

Phenylhydrides of the Groups 4B and 5B Elements
and Their Monoanions

by

Raymond J. Batchelor (B.Sc.)

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PHENYLHYDRIDES OF THE GROUPS 4B AND 5B ELEMENTS

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AUTHOR: Raymond J. Batchelor, B.Sc. (University of
British Columbia)

SUPERVISOR: Professor T. Birchall

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ABSTRACT

^1H , ^{13}C and, where appropriate, ^{31}P NMR spectra for the series of compounds $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_n\text{XH}_{3-n}$ and $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_n\text{XH}_{2-n}\text{Na}$ ($n = 1, 2$; $X = \text{N}, \text{P}$ or As), have been recorded and assigned. The results are consistent with the existence of a $p\pi-p\pi$ interaction between substituent and phenyl ring in all cases, when the atom is nitrogen but only in the anions when the substituent atom is phosphorus or arsenic. ^{13}C NMR spectra of the compounds $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_n\text{GeH}_{4-n}$ and $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_n\text{GeH}_{3-n}\text{Na}$ as well as $(p\text{-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{GeM}$ ($M = \text{H}, \text{Na}$) have also been recorded and assigned. Comparison of the chemical shifts demonstrated that the extent of delocalization of the negative charge is significantly less in the phenylgermyl anions than in the analogous group 5B species. This corroborates the observed differences in the effect of phenyl-substitution on the acidities of main group hydrides as rationalized in terms of hybridization at the anionic centre and subsequent degree of resonance delocalization.

The distribution of π -electrons in the mono-substituted benzenes, whose substituents are anionic centres, appears to be the result of the balance between mesomeric

and electric field effects. The latter effect produces a polarization of the phenyl ring dependent upon the extent to which the negative charge is localized on the substituent atom. The magnitudes of these effects depend somewhat on the extent and nature of solute-solvent interaction, ion-pairing and association in the solutions of these salts which, in turn, are a function of the polarity of the solvent.

Adduct formation between cuprous iodide and both PH_3 and $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$ was investigated. Comparison with literature results for complexes of $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}$, $\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3$ or other tertiary phosphines indicates that σ -donor strength alone, as opposed to π -acidity or steric bulk, is the dominant factor influencing the stability of the coordinative interactions of the smaller phosphines. The structure of the complex $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ is reported. ^{127}I Mössbauer spectroscopy was found to be incapable of discriminating between different iodine environments in such complexes.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The term 'hydride' is formally used to indicate a compound of hydrogen in which the hydrogen atom has a partial negative charge. The same term however is also frequently used to refer to any member of the entire spectrum of hydrogen compounds regardless of the sign of polarization at the hydrogen atom. It is in this latter sense that the word 'hydride' is used in this thesis.

Compounds of hydrogen can be divided into four general classes of hydrides according to where the element, to which hydrogen is bonded, occurs in the periodic table (Shaw, 1967; Wiberg, 1971). First there are the compounds of hydrogen with the alkali metals or alkaline earths, groups 1A and 2A. These compounds are classed as 'ionic hydrides'. They are high-melting, salt-like solids, of M^+ or M^{2+} with H^- , possessing structures similar to the analogous halides. These hydrides are denser than the elemental metals from which they are made. The hydrides of beryllium, magnesium and aluminum are considered to be borderline between the ionic and covalent hydrides (see below) and display properties intermediate between the two. Second, many lanthanide, actinide or transition metals and their alloys

absorb hydrogen under various conditions of temperature and pressure to form a class of compounds which may be referred to as 'metal hydrides'. Unlike the ionic hydrides these compounds generally have lower density than the elemental metals. These compounds are often non-stoichiometric and frequently retain metallic properties. Compounds of this type have recently been under investigation for use in hydrogen storage systems (Sandrock, 1980).

A third class of hydrides includes molecular transition metal complexes which contain hydrogen bonded to the metal atom. These are often volatile compounds and may possess properties reminiscent of the main-group-element covalent hydrides (see below). The current interest in transition metal cluster compounds, some of which contain encapsulated or interstitial hydrogen atoms (Bau, 1979) may provide a bridge of understanding between molecular hydrides and the 'metal hydrides' mentioned above.

The fourth general class of hydrides are those of the main group elements, 3B, 4B, 5B, 6B and 7B. These are the 'covalent hydrides' and the monomers characteristically are molecular gases or liquids. This thesis deals with hydrides of this class. In these molecules the hydrogen atom may be either slightly negatively or slightly positively charged depending upon the electronegativity of the element to which it is bonded. The various covalent hydrides display considerable diversity as a consequence of differences in the

valency, electronegativity and size of the central atoms, however they may show common features in their chemistry. For example, almost all of the covalent hydrides can be made to add across a multiple bond, e.g.,



The conditions, pathway and selectivity of such reactions however, are dependent upon the polarity of the bond to hydrogen in these compounds. A classic example of this is the 'Markovnikov' or 'anti-Markovnikov' additions of hydrobromination or hydroboration respectively.

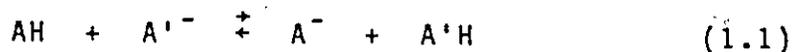
Division of the covalent hydrides into two categories based on their hydridic or protonic nature may be qualitatively achieved by comparison of the electronegativities of the elements with that of hydrogen itself. Thus it can be seen that the hydrides of groups 3B, 4B and 5B are all, with the exceptions of methane and ammonia, genuinely 'hydridic', and are poor proton donors but are good reducing agents. Most of these hydrides are highly flammable and are susceptible to spontaneous oxidation in air. The electron deficient group 3B hydrides can show Lewis acid behaviour, forming dative bonds with donor bases. There is evidence that some substituted group 4B hydrides can also show Lewis acid behaviour by valence-shell expansion, cf.

$\text{CH}_2\text{FCF}_2\text{SiH}_3 \cdot \text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_3$ (Cook, 1966). However, this is not known to occur for the simple binary hydrides of this group.

The compounds of trivalent group 5B elements all possess a formally 'non-bonding' pair of electrons and therefore have the potential to act as Lewis bases. For the binary hydrides of the heavier elements, P, As, Sb, however, simple basicity is weak, possibly because the non-bonding pair of electrons may be non-directional. Evidence for this is found in the fact that the H-M-H bond angles are close to 90° -- PH_3 , 93.3° ; AsH_3 , 91.8° ; SbH_3 , 91.3° (Sutton, 1958) -- indicative of the predominant use of p-orbitals for M-H bonding thus leaving the 'lone-pair' orbital with a high degree of s-orbital character. In fact, all of the binary hydrides of both the groups 5B and 6B elements, with the exceptions of NH_3 and H_2O , have bond angles near 90° (Gillespie, 1960, and references therein).

For the hydrides of the elements which are more electronegative than hydrogen the H atoms are positively charged. These compounds are good proton donors and can display the feature of 'hydrogen bonding'. It is natural to consider as acids only those compounds which are capable of increasing measurably the concentration of oxonium ions in aqueous solutions. Normally, perhaps only the hydrides of the halogens and chalcogens would be considered as acids. However, in non-aqueous media, under strongly basic conditions even some of the more 'hydridic' compounds of

groups 4B and 5B may act as proton donors. It has become increasingly important to know the relative acidities of very weak acids in solvents of low acidity. Such measurements have most frequently been made, usually by spectroscopic methods, by studying the equilibria established when two weak acids compete for a limited amount of strong base (1.1).



The relative equilibrium acidity of AH relative to A'H, ΔpK_a , can then be given by (1.2)

$$\Delta pK_a = -\log \left(\frac{[\text{A}^-][\text{A}'\text{H}]}{[\text{AH}][\text{A}'^-]} \right) \quad (1.2)$$

A great deal of work of this general nature has been done to establish an acidity scale for carbon acids (Streitwieser, 1980 and references therein). This is largely because of the importance of the role of carbanions in organic reaction mechanisms. Much less work of this type has been done on the hydrides of the other elements of groups 4B and 5B.

The protonic acidities of the simple binary hydrides of the main group elements are primarily a function of the electronegativities of the elements. Consequently the acidities of the hydrides increase on proceeding across a period of the periodic table from left to right, towards the more electronegative elements. However, the acidities also

generally increase upon descending a group of the periodic table. Thus, for example, the acidities of the group 6B hydrides follow the order $\text{TeH}_2 > \text{SeH}_2 > \text{SH}_2 > \text{OH}_2$. This opposes the trend in electronegativities and is a consequence of the heavier atoms forming weaker bonds to hydrogen (Day, 1969). There have been a few investigations of trends in the acidities of hydrides and organo-hydrides of the heavier group 4B and 5B elements (Birchall, 1966; Birchall and Drummond, 1972; Issleib, 1965; Terekhova, 1982). Some of the reported pKa values are given in Table 1.1.

It has been determined by NMR spectroscopy (Birchall, 1966; Birchall and Drummond, 1972) that in NH_3 solutions the relative order of acidities for alkylgermanes is $\text{GeH}_4 > \text{GeH}_3\text{R} > \text{GeH}_2\text{R}_2 > \text{GeHR}_3$. Substitution of germane (GeH_4) with aryl groups also caused a decrease in acidity but to a lesser degree. This contrasts with the observation that phenyl-substitution of methane causes a considerable increase in acidity (Streitwieser, 1980). There do not appear to have been any relative acidity studies made on substituted silanes and stannanes, however NMR parameters for some substituted stannanes and their corresponding anions display similar trends to those observed for the germanes (Birchall, 1975).

