

Gold Catalysis

 How to cite:
 Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2020, 59, 17739–17749

 International Edition:
 doi.org/10.1002/anie.202006245

 German Edition:
 doi.org/10.1002/ange.202006245

Cyclopropenylmethyl Cation: A Concealed Intermediate in Gold(I)-Catalyzed Reactions

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In memory of Professor Carsten Schmuck (February 20, 1968-August 1, 2019)

Abstract: The last years have witnessed many gold-catalyzed reactions of alkynes. One of the most prominent species in the reaction of two alkyne units is the vinyl-substituted gold vinylidene intermediate. Here, we were able to show that the reaction of a haloacetylene and an alkyne proceeds via a hitherto overlooked intermediate, namely the cyclopropenylmethyl cation. The existence and relative stability of this concealed intermediate is verified by quantum chemical calculations and ¹³C-labeling experiments. A comparison between the cyclopropenylmethyl cation and the well-known vinylidene intermediate reveals that the latter is more stable only for smaller cycles. However, this stability reverses in larger cycles. In the case of the smallest representative of both species, the vinylidene cation is the transition state en route to the cyclopropenylmethyl cation. The discovery of this intermediate should help to get a deeper understanding for gold-catalyzed carbon-carbon bond-forming reactions of alkynes. Furthermore, since envnes can be formed from the cyclopropenylmethyl cation, the inclusion of this intermediate should enable the development of new synthetic methods for the construction of larger cyclic halogenated and non-halogenated conjugated enyne systems.

Introduction

In the field of homogenous gold catalysis,^[1–5] alkynes represent one of the most important substance classes.^[6,7] Unlike other transition-metal-catalyzed reactions,^[8,9] the alkyne unit is usually consumed during gold-catalyzed reactions.^[6,7] However, in recent years a few exceptions to this have been found.^[10–19] Gold-catalyzed reactions of haloalkynes^[20] make up by far the greatest number of cases.^[10–13,15] For example, Hashmi et al. were able to show that the dual gold-catalyzed^[21–24] reaction of iodoarylacetylenes **1** leads via a head-to-tail dimerization to the crossconjugated enyne products **2** (Scheme 1 a).^[15] Recently, we presented the dimerization of chloro- and bromoarylacetylenes (**3** and **4**) to yield the corresponding head-to-head coupling products **5** and **6** (Scheme 1 b, top).^[13] In another study, this reaction was extended to the addition of haloarylacetylenes to alkynes **7–9**, whereby the *trans* addition enyne products **10** and **11**, respectively, are formed (Scheme 1 b, middle).^[11]

Instead of alkynes, the usage of alkenes as coupling partners with haloacetylenes has also been described.^[10,12,25-26] Here, the formation of the product strongly depends on the gold catalyst and the nature of the alkene reactant. The reaction of 1,2-disubstituted alkenes and gold carbene complexes leads to the corresponding [2+2] cycloaddition products.^[26] If, however, gold complexes with phosphine ligands and 1,1-disubstituted alkenes **12** are employed, the 1,2-chloroalkynylation products **13** are formed (Scheme 1b, bottom).^[25] The reaction of (bromoethynyl)benzene (**4a**) and cyclic alkenes **14** leads to both bromoalkynylation products **16** (Scheme 1 c).^[12]

In this study, we thoroughly examine the mechanism of the gold(I)-catalyzed 1,2-haloalkynylation reaction of alkynes and alkenes via ¹³C-labeling experiments and quantum chemical calculations. We demonstrate that—unlike the current hypothesis—the formation of the products always proceeds via a head-to-tail addition. The formation of the head-to-head products only takes place in the later course of the reaction via the generation of a cyclopropenylmethyl cation. Surprisingly, when vinyl-substituted, this intermediate is more stable than the well-established vinylidene cation, which is preferred only in specific cases (e.g. small cycles).

