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Liquid/Solid Phase Transfer Activation of Grubbs-Type Alkene Metathesis Catalysts; Application of Silver Salts of Sulfonated Polystyrene[†]

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<u>Abstract</u>. Alkene metatheses catalyzed by $(H_2IMes)(Cy_2PCH_2CH_2N(CH_3)_3^+)(Cl)_2Ru(=CHPh)$ Cl⁻, an analog of Grubbs' second generation catalyst with an ammonium-salt containing phosphine, are dramatically accelerated when conducted in the presence of the insoluble resin PS-SO₃Ag (PS = polystyrene). A mechanism involving ionic and covalent phosphine binding (PS-SO₃Ag·PCy₂CH₂CH₂N(CH₃)₃⁺ PS-SO₃⁻) with concomitant formation of AgCl is proposed. Grubbs' second generation catalyst exhibits a modest rate enhancement, believed to reflect the generation of PS-SO₃Ag·PCy₃.

Keywords: alkene metathesis, ruthenium, polystyrene, phosphine ligand, silver, phase transfer submitted as a communication to *Catalysis Science & Technology*.

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- [†] Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available: Experimental procedures.

In previous papers, we have developed the concept of "phase transfer activation" of metal based catalysts.¹⁻⁴ This technique is applicable when a ligand (L) must first dissociate in an initial or "k₁" step to generate the active catalyst (Scheme 1).^{5,6} This step is often reversible, with recapture of the ligand by the catalyst faster than subsequent binding of substrate (k₋₁[L] >> k₂[substrate]). As can be derived from the full rate expression given in Scheme 1, this serves to lower the velocity of the reaction as compared to the opposite limit with k₋₁[L] << k₂[substrate] (compare red box vs. green box).



Scheme 1. General principles of phase transfer activation.

Hence, we have sought catalyst precursors with ligands that are phase or affinity labeled such that they will rapidly transfer to an orthogonal (immiscible) phase, as shown in Scheme 1-A for liquid/liquid biphase systems. In earlier publications, we have prepared derivatives of Grubbs' second generation alkene metathesis catalyst (1a) with fluorophilic and hydrophilic phosphine ligands (1b,c; see Scheme 2).¹⁻⁴ These afforded marked rate enhancements of ring closing reactions (RCM) under aqueous/organic and fluorous/organic liquid/liquid biphase conditions, as compared to organic monophase conditions.

In the preceding protocols, no binding site has been provided for the phase labeled ligand

in the orthogonal phase. Thus, phase transfer will be governed by a partition coefficient. We wanted to expand this strategy in two conceptual directions. First, we were attracted to the idea of using orthogonal <u>solid</u> phases, of which numerous hydrophilic, fluorophilic, and lipophilic varieties are available. Among other attributes, this would greatly decrease solvent demand. Second, given that many solid materials are easily functionalized – e.g., polystyrene (PS)⁷ – we set out to build in possible phase, ionic, or covalent interactions to enhance phase transfer, as exemplified in Scheme 1-B.



Scheme 2. Liquid/liquid phase transfer activation using analogs of Grubbs' second generation alkene metathesis catalyst (1a) with phase labeled phosphine ligands (1b,c).

As noted above, dramatic rate accelerations are observed when catalyst **1c**, which features a phosphine with a hydrophilic tetraalkylammonium chloride moiety, is applied under aqueous/organic biphase conditions. We wondered whether the positively charged ligand might rapidly adsorb onto a negatively charged polystyrene, for example readily available sulfonated derivatives as represented by the Amberlyst family.⁸ We furthermore speculated that using a silver salt of a sulfonated polystyrene (PS-SO₃Ag)⁹ would provide additional driving forces. As sketched in Scheme 3-A,¹⁰ a thermodynamically favorable AgCl precipitation would generate the requisite number of anionic binding sites, while the remaining PS-SO₃Ag moieties could covalently bind to the trivalent phosphorus atom. This polymer was first reported by Bergbreiter, together with a



variety of data involving PPh₃ binding in solution.⁹

Scheme 3. Proposed mechanisms of catalyst activation.