Alkyl-substitution of arsine (AsH_3) or phosphine (PH_3) similarly was found to cause a reduction in their respective acidities (Birchall, 1966; Issleib, 1965). It has been reported however that in THF solution phenyl-substituted

Table 1.1. Reported 'pKa' values for hydrides and organohydrides of some group 4B and group 5B elements.^a

<u>Methanes</u> (in DMSO)		<u>Amines</u> (in DMSO)	
CH ₄	~ 55 ^b	NH ₃	~ 41 ^b
C ₆ H ₅ CH ₃	42 ^c	C ₆ H ₅ NH ₂	30.7 ^d
(C ₆ H ₅) ₂ CH ₂	32.2 ^d	(C ₆ H ₅) ₂ NH	25.1 ^e
(C ₆ H ₅) ₃ CH	30.6 ^d		

<u>Phosphines</u> (in THF ^g /HNO ^h /DMSO ⁱ)		
(C ₂ H ₅) ₂ PH	33.7	
C ₆ H ₁₁ PH ₂	32.3	
PH ₃	~29	
C ₆ H ₅ (C ₂ H ₅)PH		27.5
C ₆ H ₅ PH ₂	24.5	22.4
(C ₆ H ₅) ₂ PH	21.7	23.1

<u>Germanes</u> ^f (in NH ₃)		<u>Arsines</u> ^g (in THF)	
C ₂ H ₅ GeH ₃	23.9	(C ₄ H ₉) ₂ AsH	31.0
(C ₆ H ₅) ₃ GeH	23.2	AsH ₃	(~27?) ^j
(C ₆ H ₅) ₂ GeH ₂	21.4	C ₆ H ₅ (C ₂ H ₅)AsH	23.5
C ₆ H ₅ GeH ₃	19.8	C ₆ H ₅ AsH ₂	22.2
GeH ₄	17.7	(C ₆ H ₅) ₂ AsH	20.3

^a Direct comparison of 'pKa' values measured in different solvents may be meaningless since the equilibria may be influenced by ion pairing effects, particularly for the less polar solvent THF, and also because the standards used are different and have been assigned on the basis of different acidity scales.

^b Algrim (1978) ^c Bordwell and Algrim (1977) ^d Bordwell (1977)

^e Lebedeva (1977) ^f Birchall and Drummond (1972) ^g Issleib (1965)

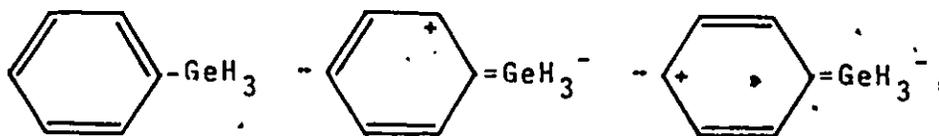
^h Weston (1954) ⁱ Terekhova (1982)

^j assumed value; Issleib (1965).

arsines and phosphines are more acidic than AsH_3 and PH_3 respectively (Issleib, 1965). The question therefore arises as to what causes the difference between phenyl-substitution of germane (and perhaps other group 4B hydrides) and of those hydrides of the lower group 5B elements P and As, as well as of methane and ammonia.

Some of the conceivable means by which an organo-substituent could decrease the stability of a base (anion) relative to its conjugate acid (neutral hydride) and therefore decrease the acidity of the substituted acid relative to the unsubstituted acid are listed below:

- (i) inductive effect of an electron donating substituent (e.g., alkyl groups).
- (ii) $p\pi-d\pi$ donation of electrons from the substituent (e.g. C_6H_5) into empty d-orbitals of the group 4B or 5B element in the neutral hydride, i.e.

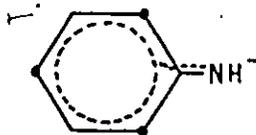


etc.

- (iii) decreased solvation energy with increased size of anion.
- (iv) greater steric crowding of bulky substituents in the anion as a consequence of the large stereochemical influence of the lone pair of electrons.

Conversely, two effects which could increase the stability of the anion relative to the acid thus causing an increased acidity upon substitution are:

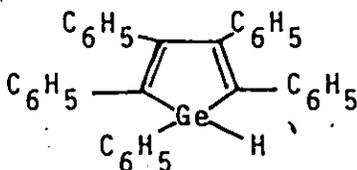
- (i) inductive electron withdrawal of the organo-substituent (aryl).
- (ii) $p\pi-d\pi$ delocalization of negative charge of the anion into the π -system of the substituent, e.g.,



The decreased acidity of germane upon alkyl-substitution has been rationalized (Birchall and Drummond, 1972) in terms of inductive electron donation of the substituents, decreased solvation energy for the substituted anions and the stereochemical effect mentioned above. The decreased acidity of germane upon phenyl-substitution has also been attributed largely to the solvation and stereochemical effects. In this case however, the influence of these effects upon the acidity may be opposed by electron withdrawal of the phenyl-groups. This would explain why phenyl-substitution has a smaller effect upon the acidity of germane than does alkyl-substitution. The results of photoelectron spectroscopic studies of compounds of the group 4B and 5B elements have been interpreted as indicating some d-orbital involvement in the bonding for elements of the third, fourth

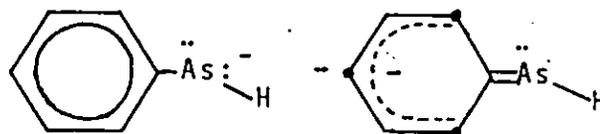
and fifth periods (Debies, 1974 and references therein). This participation is thought to take the form of 'charge equalization' by back donation of electrons from the ligands into low-lying empty d-orbitals of the central atom. It is not clear, however, whether or not such interactions could lead to stabilizations of phenyl-substituted germanes relative to their corresponding anions of enough magnitude to significantly affect the observed acidities. As indicated above, however, the observed acidities can be rationalized without recourse to d-orbital involvement.

Jolly (1971) has suggested that delocalization of the negative charge of a phenylgermyl anion via $p\pi-p\pi$ bonding between the ring and germanium will not occur because the formally non-bonding pair of electrons on germanium will occupy an orbital of predominantly s character as a consequence of the large $s^2 p^3 \rightarrow sp^4$ promotion energy. This pair of electrons will therefore not have the correct symmetry for π -bonding. Jolly cited as further support for this rationale that no compounds having $p\pi-p\pi$ double bonds between germanium and carbon were known. It has been noted however that the pentaphenyl-germole,



is about 10^6 times as acidic as triphenylgermane (Curtis, 1969). For such a compound the structural restrictions along with the potential added stability of a 6π -electron ring in the anion may make the necessary hybridization of the 'non-bonding' pair of electrons on Ge more favourable. Another observation relevant to Jolly's theory is that the bond angle in the GeH_3^- anion has been estimated to be $\sim 93^\circ$ (Drummond, 1970), which is consistent with the predominance of p-orbitals in the σ -bonding.

Alkyl substitution of phosphine and arsine causes a decrease in acidity for the same reasons as does alkyl substitution of germanes (Birchall, 1966; Issleib, 1965). However the evidence (Issleib, 1965) that phenyl-substitution increases the acidity of the remaining protons of phosphine and arsine may be attributed to resonance stabilization of the anions by delocalization of the negative charge into the phenyl rings. Jolly (1971) notes that, whereas the 'non-bonding' pair of electrons in the phenylgermyl anion may be essentially unavailable for π -bonding, there are two such 'non-bonding' electron pairs in a phenylarside anion at least one of which must have substantial p-orbital character. Therefore a $p\pi$ - $p\pi$ interaction with the phenyl ring is more feasible for the group 5B anions, e.g.



This delocalization along with the inductive effect of the phenyl group would presumably be sufficient to overpower the other influences opposing increased acidity.

The above discussion shows how organo-substituents can affect the acidities of some hydrides of the groups 4B and 5B elements. The possible rationale for the observed trends have also been summarized. It is desirable to find corroborative evidence for such rationale so as to lend weight to predictions based upon these ideas. The bulk of this thesis consists of a nuclear magnetic resonance investigation of phenyl-substituted hydrides of groups 4B and 5B as well as of their mono-anions.

It should be pointed out that the labelling of a molecular fragment as a 'substituent' is somewhat arbitrary and is a question of point of view. The interpretation of the results of this study leans heavily upon discussions of the effects of 'substituents' on the parameters of the benzene ring whereas from the point of view of hydride chemistry it is the effect of the phenyl ring on the main group hydride which is of interest. It can be seen that a substituents-effect type of analysis is a two-way door in which the influences of two molecular fragments upon each other should be complementary. Thus the effect of a main group element hydride 'substituent' on the NMR parameters of the benzene ring, when correctly understood, should reflect the effect which the phenyl group has on observable

properties of the hydride, such as its acidity. The NMR parameters of the C_6H_5 ring in the compounds studied will be discussed from the standpoint that these compounds are monosubstituted benzenes and therefore, in this context, the 'hydride' fragment of the molecule will frequently be referred to as the 'substituent'.

Theoretical justification for the observed trends could perhaps be found in molecular orbital calculations of energies and electron distributions of the species involved. It has been pointed out however (Libit, 1974) that, because of the complexity of such calculations, even when they yield the correct answer the rationale for this answer may be obscure. Libit and Hoffmann also point out that the concept of substituent effects, which is of vital importance to the practical chemist is not really approached well by these MO calculations since they treat the molecule as a whole and "no set of transferable properties associated with a functional group emerges". The work of Hoffmann and others (cf. Pross, 1981 and references therein) has been directed toward providing a means of understanding substituent effects by use of perturbation molecular orbital theory and may result in new sets of rules which the non-theoretician can apply to the prediction and interpretation of experimental results. Unfortunately, while numerous calculations of substituted benzenes have been made (Pross, 1981 and references therein),

few of these have been ionic species and such treatments have not yet been extended to include those compounds having heavier-element substituents which are the subject of this thesis.

A secondary objective of this study was to examine the influence of the phenyl-substituent on the coordinative ability of phosphine. The basicity of phosphine, PH_3 , is very low compared to that of ammonia (Henderson, 1960). This could be, as noted above, largely a consequence of the 'non-directionality' of the lone pair of electrons on phosphorus in PH_3 . Molecular orbital calculations, which show agreement with observed binding energies for the 'non-bonding' orbitals of NH_3 and PH_3 , indicate that the electron density of the PH_3 lone pair orbital in the z direction is lower than that for the analogous orbital of NH_3 over the entire range of radius in which overlap with orbitals of acceptor species may occur (Hamnett, 1977).

PH_3 is a much poorer coordinating ligand to metal ions than is NH_3 (Shaw, 1967). A great number of tertiary phosphine complexes with electron rich transition metals are known however. These ligands may display a greater degree of hybridization of the s and p orbitals of phosphorus than does PH_3 and therefore the 'non-bonding' pair of electrons would have more p-orbital character and therefore be more directed. By far the most commonly used phosphorus ligand is triphenylphosphine $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{P}$. It has been suggested (Debies,

1974) that the higher basicity of phenyl substituted phosphines compared to PH_3 may arise from back donation of electrons from phenyl p-orbitals into empty d orbitals of phosphorus. It should be noted however that alkyl phosphines are even more basic than arylphosphines. In coordinative interactions phosphine ligands may compensate for their relatively low basicity by their high polarizability and low ionization potentials (Goldwhite, 1981). Also, in theory at least, they have the potential of accepting π -donated electrons from the electron-rich metal atom into empty d orbitals (Emsley, 1976; Malatesta, 1974).

