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Ligand Effects on the Chemoselectivity of Ortho-Metalated Rhodium(II) Catalyzed α-Diazo Ketone **Transformations**

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 $Rh_2(OOCR)_2(PC)_2$ complexes (PC = orthometalated phosphines, OOCR = carboxylates) with very polarizable ligands, such as aromatic rings directly joined to the rhodium atoms, control chemoselectivity in competitive metal carbene transformations of α -diazo ketones. These catalysts have a mixed set of ligands that allows choosing among a big selection of ligands to gradually affect the electronic and steric properties of the catalyst. Their selectivity depends on the electrophilicity of the ligands and the polarizability of the metalated aromatic rings. Thus, $Rh_2(OOCR)_2(PC)_2$ compounds $[PC = (C_6H_4)P(CH_3)(C_6H_5), (p-CH_3C_6H_3)P(p-C$ $CH_3C_6H_4)_2$, $(C_6H_4)P(C_6H_5)_2$; $R = C_3F_7$ or CF_3] exhibit an exceptional selectivity for aliphatic C–H insertion over aromatic substitution in catalytic decomposition of 1-diazo-5-methyl-3phenyl-2-hexanone. Results obtained from these complexes in competitive intramolecular cyclopropanation versus tertiary C-H insertion, cyclopropanation versus aromatic substitution, and C-H insertion versus aromatic substitution are compared with those obtained for other rhodium(II) compounds, such as rhodium(II) caprolactamate (Rh₂(cap)₄), rhodium(II) perfluorobutyrate, and rhodium(II) acetate.

Introduction

 α -Diazocarbonyl compounds constitute a class of organics of quite exceptional flexibility in synthesis. Their most significant reactions are those that proceed with loss of nitrogen which can be brought about thermally, photochemically, or catalytically.¹ Their use in catalytic methods for the generation of metallocarbenes has attracted a great deal of attention in recent years. Early work in this area² made use of insoluble copper catalysts, but homogenous catalysts such as rhodium(II) complexes have become the premier catalysts.²⁻⁴ These compounds catalyze a variety of important reactions, such as cyclopropanation, aliphatic carbonhydrogen bond insertion, heteroatom-hydrogen bond insertion, aromatic substitution, and ylide formation. The success of these catalysts in intramolecular decomposition processes has maintained a high level of interest in diazocarbonyl compounds as synthetic intermediates.^{3,4} While many recent reports deal with controlling the stereoselectivity and, in particular with chiral catalysts, the enantioselectivity of metal-catalyzed diazocarbonyl reactions,⁵⁻¹³ there is a growing number

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of examples which also address the question of chemoselectivity.^{14–17} This type of selectivity has been probed by the preparation of diazocarbonyl compounds containing two different reaction sites and the study of the competition between the two carbenoid processes. These studies have shown¹⁵ that the chemoselectivity of the rhodium carbenoids, generated in situ, is greatly affected by the nature of the bridging ligand attached to the metal.

Pirrung et al.¹⁸ analyzed the ligand effect on the selectivity of rhodium(II) carboxylate mediated transformations. Thus, two reactions of diazo compounds involving intramolecular competition of O-ylide versus secondary C-H insertion and tertiary C-H versus primary C-H insertion have been studied. They have found that the greatest selectivity is observed with ligands possessing low field effects and high polarizability raising the possibility that both electron-donating and electron-accepting abilities of the ligand might be important.

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Figure 1.

It is accepted that the active site of the rhodium catalyst is one of the axial coordination positions of the dinuclear cage.^{2,19} The decomposition of the diazo compound yields a carbene that can be stabilized forming a metal-carbenoid before undergoing further reaction. The ability of rhodium(II) compounds to form labile adducts by coordinating different donor ligands in these axial positions has been well investigated.²⁰ The stability of these Rh-L bonds roughly increases in the order O < N < P. Although the stability of the Rh-P bond has been interpreted as the result of a σ interaction augmented by the synergistic π -acceptor ability of the axial ligand, arguments based only on σ interaction have been proposed on the basis *ab-initio* calculations.²¹ Cotton et al.²² first prepared rhodium(II) compounds with metalated phosphines and have reported electrochemical studies on Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₂[(C₆H₄)P(C₆H₅)₂]₂. 2L with several donor ligands. As the oxidation potentials for the redox system Rh24+/Rh25+ become more positive, the oxidation reaction becomes more difficult, in the order L = P < N < O, and consequently there is an increase of the electron density for the HOMO orbital in the order O < N < P. Drago and others^{23,24} have reported coordination of CO to a limited set of rhodium carboxylates. They observed for the coordinated carbon monoxide a decrease in the $\nu_{\rm C-O}$ stretching frequency compared to the free ligand. These results support the capability of these rhodium complexes to have a synergic π -Rh–L interaction in addition to the σ -L–Rh bond.

In contrast to the homoleptic $Rh_2(L-L)_4$ compounds used in previous catalytic studies,^{14,26} we report in this paper the catalytic behavior of a series of ortho-metalated rhodium(II) compounds of the type Rh₂(OOCR)₂- $(PC)_2$ [PC = ortho-metalated phosphine; R = CH₃, CF₃, C_3F_7] in the decomposition of three α -diazo ketones. The presence of two different ligands, the metalated phosphines with a highly polarizable phenyl group attached to the rhodium atom and the carboxylates, allows a better modulation of the electronic and steric properties of the catalyst that influence the activity and selectivity of the catalytic reactions.