Results and Discussion

¹³C-Labeling Experiments and Quantum Chemical Calculations

In the first step, we wanted to compare the mechanism for the 1,2-haloalkynylation of alkynes and alkenes. Therefore, we considered a labeled chloroacetylene as a model compound. The labeled carbon atoms are highlighted in blue in Scheme 2. The following mechanistic pathways for the 1,2haloalkynylation of alkynes and alkenes have been formerly proposed (Scheme 2):^[11–13,25] The addition of the gold complex **17a** to the alkyne **7a** can take place via 1,1'- (route A) or via 2,1' (route B) carbon–carbon bond formation. In the first case (route A), the vinyl cation **18a** is formed. After rotation along the C1–C1' axis, the thus formed vinyl cation **19a** leads

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Supporting information (including Figures and Tables, ¹³C-labeling experiments, computational details, cartesian coordinates, and absolute energies for all calculated compounds, as well as ¹³C NMR spectra of the ¹³C-labeled products) and the ORCID identification number(s) for the author(s) of this article can be found under: https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.202006245.

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Scheme 1. Gold(I)-catalyzed haloalkynylation of alkynes and alkenes.



Scheme 2. Proposed mechanisms for the gold(I)-catalyzed 1,2-chloroalkynylation of arylalkyne 7a (a) and alkene 12a (b). The reactions proceed via an attack at either carbon atom C1 (route A) or C2 (route B) of the alkyne complex 17a. The labeled carbon atoms are highlighted in blue.

to the enyne complex 21a-I via a 1,3-chlorine shift. The labeled carbon atom is now directly attached to the alkenyl unit (Scheme 2a). Starting from the vinyl cation 22a in

route B, the chloronium ion **23a** is formed, which is then transformed into the enyne complex **21a-II** via rearrangement of the phenyl group. The labeled carbon is now directly

linked to the phenyl group, that is, the position of the labeled atom in the alkyne has been swapped relative to the labeled position in the initial alkyne gold complex **17a**.

Similar pathways can be described for the addition to 1,1disubstituted alkenes 12 (Scheme 2b). The addition of isobutene (12a) to the carbon atom C1 (route A) of the gold complex 17a leads to the alkyne product 27a-I via a 1,3chlorine shift, whereas the attack at the carbon atom C2 (route B) of 17a results in the formation of the chloronium ion 29a. After the formation of the cationic vinylidene intermediate 30a, a subsequent aryl shift delivers the alkyne complex 27a-II.

Replacing the hypothetically labeled atoms (blue carbon atoms in Scheme 2) by ¹³C-labeled atoms (red carbon atoms in Scheme 3) should help to determine which of the routes (routes A and B) is taken. Echavarren et al. were able to show that in the case of the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction of ¹³C-

labeled (bromoethynyl)benzene (${}^{13}C(1)$ -4a) and cyclohexene (14a) (Scheme 3 a), the addition solely proceeds via an attack at the carbon atom C2 (analogous to route B in Scheme 2b): The 100% rearranged product ${}^{13}C(2)$ -15a is formed via an aryl shift from a vinylidene cation that originated from a bromonium ion.^[12] Recently, we were able to demonstrate that the gold(I)-catalyzed addition of ${}^{13}C$ -labeled (chloroe-thynyl)benzene (${}^{13}C(1)$ -3a) to 7b delivers two products (${}^{13}C(1)$ -10a and ${}^{13}C(2)$ -10a) in a ratio of 13:87 (Scheme 3b).^[11] On the basis of the accepted mechanisms (Scheme 2a), we previously assumed that both routes (A and B in Scheme 2a) are passed through, whereby route B is slightly energetically favored compared to route A.

To examine which parameters affect the preference for either route, we have conducted a further series of 13 C-labeling experiments (Scheme 3 c). JohnPhos[Au-(NCMe)]SbF₆ was used as gold(I) catalyst. Instead of 13 C-



Scheme 3. Investigation of the reaction mechanism of the gold(I)-catalyzed 1,2-haloalkynylation of arylalkynes and alkenes with ¹³C-labeled starting materials. As ligands for the gold(I) complexes, tBuXPhos and JohnPhos were used.

