Mechanistic examination of AuIII-mediated 1,5-ene cycloisomerization by AuBr2(N-imidate)(NHC)/AgX precatalysts – is the active catalyst AuIII or AuI?†

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Gold(III) catalysts mediate 1,5-ene cycloisomerization or tandem nucleophilic substitution-1,5-ene cycloisomerization processes in an efficient manner. This study examines the reaction kinetics of 1,5-ene cycloisomerization, mediated by AuBr2(N-imidate)(NHC) catalysts (where N-imidate = N-tetrafluorosuccinimide (N-TFS) or N-phthalimide (N-phthal) and NHC = N,N′-di-tert-pentylimidazol-2-ylidene (fPe)), in the presence of AgOTf, in comparison with AuBr2(NHC) and AuBr(NHC). The nature of N-imidate anion influences catalyst efficacy. NMR spectroscopic investigations have allowed the ease of reduction of AuBr2(N-TFS)(NHC) to AuX(NHC) (where X = N-TFS or Br) to be examined. Br2 is liberated from AuIII, which has been trapped by a sacrificial alkene. Under working catalyst conditions cationic AuIII is reduced to AuI.

Introduction

Organic transformations catalysed by Au species are of current interest within both the synthetic chemistry and catalysis communities.1 Of the reaction classes, 1,6-ene cycloisomerization processes (n = 5 and 6) have attracted notable attention.2 While several transition metals are able to affect 1,6-ene substrates, Au occupies a special position in this arena,2,3 as an eclectic array of structurally diverse organic products can be formed, depending on the catalyst and substrate identities, in addition to the reaction conditions used.

1,6-Enyne cycloisomerization processes generally involve 6-exo-dig cyclization and are mechanistically well understood.4 1,5-Enyne cycloisomerization processes, involving 5-endo-dig cyclization, have not been examined to the same extent, despite the numerous synthetic possibilities. Nevertheless, several catalyst manifolds are known to deliver different products depending on the electronic character of the Au centre (see Scheme 1 for selected examples). This prompted Sun and Lin to explore the mechanisms of 1,5-ene cycloisomerization, mediated by AuI, by DFT calculations (B3LYP).5 In an earlier study we developed a tandem nucleophilic substitution-1,5-ene cycloisomerization process (5 → 8),6 starting from propargyl alcohol (5) and allyl silane (6),

to deliver bicyclo[3.1.0]hexene products (8). For this process, AuBr2(N-TFS)(fPe) in combination with the non-coordinating anion, Ag[Al(OC(CF3)3)]4, proved an active and selective catalyst for the tandem process. By comparison with AuBr(fPe) (note: nearinactive for the tandem process), it was shown that a AuIII species was required for the initial nucleophilic substitution reaction. However, a question that arose from the study was the nature of the active catalyst species in the cycloisomerization step, i.e. is AuIII or AuI responsible for cycloisomerization?

In this paper we examine the reaction kinetics of 1,5-ene cycloisomerization, mediated by AuBr2(N-imidate)
(NHC) catalysts (where N-imidate = N-tetrafluorosuccinimide (N-TFS) or N-phthalimide [N-phthal] and NHC = N,N’-di-tert-pentylimidazol-2-ylimidine ([FPe]) in the presence of AgOTf. The findings allow an understanding of 1,5-enyne substrate turnover, indicating that catalyst decomposition is an issue for certain catalysts. It has been found that the N-imidate anion plays a stabilizing role for effective catalysis. NMR spectroscopic investigations have been used to examine the degradation of AuIII to AuI, which support the kinetic studies.

Results and discussion

The study is divided into two parts: (a) kinetic investigations; (b) NMR spectroscopic investigations.

(a) Kinetic investigations

The 1,5-enyne cycloisomerization reaction (9 → 10) examined in these kinetic investigations is shown in Scheme 2, which has previously been validated as a useful benchmark reaction\(^{a,b}\) for testing Au catalyst efficacy (the reaction is selective for 10 and negligible side-reactions are seen).

The catalysts used in this study are collated in Fig. 1, which were selected from a wider library of catalysts previously reported by our group.\(^{a,b}\)

The reaction of 9 → 10 was monitored by HRGC analysis. The response factors are near identical for 9 and 10 (authenticated by \(^1\)H NMR spectroscopic analysis), which is expected as they are isomers. The conversion of pure 9 (ascertained by \(^1\)H NMR spectroscopy) and associated kinetic profile is shown in Fig. 2 for the reaction mediated by 1 mol% AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)([FPe]), in the presence of either 1 or 2 mol% AgOTf in DCE at 25 °C. The first equivalent (relative to Au cat.) serves to abstract bromide from AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)([FPe]) forming [AuBr(N-TFS)([FPe])OTf and AgBr in situ. The second equivalent of AgOTf could in principle abstract another bromide.