Table 1. List of Catalysts

				$\nu_{\rm CO}$
phosphine	Xa	carboxylate	catalyst	$(cm^{-1})^{b}$
$(CH_3)_2(C_6H_5)P$	Н	CH ₃ COO	1a	2028
$(CH_3)(C_6H_5)_2P$	Н	CH ₃ COO	1b	2032
$(p-CH_3C_6H_4)_3P$	m-CH ₃	CH ₃ COO	1c	2037
$(m-CH_3C_6H_4)_3P$	p-CH ₃	CH ₃ COO	1d	2032
$(C_6H_5)_3P$	H	CH ₃ COO	1e	2041
$(p-FC_6H_4)_3P$	<i>m</i> -F	CH ₃ COO	1f	2043
$(m-FC_6H_4)_3P$	<i>p</i> -F	CH ₃ COO	1g	2044
$(p-CF_3C_6H_4)_3P$	m-CF ₃	CH ₃ COO	1h	2042
$(C_6F_5)(C_6H_5)_2P$	Η	CH ₃ COO	1i	2044
$(o-BrC_6F_5)(C_6H_5)_2P$	Η	CH ₃ COO	1j	2042
$(CH_3)_2(C_6H_5)P$	Η	C ₃ F ₇ COO	1ľk	2043
$(CH_3)(C_6H_5)_2P$	Н	C ₃ F ₇ COO	1l	2042
$(p-CH_3C_6H_4)_3P$	m-CH3	C ₃ F ₇ COO	1m	2042
$(C_6H_5)_3P$	Η	C ₃ F ₇ COO	1n	2038
$(p-FC_6H_4)_3P$	<i>m</i> -F	C ₃ F ₇ COO	10	2074
$(m-FC_6H_4)_3P$	p-F	C ₃ F ₇ COO	1p	2070
$(p-CF_3C_6H_4)_3P$	m-CF ₃	C ₃ F ₇ COO	1q	2099
$(C_6H_5)_3P$	Н	CF ₃ COO	1r	2040
R	h ₂ (OOCC	$F_{3})_{4}c^{-}$		2128
R	h ₂ (OOCC	$(H_3)_4$		2098
Rh	2(HNCOC	$CH_3)_4^d$		2046
		-, -		

^a Substituent position relative to the metalated carbon atom. ^b Highest ν_{CO} carbonyl frequency for CH₂Cl₂ solution of the catalyst saturated with carbon monoxide (1 atm pressure). ^c From ref 22. d From ref 23.

Part of these results have been reported in a preliminary communication.²⁵

Results

Catalysts. Different ortho-metalated dirhodium catalysts were synthesized with carboxylates of different electrophilicity and phosphines of different basicity, by changing the R₁ and R₂ groups and the substituent X on the metalated aromatic ring (see Table 1 and Figure 1).

To test the π -back-bonding ability of these dirhodium complexes, CO adducts were prepared by bubbling carbon monoxide (1 atm pressure) through CH₂Cl₂ solutions of the dimers. Since the stretching frequencies reported for CO bound to Rh(II) carboxylates were not clear to represent the 1:1 or the 1:2 CO adduct,²⁴ we looked only for the highest frequency band. These values could be related to the minimum capability for the catalyst to stabilize the carbene-Rh complex. Data for Rh₂(OOCCF₃)₄, Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₄, and Rh₂(HNOCCH₃)₄ were added for comparation. The C-O infrared stretching frequencies for all CO-bound ortho-metalated Rh-(II) complexes occurred at lower energy than that of free CO ($v_{\rm CO} = 2143$ cm⁻¹), showing their π -back-bonding ability. The highest values were for those catalysts with perfluorobutyrate and fluorinated phosphine as ligands, such as 10-q. Furthermore, solution infrared spectroscopy of CO adducts of Rh₂(OOCCH₃)_n(HNOCCH₃)_{4-n} species have shown that the CO stretching frequencies decrease as the number of acetamidate bridging ligands increases.²⁴ In our case, in catalysts which possess acetate, the lower v_{CO} values were also found for those with more basic phosphines (catalysts **1a**-**d**; Table 1).

Crystal Structure of Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₂((p-FC₆H₃)P-(p-FC₆H₄)₂)₂·HOOCCH₃ (1f). A view of the structure of 1f is shown in Figure 2. Important bond distances and angles are listed in Table 6. In the molecular structure the two Rh atoms are bridged by two acetate groups and by two $P(p-FC_6H_4)_3$ metalated in one phenyl ring; two oxygen atoms of two acetic acid molecules,

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Figure 2. Structure of **1f**, showing the crystallographic labeling scheme.