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Figure 1. Free energy (ΔG) profile for the gold(I)-catalyzed 1,2-haloalkynylation of alkynes and alkenes via an attack at carbon atom C1 (route A) or C2 (route B) of the alkyne complex calculated by means of B3LYP-D3BJ(SMD). [Au]⁺=JohnPhosAu⁺.

(1)-3a, we used the ¹³C-labeled bromoacetylene ¹³C(1)-4a for the addition to the alkyne 7b. Furthermore, we have examined the gold(I)-catalyzed dimerization of bromo- and chloroarylacetylenes. Finally, we investigated the addition of $^{13}\text{C}\text{-labeled}$ chloroacetylene $^{13}\text{C}(1)\text{-}3\,a$ to the alkene 12b. It turns out that in the case of the addition to 7b, the exchange of chloro- by bromoacetylene results in no change of the product ratio of ${}^{13}C(1)$ -11a and ${}^{13}C(2)$ -11a (Scheme 3c) compared to that of ${}^{13}C(1)$ -10a and ${}^{13}C(2)$ -10a (Scheme 3b). For the gold(I)-catalyzed dimerization of chloroacetylene $^{13}C(1)$ -3a, we obtained a product ratio of 57:43 for $^{13}C(1)$ -5a and ${}^{13}C(2)$ -5a. The analogous dimerization of bromoacetylene ${}^{13}C(1)$ -4a gave the envne products ${}^{13}C(1)$ -6a and ${}^{13}C(2)$ -**6a** in a ratio of 40:60. The addition of ¹³C-labeled chloroacetylene ${}^{13}C(1)$ -3a to the double bond of the 1,1-disubstituted alkene **12b** delivered only the rearranged product ${}^{13}C(2)$ -**13a**.

Based on the above mentioned ¹³C-labeling experiments, we have assumed that the addition of haloacetylenes to alkynes proceeds via both routes (route A and B), whereas the addition to alkenes exclusively occurs via route B.

To find an explanation for this, we performed quantum chemical calculations (Figure 1). The focus was on the attack at the carbon atom C1 (route A) and C2 (route B), respectively. We used the gold complexes of (chloroethynyl)benzene (**17a**) (X = Cl in Figure 1) and (bromoethynyl)benzene (**17b**) (X = Br) as haloacetylenes. Furthermore, 1-phenyl-1-propyne (**7a**) (Y = Me, Ar = Ph), (chloroethynyl)benzene (**3a**) (Y = Cl, Ar = Ph), (bromoethynyl)benzene (**4a**) (Y = Br, Ar = Ph), and 1-methoxy-4-(prop-1-yn-1-yl)benzene (**7c**, Y = Me, Ar = $p-C_6H_4OMe$) were employed as alkynes. Isobutene (**12a**) was used as the alkene reactant. The model compounds correspond or are closely related to the compounds used in the ¹³C-labeling experiments (Scheme 3). JohnPhos was applied as

the ligand of the cationic gold(I) catalyst. B3LYP^[27-29] together with the dispersion correction D3BJ^[30] was employed as the method for optimization of the geometrical parameters. The basis set 6-31G(d) was applied for the elements C, H, O, P, Cl, and Br; Au was calculated with the def2-TZVP basis set. Additionally, single-point calculations were performed on the thus obtained structures. Here, B3LYP-D3BJ was used with the large basis set 6-311 ++ G(d,p) (for C, H, O, P, Cl, and Br) and def2-TZVP for Au. To take solvent effects into account, dichloroethane was considered as the reaction solvent by using the SMD^[31] model. The data are summarized in Tables S1–S8 and Figures 1 and S1–S18.

