Mo–C(CO)	169.3
BD Mo–C(CO) → BD* Mo–C1	274.4	BD C1–C7 → BD* C2–C3	38.0
BD Mo–C6 → BD* Mo–C(CO)	483.8	BD C1–P → BD* Mo–C(CO)	65.8
BD Mo–C6 → BD* Mo–C1	274.5	BD C1–P → BD* C2–C3	13.7
BD Mo–C1 → BD* Mo–C(CO)	459.8	BD C1–P → BD* C2–C5	15.4
BD Mo–C1 → BD* Mo–C6	386.6	LP(2) O3 → LP*(2) Mo	117.8
BD C1–C2 → BD* Mo–C(CO)	73.4	LP(2) O5 → BD* C1–C7	172.0
π C1–C2 → BD* Mo–C(CO)	55.2	LP(3) O5 → BD* Mo–C7	418.0
BD C2–C5 → BD* Mo–C(CO)	133.0		
BD C2–C5 → BD* Mo–C1	28.8		
BD C2–C5 → BD* Mo–C6	46.9		
BD C5–C6 → BD* Mo–C(CO)	97.9		

T3a was lower than **T3b** by 29.4 kJ/mol, due to the formation of a coordinate bond between Mo and O3 in **T3a** (2.412 Å). As summarized in Table 1, the high stabilization energies of 418.0, 172.0, 169.3, and 117.8 kJ/mol for $(2p)_{O5} \rightarrow \sigma^*_{Mo-C7}$, $(2s)_{O5} \rightarrow \sigma^*_{C1-C7}$, $\sigma_{C1-C7} \rightarrow \sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, $(2s)_{O3} \rightarrow (4d)^*_{Mo}$ in **T3a** revealed the strong interaction between $(2p)_{O5}$ and σ^*_{Mo-C7} , $(2s)_{O5}$ and σ^*_{C1-C7} , σ_{C1-C7} and $\sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, $(2s)_{O3}$ and $(4d)^*_{Mo}$, and the electron transfer tendency from $(2p)_{O5}$ to σ^*_{Mo-C7} , $(2s)_{O5}$ to σ^*_{C1-C7} , σ_{C1-C7} to $\sigma^*_{Mo-C(CO)}$, $(2s)_{O3}$ to $(4d)^*_{Mo}$. Hence, the interaction between molybdenum and two oxygen atoms O3 and O5 made **T3a** more stable. The atomic polar tensor (APT) charges of carbon atoms of C1–C7 bond are -0.786 and $+1.166$.

Formation of a product of (*R*)-chirality

Figure 5 shows the potential energy hypersurface of the pathways forming the product of (*R*)-chirality **P'**. The C–C oxidative cyclization transition state **T1'** with Gibbs free energy of -76.6 kJ/mol leading to complex **M3'** was again the chirality-determining step in the process of forming **P'**. Intermediate **M3'** then underwent a carbonyl insertion through the transition states **T2a'** and **T2b'** with the Gibbs free energies of -56.7 and -24.9 kJ/mol to form the complexes **M4a'** and **M4b'**, respectively. Finally, intermediates **M4a'** and **M4b'** went through the reductive elimination reaction via the transition states **T3a'** and **T3b'** with the Gibbs free energies of -19.6 and -40.2 kJ/mol to generate the complex **M5'** releasing the product of (*R*)-chirality **P'**. In the reaction pathway “a”, the reductive elimination reaction was the rate-determining step, while the carbonyl insertion was the rate-determining step in reaction pathway “b”. (These results were not in agreement with those discussed above in the process of forming **P**.) Evidently, reaction

pathway “b” was more favorable in the process of forming the product of (*R*)-chirality **P'**. So the carbonyl insertion reaction into the Mo–C(sp^3) bond was more difficult than into the Mo–C=C bond in the process of forming **P'**, which was different from those discussed above in the process of forming **P**.

