

Theoretical Investigation of Intramolecular Singlet Carbene 1,4- and 1,2-Cycloadditions

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Abstract: The intramolecular cycloaddition of singlet 2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene to form benzvalene and reactions of related systems have been studied with ab initio molecular orbital theory. These systems were methylene plus butadiene and the intramolecular reactions of allylmethylene, 2-cyclopropenylcarbene, 2-cyclobutenylcarbene, and 2-cyclopentenylcarbene. Geometry optimizations were performed with restricted Hartree-Fock calculations and the 3-21G basis set. The effect of electron correlation was included with second-order Møller-Plesset theory with the 6-31G* basis set on the 3-21G optimized geometries. The energies of activation were found to be dependent upon ring strain and spatial orientation of the filled carbene in-plane hybrid orbital during the initial electrophilic phase of the carbene addition. A decrease in activation energy for intramolecular cycloadditions is noted for systems that approach the idealized geometry found with intermolecular additions of carbenes to alkenes.

Singlet carbenes may react with conjugated dienes to give either 1,2- or 1,4-cycloadditions. While 1,2-cycloadditions are generally favored, there are a few unusual cases, illustrated in Figure 1, in which carbenes undergo 1,4-cycloadditions with polyenes. The enforced cisoid diene conformations in cyclooctatetraene,¹ norbornadiene,² bismethylenecycloheptane,³ and cyclopentadiene⁴ apparently promote 1,4-additions. The potential synthetic utility of 1,4-cycloadditions and the intriguing experimental paucity of such processes have initiated experimental⁵ and theoretical⁶ investigations of both intermolecular and intramolecular reactions. Our interest in this subject was aroused by the work of Burger and co-workers, who proved that 1-methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene undergoes exclusive 1,4-cycloaddition to form 1-methylbenzvalene, rather than the generally preferred 1,2-cycloaddition that would yield 2-methylbenzvalene, as shown later.

We initially investigated the reactions of 2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene in order to understand this intriguing result but subsequently widened the scope of the study to provide a more general understanding of intramolecular carbene cycloaddition reactivity. Six unsaturated carbene systems (Figure 2) were chosen to explore the effect of imposed geometric constraints upon intramolecular carbene cycloadditions. Our model systems were chosen to illuminate the influence of ring size and rigidity upon selectivity. The intermolecular transition structures of dihalocarbenes and ethylene provide an interesting idealized geometry that is compared to the intramolecular cases described above.

Background

Anastassiou examined the reaction of cyanonitrene and cyclooctatetraene, shown in Figure 1a. The 1,4-adduct was shown to result primarily from the direct 1,4-reaction and not from the isomerization of the 1,2-adduct.^{1a-c} This 1,4-addition was shown to be a nonconcerted reaction involving triplet cyanonitrene. Several workers investigated triplet carbene additions to various dienes, but only cyclopropanes were found.^{1d} Fluorenylidene gives only 1,2-adducts with cyclopentadiene, cyclohexadiene, and cyclooctatetraene.^{1d,e}

Jefford et al. reported that the reactions of difluorocarbene and fluorochlorocarbene with norbornadiene gave significant amounts of the endo-homo-1,4-adducts.^{2a} These reactions, illustrated in Figure 1b, are the first examples of 1,4-additions of singlet carbenes. An investigation of the thermal behavior of the 1,2-adducts confirms that the homo 1,4-adduct arises directly from a cheletropic reaction.^{2b} Jefford attributed this to the nucleophilic character of difluorocarbene and the rigid structure of norbornadiene, which is ideally set up for the 1,4-cycloaddition.

Separately, Jefford^{2c} and Klumpp^{2d} discussed the origins of 1,4-cycloadditions of dichlorocarbene to norbornadienes. The nucleophilic nature of the carbene postulated for the addition of difluorocarbene is not an issue with the electrophilic dichlorocarbene. The unusual formation of homo-1,4-adducts with norbornadiene and dichlorocarbene was attributed to the repulsions of chlorines and the C-5 and C-6 bridges leading to unfavorable steric interactions for normal 1,2-cyclopropanation.^{2e} The influence of entropic and electronic factors on the ratio between 1,2-adducts and homo-1,4-adducts from the reaction of difluorocarbene and norbornadiene has also been addressed.^{2f}

An intermolecular 1,4-addition (in miniscule yield) was reported for the reaction of dichlorocarbene and 1,2-bismethylenecyclo-

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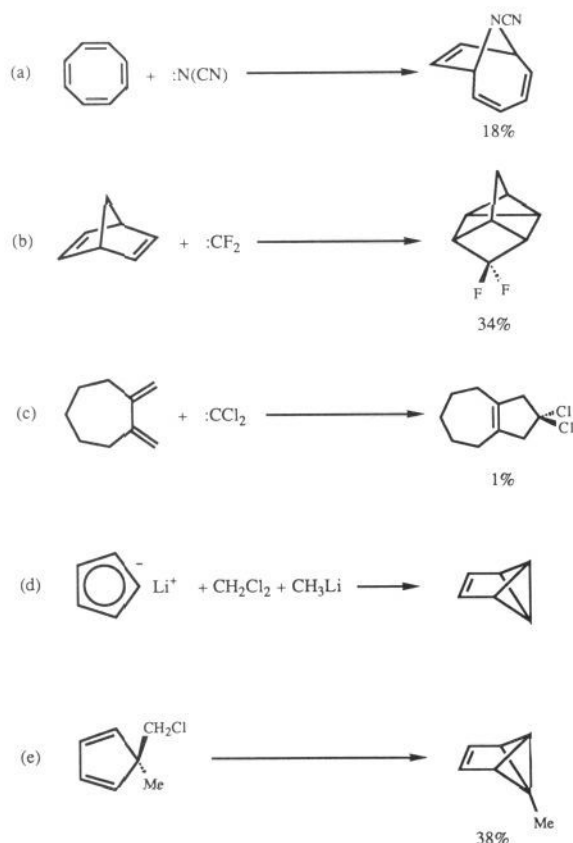


Figure 1. Experimental carbene 1,4-cycloadditions.