	CHN ₂ Rh(II) 2 O CH ₂ Cl ₂		6	
run	catalyst	yield (%)	5	6
1	1a	90	100	0
2	1b	90	100	0
3	1c	92	100	0
4	1d	95	100	0
5	1e	90	100	0
6	1f	99	100	0
7	1g	94	100	0
8	1 Ň	99	100	0
9	10	94	100	0
10	1p	92	100	0
11	1q	98	100	0
ref 14	Rh ₂ (OOCCH ₃) ₄	99	63	26
ref 14	Rh ₂ (OOCC ₃ F ₇) ₄	95	0	100
ref 14	$Rh_2(cap)_4$	72	100	0

Table 2.	Cyclopropanation versus	Aromatic
	Substitution	

occupying the axial positions, complete the slightly distorted octahedral coordination [angles in the range $84.3(5)-96.7(3)^{\circ}$] around the metals. The value of the Rh–Rh bond distance, 2.488(3) Å, falls within the range reported for dirhodium compounds of similar structures. The bridge involving the metalated phosphine shows an "envelope" conformation that is normal in this type of dirhodium compounds. The Rh–P bond distance, 2.213-(4) Å, is comparable to those found in other doubly metalated compounds.³² The Rh–O(2) bond trans to the carbon atom, 2.19(1) Å, is longer than that trans to the P atom, Rh–O(1) 2.12(1) Å, in agreement with the expected order of trans influence of M–C and M–P bonds.

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Table 3. Cyclopropanation versus C-H Insertion

3	CHN ₂ Rh(II) CH ₂ Cl ₂	↓ 0 7 +	8	
run	catalyst	yield (%)	7	8
1	1a	90	100	0
2	1b	87	100	0
3	1c	90	100	0
4	1d	92	100	0
5	1e	85	100	0
6	1f	99	100	0
7	1g	99	100	0
8	1ĥ	99	100	0
9	1i	98	100	0
10	1j	98	80	20
11	1n	99	91	9
12	10	88	80	20
13	1p	94	80	20
14	1q	93	80	20
ref 14	Rh ₂ (OOCCH ₃) ₄	97	44	56
ref 14	$Rh_2(OOCC_3F_7)_4$	56	0	100
ref 14	$Rh_2(cap)_4$	76	100	0

The longest Rh–O bond distance corresponds to the axial acetic acid molecules, Rh–O(3) 2.29(1) Å, and is indicative of the high trans influence of the metal–metal bond. The Rh–Rh– O_{axial} angle, 167.5(3)°, deviates from linearity most likely due to steric interactions between nonmetalated phenyl rings and the axial ligand.

Competitive Reactions. Intramolecular metal carbene reactions catalyzed by dirhodium(II) carboxylates generally exhibit an overwhelming preference for fivemembered ring formation. We have synthesized diazocarbonyl compounds that possess two potentially reactive centers for five-membered ring formation. So, 1-diazo-3-phenyl-5-hexen-2-one (2), 1-diazo-5-methyl-3-(2-propenyl)-2-hexanone (3), and 1-diazo-5-methyl-3phenyl-2-hexanone (4) were used for competitive reactions: cyclopropanation vs aromatic substitution, cyclopropanation vs C-H insertion, and C-H insertion vs aromatic substitution. The results for ortho-metalated dirhodium compounds were compared with those that have been obtained with other Rh(II) complexes.¹⁴ Reactions were conducted in refluxing dichloromethane and were monitored by TLC until the starting material was consumed. The reaction mixture was directly concentrated and analyzed by ¹H-NMR. For some key experiments we confirmed that the catalyst can be recovered unchanged by column chromatography from the crude reaction mixture.

Cyclopropanation versus Aromatic Substitution. Addition of diazoketone **2** to a refluxing solution of Rh₂(OOCR)₂(PC)₂ catalysts (**1a**-**h** and **1o**-**q**) in dichloromethane resulted in the selective formation of the cyclopropanation product **5** (yield > 90%). No compound **6** resulting from aromatic substitution was observed in any case. Similar chemoselectivity was also reported for rhodium(II) caprolactamate,¹⁴ but the yield was significantly lower (72%) (Table 2). In contrast, only the aromatic substitution product was obtained with rhodium(II) perfluorobutyrate.¹⁴

Cyclopropanation versus C–H Insertion. Competition between cyclopropanation and C–H insertion into a tertiary C–H bond provides another example of $Rh_2(OOCR)_2(PC)_2$ effectiveness in controlling chemoselectivity in carbene transfer reactions. The cyclopro-

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 Table 4. C-H Insertion versus Aromatic

 Substitution



panation compound **7** was selectively isolated from the reaction of **3** in the presence of catalysts $1\mathbf{a}-\mathbf{h}$ (yields 85–99%). Similar chemoselectivity was reported¹⁴ for rhodium(II) caprolactamate but again the yield was lower (76%), but rhodium(II) tetraacetate catalyzes decomposition of diazoketone **3** with high yield but no selectivity (**7:8** ratio 44:56). By contrast, rhodium(II) perfluorobutyrate decomposition of diazoketone **3** resulted in the exclusive formation of the insertion product with moderate yield (56%).¹⁴

These results demonstrated that ortho-metalated rhodium(II) compounds with acetate groups led to intramolecular cyclopropanation process with very high effectiveness. However, minor amounts of the C-H insertion product 8 (9-20%) were obtained when catalysts **1n**–**q**, which contain perfluorobutyrate groups, were used (Table 3). It was interesting to observe that while only the cyclopropanation product was formed with catalyst **1i**, containing the phosphine (C_6F_5) - $(C_6H_5)_2P$ and acetate ligands, complex 1j, with the bulkier (o-BrC₆F₄)(C₆H₅)₂P ligand, gave rise also to the C–H insertion product 8 (20%). Steric crowding caused by the bromine atom near the reactive center of the carbenoid may influence its chemoselectivity. Thus, in general changing the acetate by the perfluorobutyrate ligand slightly reduced the chemoselectivity, but this effect was more important when electron-withdrawing substituents, such as F and CF₃, were introduced on the aromatic ring of triarylphosphine ligands (see catalysts **10–q** on Table 3).