Relatively little work has been reported on complexes of non-tertiary phosphines.

CHAPTER 2
EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

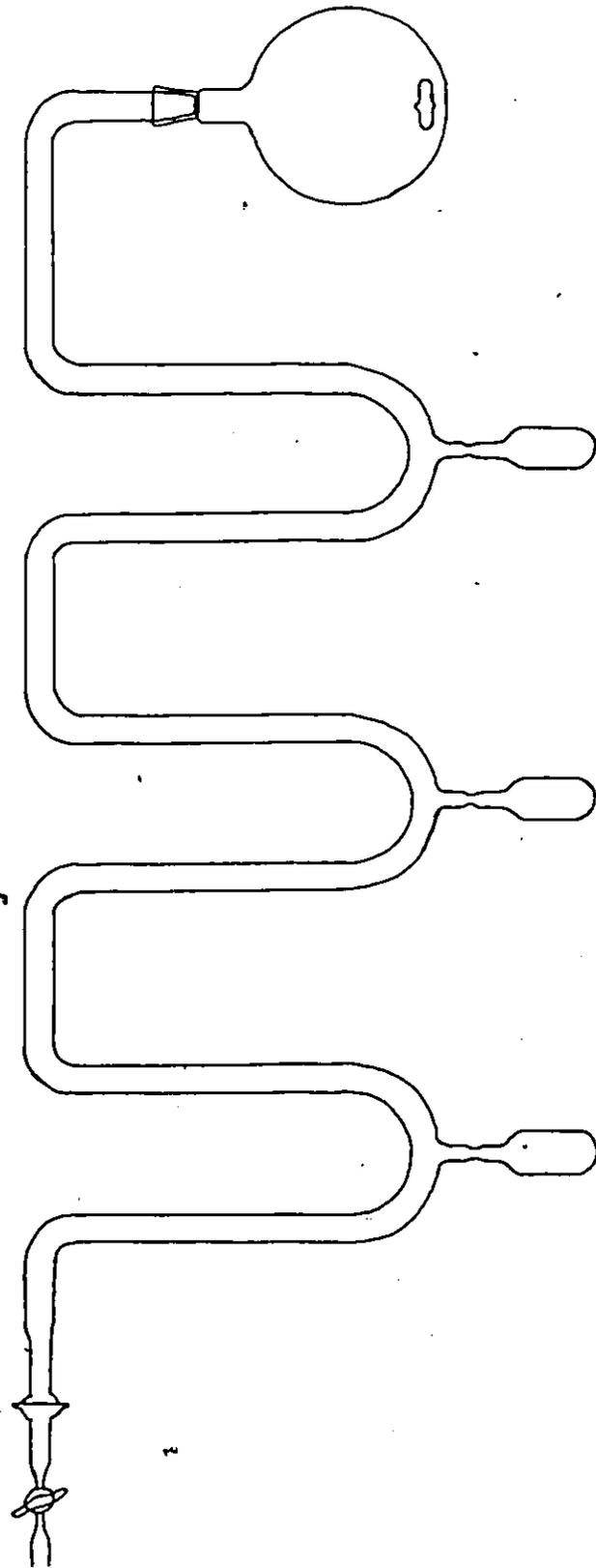
A. Preparative Techniques and Apparatus

(i) Vacuum System

Most preparative chemistry in this work was carried out using a Pyrex vacuum line with all ground-glass high-vacuum stopcocks. A Toepler pump was included in the vacuum system for the measurement of small amounts of gas produced in the reactions. Connections were made to the vacuum system with 9 mm i.d. ball-and-socket ground-glass joints. Joints and valves were sealed and lubricated with Apieson N high-vacuum grease. The vacuum was provided by a Welch Duo-Seal vacuum pump and was enhanced with a mercury-diffusion pump.

Trap-to-trap distillations of the volatile hydrides prepared were carried out in an all-Pyrex jointless section of the vacuum system consisting of "U" tubes with reservoirs (Figure 2.1).

Liquid hydrides, possessing sufficient volatility to be readily distilled under vacuum, were stored in Pyrex vessels equipped with Teflon Rotaflow valves. Less volatile hydrides were stored in glass-sealed Pyrex tubes until used.



7 Figure 2.1: Apparatus for trap-to-trap distillation of volatile hydrides

(ii) Inert Atmosphere System

Many of the hydrides used, particularly those of phosphorus and arsenic, and their derivatives are extremely susceptible to air oxidation. Substances which were insufficiently volatile to be easily transferred on the vacuum line were handled in a dry-nitrogen Labconco glove-box fitted with a constant circulation liquid nitrogen cooled drying system. Materials were transferred to the glove-box via an evacuable port. The atmosphere in the glove-box was supplied from the liquid nitrogen reservoir boil-off or from cylinders of "extra-dry nitrogen" provided by Specialty Gases.

(iii) Reaction Vessels

Preparations of hydrides were carried out in standard reaction apparatus consisting of a three-necked round-bottom flask equipped with magnetic stirrer, reflux condenser, addition funnel with a gas-bypass and a system for flushing dry nitrogen through the vessel and venting it, via the condenser, through a mercury gas-bubbler.

Solutions of anionic species were prepared in a vessel (Figure 2.2) styled on the Dean reaction vessel (Dean, 1974). Reactions involving more than one step were accomplished by making various attachments to the vessel, such as a tube containing the second reagent connected via a break-seal (Figure 2.3). Standard Dean reaction vessels were used for