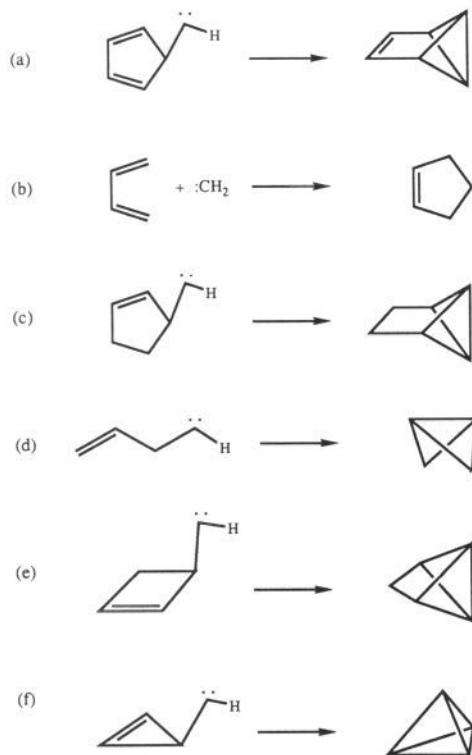


Figure 2. Reactions studied.

heptane, as shown in Figure 1c.³

Some time ago, benzvalene was prepared by Katz.^{4a,b} The "Katz reaction" to form benzvalene (Figure 1d) is believed to proceed via an exocyclic carbene or carbenoid that undergoes an intramolecular addition.^{4c} Burger and co-workers^{4d,e} have shown

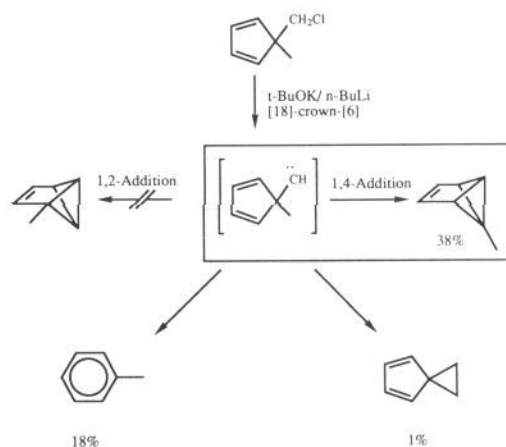


Figure 3.

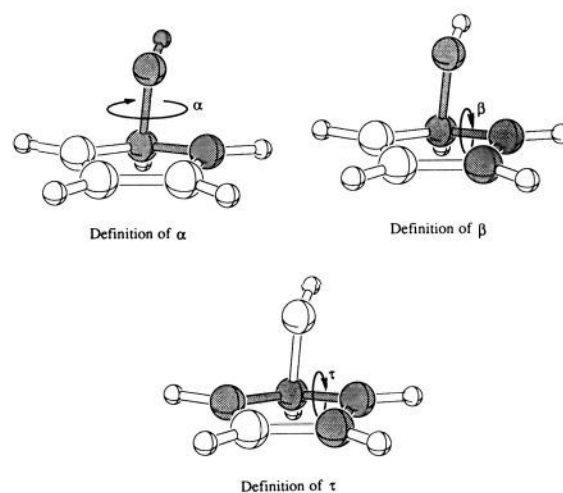


Figure 4.

that the reaction of 1-(chloromethyl)-1-methyl-2,4-cyclopentadiene with base generates the 1-methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene intermediate and leads to exclusive 1,4-addition, as shown in Figures 1e and 3. Formation of minute amounts of a spiro compound by CH insertion and toluene by 1,2-shift suggests that a free carbene is involved in the reaction.

There have been many experimental studies utilizing intramolecular carbene addition methodology for the preparation of tricyclo[3.1.0.0^{2,6}]hexane (Figure 2c), bicyclobutane (Figure 2d), and tricyclo[1.1.1.0^{4,5}]pentane (Figure 2e). An initial claim that a substituted tetrahedrane (Figure 2f) could be formed with a similar procedure was later retracted.⁷

Computational Methods

Ab initio molecular orbital calculations were carried out with the GAUSSIAN series of programs^{8a,b} on HARRIS H-1000, Digital MicroVax II, and IBM 3090 computers.^{8c} Structures were optimized with the use

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Table I. Stationary Points on the RHF/STO-3G and RHF/3-21G C₆H₆ Potential Surface for the Ring Closure of 2,4-Cyclopentadienylcarbene to Benzvalene

system	sym	RHF/STO-3G		RHF/3-21G		RMP2/6-31G**/3-21G	
		energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)
2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene (H inward)	C ₁	-227.703 46	0.0	-229.234 36	0.0	-231.256 77	0.0
2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene (H outward)	C _s	-227.699 69	2.4	-229.227 09	4.6	-231.250 36	4.0
2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene (H outward)	C ₁	-227.702 91	0.3	-229.231 11	2.0	-231.247 96	5.5
TS (1,2-addition)	C ₁	-227.676 91	16.7	-229.209 58	15.5	-231.265 94	-5.8
TS (1,4-addition)	C ₁	-227.680 82	14.2	-229.214 60	12.4	-231.273 83	-10.7
2nd-order saddle (1,4-addition)	C _s	-227.679 00	15.3	-229.214 37	12.5	-231.271 93	-9.5
benzvalene	C _{2v}	-227.784 19	-50.7	-229.267 04	-20.5	-231.335 65	-49.5