Examination of the kinetic profiles in Fig. 2 indicate that there is no benefit in an additional equivalent of AgOTf. Both AgOTf and AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)([FPe]) are necessary for active catalysis (confirmed by control experiments). The data generated by HRGC could be fitted to a pseudo-first order rate equation using Dynafit\(^\text{™}\) (by curve fitting; regression analysis of ln[enzyme] vs. time afforded similar data), which allowed the observed rate \((k_{obs})\) and initial rate to be determined.\(^7\) For the reaction where the AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)([FPe]):AgOTf was 1:1, it was determined that \(k_{obs} = 3.14 \times 10^{-4}\) s\(^{-1}\) and the initial rate \((T_0) = 6.28 \times 10^{-5}\) moldm\(^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\) (standard error = 2.5%). A marginally faster reaction was recorded when the ratio was 1:2 \((k_{obs} = 4.16 \times 10^{-4}\) s\(^{-1}\); \(T_0 = 8.32 \times 10^{-5}\) moldm\(^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\); standard error = 3.3%).

Based on these data the ratio of the Au catalyst to Ag additive was maintained at 1:1 for all subsequent reactions, which is in-keeping with the ratio commonly used for many related cycloisomerization processes.

The kinetic profiles for the conversion of 9 (by HRGC), catalyzed by five different Au catalysts, are shown in Fig. 3. The kinetic data is collated in Table 1. AuBr([FPe]), AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)([FPe]), AuBr\(_2\)(N-phthal)([FPe]) and AuBr\(_2\)(N-phthal)(IMes) show reasonable first order behaviour in 9. The catalyst showing the highest observed rate is AuBr\(_2\)([FPe]) \((k_{obs} = 13.98 \times 10^{-4}\) s\(^{-1}\)), which has an initial rate commensurate with AuBr\(_2\)([FPe]) \((T_0 = 27.96 \times 10^{-5}\) moldm\(^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\) and 21.87 \times 10^{-5}\),

\[\text{Scheme 2 1,5-Enyne cycloisomerization reaction for the kinetic investigations.}\]

\[\text{Fig. 1 The structures of the catalysts used in this mechanistic study.}\]

\[\text{Fig. 2 Effect of AgOTf equivalents relative to AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)([FPe]) in 1,5-enyne cycloisomeration of 9 (key: ● = 2 mol% AgOTf, ○ = 1 mol% AgOTf). Other details: [9] = 0.2 M, DCE, 1 mol% Au cat., 25 °C; 1,5-enyne conversion was monitored by HRGC – each sample point was quenched by addition of N(n-Bu)\(_3\)Br. The kinetic curves were fitted using Dynafit™.}\]
It is important to note that AuBr₂(I⁻Pe) did not display clean first order behaviour and catalyst decomposition is apparent after ca. 60 substrate turnovers. The kinetic profile could, however, be fitted to a second order rate equation by curve-fitting, in which it was assumed that the Au catalyst decomposed over time and that the rate depended on both the concentration of 9 and Au catalyst.

The second order rate equation was deduced from initial rate $r = k_{obs}[\text{enyn]}_0[Au]_0 = 21.87 \times 10^{-5}$ mol dm$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$, where $k_{obs} = 0.5468$ mol$^{-1}$ dm$^3$ s$^{-1}$ is the rate constant for the equation: 9 (1,5-enzyme) + Au $\rightarrow$ Au + 10 (product). The rate of catalyst decomposition was determined by the initial rate of decomposition $k_{2obs}[Au]_0 = 1.81 \times 10^{-6}$ s$^{-1}$, where $k_{2obs} = 9.07 \times 10^{-4}$ s$^{-1}$ is the rate constant for the decomposition of the Au active catalyst. The inactive Au is more likely colloidal, as evidenced by the kinetic data and purple colouration of the reaction mixture.

Catalyst decomposition does not appear to hinder catalysis by the other Au$^{III}$ complexes tested in this series. Comparison of $k_{obs}$ for the AuBr₂(N-phthal)(I⁻Pe) and AuBr₃(N-phthal)(IMes) catalysts, shows that the former is twice as active as the latter (Table 1). AuBr₂(N-TFS)(I⁻Pe) has a marginally higher activity than AuBr₂(N-phthal)(I⁻Pe). It is evident that the N-imidate ligand could be playing a stabilizing role, when comparing N-imidate-containing catalysts directly with AuBr₂(I⁻Pe).

In the course of these kinetic studies it was determined that ‘aged’ 1,5-enzyme significantly affects the kinetic profiles recorded. Aldehyde decomposition products are formed from 9 (observed by $^1$H NMR, ca. 5%, after several weeks), which could interfere with the catalysis (i.e. slowing catalytic turnover). It was therefore found essential to employ either freshly prepared or purified 9 for the kinetic studies, which gave reproducible kinetic data.