Commercial Amberlyst 15 (PS-SO₃H; 4.7 mmol H⁺/g of polymer) was converted to the silver salt PS-SO₃Ag as previously reported,¹¹ and standardized by a gravimetric method (HNO₃ /NaCl; 1.5 mmol Ag⁺/g of polymer).^{9a,12} In an initial series of experiments, the polymer loading was optimized with respect to the catalyst/substrate charge, using *N*-allyl-*N*-methallyl-*p*-tosyl-amide (**2**) as shown in Scheme 4. Thus, a series of Schlenk tubes was charged with **1c** (0.0025–0.0028 mmol; 2.5–2.8 mol%), tridecane internal standard, 2.0 mL of a 0.049–0.050 M CH₂Cl₂ solution of **2** (0.099-0.102 mmol), and varying amounts of the PS-SO₃Ag resin per Figure 1 (0.015, 0.030, 0.045, 0.060, 0.075, 0.150 mmol Ag⁺ or 6-60 equiv with respect to **1c**). Aliquots were periodically removed and quenched with ethyl vinyl ether, and the rate of formation of the RCM product **3** (Scheme 4) assayed by GC. The best results were obtained with a 0.045 mmol loading (18 equiv; magenta inverted triangles), although data were comparable with 0.030 and 0.060 mmol loadings. The 0.045 mmol charge was used for all subsequent experiments.

The rate profile with the 0.045 mmol PS-SO₃Ag loading is repeated in Figure 2 (magenta inverted triangles), and compared with that of a new experiment without the PS-SO₃Ag, but with the same reactant/solvent quantities and catalyst charge (blue diamonds). The latter reaction is dramatically slower. For comparison, two experiments were conducted with orthogonal liquid



Figure 1. Rates of formation of 3 (room temperature, $[2]_0 = 0.049 - 0.051$ M, 2.5 mol% 1c) in 2.0 mL CH₂Cl₂ in the presence of PS-SO₃Ag resin. Resin loading: ◆ 0.010 g (0.015 mmol Ag⁺); ■ 0.020 g (0.030 mmol Ag⁺); ▼ 0.030 g (0.045 mmol Ag⁺); ▲ 0.040 g (0.060 mmol Ag⁺); ◀ 0.050 g (0.075 mmol Ag⁺); ▶ 0.100 g (0.150 mmol Ag⁺).

phases. In the first, water (1.0 mL) was added to the CH_2Cl_2 solution, giving a biphasic organic/ aqueous system per Figure 2 (orange squares). In the second, 0.01 M aqueous HCl (1.0 mL) was added (green triangles). Both of these experiments, which have been reported earlier,² afforded faster rates than the monophasic CH_2Cl_2 conditions. The latter, in which the phosphine ligand is protonated by HCl concomitantly with phase transfer, was more rapid. However, both remained slower than the liquid/solid biphase conditions with PS-SO₃Ag. Hence, liquid/solid biphase conditions can be superior for phase transfer activation.



Figure 2. Rates of formation of 3 (room temperature, $[2]_0 = 0.049 - 0.051$ M, 2.5 mol% 1c). Solvent systems: ◆ CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); ■ CH₂Cl₂/H₂O (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); ▲ CH₂Cl₂/0.01 M aqueous HCl (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); ▼ CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL) with 0.030 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.045 mmol Ag⁺).

In order to establish the generality of these phenomena, experiments analogous to those in Figure 2 were conducted with two additional substrates, diethyl 2-allyl-2-methallylmalonate (4) and the allyl/homoallyl N-tosylamide 6 (Scheme 4).¹³ As illustrated in Figures 3-A and 3-B, the liquid/solid biphase conditions gave much faster RCM rates than the liquid monophase conditions (magenta inverted triangles vs. blue diamonds). However, here the liquid/liquid biphase conditions involving aqueous HCl (green triangles) exhibited slightly faster rates at low conversions (15-30 min).

With regard to the catalyst activation mechanism sketched in Scheme 3-A, Grubbs' second generation catalyst **1a** would not be expected to give comparable rate accelerations. Thus, in experiments analogous to those in Figure 1, Schlenk tubes were charged with **1a** (0.0010 mmol), tridecane internal standard, 2.0 mL of a 0.051 M CH_2Cl_2 solution of **4** (0.101 mmol), and varying amounts of the PS-SO₃Ag resin. These conditions employ a lower catalyst loading and less reactive RCM substrate than in Figure 1, apropos to the intrinsically higher reactivity of **1a** vs. **1c**



Figure 3. A. Rates of formation of 5 (room temperature, $[4]_0 = 0.050 - 0.051$ M, 2.5 mol% 1c). Solvent systems: ◆ CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); ■ CH₂Cl₂/H₂O (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); ▲ CH₂Cl₂/0.01 M aqueous HCl (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); ▼ CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL) with 0.030 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.045 mmol Ag⁺). B. Rates of formation of 7 (0 °C, $[6]_0 = 0.050$ M, 1.0 mol% 1c). Solvent systems: ◆ CH₂Cl₂ (4.0 mL); ■ CH₂Cl₂/H₂O (4.0 mL/2.0 mL); ▲ CH₂Cl₂/0.01 M aqueous HCl (4.0 mL/2.0 mL); ▼ CH₂Cl₂ (4.0 mL) with 0.024 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.036 mmol Ag⁺).

established earlier.² As shown in Figure s1, the rate depended upon the PS-SO₃Ag loading. That with 0.015 mmol Ag^+ proved optimum and was used in subsequent experiments.