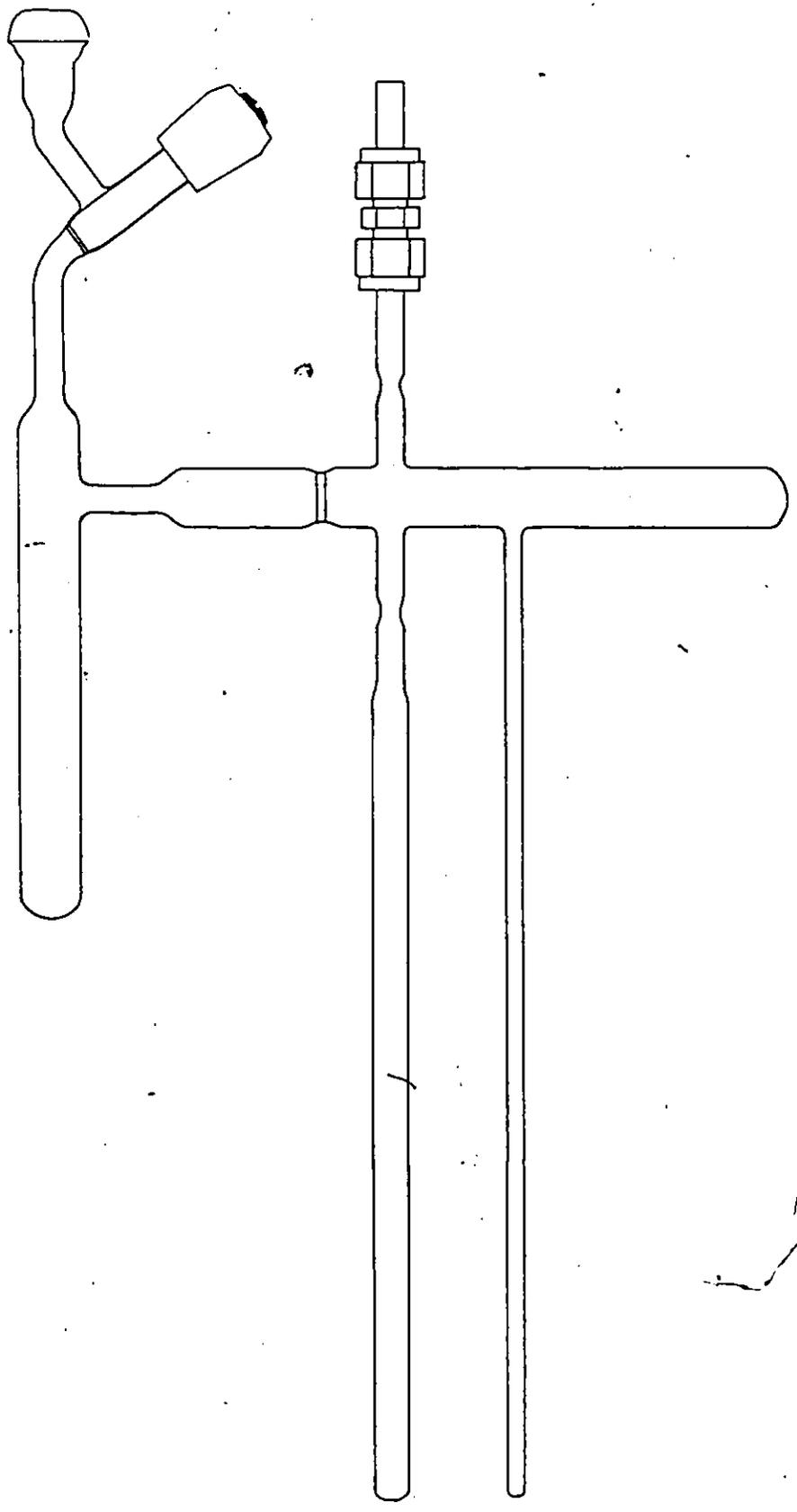


Figure 2.2: Vessel for the preparation of NMR samples

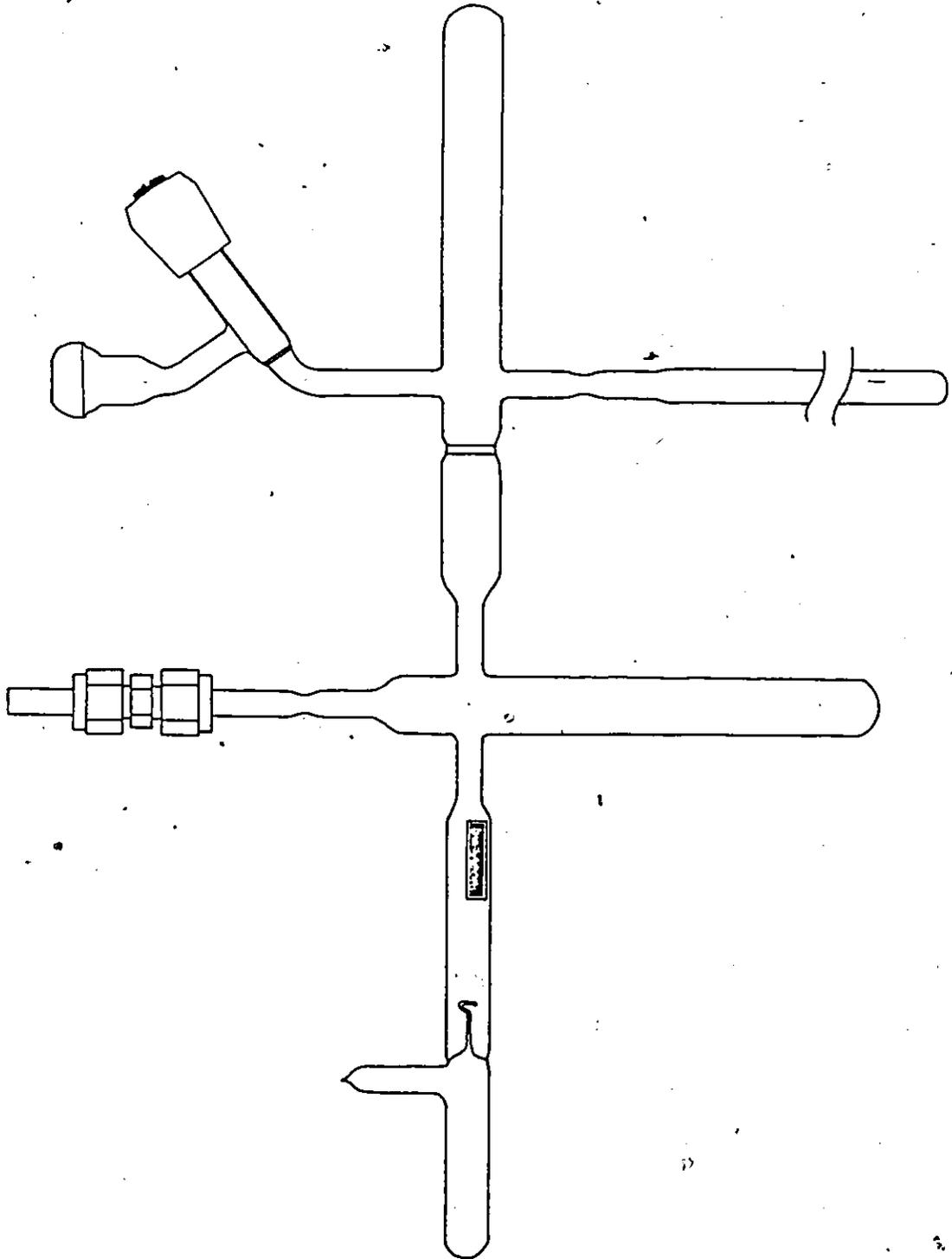


Figure 2.3: Vessel with break-seal attachment for the addition of non-volatile or premeasured amounts of hydrides

various other preparations requiring the exclusion of air. Vessels were dried by flaming with a Bunsen burner while they were under dynamic vacuum.

B. Solvents and Reagents

(i) Purification of Solvents

The two main solvents used in this work were tetrahydrofuran (THF) and liquid ammonia. Tetrahydrofuran (Fischer Scientific) was purified and dried, prior to use, by refluxing under an atmosphere of dry nitrogen for at least 24 h over sodium metal. The THF was then distilled. The pure THF was stirred over lithium aluminum hydride (LiAlH_4) for one day and stored over LiAlH_4 in a sealed vessel equipped with a Rotoflow stopcock and attached to the vacuum line. Other ether solvents (diethylether, 1,4-paradioxane and diglyme) were treated in an analogous fashion. Liquid ammonia was stored over sodium at -78.5°C until used. It also was transferred on a closed system by vacuum distillation.

Other solvents were used as provided by the supplier without further purification. Deuterated solvents, used in NMR spectroscopy, included D_2O , DCCl_3 , D_2CCl_2 , benzene- d_6 and acetone- d_6 .

(ii) Reagents for Synthesis

The following reagents were used with no purification: $C_6H_5PCl_2$, $(C_6H_5)_2PCl$, $(C_6H_5)_3P$, $C_6H_5AsO_3H_2$, $(C_6H_5)_3As$, $(C_6H_5)_3Sb$, $GeCl_4$, $(C_6H_5)_2GeCl_2$, $(C_6H_5)_3GeCl$, $C_6H_5SiCl_3$, $LiAlH_4$, $AlCl_3$, NH_4Cl , $CuSO_4$, NaI , KI , Zn , Hg , Na and K . Aniline ($C_6H_5NH_2$) was purified by vacuum distillation. Diphenylamine ($(C_6H_5)_2NH$) was recrystallized from ethanol. Phosphine (PH_3) (prepared by I. Drummond) was purified by trap to trap distillation on the vacuum line. Germane (GeH_4) (also prepared by I. Drummond) was used without further purification other than routine transferal of this gas on the vacuum line. Tetraphenylgermane ($(C_6H_5)_4Ge$) was recrystallized from toluene.

C. Preparations(i) Hydrides and Precursors

The purity of all hydrides prepared was confirmed by 1H , ^{13}C and where applicable ^{31}P NMR spectroscopy. All of the hydrides were stored in sealed vessels under vacuum and appear to be stable at room temperature with the exception of diphenylgermane. This compound decomposes slowly over a period of weeks (Johnson and Harris, 1957) and therefore was generally used shortly after it was distilled or was stored at $-78.5^\circ C$. Manipulations were carried out either by vacuum-line techniques or in a glove box under dry nitrogen atmosphere. Care was taken to exclude oxygen, especially in

the cases of the hydrides of arsenic and phosphorus which are particularly susceptible to oxidation.

(a) Compounds of Group 5B Elements

Phenylphosphine ($C_6H_5PH_2$) was prepared by the lithium aluminum hydride reduction of dichlorophenylphosphine in diethylether (Wiberg and Nöth, 1957; Wiberg and Mödritzer, 1957). It was purified by trap to trap distillation under dynamic vacuum. The phenylphosphine was collected at $-30^\circ C$.

Diphenylphosphine ($(C_6H_5)_2PH$) was prepared by the reaction of chlorodiphenylphosphine with sodium in liquid ammonia, followed by the addition of excess ammonium chloride. The solution was then filtered and the ammonia removed under vacuum at $-78.5^\circ C$. The diphenylphosphine was distilled under dynamic vacuum at approximately $80^\circ C$ and was collected at $0^\circ C$. The yield was 50% based on $(C_6H_5)_2PCl$.

Phosphine (PH_3) was available as a result of work performed in this laboratory by I. Drummond (1970). The purity of the phosphine was further ensured by a trap to trap distillation in which any less-volatile materials were condensed at $-111^\circ C$ while the pure phosphine was trapped at $-196^\circ C$.

Phenylarsine ($C_6H_5AsH_2$) was prepared by the reduction of benzenearsonic acid ($C_6H_5AsO_3H_2$) with zinc-mercury amalgam and concentrated hydrochloric acid (Tzschach, 1964). The

product was extracted with diethylether and dried over anhydrous calcium chloride. After evaporation of the ether, the phenylarsine was distilled under dynamic vacuum and was collected at -23°C .

Diphenylarsine ($(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{AsH}$) was prepared by the reaction of triphenylarsine with sodium in liquid ammonia (Mann, 1965) followed by addition of excess ammonium chloride. After evaporation of the ammonia the product was extracted with THF and this solution was filtered. The solvent was then evaporated under vacuum and the diphenylarsine was distilled at approximately 90°C under dynamic vacuum into an ice-water-cooled trap. The yield was 70% based on triphenylarsine.

(b) Compounds of Group 4B Elements

Phenyltrichlorogermane ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeCl}_3$) was prepared by an AlCl_3 catalyzed ligand exchange reaction between tetrachlorogermane and tetraphenylgermane in the ratio 3:1 (Rijkens, 1964). The crude product from this reaction was used in the preparation of phenylgermane without further purification.

Phenylgermane ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeH}_3$) was prepared by the reduction of phenyltrichlorogermane with lithium aluminum hydride in diethylether (Kühlein, 1967). The product was purified by trap to trap distillation under dynamic vacuum. The phenylgermane was collected at -30°C .

Diphenylgermane ($(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{GeH}_2$) was prepared by the lithium aluminum hydride reduction of dichlorodiphenylgerman

in diethylether in a similar manner to that reported using the analogous dibromide (Johnson and Harris, 1957). The product was purified by distillation under dynamic vacuum. The diphenylgermane was collected at 0°C.

Triphenylgermane ($(C_6H_5)_3GeH$) was similarly prepared from chlorotriphenylgermane (Johnson and Nebergall, 1957). It was purified by recrystallization from methanol; m.p. 46-47°C, literature value (α phase) 47°C (Johnson, 1951).

Tri-para-tolylgermane ($(CH_3C_6H_4)_3GeH$) was available as a result of the work of I. Drummond (1970) and was further recrystallized from methanol.

Phenylsilane ($C_6H_5SiH_3$) was prepared from trichlorophenylsilane by the lithium aluminum hydride reduction in diethylether (Benkeser, 1952). The phenylsilane was purified by trap-to-trap distillation under dynamic vacuum and was collected at -35°C.

Diphenylsilane ($(C_6H_5)_2SiH_2$) was earlier prepared by I. Drummond (Benkeser, 1952).

(ii) Preparation of Sodium Salts of Hydrides

All anionic species were prepared as solutions of the sodium salts in liquid ammonia or in ether solvents. These solutions were manipulated in sealed vessels under vacuum as they are very sensitive to oxidation and hydrolysis. All NMR samples of these anions were sealed under dynamic vacuum at -196°C.

(a) Anions of Group 5B Hydrides

Tetrahydrofuran solutions of the monosodium salts of the hydrides of phosphorus and arsenic were prepared by the reaction of each hydride with an approximately 50% excess of sodium metal in THF at, or slightly below, room temperature. The apparatus used to prepare these solutions as NMR samples has been shown in Figure 2.2. In these reactions hydrogen gas is evolved and brightly coloured solutions are formed. The colours of the solutions vary from yellow to orange in the order C_6H_5PHNa , $(C_6H_5)_2PNa$, C_6H_5AsHNa , $(C_6H_5)_2AsNa$. The reactions giving rise to these species are complete within 2 or 3 hours as evidenced by the cessation of hydrogen gas evolution. The reaction of PH_3 with sodium in THF proceeds at a much slower rate. In this case hydrogen was still being evolved after 24 h at which time the remaining PH_3 was removed under vacuum. The PH_2Na solution is lemon-yellow in colour.