Further examination of the catalytic behaviour of AuBr₂(N-phthal)(I⁻Pe) by variation of [9] reveals an interesting trend (Fig. 4, Table 2).

Increasing [9] causes a decrease in the observed rate constants, with the initial rates increasing with concentration, relating to the change in [9] over time. At 0.5 M [9] it was necessary to fit the kinetic curve to a second order rate equation, again factoring in the Au catalyst deactivation step. The observation is consistent with increasing [Au], which is concomitant with increasing [9]. Given these data, product inhibition and Au aggregation/decomposition are likely at higher [9].

A question arising from these studies is the nature of the active catalyst species. Therefore, a competition experiment was devised to discern any subtle differences in catalyst behaviour. Dimethyl allylpropargylmalonate 11 was selected as a viable 1,6-enzyme benchmark substrate, which principally affords the cyclic products 12a and 12b (Scheme 3).
Table 2  Observed rate constants for the cycloisomerization of [9] mediated by AuBr₂(N-phthal)(I⁻Pe); data accompanying Fig. 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[9] (mol dm⁻³)</th>
<th>kₐobs × 10⁻³ (s⁻¹)</th>
<th>Initial rate</th>
<th>Error (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>8.97</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>19.20</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a At Tobs = 7.68 × 10⁻² mol dm⁻³ s⁻¹, kₐobs = 2.36 × 10⁻⁴ s⁻¹.

Firstly, AuBr(I⁻Pe) is a competent catalyst for the cycloisomerization of 11 → 12 (kₐobs = 1.08 × 10⁻⁴ s⁻¹; Tobs = 2.15 × 10⁻³ mol dm⁻³ s⁻¹; standard error = 2.2%). The kinetic analysis of the competition experiments is complicated by the presence of two substrates and two competing catalytic cycles, which is evident in the error analysis. This complication aside, the kinetic profiles are similar in all cases (see Fig. 5). Catalyst performance is reduced for AuBr(I⁻Pe) as compared to the Au⁺⁺ catalysts – the presence of 12 slows catalytic turnover in the case of AuBr(I⁻Pe).

A plot of the ratio of 12a : 12b over the duration of the 1,6-enyne cycloisomerization reaction, reveals an interesting trend as a function of catalyst (Fig. 6).

Firstly, the independent 1,6-enyne cycloisomerisation of 11 → 12a/12b mediated by AuBr(I⁻Pe) gives a ratio of ca. 1 : 3, which does not alter appreciably over the 6 h reaction time. The same trend is revealed in the competition experiment in the presence of both 9 and 12, using AuBr(I⁻Pe) as the catalyst. The product distribution is different for the Au⁺⁺ catalysts, with AuBr₂(N-TFS)(I⁻Pe) showing a smaller ratio than AuBr₂(N-phthal)(I⁻Pe). Crucially, at ca. 1.5 h the ratio of 12a/12b is identical to the AuBr(I⁻Pe) catalyst. This finding, coupled with our previous observation that dual Au⁺⁺/Au⁺ catalytic behaviour is necessary for a successful tandem nucleophilic/1,5-enyne cycloisomerization reaction,⁶ indicates that Au⁺⁺ to Au⁺ degradation under the working reaction conditions, affects the ratio of products depending on distribution of Au⁺⁺/Au⁺ species that are present at any given time. It may be conjectured that liberated N-imidate anion could affect the distribution of 12a/12b under the reaction conditions.

However, in control experiments we have detected liberation of Br₂ from these Au⁺⁺ catalysts (see section b, below).

(b) NMR spectroscopic investigations

NMR spectroscopic analysis allows us to discern whether Au⁺⁺ could be playing a role in the catalysis detailed earlier. It has been suggested previously that Au⁺⁺ can be reduced to Au⁺ under the reaction conditions.⁸ Nolan and co-workers⁸a stated that the active catalyst in the hydration of alkenes and polymerisation of styrene mediated by AuBr₂(NHC) type complexes is a Au⁺ species, formed by reductive elimination of bromide ligands. Further examination of the behaviour of the Au catalysts described herein was deemed necessary, especially whether any evidence for the formation of a cationic Au⁺⁺ catalyst species, and degradation to Au⁺, could be gathered.

¹H NMR spectroscopy was used to assess whether cationic Au⁺⁺ species were formed by a stoichiometric reaction of AuBr₂(N-TFS)(I⁻Pe) with AgOTf in aceton-nd₆ (this solvent was selected to increase solubility of all the salts). The I⁻Pe imidazole proton signals were the most characteristic and sensitive to changes in the Au electronic configuration. It was necessary to compare NMR spectra with reference materials, namely AuBr(I⁻Pe) and Au(N-TFS)(I⁻Pe), as shown in Fig. 7.

