MECHANISM AND STEREOCHEMISTRY OF ASYMMETRIC CATALYSIS BY METAL COMPLEXES

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Abstract - The use of chiral catalysts to effect the asymmetric hydrogenation of prochiral olefinic substrates with high optical yields represents one of the most impressive achievements to date in catalytic selectivity. Notably high optical yields, approaching 100% enantiomeric excess, have been achieved in the hydrogenation of prochiral enamides to the corresponding amino acid derivatives, using homogeneous cationic rhodium catalysts containing chiral phosphate, especially bis(tertiaryphosphine), ligands. The following aspects of such systems are discussed: (a) the coordination chemistry of the cationic rhodium phosphate catalysts, (b) the mechanism of catalytic hydrogenation, and (c) the origin of the enantioselectivity. A remarkable conclusion of the studies described is that, contrary to the hitherto prevailing "lock and key" view concerning these and related stereoselective catalysts, the enantioselection in these systems is determined not by the preferred initial binding of the prochiral substrate to the chiral catalyst but, rather, by the much higher reactivity of the minor diastereomer of the catalyst-substrate adduct corresponding to the less favored binding mode.

INTRODUCTION

The use of chiral catalysts to effect the asymmetric hydrogenation of prochiral olefinic substrates with high optical yields represents one of the most remarkable achievements to date in catalytic selectivity, rivaling the corresponding stereoselectivity of enzymic catalysts (1). Notably high optical yields, approaching 100% enantiomeric excess (e.e.), have been obtained in the hydrogenation of a-acylaminoacrylic acid derivatives such as 1 to the corresponding amino acid derivatives (eq. 1) using cationic rhodium complexes containing chiral phosphate (especially chelating diphosphine) ligands as catalysts (1-4). The commercial synthesis of L-dopa (3,4-dihydroxyphenylalanine) by such a route exemplifies an important practical application of this extraordinarily stereoselective catalysis.

\[ \text{H} \quad \text{C} = \text{C} \quad \text{COOR}_2 \quad \text{R}_1 \quad \text{NHCOR}_3 \quad + \quad \text{H}_2 \quad \xrightarrow{[\text{Rh}(P)_2]^+} \quad \text{R}_1 \text{CH}_2\text{C} = \text{H} \quad \text{COOR}_2 \quad \text{NHCOR}_3 \]

(1)

Examples of some of the chiral ligands that have been found to be effective in such asymmetric catalytic hydrogenation reactions are depicted by 2 to 7 (1-6). These catalyst systems are impressive not only for their remarkable stereoselectivities but also for their very high activities. Extrapolation from low temperature measurements (7) yields turnover frequencies under saturation conditions approaching 10^2 sec^-1 at room temperature for reaction 1 catalyzed by cationic Rh rhodium complexes of DIPHOS (8) and its chiral derivatives. Even higher catalytic activities are exhibited by rhodium complexes of chelating diporphine ligands that form larger chelate rings, e.g., DIOP (3) (8). Such activities are unusually high for homogeneous hydrogenation catalysts (9) and, indeed, lie well up on the scale of activities characteristic of enzymes. Thus, in respect of both selectivity and rate, the behavior of these synthetic catalysts rivals, to an unprecedented degree, that of enzymic catalysts.
MECHANISM OF \([\text{Rh(DIPHOS)}]^{+}\)-CATALYZED HYDROGENATION

Various earlier studies have served to define the scope of asymmetric catalytic hydrogenation and to delineate the empirical dependence of the rates and stereoselectivities of these reactions on electronic and structural features of the catalysts and substrates (1-6). However, a fundamental understanding of these themes, and a rational approach to the design and modification of such catalysts, must rest ultimately upon a detailed understanding of the catalytic mechanisms.

Since several of the most effective and widely used chiral ligands for homogeneous catalytic hydrogenation (e.g., 5, 6 and 7) are simple derivatives of the familiar achiral ligand, 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane (DIPHOS, 8), our initial studies were directed at catalytic systems containing the latter (10). The catalyst precursors employed in such hydrogenation reactions typically are diene adducts such as \([\text{Rh(DIPHOS)}(\text{NOR})]^{+}\) (11, NOR = norbornadiene). \(\text{H}_2\) was found to react rapidly with such complexes in methanol \((S')\) and related solvents according to eq. 2 and form the solvated complex \([\text{Rh(DIPHOS)S}']^{+}\) (12, abbreviated \([\text{Rh(DIPHOS)}]^{+}\)). The latter, accordingly, is the starting point of the catalytic hydrogenation cycle (10).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{[Ph}_2\text{P} \quad \text{Rh} \quad \text{Ph}_2\text{P}]^{+} & + 2 \text{H}_2 & \xrightarrow{\text{CH}_3\text{OH }(S')} & \text{[Ph}_2\text{P} \quad \text{Rh} \quad \text{Ph}_2\text{P}]^{+} & \quad \text{Norbornane (2)}
\end{align*}
\]