The size of the activation energy and the energy of the formed intermediates differ considerably. Nevertheless, in each system, route B is energetically more favored (6.3–7.3 kcal mol⁻¹) compared to route A (Figure 1). The different ratios for the generated ¹³C-labeled products ranging from 57:43 up to 0:100 (Scheme 3) cannot be explained by comparing the activation energies for the rate-determining step of the two routes. For all systems, only a single product (via route B) is expected for a $\Delta\Delta G$ value of 6.3–7.3 kcal mol⁻¹. If any, one would anticipate a product mixture for the addition of alkene **12a** to the gold complex **17a** showing the smallest energy difference (6.3 kcal mol⁻¹). However, only one product is formed in this case (Scheme 3c).

Detailed Quantum Chemical Calculations for the Fate of the Intermediary Formed Cations

To figure out why the results of the ¹³C-labeling experiments do not match the quantum chemical calculations, we reexamined the possible reaction pathways for the intermediary formed cations more accurately via quantum chemical calculations. Therefore, we rotated the intermediary formed cations **18** and **22** (see Figure 1) along the initially formed bond and explored the thus newly formed cations. In addition, we searched for other intermediates that can be formed via further rotation and rearrangement processes. As model compounds for the gold(I)-catalyzed addition of a haloacetylene to an alkyne, chlorophenylacetylene (**3a**) and 1-phenyl-1-propyne (**7a**) were chosen, while isobutene (**12a**) was employed as the alkene reactant. The fates of both reactions are depicted in Figures 2–5.

First, we have a look at the vinyl cation 18a, which is formed via 1,1'-linking (route A, Scheme 2a) in the gold(I)catalyzed reaction of chlorophenylacetylene (3a) and 1phenyl-1-propyne (7a). The calculations reveal that the vinyl cation 18a can take two pathways (Figure 2): The first is the previously described pathway to form envne complex 21a-I via a 1,3-chlorine shift; the highest activation energy amounts to 7.9 kcalmol⁻¹ (route A1 (green) in Figure 2). A considerably lower activation energy is found for the rotation along the C1–C1' axis in the other direction $(1.3 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1})$, route A2 (black) in Figure 2). Here, the bicyclic cation 40a is formed in a two-step mechanism via a Friedel-Crafts type alkylation of 38a. After rearomatization and subsequent protodesauration, the product would correspond to a chloronaphthalene derivative. That means that the 1,1'-linking (route A) of the gold-catalyzed reaction of chlorophenylacetylene (3a) and 1-phenyl-1-propyne (7a) does not give the enyne but a naphthalene system. However, we have never identified such a product in our experiments. Thus, the formation of the envne product 21a-I via a 1,1'-linking can now be excluded as an actual reaction pathway for the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction of chlorophenylacetylene (3a) and 1-phenyl-1-propyne (7a).

Let us now consider the vinyl cation 22 a, which is formed via 2,1'-linking (route B, Scheme 2a) in this reaction (Figure 3). Here, we identified three possible reaction pathways. The first one (route B3) leads via a Friedel-Crafts type reaction to the indene derivative 42 a. This route shows the highest activation energy of the three with $10.2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, which is why this reaction pathway is unlikely to be passed through. The other two reaction paths proceed via the chloronium ion 23a. Now, two rearrangement processes are conceivable. The shift of the aryl group can lead to the envne complex 21 a-II (route B2), whereas route B1 proceeds via the cyclopropenylmethyl cation 45a to the corresponding enyne complex 21a-I. The transition state to this highly unusual cation 45a represents the vinylidene cation 44a, which is not stabilized by the chlorine atom. The enyne complex 21 a-I is then formed via opening of the C2-C1' bond. A closer look at the enyne complex 21 a-I reveals that the relative orientation of the carbon atoms C1 and C2 differs in routes B1 and B2. The difference in the activation energy for routes B1 (24a) and B2 (46a) amounts to 1.0 kcal mol⁻¹ in favor of route B1. This slight difference in energy should result in both reaction pathways being passed through. In fact, this assumption agrees better with our experimental observations (Scheme 3b).