The monosodium salts of aniline and diphenylamine were prepared by the reactions of these compounds with sodium in liquid ammonia at room temperature in sealed vessels. These reactions were found to be too slow in tetrahydrofuran. THF solutions of these salts were prepared by allowing the NH_3 solvent to evaporate to dryness under vacuum and then condensing dry THF solvent into the vessel containing the residual sodium salts. Solutions of these anions were only

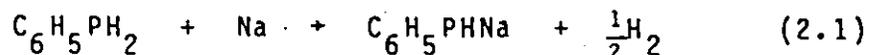
slightly coloured. The $(C_6H_5)_2NNa$ solution was pale-yellow and the C_6H_5NHNa solution was nearly colourless.

All of the above mentioned solutions were filtered and sealed in NMR tubes under vacuum at $-196^\circ C$. The solutions of the group 5B anions all appear to be relatively stable for long periods of time at room temperature. A trace of dark sediment was observed in some samples after a few days, but the amount of this sediment did not increase after storage for several months at room temperature and no changes in the NMR spectra were noted. The sediment is perhaps finely divided sodium or insoluble salts which eluded filtration. It has been noted previously that THF solutions of lithium diorganophosphides showed appreciable reaction with the solvent only after prolonged heating (Grim, 1974). The only solution to show appreciable change on long storage was that of C_6H_5AsHNa . After many months this solution darkens to a deep red colour and a crystalline substance precipitates. The nature of this decomposition was not investigated however it is likely that it involves breaking of the remaining As-H bond in this anion perhaps in a reaction with the THF solvent.

The reaction of triphenylstibine $((C_6H_5)_3Sb)$ with sodium in THF at $-63.5^\circ C$ yields a deep-red-coloured solution. When warmed to room temperature a black solid was deposited from the solution over a period of several hours. The red

solution, it is thought, based upon its proton NMR spectrum, initially contains the diphenylstibide anion $(C_6H_5)_2Sb^-$.

In no case was there evidence for the formation of disodium salts in solution (see also Kosolapoff, 1972). The amount of hydrogen gas evolved in reactions of $C_6H_5PH_2$ with large excess of sodium was consistent with equation 2.1.



The NMR spectra for solutions of salts prepared from all species in which there was potentially more than one acidic hydrogen showed that only one hydrogen atom per molecule is displaced in these reactions.

(b) Anions of Group 4B Hydrides

Attempts to prepare sodium salts of the organo-germanium hydrides in tetrahydrofuran were unsuccessful. The reactions are much too slow in THF and the tetrahydrofuran solutions of the sodium salts are not stable. Presumably the anionic species react with this solvent or with the neutral starting material. Solutions of the sodium salts in liquid ammonia, however, are relatively stable (Birchall, 1970). These solutions were prepared by adding the appropriate germane via a break-seal (Figure 2.3) to a slight excess of either sodium or sodium amide (generated in situ) in liquid ammonia. The reactions (with sodium amide appeared to be

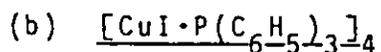
cleaner and in both cases solutions of the desired monosodium salts were obtained. These solutions were all light yellow in colour once all of the sodium had been consumed. The ammonia solutions were filtered into the NMR tubes which were then sealed at -196°C .

Clean solutions of simple monoanions of either phenyl- or diphenylsilanes could not be obtained by direct metallation of these hydrides. Reaction of these hydrides with sodium metal in THF is slow at room temperature and initially yields radical anions (Wan, 1972) as evidenced by the formation of a transient green solution. After a period of several days these solutions acquire a reddish-brown colour. ^1H -decoupled ^{13}C NMR spectra of these solutions indicate that several species are present. It is known that in reactions of this kind exchange of phenyl-groups occurs and a variety of species may be formed (Wan, 1972). A somewhat cleaner spectrum was obtained from a sample prepared by allowing diphenylsilane to interact briefly with sodium in liquid ammonia at approximately -40°C . The ammonia was then removed on the vacuum line while maintaining the temperature below -25°C . The remaining residue was a resinous orange substance which faded to yellow with continued pumping overnight. When THF solvent was condensed onto this solid and allowed to warm to room temperature the solid in the vessel dissolved to give a bright green solution which quickly faded.

to an amber-yellow colour while gas was evolved. Slower gas evolution continued for several days. When all gas evolution had apparently ceased (six-days) the THF solvent was removed by vacuum distillation and replaced by condensing in fresh THF solvent to ensure that there was no residual ammonia. The resulting solution was filtered and sealed in NMR tubes under vacuum at -196°C . The major peaks in the carbon-13 NMR spectrum of this solution can be assigned to a phenyl group as follows: $\delta_{\text{C}_1} = 146.2$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_2} = 136.4$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_3} = 127.5$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_4} = 126.9$ ppm. These resonances most likely correspond to an anionic species as their chemical shifts are closely comparable with those found for $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{SiLi}$ in tetrahydrofuran (Olah, 1980): $\delta_{\text{C}_1} = 145.0$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_2} = 136.1$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_3} = 127.5$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_4} = 128.4$ ppm. Since it is known that direct metallation of diphenylsilane in ether solvents results in disproportionation and the formation of more highly phenylated species (Wan, 1972), it is quite possible that the predominant species in the present solution is $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{SiNa}$. Attempts to prepare anionic species by the metallation of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{SiH}_3$ produced only mixtures of products - therefore further pursuit of this matter was discouraged.

(iii) Cuprous Iodide and Its Complexes With Phosphines

(a). CuI was prepared by the addition of sodium iodide solution to aqueous copper (II) sulfate. The insoluble CuI was filtered, washed and dried.



Equimolar amounts of cuprous iodide and triphenylphosphine were stirred at room temperature in dry, degassed THF in an evacuated Dean reaction vessel for several hours. After approximately 1 h all of the solid dissolved to give a clear solution. With continued stirring the product precipitated. $[\text{CuI} \cdot \text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_4$ is almost completely insoluble and was washed several times with the solvent in the reaction vessel by successive filtration and recondensation of the solvent onto the solid product. Finally all of the solvent was removed and the product was dried under dynamic vacuum. M.P. 265°C; literature value 265-7°C (Costa, 1965).

(c) $[\text{CuI}]_2[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ was prepared by the reaction, in ethanol, of CuI with three equivalents of triphenylphosphine. A mixture of products results from this preparation (Costa, 1965) and the desired product was separated by fractional crystallization from ethanol. M.P. 223°C; literature value 223-6°C (Costa, 1965).

(d) $\text{CuI}[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ was prepared by the reaction of excess triphenylphosphine with CuI in chloroform (Costa, 1965). The product was recrystallized twice from ethanol/chloroform. M.P. 153-155°; literature value 150-151°C (Costa, 1965).

(e) $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ was prepared by condensing, via the vacuum line, two equivalents of phenylphosphine into an evacuated Dean reaction vessel containing a suspension of cuprous iodide in ethanol. This mixture was stirred for four hours at room temperature by which time a flocculent cream-coloured solid had formed. The product was recrystallized in the reaction vessel by the addition of approximately 5% THF to the ethanol solution, warming gently, filtering and allowing the filtrate to cool while slowly evaporating. M.P. 62-64°C; observed density 1.8 g cm⁻³ (flotation in aqueous ZnBr₂). The crystals slowly decompose in air, and smell of phenylphosphine.



Reaction of phenylphosphine with excess CuI in THF followed by filtration and evaporation of the solvent yielded an amorphous, viscous residue. This mass of residue crystallized slowly when immersed in diethylether solvent with needle-like crystals growing out of the mass. These crystals are also air sensitive but less so than $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$. Density 2.3 g cm⁻³. M.P. not determined.

(g) NMR Samples of various stoichiometric ratios of phenylphosphine and CuI were prepared in THF solution and were sealed at -196°C under vacuum. Similar NMR samples of

PH_3 with CuI in THF solution were prepared. When cooled slowly to -76°C crystals of CuI precipitated from these latter solutions.

D. Spectroscopic Methods

(i) NMR Spectroscopy

(a) ^1H NMR. Samples for ^1H NMR were prepared by sealing solutions or neat liquids under vacuum at -196°C in 5-mm or 4-mm o.d. NMR tubes. When 4-mm tubes were used, these were inserted concentrically into 5-mm tubes containing the lock compound. When liquid ammonia was the solvent the sealed NMR tubes were warmed to at least 40°C in a water bath to ensure that the tube was capable of withstanding the internal pressure at the temperature of the NMR probe. The spectra were recorded at both 90 and 80 MHz using a Varian EM-390 spectrometer and a Bruker WP-80 Fourier transform spectrometer respectively. When the latter was used the spectra were ^2H -locked to acetone- d_6 contained in the outer concentric NMR tube. The spectra were accumulated in 8 K of memory at a spectral width of 1200 Hz (0.293 Hz/data point; pulse repetition time 3.408 s) and with a pulse width of 3.5 μs . Chemical shifts were measured relative to neat tetramethylsilane as an external reference.