In $\sigma_{(C2-C5)}$ bond formation, as illustrated in Fig. 6, the distances d_{C2-C5} , d_{Mo-C1} , and d_{Mo-C6} decreased, while d_{C1-C2} and d_{C5-C6} increased. It was clear that a significant interaction between C2 and C5 occurred, and the C1–C2 and C5–C6 bonds were weakened considerably. NBO analysis of **M3'** indicated that the Mo–C1 and Mo–C6 bonds showed strong single-bonded character, so the π backdonation between molybdenum and π_{C1-C2} or π_{C5-C6} bond was disrupted. Atom C5 was sp^3 -hybridized, and was of (*R*)-chirality, which was different from **M3**. **T2a'** and **T2b'** were the transition states of the carbonyl insertion, and involved a Mo–C1–C2–C5–C6–C7 or Mo–C7–C1–C2–C5–C6 six-membered ring. **T3a'** and **T3b'** were the transition state of the reductive elimination reaction, and involved a C1–C2–C5–C6–C7 five-membered ring.

Overview of the reaction mechanism

As discussed above, the dominant reaction pathways were outlined in Scheme 3. The calculated results indicate that the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR of 3-allyloxy-1-propynyl-phosphonates was exergonic, and that the total free energy released was -301.4 kJ/mol. The C–C oxidative cyclization reaction was the chirality-determining step.

In the process of forming the product of (*S*)-chirality **P**, the reductive elimination reaction was the rate-determining step, and reaction pathway “a” was more favorable (i.e., the carbonyl insertion reaction into the Mo–C(sp^3) bond was easier than into the Mo–C=C bond.). The reaction pathway

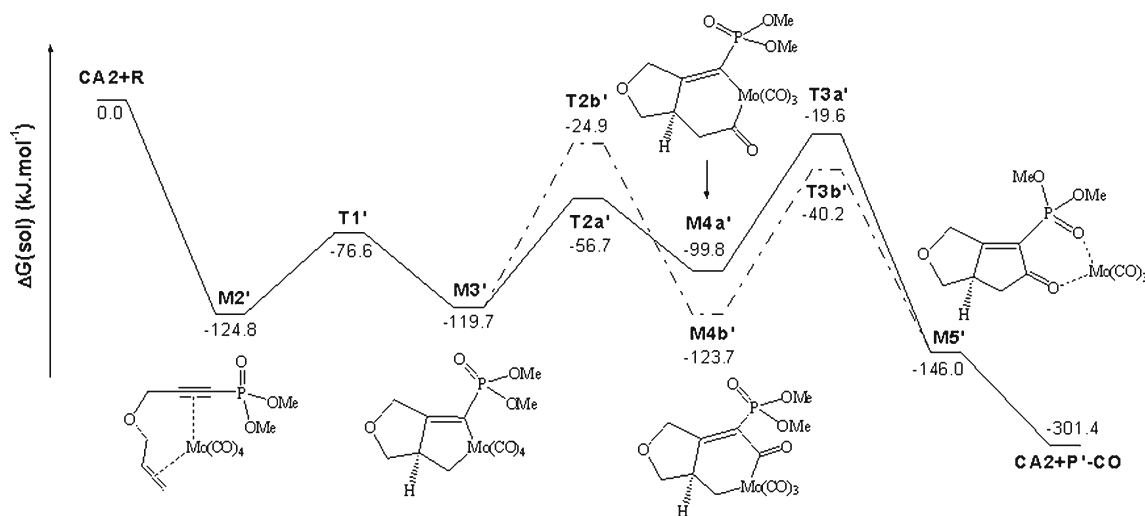


Fig. 5 Free energy profiles for the proposed pathways forming the product of (*R*)-chirality **P'**