For the fate of the cyclopropylmethyl cation **25 a**, which is formed via an attack at the carbon atom C1 of the gold alkyne complex **17a** (see Scheme 2b, route A), two reaction pathways were found (Figure 4); both have already been described in the literature.^[25] In one case, the [2+2] cycloaddition product **48a** is generated (route A2); in the other case the alkyne product **27a-I** is formed (route A1). Here, route A1 is clearly preferred.

Starting from the cyclopropylmethyl cation 28a, which is formed via an attack at the C2 atom of the gold alkyne complex 17a (see Scheme 2b, route B), three reaction pathways were localized (Figure 5). The first and highest activa-



Figure 2. Possible reaction pathways (routes A1 and A2) of the vinyl cation **18a**, which is formed via 1,1'-linking during the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction of chloroacetylene **3a** and alkyne **7a**. The indicated free energy (ΔG in kcal mol⁻¹) values were calculated using B3LYP-D3BJ(SMD) and are relative to the vinyl cation **18a**. [Au]⁺= JohnPhosAu⁺.

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Figure 3. Possible reaction pathways (routes B1, B2, and B3) of the vinyl cation **22a**, which is formed via 2,1'-linking during the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction of chloroacetylene **3a** and alkyne **7a**. The indicated free energy (ΔG in kcal mol⁻¹) values were calculated using B3LYP-D3BJ(SMD) and are relative to the vinyl cation **22a**. [Au]⁺ = JohnPhosAu⁺.

tion energy pathway is route B3, which leads to the [2+2] cycloaddition product **50a**. Routes B1 and B2 both proceed via the chloronium ion **29a** and the vinylidene cation **30a**. From there, the outcome of the reaction is determined by two options: The rearrangement of the aryl group leads to the alkyne product **27a-II** (route B1), whereas the rearrangement of the isobutyl group delivers the alkyne complex **27a-I** (route B2). Here again, both products **27a-I** and **27a-II** differ in their relative orientation of the carbon atoms C1 and C2 in



Figure 4. Possible reaction pathways (routes A1 and A2) of the cyclopropylmethyl cation **25 a**, which is formed via an attack at the carbon atom C1 in the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction of chloroacetylene **3 a** and alkene **12 a**. The indicated free energy (ΔG in kcal mol⁻¹) values were calculated using B3LYP-D3BJ(SMD) and are relative to the cyclopropylmethyl cation **25 a**. [Au]⁺= JohnPhosAu⁺.

the alkyne unit (Figure 5). The most striking difference to the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction with the alkyne (see Figure 3) is that all cyclic structures (**31a** and **53a**) are transition states, while the vinylidene cation **30a** is now an intermediate. The difference in the activation energy for the two transition states **31a** and **53a** is so high (7.1 kcalmol⁻¹) that the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction of a chloroacetylene and a 1,1-disubstituted alkene should only proceed via route B1. This key finding matches our experimental results, as the ¹³C-labeled carbon atom can be found with 100% directly next to the aromatic unit.

As mentioned above, the relative ratio of the alkyne complexes 21 a-I and 21 a-II for the 1,2-chloroalkynylation of 1-phenyl-1-propyne (7a) depends on the energy of the transition states 24a, 44a, and 46a (Figure 3). During our experimental studies, we realized that the final ratio of the ¹³C-labeled products depends on the nature of the employed alkyne (see Scheme 3). To verify whether this observation is also reflected in the quantum chemical calculations, we investigated the transition states 24, 44, and 46 as well as intermediates 23 and 45 for different systems by computational methods (Figure 6 and Tables S1-S8). Indeed, the experimental trend can also be found in our calculations; for example, the transition state 44c (route B1) for the gold(I)catalyzed dimerization of chlorophenylacetylene (3a) is more stable by 1.9 kcalmol⁻¹ than the corresponding transition state 24c of route B2. Therefore, we expected the preferred formation of the envne product 21 c-I, which corresponds to the gold complex of ${}^{13}C(1)$ -5a (see Scheme 3c). This prediction could be confirmed by ¹³C-labeling experiments, as more ¹³C(1)-5a (57%) was formed (see Scheme 3c). Furthermore, this ratio should shift towards the 21-II enyne product (via route B2) with a decreasing energy difference between both transition states 44 (46) and 24. That should also apply to the gold(I)-catalyzed dimerization of bromophenylacetylene (4a) and to the gold(I)-catalyzed addition of