Aromatic Substitution versus C–H Insertion. We investigated the competition between aromatic substitution and C–H insertion using the diazoketone **4**. The reactivity and selectivity of these catalysts in this competitive transformation greatly depends on the nature of the bridging ligands and the substituents on

Table 5.	Summary of Crystallographic Data for			
the Complex				
DL (O C	$(\mathbf{U}) ((\mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{C} \mathbf{U})) (\mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{C} \mathbf{U})) = 0 \mathbf{U} (\mathbf{C} \in \mathbf{U})$			

$Rh_2(O_2CCH_3)_2((p-FC_6H_3)P($	p-FC ₆ H ₄) ₂) ₂ ·2HO ₂ CCH ₃
molecular formula	$Rh_2P_2F_6O_8C_{44}H_{34}$
M _r	1072.505
cryst system	monoclinic
space group	P2/n
cell dimens (16 °C)	
a, Å	20.659(4)
b, Å	9.996(6)
<i>c</i> , Å	23.125(5)
β , deg	113.77(4)
V. Å ³	4370.11
Z	4
d_{calc} g/cm ³	1.630 (16 °C)
cryst dimens, mm	0.26 imes 0.24 imes 0.15
diffractometer	CAD4
radiation; λ , Å	Μο Κα; 0.710 73
data collcn method	$\theta - 2\theta$
scan speed, deg/min	variable
reflcns measd	8406
range/indices (<i>h,k,l</i>)	0 to 24, 0 to 11, -27 to 27
2θ limit, deg	2.00-50.00
no. of reflcns between stds	98
tot. no. of unique data	8167
no. of obsd data, $I > 3\sigma(I)$	2697
abs coeff, cm ⁻¹	8.897
min transm, %	87.6748
max transm, %	93.9948
no. of variables	455
goodness of fit	1.9278
$R = \sum F_0 - F_c / \sum F_0 $	0.0593
$R_{\rm w} = \sum F_0 - F_c w^{1/2} / \sum F_0 w^{1/2}$	0.0702
$\Delta/\sigma(\text{max})$	0.001
$\Delta \rho(\text{max}), e/Å^3$	1.217

the metalated aromatic ring. So, compounds 1a-e (with basic phosphines and acetate ligands) exhibit poor selectivities and reactivities (Table 4). These values compare well with those reported for rhodium(II) caprolactamate that in this particular reaction exhibit slighly higher selectivity (**12**:13 ratio 70:30) but lower yield.

The introduction of electron-withdrawing substituents on the three phenyl rings of the metalated phosphine, catalysts **1f**-**h**, increased the yields but still gave poor selectivites. The use of catalysts **1o**-**q** with electronwithdrawing substituents both in the phosphine and the carboxylate group increased the yields and selectivities to a limited extent (compare results for catalyst **1f**-**h** *vs* **1o**-**q** in Table 4). The selectivities were also increased if the electron-withdrawing substituents were introduced only in one nonmetalated phenyl ring, R₁ or R₂, catalysts **1i,j** (see Table 4). The change of selectivity with the later catalyst could be attributed to steric crowding created by the bromine atom near the reactive center of the carbenoid.

The most effective way to increase both reactivities and selectivities was found to be the use of perfluorobutyrate as carboxylate and triphenyl-, tris(p-tolyl)-, or methyldiphenylphosphine as metalated phosphine (catalysts **11**-**n**). Trifluoroacetate groups produced similar desirable effects as perfluorobutyrate (catalysts **1n**,**r**). For these four catalysts we selectively obtained product **12**, with yields higher than 90%, while the aromatic substitution product **13** was not obtained.

Discussion

The rhodium(II)-catalyzed α -diazoketone decompositions are accepted to occur *via* a carbenoid species schematically represented in Figure 3. One canonical



Figure 3.

form of the resulting complex has a polar $Rh^{-\delta}-C^{+\delta}$ bond. In studies of intramolecular selectivity the substrates contain two nucleophilic groups as carboncarbon double bonds, aromatic C-H bonds, or aliphatic C-H bonds competing for the electrophilic carbon atom. The aim was to study the influence of the ligands attached to the Rh₂⁴⁺ core on the selectivity of the two possible intramolecular transformations. According to Pirrung¹⁸ stable carbenoids, with relatively strong σ and π bonds, are required to achieve selective transformations. Ligand field effects strengthen σ -bonds and make the carbene more electrophilic and therefore more selective for electron-rich sites of reactions. Ligand polarizability stabilizes the carbene through backbonding but can also withdraw electron density from the metal to stabilize the σ bond and make the carbene more electrophilic.

In the ortho-metalated rhodium(II) catalysts reported in this paper, the polarizability should be dominated by the highly polarizable π -system of the metalated aromatic ring, so the electron-donating or electron-withdrawing properties of the substituents on the metalated ring could modulate the changes on their selectivity through resonance.