1,5-Enyne 9 (0.2 M) and 1,6-enyne 11 (0.2 M) were subjected to a reaction where the only variable was the Au catalyst [AuBr(I⁻Pe), AuBr₂(N-TFS)(I⁻Pe) and AuBr₂(N-phthal)(I⁻Pe)] (Fig. 5 and Table 3). In addition to examining the reactivity difference between 9 and 11, the experiment allows one to probe the ratio of products formed in the latter 1,6-enyne cycloisomerization reaction (12a : 12b) as the substrate is consumed over time.

![Scheme 3](image)

Scheme 3  Competition experiment of a 1,5-enyne 9 and 1,6-enyne 11. Product 11 derives from 9 and products 12a and 12b from 11. The kinetic profiles are shown in Fig. 6 and product distributions of 12a : 12b shown in Fig. 7.

![Fig. 5](image)

Fig. 5  Kinetic profile for the concurrent cycloisomerisation of 4-phenyl-1-hexen-5-yne (9) and dimethyl alkylypropargylmalonate (11) mediated by selected Au catalysts. Key: 1,5-enyne conversion (9, open circles) and 1,6-enyne conversion (11, closed circles) – black = AuBr(I⁻Pe); blue = AuBr₂(N-TFS)(I⁻Pe); red = AuBr₂(N-phthal)(I⁻Pe). Conditions: 0.2 M 9, 0.2 M 11 in 1,2-dichloroethane, 1 mol% Au, 1 mol% AgOTf, 25 °C. 1,6-enyne (n = 5 or 6) conversion monitored by GC analysis. Each sample point was quenched by addition of (n-Bu₄N)NB. The kinetic curves were fitted using Dynafit™ with standard errors ~ 5%.
The AuBr(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) imidazole signal shifts 0.15 ppm downfield on treatment with AgOTf, giving Au(OTf)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) quantitatively \{compare spectra (h) and (i), Fig. 7\}. AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) reacts with AgOTf to afford Au(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) and trace Au(OTf)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)), with no cationic Au\(^{III}\) species observed after 4.5 h \{compare spectra (d), (e) and (i)\}. The outcome is consistent with the liberation of Br\(_2\) (as noted by a brown colouration). Furthermore, AuBr\(_2\)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) decomposes in solution in the absence of AgOTf, leading to the formation of AuBr(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) \{compare spectra (g) and (h)\}. Ageing of AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) led to slow formation of trace but observable amounts of AuBr\(_2\)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)), AuBr(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) and Au(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) \{see spectrum (b)\}. The formation of Au(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) is detected by \(^{19}\text{F}\) NMR spectroscopic analysis (see ESI\(^f\)).

A similar reaction of AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) with Ag[Al(OC(CF\(_3\))\(_3\))\(_2\)] in acetone-\(d_6\) afforded Au(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) and a new broad signal at slightly higher chemical shift (\(\delta\) 7.52) which we suggest is [Au(\(\kappa^1\)-O = CMe\(_2\))(I\(^\text{Pe}\))] [Al(OC(CF\(_3\))\(_3\))\(_2\)] (see ESI\(^f\)).

The binding of the AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) and AgOTf toward 1-hexene in CD\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) was evaluated to reveal evidence for any alkene–Au\(^{III}\) interaction (Table 4), in addition to showing whether liberated Br\(_2\) could be sequestered by 1-hexene. For comparison, the reported spectroscopic data\(^9\) of [Au(\(\mu_2\)-H\(_2\)C = CHC\(_4\)H\(_9\))(IPr)][SbF\(_6\)] is included in Table 4. A reduction in the alkene proton coupling constants, relative to free 1-hexene, is evidence for \(\pi\)-back donation, \textit{i.e.} an increase in p character for the orbitals at carbon.

The \(^1\text{H}\) NMR spectral data show no clear evidence for 1-hexene binding to neutral AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)), in the absence of AgOTf (Table 4). Upon mixing AuBr\(_2\)(N-TFS)(I\(^\text{Pe}\)) with 1