Figure 5. Possible reaction pathways (route B1, B2 and B3) of the cyclopropylmethyl cation **28 a**, which is formed via an attack at the carbon atom C2 in the gold(I)-catalyzed reaction of chloroacetylene **3 a** and alkene **12 a**. The indicated free-energy (ΔG in kcal mol⁻¹) values were calculated using B3LYP-D3BJ(SMD) and are relative to the cyclopropylmethyl cation **28 a**. [Au]⁺ = JohnPhosAu⁺.



Figure 6. Possible reaction pathways of the halonium ion 23 via formation of the cyclopropenylmethyl cation 45 (route B1) or via aryl shift (route B2) to the enyne complex 21-I and 21-II, respectively. The indicated free-energy (ΔG in kcal mol⁻¹) values were calculated using B3LYP-D3BJ(SMD) and are relative to the halonium ion 23. [Au]⁺=JohnPhosAu⁺.

chloro- and bromophenylacetylene (**3a** and **4a**) to alkyne **7b** (Scheme 3). Please note, we used 1-methoxy-4-(prop-1-yn-1-yl)benzene as a representative of **7b** for the calculations. In fact, our ¹³C-labeling experiments showed a decrease in the formation of the ¹³C(1)-enyne product for these reactions (40 % for ¹³C(1)-**6a**, 13 % for ¹³C(1)-**10a**, and 13 % for ¹³C(1)-**11a**).

For the further investigation of the mechanistic course of the haloalkynylation reaction, we tried to validate whether the ratio of **21-I** (corresponds to ¹³C(1)-enyne) and **21-II** (corresponds to ¹³C(2)-enyne) is also dependent on the nature of the ligand of the gold complex. Therefore, we examined the gold-catalyzed dimerization of ¹³C-labeled chlorophenylacetylene (¹³C(1)-**3a**) and the addition of ¹³C(1)-**3a** to the alkyne **7b** by replacing the JohnPhos ligand by PMe₃ (Scheme 4 and





Scheme 4. Comparison of the 1,2-haloalkynylation of arylalkynes using ¹³C-labeled starting materials and gold catalysts having different phosphine ligands.



Figure 7. Possible reaction pathways of the halonium ion 23 with different phosphine ligands via formation of the cyclopropenylmethyl cation 45 (route B1) or via aryl shift (route B2) to the enyne complexes 21-I and 21-II, respectively. The indicated free energy (ΔG in kcal mol⁻¹) values were calculated using B3LYP-D3BJ(SMD) and are relative to the halonium ion 23. [Au]⁺=JohnPhosAu⁺ or Me₃PAu⁺.

Figure 7). The catalytic species Me_3PAu^+ that was used for the calculations was generated during the experiment in situ by mixing Me_3PAuCl and $AgSbF_6$.

When we used Me_3PAu^+ in our experimental studies, both reactions showed an increase in the ratio of the molecules corresponding to **21-II** of up to 98% ($^{13}C(2)$ -**5a** and $^{13}C(2)$ -**10a**, Scheme 4). The shift towards **21-II** could also be confirmed by calculations. The calculated activation energy of route B1 is higher for Me_3PAu^+ than for JohnPhosAu⁺ (Figure 7). For example, in the case of the dimerization with JohnPhosAu⁺, route B1 is more favored by 1.9 kcalmol⁻¹ over route B2. This selectivity is reversed by using Me_3PAu^+ as catalyst so that route B2 is favored by 1.6 kcalmol⁻¹. This inversion is reflected in the experimental results (Scheme 4).