The catalytic mechanism, as deduced from studies encompassing kinetic measure-
ments as well as the characterization of several intermediates by spectroscopic (notably NMR) and structural methods, is depicted in Fig. 1 (10, 7) for the prototype substrate methyl-(Z)-α-acetamidocinnamate (MAC, 13a). The kinetic parameters are summarized in Table 1 (7,8).

\[ \text{MAC} \rightarrow \text{EAC} \]

The formation of the [Rh(DIPHOS)(MAC)]\(^+\) adduct (15) is rapid and essentially complete \((K_{eq} = k_1 / k_1 = [15]/[14][\text{MAC}] = ca 2 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ at } 25^\circ\text{C}\) even at moderate \((\sim 0.1 \text{ M})\) MAC concentration. The structure of 15, depicted in Fig. 1, was established by NMR \((^{13}\text{P}, ^{13}\text{C} \text{ and } ^{1}\text{H})\) spectroscopy and by single crystal X-ray analysis of the BF\(_4\) salt, revealing chelation of the MAC substrate to the Rh atom through the carbonyl oxygen of the amide group as well as through symmetrical side-on \((\eta^5)\) coordination of the C=C bond (11).

At room temperature the second step of the catalytic cycle (corresponding to \(k_2\)), i.e., the oxidative addition of \(\text{H}_2\) to [Rh(DIPHOS)(MAC)]\(^+\), was found to be rate-determining for the overall catalytic hydrogenation cycle. However, the final product-forming step, corresponding to the rate-law, \(-d[17]/dt = k_4[17]\), exhibited a sufficiently higher activation enthalpy compared with \(k_2\) \((17.0 \pm 6.3 \text{ kcal/mol})\) that this step became rate-limiting below \(-40^\circ\text{C}\), permitting the intermediate 17 to be intercepted and characterized at low temperatures. Fig. 1 depicts the structure of 17 as deduced from \(^{1}\text{H}, ^{13}\text{C} \text{ and } ^{1}\text{H} \text{ NMR spectral measurements}\) (7). Although such hydridoalkyl complexes frequently have been postulated as intermediates in homogeneous catalytic hydrogenation reactions (12,9) this represents the first instance in which such an intermediate actually has been intercepted and characterized, and the product-forming C-H bond-forming reductive elimination step directly observed.

Fig. 1. Mechanism of the [Rh(DIPHOS)]\(^+\)-catalyzed hydrogenation of methyl-(Z)-α-acetamidocinnamate (MAC).
Fig. 2. Mechanistic scheme for the hydrogenation of a prochiral substrate (MAC) with a catalyst containing a chiral chelating diphosphine ligand. (P*P = CHIRAPHOS or DIPAMP; S' = methanol.)
TABLE 1. Kinetic parameters for the [Rh(DIPHOS)]\(^{+}\)-catalyzed hydrogenation of MAC in methanol according to Fig. 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rate constant (units)</th>
<th>(k(25^\circ C))</th>
<th>(\Delta H^+) (Kcal/mol)</th>
<th>(\Delta H^+) (cal/mol K)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(k_1) (M(^{-1})sec(^{-1}))</td>
<td>(1.4 \times 10^4)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(k_{-1}) (sec(^{-1}))</td>
<td>(5.2 \times 10^{-1})</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>+2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(k_2) (M(^{-1})sec(^{-1}))</td>
<td>(1.0 \times 10^2)</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(k_{-3}) (sec(^{-1}))</td>
<td>&gt;1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(k_4) (sec(^{-1}))</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>+6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ORIGIN OF ENANTIOSELECTIVITY

When the mechanistic scheme of Fig. 1 is extended to catalysts containing chiral ligands it must be modified according to Fig. 2 to accommodate the formation of diastereomeric forms of the adduct corresponding to 15 (i.e., 15' and 15'') and of the further reaction intermediates. This scheme permits the stereochemistry of the product to be correlated with that of the adduct diastereomer from which it is derived, i.e., the N-acetyl-(R)-phenylalanine ester product from 15' and the S-product from 15''.