Simulation of the proton spectra were made using the iterative program Numarit (Worvill, 1975). Initially estimates of the chemical shifts and coupling constants were

made from the experimental spectrum and, where these were difficult to obtain, from known general values for mono-substituted benzenes. When a simulated spectrum, which closely resembled the experimental spectrum, was thus obtained it was then possible to assign many of the transitions. The program then adjusted the initial estimates for the coupling constants and chemical shifts by an iterative process until a criterion for convergence (or divergence) of the calculated and experimental line positions was satisfied. In all cases the default values for convergence criteria were used and these were: (i) a maximum fractional decrease of the rms (root mean square) deviation of line positions of 0.01, or (ii) a maximum rms deviation for line positions of 0.01 Hz. In general the first criterion applied. In several cases the degree of resolution of the experimental spectra and the small relative chemical shifts of the different proton resonances did not permit a reliable evaluation of all of the ^1H - ^1H coupling constants. In these cases some of the smaller coupling constants were assigned reasonable values which were not allowed to vary in the iterative process thus allowing extraction of reliable chemical shift values. In general the rms deviation between calculated and assigned experimental line positions was 0.2 Hz or less. An example showing the calculated and experimental spectra for sodium anilide is shown in Figure 2.4.

d_1 6.20 ppm
 d_2 6.55
 d_3 5.77
 $J_{11'}$ 2.2 Hz J_{12} 8.4
 J_{13} 1.0 J_{21} 0.2
 $J_{22'}$ 2.2 J_{23} 7.0

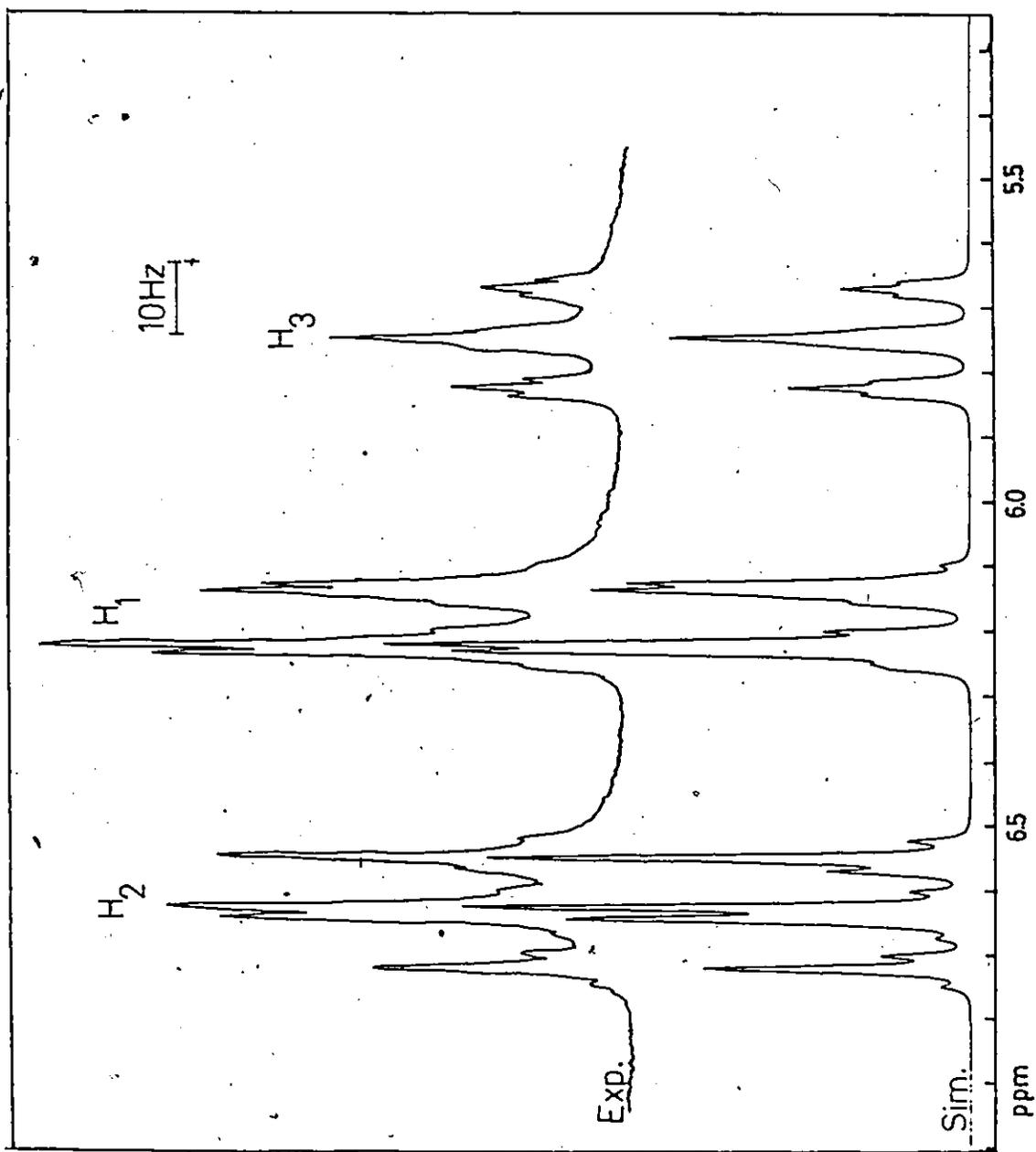
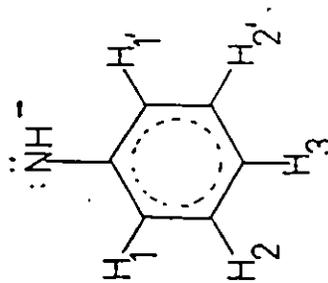


Figure 2:4: Experimental and simulated 1H NMR spectrum of C_6H_5NHNA ; 90 MHz; aromatic region

(b) ^{13}C NMR. Samples for ^{13}C NMR were prepared by sealing solutions or neat liquids in either 8-mm or 10-mm o.d. NMR tubes at -196°C under dynamic vacuum. Samples containing liquid ammonia solvent were warmed to at least 40°C to ensure that the tubes could withstand the internal pressure at the temperature of the NMR probe. When 10-mm o.d. tubes were used C_6D_6 was added as a lock compound. In most cases, however, samples were prepared in 8-mm o.d. tubes which were then inserted concentrically into a 10-mm o.d. tube containing D_2O or $(\text{D}_3\text{C})_2\text{CO}$ as the lock compound.

The ^{13}C NMR spectra were recorded using a ^2H lock, at either 22.62 or 20.115 MHz using, respectively, a Bruker WH-90 or a Bruker WP-80 Fourier transform spectrometer. In either case the spectra were accumulated in 8 K of memory using a spectral width of 6000 Hz (1.47 Hz/data point; pulse repetition time 0.68 s) and pulse widths varying from 1.5 μs to 3.0 μs . Chemical shifts were measured relative to neat tetramethylsilane (TMS) as an external reference. In general the spectra were broad-band decoupled in the ^1H region. No systematic investigation of ^{13}C - ^1H coupling constants was undertaken, however, undecoupled, off-resonance- ^1H -decoupled and selectively ^1H -decoupled spectra were recorded to enable the unambiguous assignment of all ^{13}C resonances.

(c) ^{31}P NMR. Samples for ^{31}P NMR were prepared in the same manner as the ^{13}C NMR samples. The spectra were

recorded at 36.43 MHz using the Bruker WH-90 Fourier transform multinuclear spectrometer. The spectra were ^2H -locked to acetone- d_6 or D_2O contained in the outer tube when concentric tubes were used or to C_6D_6 when a single 10-mm o.d. tube was used. The spectra were accumulated in 8 K of memory using spectral widths of from 8 to 25 kHz (1 to 6 Hz/data point; pulse repetition time 1.02 to 0.16 s) and a pulse width of 5 μs . Spectra were recorded both proton coupled and broadband decoupled. Variable temperature NMR spectra were obtained using a Bruker temperature controller and the temperature was monitored using a copper constantan thermocouple which was inserted directly into the sample chamber of the probe. Temperatures could be controlled to within $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$. Chemical shifts were measured relative to 85% H_3PO_4 as an external reference.

(ii) Mössbauer Spectroscopy

The Mössbauer spectrometer and the technical details involved in obtaining ^{127}I gamma-resonance spectra have been previously described (Myers, 1982). Samples containing from 15 mg to 75 mg of ^{127}I per cm^2 were prepared. The air-stable compounds were finely ground and if necessary intimately mixed with Al_2O_3 or with Apieson grease. The air-sensitive samples were prepared under dry nitrogen atmosphere. These samples were placed in a 20-mm i.d. threaded Kel-F sample holder and further sealed with Teflon tape.

Spectra were recorded while both sample and source were maintained at liquid helium temperature. The source of gamma radiation was a 20 mCi $Zn^{127m}Te$ emitter prepared by the New England Nuclear Corporation. Count rates varied from 15-30 counts s^{-1} channel $^{-1}$ depending upon the composition and size of the absorber and upon the activity of the source. Typical spectra were recorded in 24-54 h and generally displayed about 1% absorption.

The ^{127}I Mössbauer spectra were computer fitted using a program which incorporates full transmission integral procedures (Ruebenbauer, 1979). In all cases the source linewidth was fixed at 1.27 mm s^{-1} , the natural linewidth, during fitting. The dimensionless absorber thickness, (T_A), the absorber linewidth, isomer shift and where appropriate the quadrupole coupling constant and the asymmetry parameter, η (η), were allowed to vary. The criteria for goodness of fit employed in the fitting procedure were χ^2 and the misfit value as defined by Ruby (1973). An optimally fitted spectrum has a value of $\chi^2/\text{degree of freedom}$ of one.

(iii) Infrared and Raman Spectroscopy

(a) The laser Raman spectrometer and auxiliary instrumentation has been fully described previously (Gillespie, 1976). Spectra were recorded at room temperature and at -196°C while spinning the sample tube. The tubes were

mounted vertically with the angle between the incident beam and the sample at 45° . The Raman scattered radiation was observed at 45° to the incident beam or 90° to the sample tube direction.

(b) The infrared spectra were recorded using a Nicolet 7199 Fourier transform infrared spectrometer. Samples were prepared by pressing finely ground solid between silver chloride windows.

(iv) X-Ray Crystallography

Crystals of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ were grown by slow precipitation from ethanol/THF solution. The colourless parallelopipeds or needles are slightly air sensitive and may be unstable to loss of phenylphosphine. Crystals were mounted in dry Lindeman capillaries which were sealed under an atmosphere of dry nitrogen.

Alignment and zero layer precession X-ray photographs of the crystals were taken. Instrumentation and data acquisition technique for crystal structure determinations have been extensively described elsewhere (Turner, 1976). Diffractometer data collection was kindly performed by R. Faggiani, using a Syntex P2₁ automatic diffractometer.

The theory and practice of single crystal structure determination has been described in detail in various textbooks (Stout, 1968; Woolfson, 1970). The structure was

solved using conventional heavy-atom, Patterson and Fourier synthesis methods with the program SHELX (Sheldrick, 1976).