In the competition between cyclopropanation and aromatic substitution of diazo **2**, Rh(II) catalysts having ligands with very high field effects, such as Rh₂-(OOCC₃F₇)₄, could strengthen the σ -bond and make the carbene highly electrophilic and therefore charge control could lead to selective aromatic substitution. In contrast, HOMO/LUMO control may be operating when catalysts with more π -back-bonding ability, such as Rh₂(cap)₄ or Rh₂(OOCR)₂(PC)₂, were used.

The high selectivity observed in the ortho-metalated dirhodium catalyzed decomposition of diazo **3**, where there is competition between cyclopropanation and C–H insertion, agreed with the order of functional group nucleophilicity, which places a double bond at a higher level of reactivity than a C–H bond. However, increasing the electrophilicity of the carbenoid intermediate but decreasing the ability of the metalated aromatic ring to donate back electron density to the carbene reduced its selectivity. So, catalysts 10-q, with perfluorobutyrate and fluorine-substituted metalated aromatic rings, were less selective, though always with clear predominance of the cyclopropanation process.

On the other hand, it also appeared that there were similarities in factors that promoted aromatic substitution and C–H insertion as shown by the low selectivity in the decomposition of diazo compound **4** by rhodium-(II) acetate, caprolactamate, and ortho-metalated catalysts **1a**–**h**,**q**. However, catalysts **11**–**n**,**r**, with ligands able to strengthen both σ - and π -bonding, gave unique results, since they selectively produced the C–H insertion product in the α -diazocarbonyl compound in high yield (>90%). No other rhodium(II) catalyst has provided similar result.

In the decomposition of diazo **4**, the dependence of the chemoselectivity on the π -back-bonding ability of catalysts Rh₂(OOCC₃F₇)₂(PC)₂ was probed by introducing in the aromatic ring of the phosphine electron-withdrawing groups such as CF₃ or F in *meta* and *para* positions relative to the rhodium atom (catalysts **1o**-**q**). The chemoselectivity decreased as the electronic or polar effect of the substituent increased, that is as the ability of the metalated aromatic ring to retrodonate density to the carbene decreased. Selectivity decreased in the order **1p** > **1o** > **1q** (Hammett σ constants for *p*-F, *m*-F, and *m*-CF₃ being 0.06, 0.34, and 0.43, respectively).²⁷

Thus, results here reported show that the activity of these catalysts increased when less basic phosphines and/or high electron-withdrawing carboxylates were used. However, chemoselectivity required electrophilic catalysts with a high density metalated aromatic ring. Thus, electron-withdrawing groups on the ring reduced the chemoselectivity (compare catalysts 11-n,r with 10-q). No differences were found for catalysts 1n,r, having respectively perfluorobutyrate and trifluoro-acetate as carboxylate groups.

The selectivity of the rhodium tetrakis(triphenylacetate)-mediated transformation of diazo **4** has been suggested as due to the bulkiness of the triphenylacetate ligand.²⁶ So, it seems that steric shielding of the active center of the carbenoid retards the tertiary C–H insertion to favor the aromatic C–H insertion. Thus, differences in selectivity observed for catalysts **1i**,**j** could also be mainly attributed to the steric effect caused by the bromine atom in **1j**.

Conclusion

It has been confirmed that activity and selectivity of competitive α -diazoketone decomposition reactions catalyzed by Rh₂(OOCR)₂(PC)₂ compounds can be modulated to a great extent by changing R groups and substituents on the metalated phenyl ring. Several catalysts containing electron-rich metalated rings and electrophilic carboxylate groups give rise to selective C–H insertion in a α -diazocarbonyl compound in which the aromatic substitution process could be competitive. Such selectivity was not previously reported for any other rhodium(II) catalysts. Furthermore, these data agree with Pirrung's finding for rhodium(II) carboxylates that increasing electrophilicity of the bridging ligand plus stability of the Rh(II)–carbene complex through backdonation can increase the selectivity of the catalyst.

Moreover, steric effects may play a dominant role in the product distribution when the catalysts used have big substituents near the reactive center.

Experimental Section

General Comments. All manipulations were performed under an argon atmosphere. All solvents were of analytical grade. Toluene and chloroform were dried and degassed, and methylene chloride was distilled from CaH₂ under argon atmosphere. Tetrahydrofuran (THF) and ethyl ether were distilled from sodium/benzophenone under an argon atmosphere. Acetic acid was only degassed. ¹H-, ¹³C-, and ³¹P-NMR spectra were measured in CDCl₃ on Bruker AC-200 FT and 250 FT spectrometers, operating at 300 K. Tetramethylsilane (TMS) was used as a reference for ¹H and ¹³C spectra, while H₃PO₄ (85% in D₂O) was the external reference for ³¹P NMR spectra. All compounds show ³¹P NMR spectra corresponding to an AA'XX' system. Elemental analyses were performed by C.A.I. Microanalysis, Complutense de Madrid. α -Diazoketones **2**–**4** were prepared as reported previously.¹⁴ Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₄- (MeOH)₂²⁸ and Rh₂(OOCCF₃)₄²⁹ were prepared by a literature procedure. Phosphines (CH₃)P(C₆H₅)₂, (CH₃)₂P(C₆H₅), P(*p*-CH₃C₆H₄)₃, P(*m*-CH₃C₆H₄)₃, P(C₆H₅)₃, P(*p*-FC₆H₄)₃, P(*m*-GH₃C₆H₄)₃, P(C₆H₅)₂, (CH₃)₂P(C₆H₅), P(*p*-FC₆H₄)₃, and P(*p*-CF₃C₆H₄)₃ are commercially available, and they were used as received. The phosphines P(*o*-BrC₆F₄)-(C₆H₅)₂³⁰ and P(C₆F₅)(C₆H₅)₂³¹ were prepared by literature procedures. Catalysts **1**c,³² **1**d,³³ **1**e,²² **1**j,³⁴ and **1**r³⁵ were prepared according to literature methods. The remaining catalysts containing acetate groups were prepared according to the following synthetic method.