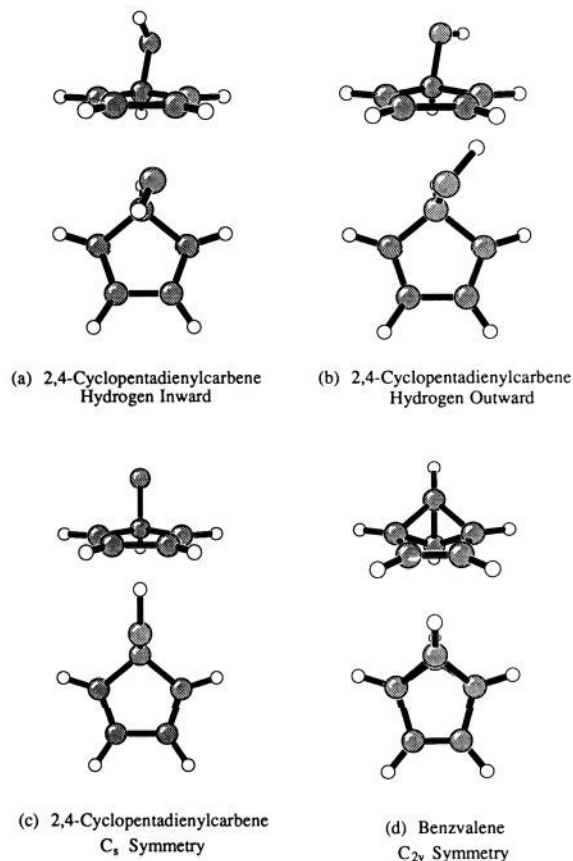
of analytical energy gradients and the STO-3G⁹ or 3-21G¹⁰ basis sets. These post Hartree-Fock calculations were carried out on the stationary points located at the RHF/3-21G geometries. These are referred to in the text as MP2/6-31G*, as a shorthand for the Pople designation MP2/6-31G**/RHF/3-21G. Electron correlation was calculated with second-order Møller-Plesset theory¹¹ with all core electrons included and the 6-31G* basis set.¹²

Theoretical Results

In our discussion of the formation of benzvalene and other products, we will describe the course of the reaction coordinate in terms of three torsional angles, as shown in Figure 4. The first defines the orientation of the methylenic hydrogen and is denoted as α . The second torsional angle of concern is β , which locates the carbene carbon relative to the olefin. Measurement of the nonplanar distortion of the ring was monitored by the torsional angle τ .

2,4-Cyclopentadienylcarbene Reactions. The ground-state conformation of 2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene has the methylene hydrogen pointing toward the center of the ring, as shown in Figure 5a. The conformation with the methylene hydrogen facing outward (Figure 5b) is also a minimum but is less stable by 2.0 kcal/mol at the RHF level, or 5.5 kcal/mol at the MP2/6-31G* level. This preference may arise from electron-electron repulsion involving Ψ_1 of the diene moiety and the occupied hybrid orbital of the carbene. To undergo the cycloaddition, the methylene hydrogen must rotate outward, directing the filled hybrid orbital toward the center of the ring, so that the nucleophilic phase of the addition mechanism is possible. Neither of these minima have C_s symmetry, indicating that even in the reactants there is some electrophilic interaction between the carbene vacant orbital and the diene. The calculated RHF energy with the constraint of a plane of symmetry (Figure 5c) results in a 4.6 kcal/mol destabilization relative to the C₁ ground-state conformation with the hydrogen inward, or 4.0 kcal/mol at the MP2/6-31G* level. Benzvalene, the product from the carbene rearrangement, was calculated in the C_{2v} point group, as shown in Figure 5d. The energies of reaction are -50.7, -20.5, and -49.5 kcal/mol at the RHF/STO-3G, RHF/3-21G, and MP2/6-31G* levels of theory, respectively.

The transition states for both the 1,2- and 1,4-modes of cycloaddition were located with the Baker routines¹³ incorporated into the GAUSSIAN 82 program. As a first step, a second-order saddle point was located along the C_s reaction path. The lowest normal mode had a frequency of 614i cm⁻¹ with A' symmetry. As depicted in Figure 6a, this mode leads to the 1,4-cycloaddition. The other imaginary frequency of 165i cm⁻¹ has A'' symmetry and corresponds to a symmetry-breaking motion, as pictured in Figure 6b. Starting from this geometry, searches for transition structures with reduced symmetry were conducted. A two-dimensional reaction coordinate search was initiated, adjusting and examining the internal coordinate forces on the torsional angle,

**Figure 5.**

α , and bond angle involving the methylene carbon to the olefin of addition. Both the 1,4- and the 1,2-addition modes were located in this manner. Energetics are presented in Table I. Parts c and d of Figure 6 illustrate the geometries and the transition vectors corresponding to the imaginary frequencies for the 1,4- and 1,2-cycloaddition transition structures, respectively. As pictured in Figure 6d, in the 1,2-reaction, the methylene unit has tilted toward the adjacent olefinic center with an angle of 71°, compressed from 95° in the reactant. This structure is strained for a typical intramolecular rearrangement, since the occupied hybrid orbital is directed away from the olefinic carbon necessary for 1,2-ring closure. The lower strain required to have the filled hybrid orbital point toward the olefinic carbon to complete the reaction in the 1,4-manner is the reason for absence of the 1,2-adduct in the 1-methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene cycloaddition. The short and long bond-forming distances in the 1,2-transition structure are 1.820 and 2.169 Å, respectively. The corresponding distances for the 1,4-transition structure are 1.886 and 2.066 Å. The distance in the 1,4-transition structure from the methylenic center to the olefinic carbon involved in the completion of the 1,2-addition is 2.655 Å, 0.49 Å further away than the corresponding 1,4-closure distance. The large advancement along the reaction coordinate reflects the lateness of the 1,2-transition state, with the carbon

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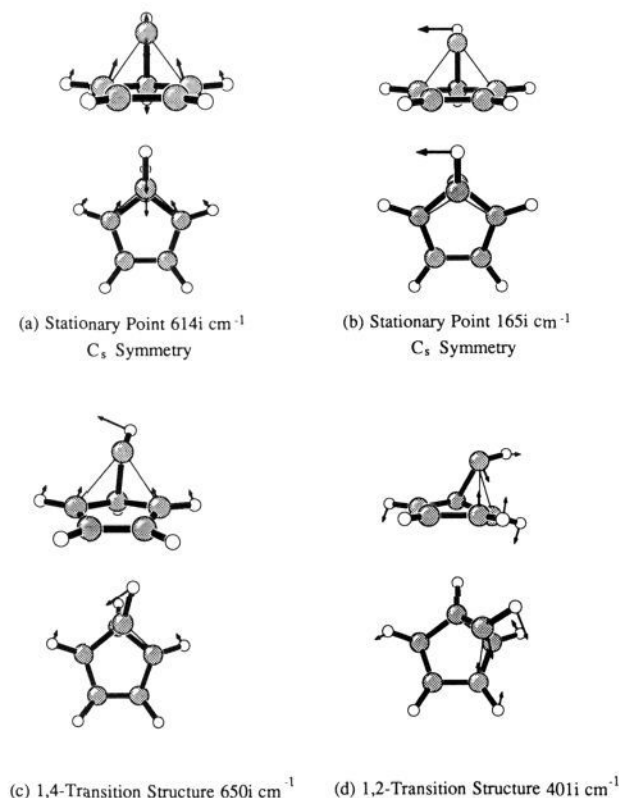
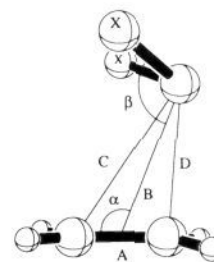


Figure 6.

skeleton achieving a highly distorted configuration of $\beta = 74^\circ$, which is 35° from the ground-state carbene. In comparison, $\beta = 97^\circ$ for the 1,4-transition state, only 12° from the reactant geometry.