Two possible limiting interpretations may be accorded to the origin of the enantioselection in such systems, namely: (a) the prevailing product chirality is determined by the preferred mode of initial binding of the substrate to the catalyst, i.e., the predominant enantiomer of the product arises from the predominant diastereomer of the catalyst-substrate adduct; (b) the predominant enantiomer of the product arises from the minor diastereomer of the catalyst-substrate adduct by virtue of the much higher reactivity of the latter, compared with that of the predominant diastereomer, toward \(H_2\).

The determination of which of the above alternatives prevails was first achieved for the hydrogenation of ethyl-\((Z)-a\)-acetamidocinnamate (EAC, 13b) catalyzed by the rhodium complex of S,S-CHIRAPHOS (18) according to eq. 3 (14). This reaction was shown to proceed with high enantioselectivity yielding N-acetyl-(R)-phenylalanine (>95\% e.e.).

\[ \begin{align*} 
13b + H_2 &\rightarrow [\text{Rh(S,S-CHIRAPHOS)}]\(^{+}\) \rightarrow C_6H_5CH_2C=CH(O)C_2H_5 \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{C} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{NH-C-CH}_3 \quad \text{O} \\
&\quad \text{H}_3\text{C} \quad \text{CH}_3 \quad \text{Ph}_2\text{P} \quad \text{PPh}_2 \\
&\quad \text{S,S-CHIRAPHOS (18)} 
\end{align*} \]

The essential features of reaction 3 were found to parallel those of the corresponding [Rh(DIPHOS)]\(^{+}\)-catalyzed reaction, as depicted by Fig. 1 (13). Formation of a [Rh(S,S-CHIRAPHOS)(EAC)]\(^{+}\) adduct (19) analogous to 15 occurred with a similar equilibrium constant. The electronic spectrum and \(^{31}P\) NMR spectrum of 19 also were virtually identical to those of 15. Only a single diastereomer of [Rh(S,S-CHIRAPHOS)(EAC)]\(^{+}\) could be identified in solution by NMR and, hence, it was concluded that the other diastereomer (which was ex-
pected to exhibit a distinguishable NMR spectrum) must be present to the extent of less than 5%. The structure of the predominant diastereomer of the [Rh(S,S-CHIRAPHOS)(EAC)]⁺ ion, determined by X-ray analysis of single crystals of the perchlorate salt, is depicted in Fig. 3 (14,19) and is essentially identical to that previously determined for 15 (11). Of crucial significance in the present context is the finding that the C₁₆ face of EAC is coordinated to the Rh atom. Addition of H₂ to this face, in accord with the mechanism deduced above (Fig. 2), would yield N-acetyl-(S)-phenylalanine ethyl ester. Instead it was found that the predominant product of reaction 3 (>95% e.e.) was the R isomer (3,19).

Fig. 3. Structure of the predominant diastereomer of [Rh(S,S-CHIRAPHOS)(EAC)]⁺

We are, accordingly, led to the conclusion that, contrary to earlier interpretations (14-18), it is not the preferred mode of initial binding of the prochiral olefinic substrate to the catalyst but, rather, differences in the rates of subsequent reactions of the diastereomeric catalyst-substrate adducts with H₂, that dictates the enantioselectivity of these catalyst systems. Apparently the minor diastereomer is sufficiently more reactive than the major one that it determines the predominant chirality of the product.

Evidence for the same conclusion concerning the origin of the enantioselection in the [Rh(R,R-DIPAMP)]⁺-catalyzed hydrogenation of MAC and related substrates is provided by yet another line of evidence. In the case of this catalyst both diastereomers of the catalyst-substrate adduct can be detected in solution by NMR (although their absolute configurations cannot be assigned) (15,8). At 25°C the equilibrium ratio of the two diastereomers is ca 11:1. By reacting H₂ with such a mixture of diastereomers (i.e., [Rh(R,R-DIPAMP)·(MAC)]⁺) at low temperatures (ca -40°C), where the interconversion of diastereomers is frozen out, it was found that only the minor diastereomer reacts directly with H₂ (to form initially the hydridoalkyl complex corresponding to 17 and then, by reductive elimination, the hydrogenated product) (16,8).
The demonstration of the origin of the enantioselection in the two cases considered above depended on either (a) the isolation and structural characterization of the catalyst-substrate adduct (in the case of CHIRAPHOS), or (b) the detection and monitoring of both diastereomers of the adduct in solution (in the case of DIPAMP). In general, for other catalyst systems, neither of these circumstances may be realized so that it is necessary to resort to less direct criteria to ascertain whether the same conclusions apply.