Synthesis of Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₂(PC)₂·2HOOCCH₃: General Procedure. Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₄(MeOH)₂ (150 mg; 0.296 mmol) and 0.592 mmol of the corresponding phosphine were refluxed in 30 mL of a mixture (3:1) of toluene/acetic acid in an argon atmosphere for 90 min. After evaporation to dryness under vacuum, the crude product was chromatographed (2×30 cm, silica gel (70–230 mesh)/hexane). The column was first washed with CH₂Cl₂/hexane (1:1) and was later eluted with mixtures of CH₂Cl₂/hexane/acetic acid of increasing polarity (from 40:40:1 to 10:10:3). A major purple band was collected in each case and was concentrated under reduced pressure to produce purple crystalline materials. The samples were recrystallized by slow diffusion of hexane into a CH₂Cl₂ solution of the compound in the presence of small amounts (1–2 drops) of acetic acid.

Compound 1a. Yield: 48.96 mg (23%) of Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₂-((C₆H₄)P(CH₃)₂)₂·2HOOCCH₃. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 0.89 (d, J = 10.36 Hz, 6H, CH₃, phosphine), 1.40 (d, J = 10.32 Hz, 6H, CH₃, phosphine), 1.97 (s, 6H, bridging acetate), 2.10 (s, 6H, axial acetic acid), 6.75–7.19 (m, 8H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ -0.5 (¹J_{Rh-P} = 163.15 Hz, ²J_{Rh-P} = 18.70). ¹³C-{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 14.91 (d, J_{PC} = 35.85 Hz, CH₃, phosphine), 16.19 (d, J_{PC} = 29.11 Hz, CH₃, phosphine), 21.92 (s, CH₃, axial acetic acid), 24.03 (s, CH₃, bridging acetate), 121.58–150 (m, aromatics), 163.5 (m), 178 (s, COO), 182 (s, COO).

Compound 1b. Yield: 126 mg (51%) of Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₂-((C₆H₄)P(C₆H₅)(CH₃))₂·2HOOCCH₃. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 1.39 (d, J = 10.18 Hz, 6H, CH₃, phosphine), 1.50 (s, 6H, bridging acetate), 2.17 (s, 6H, axial acetic acid), 6.7–8.2 (m, 18H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 8.4 (¹J_{Rh-P} = 163 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 13.16 (d, J_{PC} = 35.46 Hz, CH₃, phosphine), 22.13 (s, CH₃, axial acetic acid), 23.41 (s, CH₃, bridging acetate), 121–146.63 (m, aromatics), 164.2 (m), 180 (s, COO), 182 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for C₃₄H₃₈O₈P₂-Rh₂: C, 48.48 (48.12); H, 4.82 (4.67).

Compound 1f. Yield: 238.9 mg (75%) of $Rh_2(OOCCH_3)_2$ -((*p*-FC₆H₃)P(*p*-FC₆H₄)₂)₂·2HOOCH₃. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 1.3 (s, 6H, CH₃, bridging acetate), 2.2 (s, 6H, CH₃, axial acetic acid), 6.4–7.6 (m, 22H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 22.5 (d, ¹*J*_{Rh-P} = 163.33 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 21 (s, CH₃, bridging acetate), 22.3 (s, CH₃, axial acetic acid), 114–140 (m, aromatics), 165 (m), 181 (s, COO), 182 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for C₄₄H₃₆F₆O₈P₂Rh₂: C, 49.18 (48.66); H, 3.38 (3.39).

Compound 1g. Yield: 249.3 mg (85%) of $Rh_2(OOCCH_3)_2$ -((*m*-FC₆H₃)P(*m*-FC₆H₄)₂)₂·2H₂O. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 1.7 (s, 6H, bridging acetate), 6.7–7.6 (m, 22H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 21.5 (d, ¹J_{Rh-P} = 172.52 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 21 (s, CH₃, bridging acetate), 116–144 (m, aromatics), 163 (m), 180 (s, COO), 182 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for C₄₀H₃₂F₆O₆P₂Rh₂: C, 48.51 (48.82); H, 3.26 (3.28).

Compound 1h. Yield: 286 mg (70%) of $Rh_2(OOCCH_3)_2$ -((*p*-CF₃C₆H₃)P(*p*-CF₃C₆H₄)₂)₂·2HOOCCH₃. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 1.5 (s, 6H, CH₃ bridging acetate), 2.4 (s, 6H, CH₃ axial acetic acid), 6.5–7.8 (m, 22H, aromatics). $^{31}P\{^{1}H\}$ NMR (CDCl₃): δ 22 ($^{1}J_{Rh-P}$ = 170.11 Hz, $^{2}J_{Rh-P}$ = 7.26 Hz). $^{13}C\{^{1}H\}$ NMR (CDCl₃): δ 21 (s, CH₃, bridging acetate), 22.6 (s, CH₃, axial acetic acid), 120–140 (m, aromatics), 165 (m), 180 (s, COO), 182 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for C_{50}H_{36}F_{18}O_8P_2Rh_2: C, 43.69 (43.31); H, 2.64 (2.80).