The 1,4 activation energy is predicted by RHF/3-21G to be 3.1 kcal/mol lower than that of the 1,2-addition. MP2/6-31G* single points gave negative activation energies, and the concerted 1,4-addition process was favored by 4.9 kcal/mol over the 1,2-addition mechanism. The influence of correlation energy, lowering the activation energy and hence causing it to disappear, is observed quite generally in calculations for unstabilized carbenes. In spite of the absence of an energetic barrier for these carbene reactions, there is likely to be an entropy decrease as the reaction proceeds and a finite free energy barrier. The magnitude of the free energy barrier is primarily determined by the relative energies of different processes, as we have described in detail earlier.¹⁴

To understand the difference between 1,2- and 1,4-selectivity in general, the description of transition structures previously calculated for intermolecular carbene reactions is necessary. Earlier work by Rondan et al. with disubstituted halocarbenes has led to interesting transition structures for the 1,2-cycloaddition to ethylene.¹⁴ Recently, higher level calculations by Blake et al. produce a similar geometry for the addition of dichlorocarbene to ethylene.¹⁵ A summary of critical geometric parameters for various substituents, ranging from electrophilic CCl_2 to nucleophilic $\text{C}(\text{OH})_2$, is given in Figure 7. A characteristic geometric feature of these transition structures is that the so-called electrophilic bond-forming distance is larger than the nucleophilic one. This holds for the intermolecular addition of either electrophilic or nucleophilic carbenes.¹⁴ The electrophilic distance is defined as the difference between the methylenic center and the ethylenic carbon that is directly in the path of the empty p orbital on the carbene. Rondan et al. utilized the ratio of electrophilic to nu-



X	Level	A	B	C	D	α	β
Cl [†]	MP2/6-31G*	1.354	2.219	2.703	2.219	111.7°	109.1°
Cl	RHF/STO-3G	1.356	2.013	2.292	1.941	105.8°	107.8°
F	RHF/STO-3G	1.379	1.900	2.220	1.800	108.8°	107.1°
OH	RHF/STO-3G	1.425	1.852	2.227	1.707	112.8°	107.9°

[†] - Reference 15
All other work reference 14

Figure 7. Transition structures for stabilized carbene cycloadditions.

Table II. Single Points on the RHF/3-21G Potential Surface of 1-Methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene Ring Closure to 1-Methylbenzvalene and 2-Methylbenzvalene^a

system	pt gp sym	RHF/3-21G	
		energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)
1-methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene (H inward)	C ₁	-268.056 69	0.0
1-methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene (H outward)	C ₁	-268.053 21	2.2
TS (1,2-addition)	C ₁	-268.030 76	16.3
TS (1,4-addition)	C ₁	-268.038 77	11.2
1-methylbenzvalene	C ₁	-268.091 33	-21.7
2-methylbenzvalene	C ₁	-268.088 82	-20.2

^a All geometries were taken from the 2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene optimized RHF/3-21G structures, and a standard methyl was attached.

cleophilic distances to describe the character of the transition state.

1-Methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene Reactions. Replacement of a hydrogen on the optimized C_6H_6 stationary points with a standard methyl group¹⁶ magnifies the 1,4-addition preference, as summarized in Tables I and II. The energy of activation for the 1,2-addition increased 0.8 kcal/mol for the RHF/3-21G single-point energy and decreased 1.2 kcal/mol for the 1,4-transition state. The preference for the 1,4-adduct increases to 5.1 kcal/mol, as compared to the 3.1 kcal/mol in the unsubstituted case.

Methylene-Butadiene Reactions. The difference between the intramolecular and intermolecular cases is demonstrated by the calculations of 1,3-butadiene plus methylene. A local minimum for a methylene-butadiene complex was located (C_s) 2.6 kcal/mol below the reactants (Figure 8a). The energy was found to be slightly above that of the reactants with inclusion of electron correlation and probably would not be a stable entity if adequate correlation were included and geometry optimization were carried out at that level.

The search for a transition structure constrained to C_s symmetry results in the location of a second-order stationary point with two imaginary frequencies. The first corresponds to the 1,4-addition at $582i \text{ cm}^{-1}$ with A' symmetry, as shown in Figure 8b. The second vibration reduces the symmetry, as shown in Figure 8c. The product from the 1,4-addition, cyclopentene, is shown in Figure

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(16) The standard methyl used had C-C of 1.5407 Å, C-H of 1.0849 Å, and C-C-H angles of 111.74°, with CH bonds staggered with respect to the vicinal bonds.