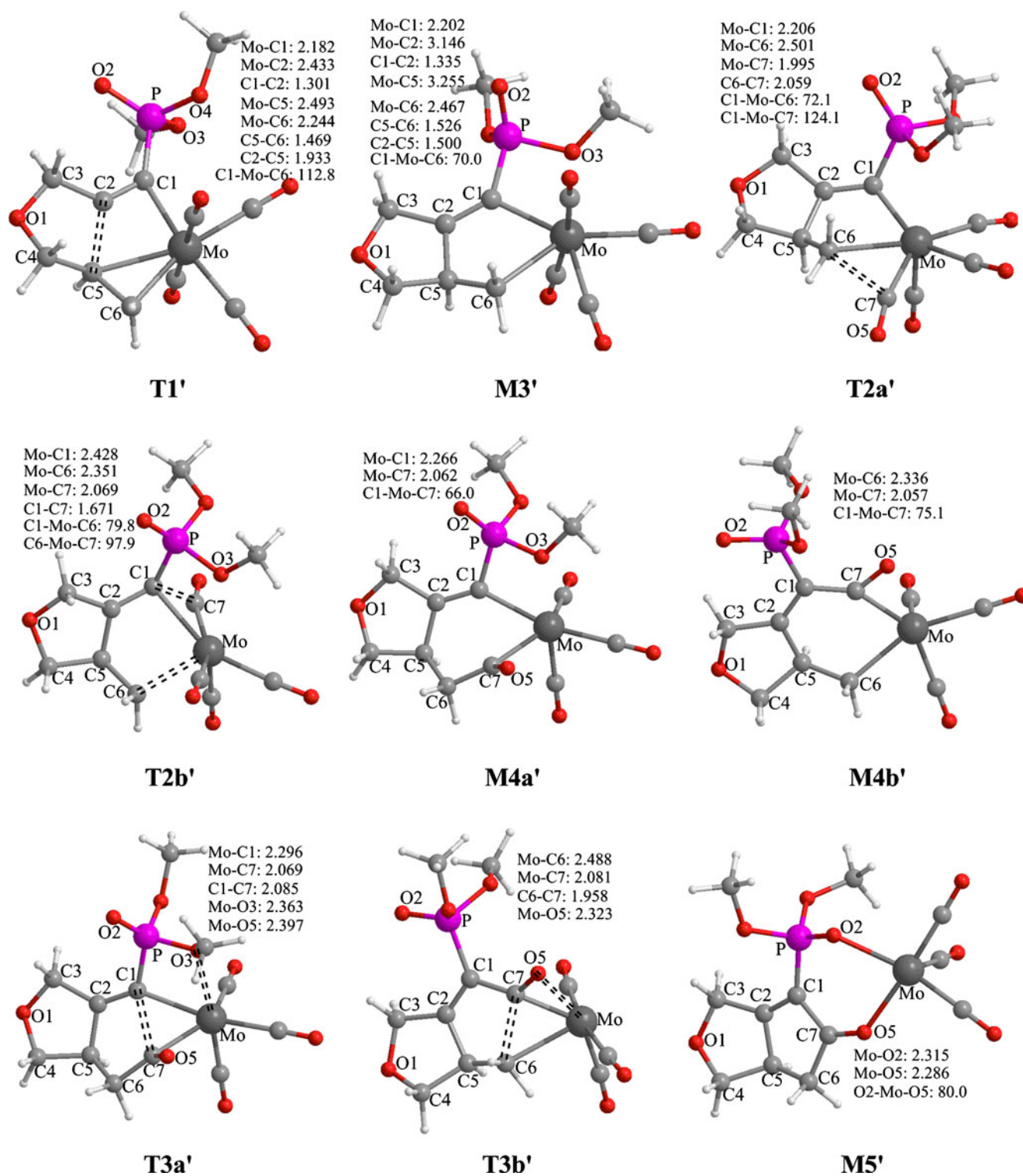
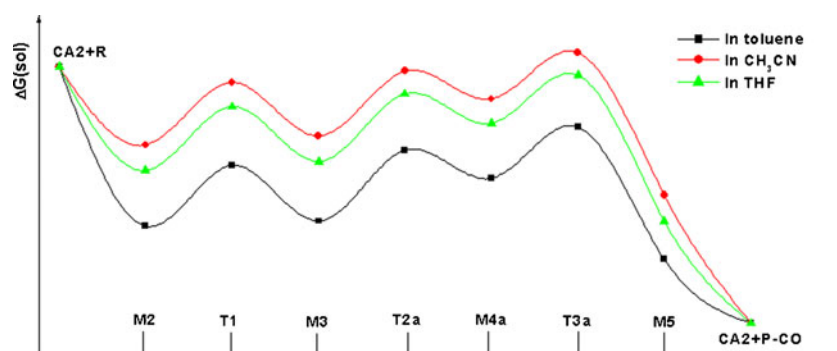


Fig. 6 Intermediates and transition states of the formation of the product of (*R*)-chirality in the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR (selected bond lengths are given in Å, angles in degrees)