The rate profile for this $PS-SO_3Ag$ loading is repeated in Figure 4 (solid red squares), together with data for an analogous experiment in the absence of the resin (solid blue diamonds). A rate enhancement is evident under liquid/solid biphase conditions, but is less dramatic. Similar effects were seen with the other substrates **2** (Figure 4; note faster reaction) and **6** (not depicted).

Accordingly, we suggest two mechanisms for liquid/solid phase transfer of the phosphine ligands, as sketched in Scheme 3. In the first and originally envisioned scenario, the PS-SO₃Ag resin and the tetraalkylammonium chloride containing phosphine generate AgCl and the surface



Figure 4. Rates of formation RCM products (room temperature, [substrate]₀ = 0.050–0.051 M, 1.0 mol% 1a). Substrate/product, solvent systems: 4/5, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); 4/5, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); 4/5, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); 2/3, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL)

assembly PS-SO₃Ag·PCy₂CH₂CH₂N(CH₃)₃⁺ PS-SO₃⁻, which features ionic and covalent interactions. In the second, applicable to neutral trialkylphosphines such as PCy₃, a more weakly bound covalent adduct is generated (e.g., PS-SO₃Ag·PCy₃). Although many silver(I) phosphine adducts have been characterized, they are generally labile, with low barriers to phosphine exchange (typically 11-13 kcal/mol) suggestive of weak silver-phosphorus bonds.¹⁴

Finally, the ability of the PS-SO₃Ag resin to adsorb the free phosphines $Cy_2PCH_2CH_2N-Me_3^+ Cl^-$ and PCy_3 was tested. For solubility reasons, the former could not be assayed in the reaction solvent (CH_2Cl_2), so methanol was employed, with the idea that the more polar solvent would decrease the driving force for adsorption and provide a lower limit for rates and equilibria in less polar solvents. Thus, NMR tubes were charged with standard solutions of the phosphines in CD_3OD or CD_2Cl_2 (0.40 M; 0.40 mL, 0.160 mmol) and capillaries containing the internal standard ClPPh₂. A reference ³¹P{¹H} NMR spectrum was recorded, and the PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.0342-0.0322 mmol Ag⁺, ca. 20 mol% compared to phosphine) was added with shaking. The amount of adsorbed phosphine was assayed every 30-60 min, as diagrammed in Figure 5. Interestingly, the theoretical amount of the cationic phosphine was adsorbed (Ag⁺ limiting, 1:1 stoi-chiometry), and at approximately twice the rate of PCy_3 .¹⁵



Figure 5. Phosphine absorbed by 0.0215-0.0228 g of PS-SO₃Ag resin (1.5 mmol Ag⁺/g): (\blacklozenge) Cy₂PCH₂CH₂NMe₃⁺ Cl⁻ from a CD₃OD solution (0.40 M, 0.400 mL); (**a**) PCy₃ from a CD₂Cl₂ solution (0.40 M, 0.400 mL).

Various additives have previously been noted to enhance the rates of alkene metatheses with Grubbs type catalysts. These include a variety of copper(I) salts.¹⁶ However, we are unaware of any prior data with silver(I) species. Importantly, Bergbreiter tested the effect of PS-SO₃Ag upon rates of alkene hydrogenations with Wilkinson's catalyst some time ago.^{9,11} No acceleration was noted, and only very modest enhancements were observed with ruthenium catalysts of the type RuHX(PPh₃)₃ (X = H, OAc, Cl; 1.1-1.8 fold).^{9,11} However, a poorly active catalyst precursor, RuCl₂(PPh₃)₃, did exhibit a 15 fold rate increase.^{9b,11} All of these results, and others involving inhibition of phosphine poisoning, were interpreted from the standpoint of covalent phosphine binding to the resin.

In summary, this study has expanded the scope of phase transfer activation, as applied to alkene metathesis using Grubbs-type catalysts, from liquid/liquid biphase to liquid/solid biphase conditions. These new solvent-leaner protocols incorporate attractive bonding interactions between the solid phase and the ligands undergoing phase transfer, thereby providing the most pronounced rate accelerations observed to date. Future reports will extend the utility of phase transfer activation to other types of catalytic reactions.

Acknowledgements

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(13) A reviewer has inquired about data with other solid supports. Two acidic resins, Dowex 50WX2 (Aldrich) and Nafion (Alfa Aesar) were also investigated under the conditions of Figure 2 (but without silver derivatization). These were only moderately effective, with rates intermediate between the monophase (CH₂Cl₂) and liquid/liquid organic/aqueous biphase (CH₂-Cl₂/H₂O) conditions.