Table III. Stationary Points for the Reactions of 1,4-Addition of Singlet Methylene to 1,3-Butadiene (Energies Relative to Methylene plus *s-trans*-Butadiene)

system	pt gp sym	RHF/STO-3G		RHF/3-21G		RMP2/6-31G*//3-21G	
		energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)
methylene	C _{2v}	-38.372 30		-38.651 85		-38.969 86	
<i>s-trans</i> -butadiene	C _{2h}	-153.017 44		-154.053 94		-155.420 69	
CH ₂ + <i>s-trans</i> -butadiene	C ₁	-191.389 74	0.0	-192.705 79	0.0	-194.390 55	0.0
ion-dipole complex	C _s	-191.391 25	-0.9	-192.709 95	-2.6	-194.389 00	1.0
2nd-order saddle (1,4-addition)	C _s	-191.352 25	23.5	-192.684 51	13.4	-194.391 52	0.6
cyclopentene	C _s	-191.673 66	-178.2	-192.901 99	-123.1	-194.615 83	-141.4
<i>cis</i> -vinylcyclopropane	C _s	-191.598 59	-131.1	-192.851 78	-91.6	-194.600 33	-131.6
<i>trans</i> -vinylcyclopropane	C _s	-191.605 83	-135.6	-192.855 88	-94.2	-194.603 14	-133.4

Table IV. Stationary Points on the RHF/STO-3G and RHF/3-21G C₆H₈ Potential Surfaces for the Ring Closure of 2-Cyclopentenylcarbene to Tricyclo[3.1.0.0^{2,6}]heptane

system	pt gp sym	RHF/STO-3G		RHF/3-21G		RMP2/6-31G*//3-21G	
		energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)
2-cyclopentenylcarbene (H outward)	C ₁	-228.919 67	0.0	-230.420 04	0.0	-232.479 01	0.0
TS (1,2-addition)	C ₁	-228.902 24	10.9	-230.409 88	6.4	-232.495 77	-10.5
tricyclo[3.2.0.0 ^{2,6}]heptane	C _{2v}	-229.019 75	-62.8	-230.473 56	-33.6	-232.582 77	-65.1

Table V. Stationary Points on the RHF/STO-3G and RHF/3-21G C₄H₆ Potential Surfaces for the Ring Closure of Allylmethylene to Bicyclobutane (Energies Relative to the C₁ Point Group for Allylmethylene)

system	pt gp sym	RHF/STO-3G		RHF/3-21G		RMP2/6-31G*//3-21G	
		energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)
<i>cis</i> -allylmethylene	C _s	-152.903 53	0.8	-153.934 97	0.5	-155.295 53	0.8
<i>trans</i> -allylmethylene	C _s	-152.902 14	1.7	-153.933 50	1.4	-155.294 18	1.7
allylmethylene	C ₁	-152.904 79	0.0	-153.935 70	0.0	-155.296 83	0.0
TS (1,2-addition)	C ₁	-152.895 08	6.1	-153.929 83	3.7	-155.321 95	-15.8
bicyclobutane	C _{2v}	-153.001 95	-61.0	-153.986 64	-32.0	-155.406 32	-68.7

Table VI. Energies of 2-Cyclobutenylcarbene and Tricyclo[1.1.1.0^{4,5}]pentane

system	pt gp sym	RHF/STO-3G		RHF/3-21G		RMP2/6-31G*//3-21G	
		energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	rel (kcal/mol)
2-cyclobutenylcarbene	C ₁	-190.287 43	0.0	-191.54 37	0.0	-193.259 01	0.0
tricyclo[1.1.1.0 ^{4,5}]pentane	C _{2v}	-190.368 19	-50.7	-191.590 44	-29.3	-193.350 01	-57.1

8d. The reaction was found to be 141 kcal/mol exothermic at the MP2/6-31G* level. The energies for the different stationary points are summarized in Table III.

Relaxation of the symmetry constraints for the determination of the transition states for both the 1,2- or the 1,4-additions was problematic. Neither 1,2- nor 1,4-transition states could be located at either the RHF/STO-3G or the RHF/3-21G levels of theory. Earlier calculations have shown that methylene, without additional stabilization by substituents, does not form the characteristic π -complexes found for stabilized carbenes at the RHF level.¹⁴ The surface for the reaction of singlet methylene with ethylene has been thoroughly investigated by Zurawski and Kutzelnigg.¹⁷ The potential energy surface was similar to the one reported by Hoffmann¹⁸ with a semiempirical treatment, except that no barrier for addition was observed. The energy decreased monotonically as a function of reaction coordinate, leading to cyclopropanation without a detectable activation barrier. The concerted 1,4-addition of methylene to *cis*-butadiene has also been computed to have an activation barrier of 28 kcal/mol by the semiempirical MINDO/3 method¹⁹ but 15 kcal/mol higher in energy than the corresponding activation energy found with the RHF/3-21G level of theory.

The formation of the 1,2-cycloaddition product *trans*-vinylcyclopropane is exothermic by 133.4 kcal/mol at the MP2/6-31G* level.

The *cis* conformation of vinylcyclopropane is destabilized by 2.6 kcal/mol with RHF/3-21G and 1.8 kcal/mol with the inclusion of electron correlation as compared to the *trans* conformation.

2-Cyclopentenylcarbene Reaction. The ground state of 2-cyclopentenylcarbene is shown in Figure 9a. The relaxation of the ring allows more interaction of the carbene with the π -bond of the alkene. The angle $\beta = 95^\circ$ is 14° closer to the 1,2-transition state than observed for the rigid diene structure. The puckering of the five-membered ring is $\tau = 19^\circ$, significantly different from the diene value of 3° .

The 1,2-transition state, Figure 9b, is less strained than the diene case. The degree of twisting of the ring is measured by $\tau = -38^\circ$, which is 14° more than the diene 1,2-transition-state geometry. The additional ring flexibility allows the transition structure to become more similar to an intermolecular transition-state geometry. Considerable elongation of both electrophilic and nucleophilic bond-making distances as compared to the 2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene transition structure is observed along with a corresponding decrease in activation energy. Calculations predict that $E_a = 6.4$ kcal/mol at the RHF/3-21G level, 9.1 kcal/mol below that evaluated for the corresponding diene (Table IV). The energy of reaction for the formation of tricyclo[3.1.0.0^{2,6}]hexane (Figure 9c) was determined to be -65.1 kcal/mol by MP2/6-31G* single-point calculations.