Auxiliary programs used were from the XRAY package of crystallographic programs (Stewart, 1976). Scattering curves (Cromer and Waber, 1974) and anomalous dispersion corrections (Cromer, 1974) for Cu and I were taken from the 'International Tables for X-Ray Crystallography'. Scattering curves for the other atoms were included in the SHELX program. All calculations were performed on a CDC 6400 or Cyber 170/730 computer.

CHAPTER 3
NMR OF PHENYL-SUBSTITUTED HYDRIDES AND ANIONS OF
MAIN GROUP ELEMENTS

A. Introduction

The initial objective of this work was to establish the nature of the electronic interactions between the aromatic rings and the main group substituents in phenyl hydrides of the elements of groups 4B and 5B and in their corresponding monoanions. Furthermore it was hoped that the importance of such interactions to the relative thermodynamic stabilities of these species might be inferred by comparison of the NMR parameters with the known relative acidities of the 'hydrides'. In particular, confirmation was sought of a relationship between mesomeric effects in the anions and the relative acidities of the corresponding neutral hydrides in order to determine whether or not differences in the effect of phenyl-substitution on the acidities of, for example, arsines as opposed to germanes, could be accounted for by differences in resonance stabilization of the anions. In order to do this an understanding is required of how changes in electron distribution in a molecule are reflected in its NMR parameters.

Traditionally the idea of a relationship between electron density and the NMR chemical shift has been a driving force in the interpretation of NMR spectra. This work is no exception. This idea is founded in the concept of electronic shielding, caused by induced cycling of the electrons giving rise to differing net magnetic fields at different nuclei in a molecule. Simplistically therefore, an increase in the electron density around a particular nucleus would cause an increase in the shielding of that nucleus from the external magnetic field thus causing it to resonate at a lower frequency. The formulation of chemical shift scales is well known (Becker, 1980) and will not be further discussed except to state that the convention used throughout this work is the commonly accepted one which defines a positive chemical shift (δ , ppm) as one to lower field strength (deshielded) or higher frequency.

In actual fact the picture of electronic shielding described above is a gross simplification since in general nuclei in molecules are not surrounded by perfectly spherical electron distributions and the magnetically induced cycling of these electrons is not necessarily isotropic with respect to different orientations of the molecule. A more sophisticated description of shielding is required in order to arrive at a better understanding of the chemical significance of the chemical shift. Conceptually changes in the shielding can be seen as arising from a number of different effects.

First the breakdown of the shielding of a nucleus in a real molecule into its component contributions will be considered and then the specific application of these concepts to ^1H and ^{13}C chemical shifts in monosubstituted benzenes.

(i) Substituent Chemical Shifts

The absolute chemical shift for a particular nucleus is seldom of chemical interest. Of more significance is the change in chemical shift when a change in the structure of a molecule is made. The chemical shift difference between a nucleus in a substituted molecule relative to the analogous nucleus in the 'unsubstituted' parent compound is referred to as the substituent chemical shift (SCS), denoted by the symbol S (ppm).

Raynes (1971) has pointed out that the often used concepts of local and non-local contributions to the shielding of a given nucleus are perhaps misleading because some of the so-called non-local contributions operate by indirectly affecting the local distribution of valence electrons about the nucleus. In a sense all substituent chemical shifts could be considered as arising from a sum of non-local effects. Raynes preferred to divide these into 'direct' contributions -- those which contribute directly to the shielding without affecting the local electron distributions -- and 'indirect' contributions -- those which cause a change in local electron distributions and thus in

the shielding caused by the induced cycling of these electrons.' A further subdivision of these classifications was suggested to distinguish between contributions from 'through-bond' or from 'through-space' effects, (Figure 3.1); (Raynes, 1971). In this work it is of particular interest to identify the contributions to the substituent chemical shifts from resonance, inductive and electric field effects. In general intramolecular effects are of most importance but intermolecular effects can also contribute to the observed chemical shifts.

Ramsey (1950) derived a theoretical expression for the total shielding contribution arising from the local distribution of electrons about the nucleus. In practice rigorous calculations based on this expression are not generally feasible however an approximate statement of Ramsey's equation, first suggested by Saika and Slichter (Saika, 1954), more readily permits a 'physical understanding' of how changes in local electron distribution affect the shielding. Thus this expression may suggest or facilitate the explanation of correlations between experimental chemical shifts and other measurable or calculable parameters.

The total shielding, σ , may be given as the sum of three terms (Saika, 1954) (3.1).

$$\sigma = \sigma_D^{loc} + \sigma_P^{loc} + \sigma' \quad (3.1)$$

	Through-bond:	Through-space:
Direct:	Contact shifts.	Neighbouring group magnetic anisotropies; ring currents.
Indirect:	Inductive effects; Resonance effects.	Electric field effects; Van der Waals and steric effects.

Figure 3.1: Classification of Effects Contributing to Substituent Chemical Shifts (Raynes, 1971) (slightly altered)

The diamagnetic contribution, σ_D^{loc} , depends upon the spherical electron density about the nucleus (Lamb, 1941) (3.2) (Karplus, 1963).

$$\sigma_D^{loc} = (e^2/3mc^2) \sum_i \langle r_i^{-1} \rangle \quad (3.2)$$

$\langle r_i^{-1} \rangle$ is the mean inverse distance of the i^{th} electron from the nucleus. The paramagnetic term, σ_p^{loc} , arises from non-spherical electron distribution and as the name implies operates to enhance the external magnetic field at the nucleus (3.3) (Karplus, 1963; Pople, 1962).

$$\sigma_p^{loc} = -[e^2 \hbar^2 / 2m^2 c^2 (\Delta E)] \langle r^{-3} \rangle_p \sum_B Q_{AB} \quad (3.3)$$

ΔE is a mean value for the electronic excitation energies. $\langle r^{-3} \rangle_p$ is the mean of the cubed inverse of the distance of the valence p electrons from the nucleus -- the expression assumes the absence of valence d electrons. $\sum_B Q_{AB}$ may be referred to as the electron imbalance and depends upon the hybridization about the nucleus under consideration (A) and the bond orders to neighbouring atoms (B).

Unlike σ_D^{loc} , σ_p^{loc} is not simply related only to electron density. For nuclei in a series of compounds of similar structure, however, the ΔE and $\sum_B Q_{AB}$ terms may be

nearly invariant (Karpf, 1963). For such series σ_p^{loc} may display a correlation with electron density based upon the $\langle r^{-3} \rangle_p$ term in the expression. An increase in electron density would result in expansion of the valence p orbitals thus reducing $\langle r^{-3} \rangle_p$. Consequently the dependence of σ_p^{loc} on electron density has the same sign as does that of σ_D^{loc} . Therefore for nuclei in a series of compounds of similar structure it is not unreasonable to expect a dependence of the chemical shifts on charge density provided the effects of neighbouring magnetic anisotropies are negligible or can be accounted for. These latter contributions are represented by σ' in equation (3.1).

The apparent dependence of certain chemical shifts in substituted benzenes on electron density has been demonstrated by various correlations between 1H , ^{13}C or ^{19}F chemical shifts in these systems with calculated charge densities or with substituent parameters such as Hammett σ -values* (Ewing, 1978).

The question now arises of how substituents affect electron densities at remote sites in a given molecule. Of particular interest to the present study are substituent effects in monosubstituted benzenes. Even for these

* It is unfortunate that the letter ' σ ' by common usage may refer to either the NMR shielding constant, Hammett substituent parameters or to sigma symmetry as in σ -bonds. It is used in all three of these meanings in this chapter however the use of subscripts or superscripts as well as the context should be sufficient to avoid confusion.

extensively studied systems the problem of parameterizing the effects of substituents is not a simple one. Topsom (1976) has described seven mechanisms by which a substituent's electronic effects can be transmitted throughout a molecule. These are as follows:

- (a) σ -inductive effect -- a through σ -bond effect which rapidly diminishes with the number of bonds.
- (b) field effect -- a through space electrostatic polarization of σ -bonds as a result of the polarity introduced by the substituent.
- (c) σ -induced π effect -- a redistribution of π -electrons as a result of the changed σ -electron distribution.
- (d) field-induced π effect -- a direct polarization of π electrons by the polar substituent.
- (e) mesomeric or resonance effects (change delocalization).
- (f) π -induced σ effect -- a redistribution of σ -electrons as a result of large changes in the π -electron distribution.
- (g) π -orbital effect -- a redistribution of π -electrons resulting from repulsions between the π -system and filled π -orbitals on the substituent.

In general, as pointed out by Vorpagel et al. (1981), these effects are not as yet completely separable and are usually divided into two broadly defined categories. The first four mechanisms are grouped together as effects which arise from the substituent's polarity and are called the 'field' effect or sometimes 'inductive' effect. The second category includes those effects which have their origin in the substituents charge-transfer ability as in the delocalization of electrons. This is generally called the 'resonance' effect. The π -orbital effect can be seen as contributing partially to each of these two general effects and is not usually considered separately.

The division of substituent effects into the field and resonance contributions has been the basis for a great deal of research and discussion in physical organic chemistry. This has led to 'dual substituent parameter' (DSP) analyses (Ewing, 1978 and references therein) of chemical shifts of nuclei in substituted aromatic molecules. In these treatments the substituent chemical shift of a particular nucleus is considered to be equal to a linear combination of the 'inductive' and 'resonance' substituent parameters as determined from linear free-energy relationships (3.4).

$$\delta = \rho_I \sigma_I + \rho_R \sigma_R + \text{constant} \quad (3.4)$$

If substituent chemical shifts are used the constant in equation (3.4) should be close to zero since the substituent constants for the -H substituent are by definition equal to zero. Application of the results of such analyses to the molecules in the present study could, in principle, allow the determination of the magnitudes of resonance and field effects of the substituents. DSP analyses, however, are still the centre of controversy and the qualities of the correlations obtained are such that estimation of new σ_I and σ_R parameters by this method may involve large statistical errors. Also the relative and absolute values of the coefficients in equation (3.4) will be solvent dependent.

A more qualitative analysis may be achieved by consideration of the relative chemical shifts of the different nuclei within the same molecule. For instance, the substituent chemical shifts for nuclei in the meta position of the monosubstituted benzene will have relatively little contribution from resonance effects while those for nuclei in the para position will be dominated by resonance effects.