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(15) A reviewer has asked about the ability of the PS-SO₃Ag resin to adsorb catalyst **1c**. An experiment comparable to those in Figure 5 was carried out, but with a higher silver loading to further promote catalyst adsorption (0.50 mL of 0.044 M **1c** in CD₂Cl₂; 0.0475 g PS-SO₃Ag, 0.0712 mmol Ag⁺). Based upon a slight diminution of the catalyst ³¹P NMR signal relative to that of the standard, an upper limit of ca. 5% adsorption (0.021 mmol, 1% based upon Ag⁺; measured after ca. 2 min) could be set. There was no further change after 4 h.

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An analog of Grubbs' second generation catalyst with a tetralkylammonium chloride containing phosphine exhibits faster rates in the presence of polystyrene-SO₃Ag.

List of Captions

Scheme 1. Phase transfer activation of catalysts: general principles.

Scheme 2. Liquid/liquid phase transfer activation using analogs of Grubbs' second generation alkene metathesis catalyst with phase labeled phosphine ligands.

Scheme 3. Proposed mechanisms of catalyst activation.

Scheme 4. Ring closing metatheses studied.

Figure 1. Rates of formation of **3** (room temperature, $[2]_0 = 0.049-0.051$ M, 2.5 mol% **1c**) in 2.0 mL CH₂Cl₂ in the presence of PS-SO₃Ag resin. Resin loading: ◆ 0.010 g (0.015 mmol Ag⁺); ■ 0.020 g (0.030 mmol Ag⁺); ▼ 0.030 g (0.045 mmol Ag⁺); ▲ 0.040 g (0.060 mmol Ag⁺); ◀ 0.050 g (0.075 mmol Ag⁺); ▶ 0.100 g (0.150 mmol Ag⁺).

Figure 2. Rates of formation of **3** (room temperature, $[2]_0 = 0.049-0.051$ M, 2.5 mol% **1c**). Solvent systems: \bigcirc CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); \blacksquare CH₂Cl₂/H₂O (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); \blacktriangle CH₂Cl₂/0.01 M aqueous HCl (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); \checkmark CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL) with 0.030 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.045 mmol Ag⁺).

Figure 3. A. Rates of formation of **5** (room temperature, $[4]_0 = 0.050-0.051$ M, 2.5 mol% **1c**). Solvent systems: ◆ CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); ■ CH₂Cl₂/H₂O (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); ▲ CH₂Cl₂/0.01 M aqueous HCl (2.0 mL/1.0 mL); ▼ CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL) with 0.030 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.045 mmol Ag⁺). **B**. Rates of formation of **7** (0 °C, $[6]_0 = 0.050$ M, 1.0 mol% **1c**). Solvent systems: ◆ CH₂Cl₂ (4.0 mL); ■ CH₂Cl₂/H₂O (4.0 mL/2.0 mL); ▲ CH₂Cl₂/0.01 M aqueous HCl (4.0 mL/2.0 mL); ▼ CH₂Cl₂/H₂O (4.0 mL); ▲ CH₂Cl₂/0.01 M aqueous HCl (4.0 mL/2.0 mL); ▼ CH₂Cl₂ (4.0 mL) with 0.024 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.036 mmol Ag⁺).

Figure 4. Rates of formation RCM products (room temperature, $[substrate]_0 = 0.050-0.051 \text{ M}$, 1.0 mol% 1a). Substrate/product and solvent systems: $\diamond 4/5$, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); $\blacksquare 2/3$, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); with 0.010 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.015 mmol Ag⁺), $\diamond 2/3$, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL); $\square 2/3$, CH₂Cl₂ (2.0 mL) with 0.010 g PS-SO₃Ag resin (0.015 mmol Ag⁺).

Figure 5. Phosphine absorbed by 0.0215-0.0228 g of PS-SO₃Ag resin (1.5 mmol Ag⁺/g): (\blacklozenge) Cy₂PCH₂CH₂NMe₃⁺ Cl⁻ from a CD₃OD solution (0.40 M, 0.400 mL); (\blacksquare) PCy₃ from a CD₂Cl₂ solution (0.40 M, 0.400 mL).

Figure s1. Rates of formation of **5** (room temperature, $[4]_0 = 0.050-0.051$ M, 1.0 mol% **1a**) in 2.0 mL CH₂Cl₂ in the presence of PS-SO₃Ag resin. Resin loading: \blacklozenge 0.005 g (0.0075 mmol Ag⁺); \blacksquare 0.010 g (0.015 mmol Ag⁺); \blacktriangle 0.015 g (0.0225 mmol Ag⁺).