$\text{CA2} + \text{R} \rightarrow \text{M2} \rightarrow \text{T1} \rightarrow \text{M3} \rightarrow \text{T2a} \rightarrow \text{M4a} \rightarrow \text{T3a} \rightarrow \text{M5} \rightarrow \text{P}$ was more favorable. Thus, in the process of forming the product of (*R*)-chirality **P'**, the reductive elimination reaction was the rate-determining step for reaction pathway “a”, while

the carbonyl insertion was the rate-determining step for reaction pathway “b”. Reaction pathway “b” was more favorable, so the carbonyl insertion reaction into the Mo–C(*sp*³) bond was more difficult than into the Mo–C=C

Fig. 7 Free energy profiles of the most favorable pathway in the three solvents toluene, CH₃CN, and THF



bond. The reaction pathway $CA2+R \rightarrow M2' \rightarrow T1' \rightarrow M3' \rightarrow T2b' \rightarrow M4b' \rightarrow T3b' \rightarrow M5' \rightarrow P'$ was more favorable.

Because the Gibbs free energy of **T3a** was lower by 21.6 kJ/mol than **T2b'**, the reaction pathway “a” forming **P** was more dominant. Therefore, the reaction pathway $CA2+R \rightarrow M2 \rightarrow T1 \rightarrow M3 \rightarrow T2a \rightarrow M4a \rightarrow T3a \rightarrow M5 \rightarrow P$ was the most favorable in the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR, and the dominant product predicted theoretically was of (*S*)-chirality, which was consistent with experiments [25].

Effects of the solvent

Srebnik et al. [25] also proved that the intramolecular PKR was solvent dependent. The highest yield was obtained in toluene with a temperature of 373.15 K, with much lower yields being obtained in CH₃CN or THF at temperatures of 355.15 or 333.15 K, respectively.

To evaluate the solvent effect of toluene ($\epsilon=2.379$), CH₃CN ($\epsilon=36.64$), and THF ($\epsilon=7.58$), single-point computations were performed at the B3LYP/6-31 G(d,p) level [LANL2DZ (f) for Mo] using the PCM model with the default parameters, except for the temperature (373.15 K for toluene, 355.15 K for CH₃CN, and 333.15 K for THF were used) [25]. The relative free energies, $\Delta G(\text{sol})$ including solvent energies, of all species in the three solvents are summarized in Table S2.

As shown in Table S2, in the three solvents toluene, CH₃CN, and THF, the dominant reaction pathway was consistent, and the rate-determining step was the reductive elimination reaction. The effect of the three solvents on the most favorable pathway is illustrated in Fig. 7: the black line shows the free energy profile in toluene; the red line shows the free energy profile in CH₃CN; the green line shows the free energy profile in THF. Evidently, the free energies of the stationary points of the most favorable pathway in toluene were lower than those in CH₃CN or THF. The free energies of the transition states of the rate-determining step in toluene, CH₃CN, and THF were -46.5 , 11.2 , and -6.1 kJ/mol, respectively. Therefore, we conclude that the reaction is solvent dependent, with toluene being the best among the three solvents.

As shown in Table S1, the solvation effect was considerable. It decreased the free energies of all intermediates and transition states.

Conclusions

The reaction mechanisms of the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR of 3-allyloxy-1-propynylphosphonates were explored computationally using DFT [at the B3LYP/6-31 G(d,p) level; LANL2DZ(f) for Mo]. The calculated results indicate that the Mo(CO)₆-catalyzed intramolecular Pauson-Khand reaction is exergonic, and that the total free energy released was -301.4 kJ/mol.

The reaction pathway $CA2+R \rightarrow M2 \rightarrow T1 \rightarrow M3 \rightarrow T2a \rightarrow M4a \rightarrow T3a \rightarrow M5 \rightarrow P$ was the most favorable among all of the reaction channels of the Mo-catalyzed intramolecular PKR. The reductive elimination reaction was the rate-determining step for this pathway, and the dominant product predicted theoretically was of (*S*)-chirality. The C–C oxidative cyclization reaction was the chirality-determining step. The carbonyl insertion reaction into the Mo–C(*sp*³) bond was easier than into the Mo–C=C bond.

This reaction was solvent dependent, and toluene was a better solvent than CH₃CN and THF. The solvation effect was considerable. It decreased the free energies of all intermediates and transition states.

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Supporting information All energies, Wiberg bond orders P_{ij} and electron density ρ ($e \cdot \text{\AA}^{-3}$) at BCPs of some selected bonds are given by the supporting information.

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