2-Cyclopropenylcarbene Reaction. The reduction in the rigidity of the diene moiety has been demonstrated to lower substantially

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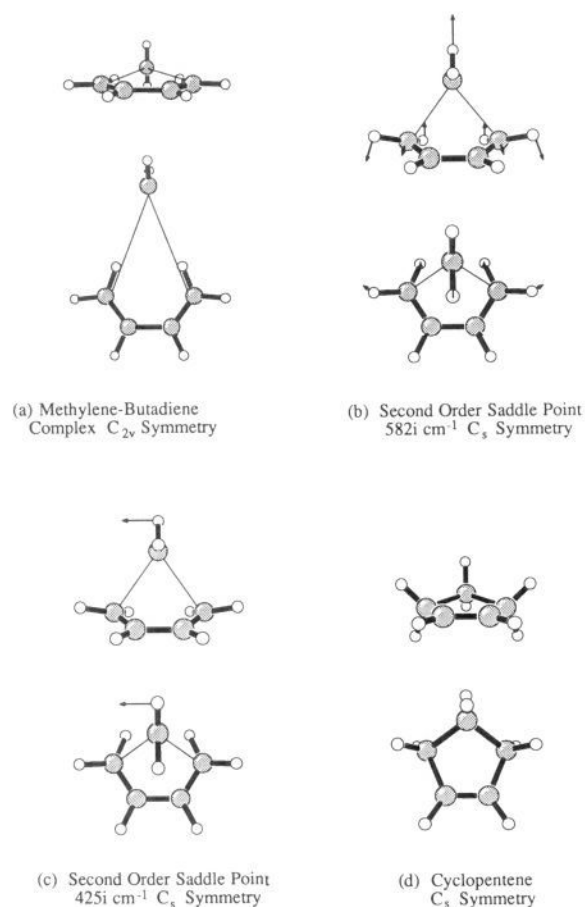


Figure 8.

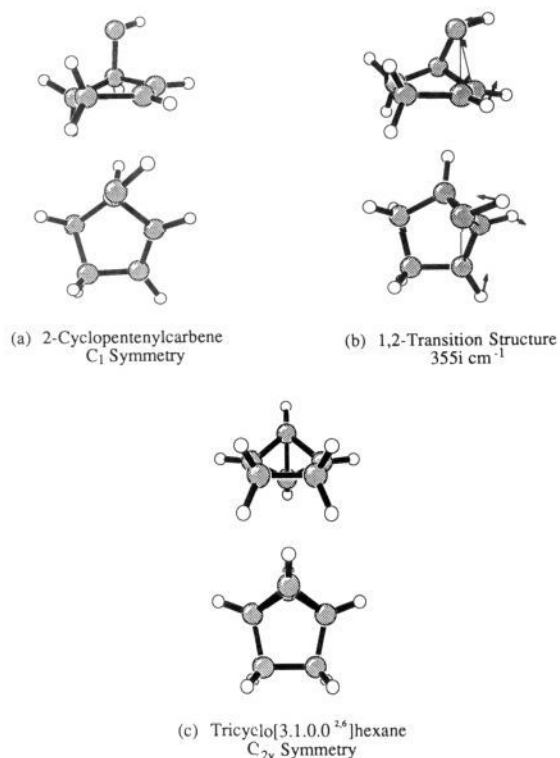


Figure 9.

the activation energy for the 1,2-addition. The 1,2-cycloaddition of 2-cyclopropenylcarbene to form tetrahedrane (Figure 10d) was also examined in order to probe the influence of ring size on

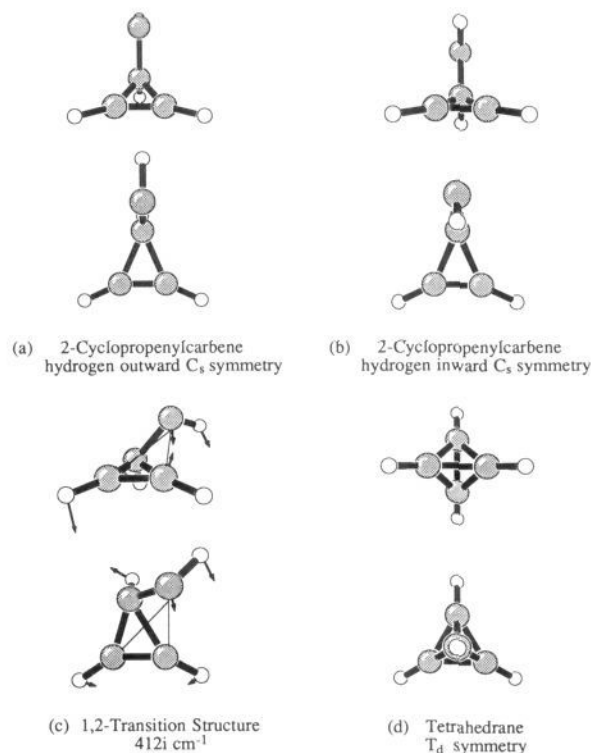


Figure 10.

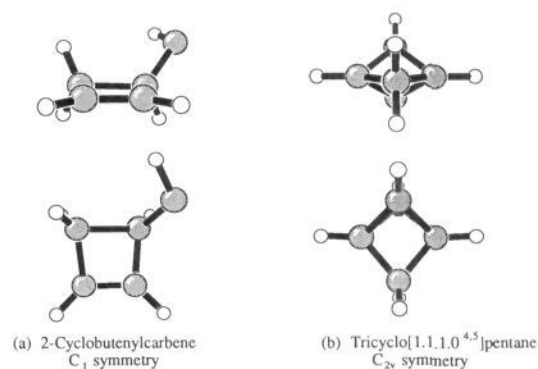


Figure 11.