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catalyst</th>
<th>(k_{\text{obs}} \times 10^{-4} \text{ (s}^{-1})</th>
<th>Rate(^a)</th>
<th>Error (%)</th>
<th>Ratio 12a : 12b(^h)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AuBr(I(^\text{Pe}))</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AuBr(_2)(N-TFS)(I(^\text{Pe}))</td>
<td>—(^d)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AuBr(_2)(N-phtal)(I(^\text{Pe}))</td>
<td>—(^e)</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AuBr(_2)(I(^\text{Pe}))</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AuBr(_2)(I(^\text{Pe})) (1,6-enzyme 11 only)</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AuBr(_2)(N-TFS)(I(^\text{Pe}))</td>
<td>—(^g)</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AuBr(_2)(N-phtal)(I(^\text{Pe}))</td>
<td>—(^f)</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Rate at \(T_0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ (mol dm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}\). \(^b\) After 6 h. \(^c\) Second order \(k_{\text{obs}} = 8.685 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^{3} \text{ s}^{-1}\). \(^d\) \(k_{\text{obs}} = 6.38 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}\) (error 9.2%). \(^e\) Second order \(k_{\text{obs}} = 1.52 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}\) (error 8.0%). \(^f\) Second order \(k_{\text{obs}} = 2.128 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^{3} \text{ s}^{-1}\). \(^g\) Second order \(k_{\text{obs}} = 3.242 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ dm}^{3} \text{ s}^{-1}\).
equiv. of AgOTf, the solution turns a cloudy colour (due to AgBr formation). Addition of 1-hexene (1 equiv.) results in a shift of $\Delta \delta = 0.44$ ppm (relative to free 1-hexene). Coupling constants of 18.0 Hz ($\Delta J_{E\text{-}H} = +1$ Hz) for the trans-proton and 8.7 Hz ($\Delta J_{Z\text{-}H} = -1.4$ Hz) for the cis-coupling were recorded. Addition of 2 equiv. of 1-hexene leads to a reduction in the chemical shift ($\Delta \delta = 0.18$ ppm), with little change in coupling constants observed. The excess 1-hexene is therefore in exchange with the alkene–AuIII species or alkene–AgI species.

After 24 h, the $^1$H NMR spectrum had changed significantly, with a number of small IPe imidazole signals corresponding to AuI and AuIII species, in addition to a large broad signal (ca. 80% of the total imidazole proton signal) in the AuI region. Another broad signal at 4.45–4.09 ppm was recorded, which we tentatively suggest is the alkene coordinated to AuI; the broadness in the proton signal is due to fluxionality of the alkene as the naked cationic species [Au($\mu_2$H$_2$C = CHC$_4$H$_9$)[IPr][SbF$_6$]]$^+$.$^9$ Signals corresponding to free 1-hexene and a new set of proton signals corresponding to 1,2-dibromohexane, ca. 50% abundance compared to free 1-hexene, i.e. 1 equivalent. After 24 h, there was no evidence of 1-hexene binding to Ag or Au. The $^{19}$F NMR spectrum showed a very large broad signal (−182.2 ppm) suggesting the observed alkene complex is that of Au($\mu_2$H$_2$C = CHC$_4$H$_9$)[N-TFS](IPe) or the naked cationic species [Au($\mu_2$H$_2$C = CHC$_4$H$_9$)[IPr][SbF$_6$]]$^+$. Signals corresponding to free 1-hexene and a new set of proton signals corresponding to 1,2-dibromohexane, ca. 50% abundance compared to free 1-hexene, i.e. 1 equivalent. After 24 h, there was no evidence of 1-hexene binding to Ag or Au. The $^{19}$F NMR spectrum showed a very large broad signal (−182.2 ppm) suggesting the observed alkene complex is that of Au($\mu_2$H$_2$C = CHC$_4$H$_9$)[N-TFS](IPe). In the absence of 1-hexene, the decomposition of AuBr$_2$(N-TFS)(IPe) was not observed.

It is important to note that AgOTf alone binds to 1-hexene ($\Delta \delta = 0.39$ ppm; $\Delta J_{E\text{-}H} = +0.7$ Hz and $\Delta J_{Z\text{-}H} = -1.2$ Hz), which is similar to the binding of AuBr$_2$(N-TFS)(IPe)/1 equiv. AgOTf. Whilst AgBr is formed, we cannot rule out the involvement of chemical equilibria with AuBr$_2$(N-TFS)(IPe) and AgOTf. Moreover, under the catalytic conditions there is an excess of substrate and solvent relative to the catalyst system, therefore solubilisation of all the metal species is possible.

(c) Mechanistic discussion

The experimental evidence from this study indicates that AuBr$_2$(IPe) is the most active catalyst for 1,5-ene cycloisomerization in the series tested, showing first order behaviour. The AuII catalyst, AuBr$_2$(IPe), mediates a slower reaction, which was successfully modelled kinetically as a second order process. The inclusion of a catalyst deactivation step was found necessary for the analysis. The $^1$H NMR spectroscopic analysis revealed that AuBr$_2$(IPe) degrades to AuBr(IBu), even in the absence of AgOTf.

The presence of an N-imidate anion led to higher catalyst efficacy (defined as leading to full substrate conversion) in comparison with AuBr$_2$(IPe).$^{10}$ Of the N-imidate series, AuBr$_2$(N-TFS)(IPe), is the most catalytically active. The nature of the NHC ligand exhibits a significant effect. For example, AuBr$_2$(N-phthal)(IPe) is twice as active as AuBr$_2$(N-phthal)(IMes).