The Nature of Cyclopropenylmethyl Cations as Intermediates in Gold(I)-Catalyzed Reactions

As shown above, the commonly described cationic vinylidene intermediate is not an intermediate for the haloalkynylation of alkynes but a transition state (Figure 3).

Please note that this does not apply for the haloalkynylation of alkenes, where it represents a minimum on the potential energy surface (Figure 5). For the reaction of haloalkynes with alkynes, we identified the cyclopropenylmethyl cation and the halonium ion as key intermediates. The latter can be considered as a vinylidene cation stabilized by a halogen atom. This raised the question of how the cationic vinylidene and cyclopropenylmethyl species behave when there is no halogen substitution. Therefore, we calculated the geometries of the simple model compounds 54 and 55 by means of B3LYP-D3BJ (Figures 8 and 9). As basis sets, 6-311++G-(d,p) (for C, H, and O) and aug-cc-pVTZ-PP (for Au) were applied. Subsequent frequency calculations showed that 54a is a transition state, whereas all other stationary points are minima on the potential energy surface. Furthermore, we conducted single-point calculations using the same basis sets

and by means of the double-hybrid density functional approximation B2PLYP,^[32] which delivers very reliable data even for high-energy intermediates of reactions involving alkynes.^[33-36] To determine the solvent effect, B2PLYP single-point calculations were conducted by using the SMD^[31] model and dichloroethane as the solvent. Additionally, the CCSD- $(T)^{[37]}$ approximation was employed to compute the energy difference between the transition state **54a** and the intermediate **55a** (Figure 8).

A comparison of the energy values shows that in all cases the cyclopropenylmethyl cation **55** is the most stable species (Figure 8a). Please note that the vinylidene cation **54a** represents a transition state. Thus, the energy difference and the nature of the stationary points (minimum or maximum) strongly depend on the substitution pattern. A phenyl group at the C4 position increases the stability of the cycloprope-



Figure 8. a) Relative energies (ΔE in kcal mol⁻¹) of vinylidene cations **54** and cyclopropenylmethyl cations **55**. If not stated otherwise, the data were calculated via B2PLYP-D3(SMD)/B3LYP-D3BJ. b) Relative energies (ΔE in kcal mol⁻¹) of cyclic vinylidene cations **56**, cyclopropenylmethyl cations **57**, and alkyne complexes **58** calculated using B2PLYP-D3(SMD)/B3LYP-D3BJ.



Figure 9. Distances [Å] and angles [°] (a), molecular structures (b) as well as HOMOs (c) and LUMOs (d) of the vinylidene cation **54a** and cyclopropenylmethyl cation **55a** calculated using B3LYP-D3BJ/6-311 + +G(d,p),aug-cc-pVTZ-PP+ECP. e) Resonance structures of the cyclopropenylmethyl cation **55a**.

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nylmethyl cation **55b**, as the positive charge at the carbon atom C4 can be stabilized by the adjacent aromatic system. A phenyl group at the position C2 stabilizes the vinylidene cation **54c**; however, the cyclopropenylmethyl cation **55c** remains the most stable intermediate.