Compound 1i: Mixture of Two Isomers. Yield: 142.70 mg (42%) of Rh₂(OOCCH₃)((C₆H₄)P(C₆F₅)(C₆H₅))₂·2HOOCCH₃. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 1.2 (s, 6H, CH3, bridging acetate), 1.8 (s, 6H, CH₃, axial acetic acid), 6.5–7.4 (m, 18H, aromatics). ³¹P-{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 15.2 (d, ¹J_{Rh-P} = 179.12 Hz), 18 (d, ¹J_{Rh-P} = 183.4 Hz, ²J_{Rh-P} = 8.11 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 22.81 (s, CH₃), 23.14 (s, CH₃), 122–149 (m, aromatics), 160.5 (m), 182 (s, COO), 183 (s, COO).

The rhodium compounds with perfluorobutyrate groups, catalysts 1k-q, were synthesized from the acetate analog by the following synthetic procedure.

Synthesis of Rh₂(OOCC₃F₇)₂(PC)₂·2H₂O. To 300 mg of Rh₂(OOCCH₃)₂(PC)₂·(HOOCCH₃)₂ in 20 mL of CHCl₃ was added 3 mL of heptafluorobutyric acid with vigorous stirring under an atmosphere of argon. The color of the solution immediately changed from purple to dark blue. The solution was stirred for 24 h at room temperature and was monitered by ³¹P NMR until total substitution of bridging acetate ligands was achieved. The solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. The resulting dark crude product was redissolved in CH₂Cl₂/hexane and was chromatographed on silica gel. After the column was washed with hexane/CH₂Cl₂, elution with hexane/acetone (10:2) separated a dark blue band which was collected. The solvent was evaporated, and the dark blue crude product was redissolved in CH₂Cl₂; addition of hexane precipitated a dark green solid, which was filtered off and dried in vacuum. Catalyst **10** was only crystallized in the form of the adduct with HOOC₃F₇.

Compound 1k. Yield: 59.1 mg (15%) of $Rh_2(OOCC_3F_7)_2$ -((C_6H_4)P(CH_3) $_2$) $_2$ ·2H₂O. ¹H NMR ($CDCI_3$): δ 0.89 (d, J = 6.13 Hz, 6H, CH₃), 1.5 (d, J = 6.09 Hz, 6H, CH₃), 6.8–8 (m, 8H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR ($CDCI_3$): δ –2.6 (d, ¹ $J_{Rh-P} = 163.17$ Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR ($CDCI_3$): δ 15.2 (d, $J_{PC} = 24.88$ Hz, CH₃), 16.57 (d, $J_{PC} = 31.35$ Hz, CH₃), 121–153 (m, aromatics), 167.3 (m), 181 (s, COO), 187 (s, COO).

Compound 11. Yield: 37.97 mg (10%) of $Rh_2(OOCC_3F_7)_2$ -((C_6H_4)P(C_6H_5)(CH₃))₂·2H₂O. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ (d, J = 8.30 Hz, 6H, CH₃), 6.6–7.4 (m, 18H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} (CDCl₃): δ 5.75 (d, ¹ $J_{Rh-P} = 165.77$ Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 14.26 (d, $J_{PC} = 33.58$ Hz, CH₃), 120–143.5 (m, aromatics), 167 (m), 183 (s, COO), 187 (s, COO).

Compound 1m. Yield: 262.02 mg (72%) of Rh₂(OOCC₃F₇)₂-((*p*-CH₃C₆H₃)P(*p*-CH₃C₆H₄)₂)₂·2H₂O. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 1.8 (s, 6H, CH₃), 2.25 (s, 6H, CH₃), 2.3 (s, 6H, CH₃), 6.3–7.6 (m, 22H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 13.8 (d, ¹J_{Rh-P} = 161.19 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 21.17 (s, CH₃), 21.59 (s, CH₃), 123.8–143.6 (m, aromatics), 167 (m), 176 (s, COO), 186 (s, COO).

Compound 1n. Yield: 200.68 mg (56%) of $Rh_2(OOCC_3F_7)_2^-$ ((C_6H_4)P(C_6H_5)₂)₂·2H₂O. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 6.4–7.6 (m, 28H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 16 (d, ¹ $J_{Rh-P} = 175.47$ Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 121.5–142 (m, aromatics), 162 (m), 176 (s, COO), 182 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for C₄₄H₃₂F₁₄O₆P₂Rh₂: C, 44.39 (43.20); H, 2.71 (2.81).

Compound 1o. Yield: 330.8 mg (70%) of $Rh_2(OOCC_3F_7)_2$ -((*p*-FC₆H₃)P(*p*-FC₆H₄)₂)₂·2HOOC₃F₇·(CH₂Cl₂). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 5.4 (s, 2H, CH₂Cl₂), 6.6–7.8 (m, 22H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 19 (d, ¹*J*_{Rh-P} = 165.69 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 56.8 (s, CH₂), 118–148 (m, aromatics), 163 (m), 180 (s, COO), 182 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for C₅₄H₂₈F₃₄O₈P₂Rh₂: C, 34.88 (34.69); H, 1.52 (2.31).