Increasing the 1,5-ene (9), and therefore the concentration of Au catalyst {AuBr$_2$(N-phthal)(IPe)}, leads to catalyst deactivation. Optimal catalyst performance was recorded at [9] between 0.1–0.2 M. At 0.5 M [9] it was necessary to model the kinetics to a second order process, again involving a catalyst deactivation step. Product inhibition is also possible at higher concentrations, and formation of Au colloids is visible by the naked eye (purple colouration, relating to the Au plasmon band).

It was possible to assess subtle differences in catalyst behaviour by a concurrent cycloisomerization competition experiment, involving 1,5-ene 9 and 1,6-ene 11. The former gives 10 selectively, whereas 11 afford one of two products, 12a or 12b. Three catalysts were tested, namely AuBr$_2$(IPe), AuBr$_2$(N-TFS)(IPe) and AuBr$_2$(N-phthal)(IPe). In all cases, 1,5-ene 9 was found to be more reactive than 1,6-ene 11. Further analysis of the product ratios 12a:12b from the 1,6-ene cycloisomerization reaction revealed key differences for the AuII catalysts when compared to AuBr$_2$(IPe). After ca. 1.5 h, the ratios of 12a:12b for AuBr$_2$(N-TFS)(IPe) and AuBr$_2$(N-phthal)(IPe) mirrored the reaction mediated by AuBr$_2$(IPe). Therefore, while AuII is still present, 12a is formed to a greater extent than in reactions solely mediated by AuI.

Our findings on the 1,5-ene cycloisomerization process (9 → 11) are in-keeping with the DFT calculations reported by Sun and Lin.$^7$ In that study, it was shown that the 1,5-ene cycloisomerization reaction mediated by AuCl is both kinetically and thermodynamically favoured for the formation of the bicyclo[3.1.0]hexene product, with key catalytic steps (TS-I$_\text{comp}$ carbene formation and TS-II$_\text{comp}$ hydrogen migration) being of similar energy (Scheme 4).

From our experimental findings, we propose that Br$_2$ is liberated from cationic AuIII–NHC catalyst species, affording Au$^+$–NHC catalyst species in situ. The finding is supported by the liberation and trapping of the Br$_2$ by a sacrificial alkene (1-hexene) in the NMR spectroscopic investigations.
Decomposition of the Au\textsuperscript{I}-NHC catalyst species affords Au colloids, which are most likely a moribund form, especially as reduced catalyst performance is seen at higher [Au] and [9] (Scheme 5).

The binding experiments which explored the interaction of 1-hexene with AuBr\textsubscript{2}(N-TFS)(\textsuperscript{t}Pe)/AgOTf, and AgOTf alone, demonstrates that 1-hexene binding is influenced in both cases. Crucially, 1-hexene mediates the decomposition of AuBr\textsubscript{2}(N-TFS)(\textsuperscript{t}Pe) to Au(N-TFS)(\textsuperscript{t}Pe), which was not observed in the absence of 1-hexene in CD\textsubscript{2}Cl\textsubscript{2}. The results taken together demonstrate that unsaturated substrates are involved in: (i) catalyst activation to give Au\textsuperscript{I}, with concomitant decomposition of Au\textsuperscript{III}; (ii) solubilisation of the Ag salt, which is likely non-innocent in the catalysis. Subsequently, the nature of the coordinating ligand (and substrate and any impurities, as shown by substrate-aging experiments) is likely to affect catalytic turnover.

Finally, it is important to emphasise that other products can result from the cycloisomerization of different 1,5-eneynes, catalyzed by either AuBr\textsubscript{2}(\textsuperscript{t}Pe) or AuBr\textsubscript{2}(N-TFS) (\textsuperscript{t}Pe). In keeping with previous observations,\textsuperscript{3a,d} we find that a 1,5-eneyne containing a highly substituted carbon tether gives a cyclohexadiene product, both in the tandem nucleophilic substitution-1,5-eneyne cycloisomerization (13 → 14 → 15) and the latter independent reaction (14 → 15) (Scheme 6). The outcome serves to highlight that the catalysts described here, and elsewhere, mirror related observations from other studies.

**Conclusions**

In this paper the ability of both Au\textsuperscript{III} and Au\textsuperscript{I} catalysts to mediate a 1,5-eneyne cycloisomerization reaction has been examined. It was necessary to understand whether Au\textsuperscript{III} was being reduced under working catalyst conditions, especially as the success of the tandem nucleophilic substitution-1,5-eneyne cycloisomerization relies on Au\textsuperscript{III} for the initial nucleophilic substitution step.\textsuperscript{6a}