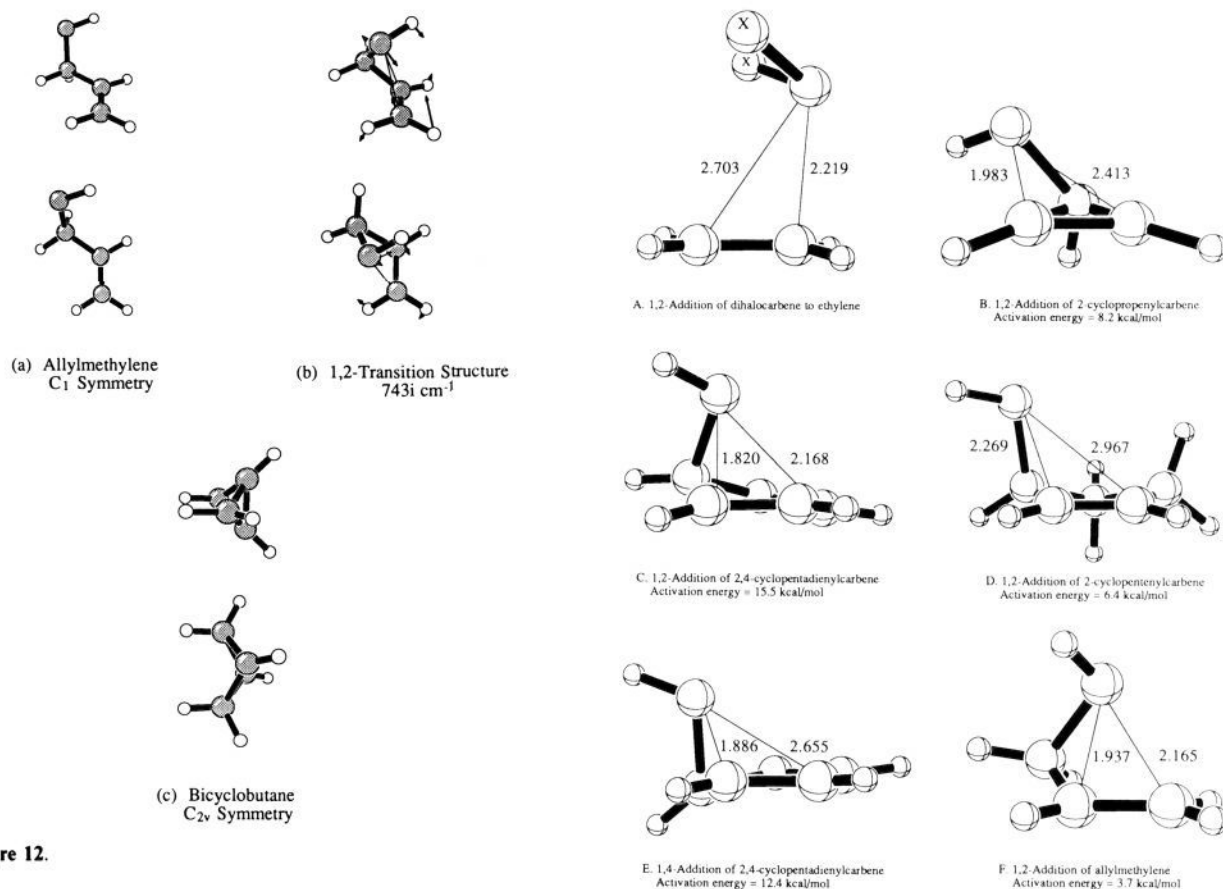
activation energy. The ground-state species is shown in Figure 10a. Unlike the other carbenes studied, the preferred π -complex geometry has C_s symmetry. A slight preference for the occupied hybrid orbital to be facing outward away from the ring was observed at the RHF/3-21G level, as shown in Figure 10b. At the MP2/6-31G* level, the conformer with the hydrogen inward over the ring is 0.5 kcal/mol less stable. The results are summarized in Table V. The formation of tetrahedrane is much less exothermic than the other carbene cycloadditions. The energy of reaction was found to be -32.1 kcal/mol at the RHF/STO-3G, -11.8 kcal/mol at the RHF/3-21G, and -36.8 at the MP2/6-31G* levels of computation. Other workers have examined the stability of tetrahedrane and have reported similar energies of reaction.²⁰

The transition structure, Figure 10c, is 8.2 kcal/mol above the ground state. This is destabilized by 1.8 kcal/mol as compared to the energy of activation for the 2-cyclopentenylcarbene rearrangement at the RHF/3-21G level of theory. The 1,2-transition-state geometry is highly contorted from its original ground-state structure, but only in such a way as to increase both the

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Table VII. Stationary Points on the RHF/STO-3G and RHF/3-21G C₄H₄ Potential Surfaces for the Ring Closure of 2-Cyclopropenylcarbene to Tetrahedrane

system	pt gp sym	RHF/STO-3G		RHF/3-21G		RMP2/6-31G*/3-21G	
		energy (hartrees)	relative (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	relative (kcal/mol)	energy (hartrees)	relative (kcal/mol)
2-cyclopropenylcarbene (H outward)	C _s	-151.656 65	0.0	-152.689 53	0.0	-154.067 38	0.0
2-cyclopropenylcarbene (H inward)	C _s	-151.656 33	0.2	-152.689 86	-0.2	-154.066 56	0.5
TS (1,2-addition)	C ₁	-151.638 47	11.4	-152.676 49	8.2	-154.077 24	-6.2
tetrahedrane	C _{2v}	-151.707 82	-32.1	-152.708 36	-11.8	-154.126 03	-36.8

**Figure 12.**

electrophilic and nucleophilic distances, as shown in Figure 13b.

2-Cyclobutenylcarbene Reaction. The 1,2-cycloaddition transition state for 2-cyclobutenylcarbene was not located, but the reactant and product (Figure 11a,b) were optimized. The energy of reaction is -29.3 kcal/mol at the RHF/3-21G level of theory and -57.1 kcal/mol with the inclusion of electron correlation.

Allylmethylene Reaction. Allylmethylene (Figure 12a) has added geometric flexibility, and the intramolecular reaction is more facile. The characteristic positioning for the stabilizing electrophilic interaction with the π -system was not observed for the ground-state carbene. In fact, the methylenic hydrogen was pointed almost directly into the olefinic centers, allowing for staggering of the occupied hybrid orbital and the adjacent σ_{C-H} bonds. The cis and trans conformations of allylmethylene were held in C_s symmetry and optimized. The geometries are 0.5 and 1.4 kcal/mol, respectively, higher in energy than the C₁ minima. This additional relaxation of the carbon skeleton removes the carbene center from the electron-rich π -system, such that the electrophilic interaction no longer occurs. For allylmethylene, the electrophilic distance is 2.580 Å, whereas in 2-cyclopentenylcarbene it is decreased to 2.270 Å, and for 2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene (H-outwards) the distance is 2.252 Å. The same situation is apparent for 2-cyclopropenylcarbene, since only a C_s structure could be located with an electrophilic distance was elongated to 2.553 Å, comparable to the length for allylmethylene.

The 1,2-transition state, Figure 12b, for the allylmethylene reaction was reminiscent of the others found in this investigation,

Figure 13.

except that it most closely resembles the intermolecular structure as compared to the other intramolecular cases examined. The ratio of electrophilic to nucleophilic distances is 0.9, whereas in the intermolecular case this ratio is 1.2. The reduction in the energy of activation to 3.7 kcal/mol as compared to higher values in cyclic cases reflects only a small amount of ring strain in this transition structure.