One such criterion relates to the dependence of the optical yield on the \( \text{H}_2 \) concentration. According to the interpretation of the origin of enantioselection deduced above, the reversibility of the initial catalyst-substrate adduct formation step, through which interconversion of the diastereomeric adducts apparently occurs, should be reduced by increasing the rate of the subsequent \( \text{H}_2 \) oxidative addition step. Thus, at sufficiently high \( \text{H}_2 \) concentrations (i.e., when \( k_2[\text{H}_2][15] \gg k_1(15) \)), the rate and stereochemistry of the reaction should become determined by the initial binding rates of the prochiral substrate to the catalyst (i.e., \( k'/k'' \)). For systems of the type we have described, this predicts that the enantioselectivity should decrease, with the possibility of eventual reversal of the predominant product chirality, with increasing \( \text{H}_2 \) pressure. This has been quantitatively confirmed for the \( \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ \) -catalyzed hydrogenation of MAC (8). Furthermore, such an inverse dependence of optical yield on the \( \text{H}_2 \) pressure has been observed for virtually all the asymmetric hydrogenation catalysts that have thus far been examined (2,20,21,8). This feature of the behavior of these systems limits the scope of achieving higher rates, while still maintaining high optical yields, by increasing the \( \text{H}_2 \) pressure. Insofar as this inverse dependence of optical yield is fairly general for the catalytic hydrogenation of \( \alpha \)-acylaminoacrylic acid derivatives with catalysts containing a variety of chiral phosphine ligands, we conclude that our interpretation of the enantioselection in such reactions probably extends to this whole class of catalysts and substrates.

A related, and somewhat surprising, consequence of our analysis concerns the temperature dependence of the optical yield. According to our interpretation of the origin of the enantioselection, high enantioselectivity depends upon rapid interconversion of the diastereomeric catalyst-substrate adducts compared with the rates of their reactions with \( \text{H}_2 \). Since the adduct dissociation step through which such interconversion occurs typically has a much higher activation enthalpy than reaction with \( \text{H}_2 \) (18.3 vs 6.3 kcal/mol for 15), the diastereomeric interconversion process should become "frozen out" at sufficiently low temperatures. This leads to the prediction that provided the major diastereomer exhibits some reactivity toward \( \text{H}_2 \) (as it must if the enantiomeric excess is less than 100\%), the optical yield may actually decrease with decreasing temperature. Such an unusual dependence of enantioselectivity on temperature indeed has been reported, e.g., for the hydroge- 

\[ \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ \rightarrow \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ + \text{MAC} \rightarrow \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ \text{MAC} \rightarrow \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ + \text{MAC} \text{H}_2 \]

\[ \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ \text{MAC} \rightarrow \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ \text{MAC} \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \{\text{Rh(DIPAMP)}\}^+ + \text{MAC} \text{H}_2 \]

**OTHER CONSEQUENCES AND INDIRECT CRITERIA**

The conclusion that we have reached concerning the origin of enantioselection in these systems implies very large differences in reactivity toward \( \text{H}_2 \) between the two diastereomeric forms of the catalyst-substrate adduct. It is, of course, not unexpected that the less stable of a pair of diastereomers will exhibit the higher reactivity by virtue of its higher initial free energy. However, to account for the enantioselectivity of the reaction the difference in reactivity must be much greater than the difference in stability (i.e., than the equilibrium concentration difference) of the diastereo-
mers, indeed at least 50 times greater to accommodate an optical yield of 96% e.e. At this stage the origin of this marked reactivity difference (corresponding to $\Delta G^+$ = 4 kcal in the case of $[\text{Rh(R,R-DIPAMP)}(\text{MAC})]^+$) still is a matter of speculation. A reasonable suggestion is that the reactivity difference has its origin in the stability difference of the diastereomers of the initial product of the oxidative addition of $\text{H}_2$, the relative stabilities of the diastereomeric products being opposite to that of the parent catalyst-substrate adducts. Thus, the greater stability of the diastereomer of the dihydride, $[\text{RhH}_2(\text{R,R-DIPHOS})(\text{MAC})]^+$ derived from the less stable diastereomer of $[\text{Rh}(\text{R,DIPHOS})(\text{MAC})]^+$ enhances the driving force and rate of the reaction of the former with $\text{H}_2$, compared with the rate of the more stable diastereomer.

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REFERENCES