The reaction kinetics for 1,5-eneyne cycloisomerization, mediated by AuBr\textsubscript{2}(N-imidate)(NHC) catalysts \{where N-imidate = N-tetrafluorosuccinimide (N-TFS) or N-phthalimide (N-phthal) and NHC = N,N-di-tert-pentylimidazol-2-ylidene (\textsuperscript{t}Pe)\}, in the presence of AgOTf, revealed that the nature of the N-imidate anionic ligand influences catalyst efficacy. A direct comparison was made with Au\textsuperscript{III}Br\textsubscript{3}(NHC), which exhibited significant catalyst deactivation in the absence of the stabilizing N-imidate ligand. In a concurrent cycloisomerization of 1,5- and 1,6-eneynes (9 and 11) we were able to tease out subtle differences in the product distribution (11 → 12a:12b) during the early stages of catalytic turnover by the Au\textsuperscript{III} catalysts. NMR spectroscopic investigations have allowed the ease of reduction of AuBr\textsubscript{2}(N-TFS)(NHC) to Au\textsuperscript{X}(NHC) (where X = N-TFS or Br) to be examined. In these experiments, 1-hexene was shown to mediate Au\textsuperscript{III} decomposition. The liberation of Br\textsubscript{2} from the Au\textsuperscript{III} centre was trapped by this sacrificial alkene.

Taking together all of the results, we conclude, that under working catalyst conditions, cationic Au\textsuperscript{III} is reduced to Au\textsuperscript{I}. The role of Ag\textsuperscript{I} has been more difficult to understand \{i.e. beyond simple bromide abstraction\}. The interplay of Au and Ag salts in 1,\textsubscript{n}-eneyne cycloisomerization processes is currently being studied within our laboratories.

**Experimental**

**General experimental details**

All reactions involving silver salts were carried out in the absence of light. Deuterated and non-deuterated dichloromethane and acetonitrile were dried by passing through a column of activated alumina. Where necessary...
dichloromethane. Infra-red spectra were recorded on a Unicam Research Series FT-IR spectrometer. Mass spectrometry was carried out using a Fisons Analytical (VG) Autospec instrument. $^1$H and $^{13}$C NMR spectra were collected on a JEOL ECX400 spectrometer operating at 400 and 101 MHz, respectively, and referenced to residual solvent signals. $^{13}$C NMR signals are singlets unless otherwise stated. All column chromatography was performed using silica-gel (mesh 220–440) purchased from Fluka Chemicals with the solvent systems specified within the text. TLC analysis was performed using Merck 5554 aluminium backed silica plates, compounds were visualised using UV light (254 nm) and a basic aqueous solution of potassium permanganate. Melting points were measured in open capillary tubes using a Stuart SMP3 Digital Melting Point Apparatus and are uncorrected. 1-Phenyl-2-propyn-1-ol and AgOTf were purchased from Alfa Aesar. All other chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Inc. and used without further purification unless otherwise stated. All of the Au catalysts used in this study have been reported; see our previous paper for full details.$^{6b}$

**Kinetic experiments**

High resolution gas chromatographic (HRGC) analysis. GC was carried out on a Varian 430 instrument with a Factor Four Capillary column (VF-1 ms, 15 m, 0.25 mm) and a flame ionisation detector. Samples of 10 μl were taken via syringe from the reaction mixtures at the specified time points. The samples were immediately quenched by addition of the aliquots to a solution of tetra-n-butylammonium chloride (8 mM, 20 μl) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$. Conversion was determined via gas chromatography using a 1 μl sample injected directly into the instrument via syringe. Further sampling was carried out on selected aliquots over a period of time to ensure no further conversion occurred after quenching. The errors on the kinetic curves are recorded in the tables detailed in the main text (see also Tables 1–3).

Values for the integrated areas of the GC signals corresponding to starting materials and products during the course of the reactions were also inputted into Microsoft Excel spreadsheet software. This software was used to calculate percent conversions by comparison of starting material and product signal areas. The concentration of the species in solution was determined from the percent conversions and the initial starting material concentration. Selected aliquots were analysed by $^1$H NMR spectroscopy to ensure consistency with conversions measured by GC.$^{11}$

**Kinetic analysis.** The reaction kinetics were calculated assuming a first order kinetic model by plotting ln[enzyme] against time. Linear least-squares regression was used to calculate observed rate constants, initial rates and standard errors. The calculated concentrations of starting materials and products during the course of the reactions were also inputted into DynaFit™ software (reported by Biokin). Nonlinear least-squares regression was used to fit the experimental kinetic data to predetermined molecular mechanisms as described in the main body of the paper. This was used to determine the order of reaction, observed rate constants, initial rates and standard errors and to fit curves to the kinetic data.