The distances and angles of 54a and 55a obtained by B3LYP-D3BJ/6-311++G(d,p),aug-cc-pVTZ-PP are depicted in Figure 9a. A glance at the values of 55a shows that the structure of 55a is not an isosceles triangle, as the distances for the bonds C1-C3 and C2-C3 differ significantly. The C2-C3 bond (1.515 Å) is a slightly shorter single bond, whereas the C2-C3 bond (2.046 Å) is relatively long. Bonds of this magnitude can also be found for nonclassical carbocations such as norbornyl cations.^[38] The C1-C2-C3 angle of 55 a is 94° and varies noticeably from the corresponding angle of 54a (134°). The length of the C2-C3 bond in 54a amounts to 1.460 Å. Therefore, this bond is significantly shorter than that in 55a (1.515 Å) due to the conjugation of the two double bonds (C1=C2 and C3=C4). The most pronounced difference in the frontier orbitals of the twp species 54a and 55a can be found in the LUMOs (Figure 9d): For 54a the largest coefficient is located at the carbon atom C1, while both carbon atoms C1 and C4 in 55a show large coefficients. Accordingly, the characterization of the electronic nature of the cyclopropenylmethyl cation 55 a is best represented by the resonance structures in Figure 9e.

Our investigations clearly reveal that the cyclopropenylmethyl cation is more stable than the vinylidene cation. However, so far only the cationic vinylidene intermediate has been described in the literature as an important species in the gold-catalyzed reactions of alkynes.^[21,23,24,39-42] To shed light on this issue, we calculated the vinylidene cation 56 that often emerges during gold(I)-catalyzed intramolecular reaction of divnes^[6,43] and compared it with the corresponding cyclopropenylmethyl cation 57 and the rearranged cation 58, respectively (Figure 8b). We considered different ring sizes (five-membered ring with n=2 up to the eight-membered ring with n=5). For the five-membered ring (n=2), the cvclopropenvlmethyl cation 57a was located as a transition state on the potential energy surface and the corresponding rearranged six-membered ring **58***a* is ca. 10 kcalmol⁻¹ higher in energy. A derivative of 57 a has been discussed as a potential transition state for the formation of a vinylidene and vinyl cation during the dual gold-catalyzed intramolecular reaction of diynes.^[44] With increasing ring size, the energy of the cyclopropenylmethyl cation 57 decreases and is in the case of n=5 (eight-membered ring) considerably more stable than the corresponding vinylidene cation 56. Please note that the vinyl cation **58 d** should rather be considered as a gold alkyne π complex for larger cycles. Consequently, it can be expected that larger cycles (eight-membered rings or larger) facilitate the formation of a cyclopropenylmethyl cation, which can undergo rearrangement to form an enyne gold complex.

Conclusion

In this work, we thoroughly investigated the gold-catalyzed reaction of two alkyne units. Unlike the previously assumed mechanism, the rate-determining step, namely the nucleophilic attack of the gold alkyne complex at the alkyne, does not determine the connectivity of the carbon atoms in the final product. Starting from a halonium ion, two mechanisms are possible: The first mechanism proceeds via the rearrangement of an aryl group, the second via the formation of a cyclopropenylmethyl cation. The thus formed products are identical and can only be distinguished from each other by ¹³C-labeling. Furthermore, ¹³C-labeling experiments impressively show that the distribution of these products can be modified by variation of the substituents of the aromatic backbone and the gold catalyst, which is in accordance with our quantum chemical calculations. A closer look at the cyclopropenylmethyl cation reveals that this species is generally more stable than the commonly discussed vinylidene cation. In case of the smallest representative of both species, the vinylidene cation is the transition state en route to the cyclopropenylmethyl cation. The formation of vinylidene cations is only preferred by the incorporation into smaller cyclic systems (five- to seven-membered ring systems). Future strategies could employ this principle to synthesize larger cyclic enyne systems, as enyne gold complexes are always formed from the corresponding cyclopropenylmethyl cation. As the formation of this cation does not necessarily require the presence of a halonium ion, the proof of this key intermediate also questions previously reported mechanisms of the gold-catalyzed reaction of two terminal alkynes.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG; HA 2973/17-1). Open access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Keywords: C-C coupling · DFT calculations · enynes · gold catalysis · vinyl cations

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Manuscript received: April 30, 2020

Accepted manuscript online: June 9, 2020

Version of record online: August 10, 2020