Compound 1p. Yield: 235.63 mg (65%) of Rh₂(OOCC₃F₇)-((*m*-FC₆H₃)P(*m*-FC₆H₄)₂)₂·2H₂O. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 6.2–7.4 (m, 22H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 18.5 (d, ¹*J*_{Rh-P} = 171.26 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 122–151 (m, aromat-

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ics), 166 (m), 169 (s, COO), 172 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for $C_{44}H_{26}F_{20}O_6P_2Rh_2$: C, 40.7 (39.55); H, 2.02 (2.27).

Compound 1q. Yield: 258.2 mg (74%) of Rh₂(OOCC₃F₇)₂-((*p*-CF₃C₆H₃)P(*p*-CF₃C₆H₄)₂)₂·2H₂O. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 6.4– 7.8 (m, 22H, aromatics). ³¹P{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): δ 20 (d, ¹*J*_{Rh-P} = 166.34 Hz). ¹³C{¹H} NMR (CDCl₃): 123–153 (m, aromatics), 167 (m), 171 (s, COO), 172 (s, COO). Anal. Calcd (found) for C₄₀H₂₆F₃₂O₆P₂Rh₂: C, 37.57 (37.05); H, 1.64 (1.93).

Infrared spectra of carbon monoxide adducts of Rh₂(OOCR)₂-(PC)₂ compounds in dichloromethane solution were recorded on a Perkin-Elmer 882 instrument. These adducts were prepared *in situ* by bubbling carbon monoxide through 5.0×10^{-3} M dichloromethane solutions of the Rh₂(OOCR)₂(PC)₂ compounds. The catalysts were used after drying in vacuum for 2 h. The rhodium compounds gave the same catalytic results independently of the adduct used, water or carboxylic acid.

Dirhodium Complex Catalyzed Reaction of Diazo Compounds. The appropriate α -diazo ketone (1 mmol) was dissolved in dry CH₂Cl₂ under an argon atmosphere. Rh₂-(OOCR)₂(PC)₂ (0.05 mol)³⁶ was added to the solutions, and the mixture was immersed in a water bath set at 45 °C. There was evolution of N₂ gas before the start of refluxing, and the color of the mixture changed from yellow to brown. The mixture was refluxed for 1–2 h, cooled to room temperature, filtered, and evaporated. The residue was directly analyzed by ¹H and ¹³C NMR. In some key experiments the products were purified by column chromatography before identification.

Crystal Structure of Rh₂(**OOCCH**₃)₂((*p*-**FC**₆**H**₃)**P**(*p*-**FC**₆**H**₄)₂)₂·**2HOOCCH**₃) (**1f**). X-ray data were collected on an Enraf Nonius Cad4 diffractometer by standard procedures. Data were collected as summarized in Table 5. Cell constants were obtained from 25 reflections ($20^{\circ} < 2\theta < 50^{\circ}$), and the space group was determined from systematic absences and subsequent least-squares refinement. Lorentz, polarization,

Table 6. Selected Bond Lengths (Å) and Bond Angles (deg) for the Complex Rh₂(O₂CCH₃)₂((*p*-FC₆H₃)P(*p*-FC₆H₄)₂)₂·(HO₂CCH₃)₂

Rh–Rh	2.488(3)	P-C(11)	1.77(2)
Rh–P	2.213(4)	P-C(21)	1.82(2)
Rh-O(1)	2.12(1)	P-C(31)	1.85(2)
Rh-O(2)	2.19(1)	F(1)-C(14)	1.34(2)
Rh-O(3)	2.29(1)	F(2)-C(24)	1.38(2)
Rh-C(12)	1.99(2)	F(3)-C(34)	1.42(2)
Rh-Rh-P	89.8(1)	O(1)-Rh-O(2)	85.6(4)
Rh-Rh-O(1)	86.0(3)	O(1)-Rh-O(3)	87.6(5)
Rh-Rh-O(2)	84.5(3)	O(1) - Rh - C(12)	89.7(5)
Rh-Rh-C(12	2) 96.2(6)	O(2)-Rh-O(3)	84.3(5)
P-Rh-O(1)	175.7(3)	O(3)-Rh-C(12)	94.5(6)
P-Rh-O(2)	95.0(3)	Rh-P-C(11)	111.5(6)
P-Rh-O(3)	96.7(3)	Rh-P-C(21)	114.3(5)
P-Rh-C1(2)	89.8(4)	Rh-P-C(31)	113.9(6)

and empirical absorption (ψ scans) corrections were applied. The structures were solved by standard heavy-atom techniques with the Molen/Vax package.³⁷ Non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic thermal parameters. The hydrogens were refined isotropically from their idealized geometrical positions. Scattering factors, Δf and $\Delta f'$ values, were taken from the literature.³⁸

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Supporting Information Available: Tables of positional and thermal parameters and bond distances and angles (15 pages). Ordering information is given on any current masthead page.

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⁽³⁶⁾ Following the suggestion of one reviewer, the decomposition of the α -diazo ketone **4** was also performed using only 1% catalyst **1n**. The yield and selectivity were the same reported when 5% catalyst was used.

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