**General procedure for the kinetic evaluation of the Au-catalysed cycloisomerization of 4-phenyl-1-hexen-5-yn-9 (9) by gas chromatography**

Au complex (3.2 μmol, 0.01 equiv.) and AgOTf (0.8 mg, 3.2 μmol, 0.01 equiv.) were mixed in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (or DCE) in a screw cap vial (1 min) and the solvent removed in vacuo. A solution of 4-phenyl-1-hexen-5-yn-9 (9) (50.0 mg, 321 μmol, 1 equiv.) in 1,2-dichloroethane (1.60 ml, 0.20 M) was added, the vial sealed with a rubber septum and a positive pressure of argon applied via an argon balloon. The mixture was stirred at 25 °C in the absence of light. Samples of 10 μl were taken via syringe and added immediately to a solution of tetra-n-butylammonium chloride (8 mM, 20 μl) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$. Conversion was determined via gas chromatography using a 1 μl sample. The chromatogram was run with an injector temperature of 250 °C and an initial oven temperature of 80 °C (0.5 min), heated to 160 °C, at a rate of 20 °C min$^{-1}$, and maintained at 160 °C (1 min). The retention times were: 2.58 min for 4-phenyl-1-hexen-5-yn-9 (9) and 3.89 min for 3-phenylbicyclo[3.1.0]hex-2-ene (10).

**General procedure for the kinetic evaluation of the Au-catalysed concurrent cycloisomerisation of 4-phenyl-1-hexen-5-yn-9 (9) and dimethyl allylpropargylmalonate (11) by GC.**

Au complex (3.2 μmol, 0.01 equiv.) and AgOTf (0.8 mg, 3.2 μmol, 0.01 equiv.) were mixed in dichloromethane in a screw cap vial (1 min) and the solvent removed in vacuo. A solution of 4-phenyl-1-hexen-5-yn-9 (9) (50.0 mg, 321 μmol, 1 equiv.) and dimethyl allylpropargylmalonate (11) (67.4 mg, 321 μmol, 1 equiv.) in 1,2-dichloroethane (1.60 ml, 0.20 M) was added, the vial sealed with a rubber septum and a positive pressure of argon applied via an argon balloon. The mixture was stirred at 25 °C in the absence of light. Samples of 10 μl were taken via syringe and added immediately to a solution of tetra-n-butylammonium chloride (8 mM, 20 μl) in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (1 mL). Conversion was determined via gas chromatography using a 1 μl sample. The chromatogram was run with an injector temperature of 250 °C and an initial oven temperature of 80 °C (0.5 min), heated to 160 °C, at a rate of 10 °C min$^{-1}$, and maintained at 160 °C (1 min). The retention times were: 4.04 minutes for 4-phenyl-1-hexen-5-yn-9 (9), 7.94 minutes for 3-phenylbicyclo[3.1.0]hex-2-ene (10), 5.53 minutes for dimethyl allylpropargylmalonate (11), 7.73 minutes for 12a and 8.15 minutes for 12b. The $^1$H and $^{13}$C NMR spectroscopic data for 9 and 10 (including representative NMR spectra) have been previously reported.$^6$

[(1-Allylcyclohexyl)ethyl]benzene (14). Prepared by a protocol based on that of Zhan and co-workers.$^{12}$

1-Phenylethynyl cyclohexanol (13) (0.50 g, 2.5 mmol, 1 equiv.) and allytrimethylsilane ($^6$) (1.19 ml, 7.5 mmol, 3 equiv.) were mixed in acetonitrile (5 ml, dry) and FeCl$_3$ (anhydrous, 40 mg, 0.25 mmol, 0.1 equiv.) in acetonitrile (1 ml, dry) was added dropwise. The reaction was stirred at 60 °C for 18 h,
reduced in vacuo and the product purified by column chromatography on silica gel, eluting with petroleum ether (40–60 °C), to give the title compound as a colourless oil (0.249 g, 1.11 mmol, 44%). $^1$H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl$_3$) δ 7.44–7.40 (m, 2H), 7.32–7.23 (m, 3H), 6.05 (dd, $J$ = 12.4, 9.3 and 7.5 Hz, 1H), 5.12 (m, 1H), 5.09 (m, 1H), 2.26 (dd, $J$ = 7.2 and 1.3 Hz, 2H), 1.87–1.58 (m, 7H), 1.28–1.12 (m, 3H). $^{13}$C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl$_3$) δ 135.0, 131.6, 128.1, 127.4, 124.2, 117.1, 95.1, 83.3, 47.4, 37.6, 37.0, 26.1, 23.1. ESI+-MS m/z 225.1633 (30%). ESI+-HRMS calcd. for C$_{17}$H$_{21}$ ([(MH]$^+$) 225.1638; found (7.3 mg, 6.8 × 10$^{-4}$ mol, 0.2 mL) for 1 h. Then, 1-hexene (3.4 mmol, 64.8 mg, 0.289 mmol, 83%; 93% conversion noted in vacuo) was added and then NMR spectra were recorded (500 MHz). In separate experiments the equivalents of 1-hexene were varied.

Characterisation details are included in the main body of the text (Table 4 gives further details). The interaction of AgOTf with 1-hexene was examined on the same scale as above, without the Au$^{III}$ complex. See ESI† for NMR spectral data.

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Notes and references