In the intramolecular cases examined, the alkyl tether forces even longer nucleophilic distances, as compared to the electrophilic length. As the strain in the system decreases and the ratio of electrophilic to nucleophilic distances approaches that of the intermolecular case, a corresponding decrease in activation energy is observed. Therefore, as the intramolecular transition structure approaches that of an intermolecular geometry, a lowering of activation energy is computed; this is illustrated in Figure 13.

Summary

Although there are a number of 1,4-addition products resulting from the reactions of carbenes with polyenes, only a few documented direct 1,4-cycloadditions have been reported, one via a triplet mechanism and others through the singlet mode. The closure of 2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene to 1-methylbenzvalene has been shown to result from the geometric strain in the 1,2-cycloaddition transition state. The positioning of the carbene HOMO to complete its nucleophilic attack in the 1,2-mode of addition

diverts the preferred reaction pathway to 1,4 in this intramolecular case.

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Registry No. 2,4-Cyclopentadienylcarbene, 65312-66-5; benzvalene, 659-85-8; methylene, 2465-56-7; butadiene, 106-99-0; allylmethylene,

90566-94-2; 2-cyclopropenylcarbene, 61281-66-1; 2-cyclobutenylcarbene, 112879-11-5; 2-cyclopentenylcarbene, 123811-71-2; 1-methyl-2,4-cyclopentadienylcarbene, 74130-26-0; 1-methylbenzvalene, 74130-27-1; 2-methylbenzvalene, 74130-29-3; cyclopentene, 142-29-0; vinylcyclopropane, 693-86-7; tricyclo[3.2.0.0^{2,6}]heptane, 30907-83-6; bicyclobutane, 157-33-5; tricyclo[1.1.1.0^{4,5}]pentane, 333-17-5; tetrahedrane, 157-39-1.

Supplementary Material Available: Structures and listings of bond lengths and bond angles (5 pages). Ordering information is given on any current masthead page.

Structure and Bonding in Cr(CO)₅H₂ and Cr(CO)₄(H₂)₂ Complexes

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Abstract: The electronic structure of Cr(CO)₅(H₂) and Cr(CO)₄(H₂)₂ complexes has been investigated using ab initio electronic wave functions and effective core potentials. In Cr(CO)₅(H₂) η²-H₂ coordination is found to be energetically preferred, in agreement with experimental results. The formation of the dihydride form is an energy-demanding process; this explains why under D₂ pressure no isotope exchange is observed. Cr(CO)₄(H₂)₂ contains two coordinated hydrogen molecules; polyhydrogen forms are found to be highly unstable. A mechanism is proposed to explain the observed formation of Cr(CO)₅(HD) during H₂/D₂ exchange in Cr(CO)₄(H₂)₂; it implies the formation of a dihydrogen–dihydride complex. The calculations predict also the possible existence of a stable open H₃ ligand in the hypothetical [Cr(CO)₅(H₃)]⁺ complex.

The recent discovery of transition-metal complexes where the H₂ molecule is stably coordinated to a metal center¹ without giving oxidative addition has opened new opportunities to study one of the most fundamental molecular activations in organometallic complexes as well as in metal surfaces.² Since the first example of a stable dihydrogen complex, W(CO)₃(PR₃)₂(η²-H₂), where η²-H₂ denotes side-on bonding, was reported by Kubas in 1984,^{1a} an increasing number of similar compounds have been synthesized.³ The original Kubas complex has been characterized in the solid state by both X-ray and neutron diffraction techniques,¹ showing an H–H distance of 0.75 Å (X-ray) and 0.84 Å (neutron); a similar H–H distance has been observed in the [Fe(H)(H₂)-(dppe)]⁺ complex.^{3a,b} The existence of other η²-H₂ complexes has been inferred mainly by spectroscopic measurements.^{2,3}

This is the case of the Cr(CO)₅H₂ complex where the existence of coordinated molecular hydrogen has been deduced from ν_{H–H} IR data.^{4,5} Simple theoretical arguments⁶ as well as experimental

evidence⁴ support the view of an H₂ complex with low stability toward H₂ loss and low-energy pathways for the H₂ → D₂ exchange. Indeed, under pressure of D₂, Cr(CO)₅H₂ thermally reacts to form Cr(CO)₅D₂.⁵ However, different from Kubas' compound where isotope exchange occurs giving within a few days a statistical mixture of H₂, D₂, and HD species^{1b,c}, under pressure of D₂, the only species observed with the Cr complex are Cr(CO)₅H₂ and Cr(CO)₅D₂ with no evidence for any Cr(CO)₅HD.⁵ The latter is observed in a mixture of Cr(CO)₅(D₂) and Cr(CO)₄(D₂)₂ under H₂ pressure.⁵ This exchange is of considerable interest for the understanding of the interaction of H₂ with metal centers. A proposed mechanism for the exchange implies the simultaneous coordination of both H₂ and D₂ molecules according to the scheme Cr(CO)₆ + 2H₂ – 2CO → Cr(CO)₄(H₂)₂ + D₂ – H₂ → Cr(CO)₄(H₂)(D₂) → Cr(CO)₄(HD)₂ + CO – HD → Cr(CO)₅(HD). The rate-determining step will involve the cleavage of H–H and D–D bonds and the formation of a new HD ligand, but the mechanism is not clear. It has been suggested that the exchange can occur through the formation of transient species where polyhydrogen "mass spectrometer molecules" like H₃ or H₄ are stabilized by bonding to the metal center.^{7,8}

In this paper we present the results of an ab initio MO–LCAO study of Cr(CO)₅(H₂) and Cr(CO)₄(H₂)₂ complexes. We will analyze the relative stabilities of η¹-H₂ and η²-H₂ as well as the seven-coordinated dihydride forms of Cr(CO)₅(H₂) and of a number of possible geometrical isomers of Cr(CO)₄(H₂)₂. The bonding of molecular hydrogen with transition-metal complexes has been already the subject of theoretical studies based on qualitative arguments.^{6–9} However, ab initio approaches, different

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