Contributions to chemical shifts arising from non-bonded interactions such as intramolecular van der Waals attractions (Schaefer, 1963) or steric repulsions (Grant, 1967) may also be considered as indirectly affecting the local electron distributions (Figure 3.1) although chemists do not usually think of these as 'electronic effects'. These influences may not be considered within the approximation of

structural invariance at the nucleus in question, so that when variations in the extent of close non-bonded contacts are in effect the substituent chemical shifts will not show a simple dependence on electron density. Van der Waals interactions are thought to have in general a deshielding effect (Schaefer, 1963) but in practice this effect is not clearly separable from accompanying steric and magnetic anisotropic effects.

A brief summary of the state of understanding of substituent chemical shifts might be that for nuclei close to the substituents the origins of observed chemical shifts are not yet well understood although isolated comparisons for closely similar systems may be attributed to one effect or another. For nuclei more remote from the substituent the chemical shifts often display an apparent dependence upon local electron density provided nuclei in similar structural environments are being considered. The local electron densities will in turn depend predominantly upon resonance and electric field effects.

B. ^1H NMR

Variations in the local shielding for the ^1H nucleus depend predominantly on the diamagnetic term in equation (3.1). The paramagnetic term varies negligibly in general because of the relatively large values of the excitation energies (Raynes, 1974). Thus the local shielding of the ^1H

nucleus is a function of the local electron density. Substituents in a molecule may indirectly affect σ_D^{loc} by causing an increase or decrease in the electron density at the proton in question either by 'field' or 'resonance' mechanisms which affect the electron balance in the C-H bond. For protons in contact with bulky substituents however, there may be contributions to the shielding resulting from changes in σ_p^{loc} .

Unfortunately the range of ^1H chemical shifts caused by changes in σ_D^{loc} is small so that direct contributions to the net shielding from the substituents' group magnetic anisotropies may be significant. Direct solvent effects may also play a significant role in ^1H NMR (Emsley, 1965). These effects are often minimized by measuring the chemical shifts of the substrate at various degrees of dilution in a 'non-interacting' solvent and extrapolating to infinite dilution (Hayamizu, 1969). When this is not practical the less satisfactory method of using relatively dilute solutions in a common solvent is often used when comparing ^1H chemical shifts for different species. This approach, employed in the present study, aims to systematize solvent effects to some extent and also eliminates the necessity of making corrections for solvent diamagnetic susceptibility when comparing chemical shifts of different molecules.

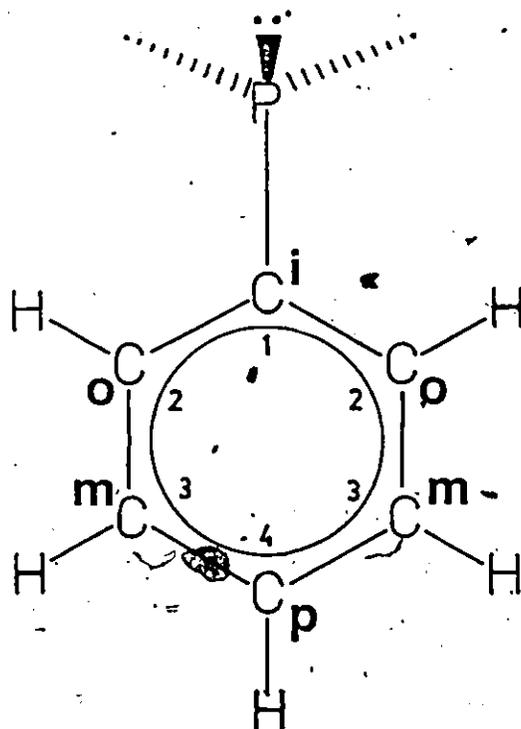
(i) Monosubstituted Benzenes

^1H chemical shifts have not been used as extensively as have ^{19}F and ^{13}C chemical shifts in the quantitative study of substituent effects in monosubstituted benzenes (Ewing, 1978). The reasons for this are the relative importances of magnetic anisotropies and direct solvent effects on ^1H chemical shifts mentioned above. Also, the proton spectra are complicated by second order homonuclear spin-spin couplings which make analyses of the spectra non-trivial.

The effects which are of major importance to the substituent chemical shifts of the different ring-hydrogen nuclei are summarized below. Figure 3.2 shows the common labels for the four positions of a phenyl ring.

(a) Ortho Proton

Substituent chemical shifts for ortho protons in monosubstituted benzenes are the least well understood of the phenyl proton chemical shifts. This is because not only are resonance and inductive effects important at this position but the group magnetic anisotropy of the substituent, electric field effects as well as steric and van der Waals influences may all make significant contributions. There do not appear to be any good single correlations between ortho ^1H SCS and either calculated electron densities or empirical substituent parameters. Dual substituent parameter analyses



i = ipso
o = ortho
m = meta
p = para

Figure 3.2: Position Labels for a Monosubstituted Benzene

appear to account reasonably well for the ortho proton chemical shifts in terms of only 'resonance' and 'field' contributions (Charton, 1971) (3.5).

$$\delta(H_o) = 0.64 \sigma_I + 1.27 \sigma_R + 0.186 \quad (3.5)$$

However the quality of such correlations is much improved when bulky substituents are omitted (Hayamizu, 1969). It was concluded in the later study (Charton, 1971) that steric effects were not important in determining the ortho-¹H SCS because inclusion of a steric parameter (van der Waals radius of the substituent) in a triple parameter analysis of the chemical shift did not improve the correlation. Consequently it was decided that substituent magnetic anisotropies largely account for deviations from the correlation. It may be, however, that the simple van der Waals radius is not the best parameter with which to quantify steric effects on the chemical shift.

Another approach to the interpretation of ortho-¹H chemical shifts is based upon the observation of good correlations with the semi-empirical parameter Q (Hruska, 1965) (3.6), for the series of halogen-monosubstituted benzenes (C₆H₅X).

$$Q = P/|r|^3 \quad (3.6)$$

P is the polarizability of the C-X bond; I is the first ionization potential of X; r is the C-X bond length. The significance of this parameter, Q, is uncertain although it was originally intended to be related to the paramagnetic shielding produced by the mixing of excited states of the substituent with the ground state electrons of the ortho C-H bond. It may also reflect to some extent the magnetic anisotropies of the substituents (Ewing, 1978).

Since 3.6 can only be evaluated for hydrogen or the halogen substituents, the parameter, Q, has been estimated from NMR data for most other substituents (Smith, 1967). Inclusion of this parameter along with 'field' and 'resonance' parameters in triple parameter linear analyses of ortho-¹H chemical shifts results in a significant improvement over correlations involving only the 'field' and 'resonance' parameter (Smith, 1970). It is not yet clear whether such treatments will be a genuine aid in the separation of polar and resonance effects at the ortho positions.

To summarize the dependencies of ortho-proton chemical shifts it seems that they depend comparably on 'resonance' and 'field' substituent effects but may also depend significantly on substituent magnetic anisotropies and contributions to the paramagnetic shielding as a consequence of the proximity of this proton to the substituent. Therefore, great care must be taken in the interpretation of

individual or relative ortho- ^1H SCS. In general this shift is of doubtful use in determining the relative magnitudes of polar and resonance substituent effects.

(b) Meta Proton

The meta proton is sufficiently distant from the substituent that its chemical shift will not be influenced by steric effects or dispersion forces associated with the size of the substituent. Genuine inductive effects should be negligible (Topson, 1976) as these diminish rapidly with increasing number of bonds separating the site in question from the substituent. Also, the effect of the magnetic anisotropy of the substituent should be considerably reduced at the meta position. Contributions to the substituent chemical shift of the meta proton from changes in the paramagnetic shielding term (3.3) appear not to be significant since there is no observed dependence of these chemical shifts on the semi-empirical parameter Q (Hruska, 1965) (3.6).

If all of the above effects are negligible then a dual substituent parameter analysis of the meta- ^1H substituent chemical shifts may reveal the relative contributions of 'field' and 'resonance' mechanisms at this position. Such studies have been carried out (Hayamizu, 1969; Hehre, 1976) a sample correlation is shown in equation (3.7) (Hehre, 1976).

$$S_{1H_{\text{meta}}} = 0.24 \sigma_I + 0.44 \sigma_R^0 \quad (3.7)$$

It must be pointed out that the coefficients of such correlations are strongly solvent dependent. The relation shown (3.7) was found for shifts extrapolated to infinite dilution in the 'inert' solvent carbon tetrachloride. The transmission of electric field effects as reflected by the coefficient of σ_I in particular depend upon the nature of the solvent. The relative importance of σ_R to the meta- ^1H shielding may seem surprising since one would expect the field contribution to be dominant at this position. The observed relation (3.7) might be rationalized on the basis of the π -induced σ effect as described by Topsom (1976) or from an inherent weakness in the dual substituent parameter model. One such weakness may be that the π -interaction between the substituent and the phenyl ring may have a significant effect on the magnitude of the 'ring current'. Substituents which interact strongly with the π -orbitals of the ring diminish the ring current and thus have a partial shielding effect which is of approximately the same value at all ring protons (Yamada, 1970). Therefore, unless the magnitude of this change in the ring-current is known for each substituent, differences in the chemical shifts between different protons within the same species will have more significance with regard to electron distribution effects than the individual

substituent chemical shifts. Yamada has shown that this ring-current diminution can be reasonably accounted for by a term proportional to the absolute value of the resonance substituent parameter, $|\sigma_\pi|$ (Yukawa, 1965), in a correlation of the meta- ^1H SCS with the Hammett substituent parameter, σ_m (3.8).

$$S_{1\text{H}_{\text{meta}}} = -0.511 \sigma_m + 0.509 |\sigma_\pi| \text{ (ppm)} \quad (3.8)$$

Apparently no attempt has been made to account for this effect in the dual substituent parameter analyses involving σ_I and σ_R parameters mentioned above. However, Hehre et. al. (1976) have compared the results of their analysis (3.7) with a similar correlation of the calculated σ -charge at the meta-proton (3.9).

$$\Delta q_\sigma^{\text{m-H}} = 0.017 \sigma_I + 0.006 \sigma_R^0 \quad (3.9)$$

Comparison of (3.9) with (3.7) shows that the charge, $\Delta q_\sigma^{\text{m-H}}$, has relatively little dependence on the resonance parameter compared to the substituent chemical shift, $S_{1\text{H}_{\text{meta}}}$. The difference between the two relations is undoubtedly due to the ring-current effect.

(c) Para Proton

For the para-proton substituent chemical shift the main contributions will be from the electron density at the para position and also from the ring-current effect mentioned above. That this chemical shift is highly dependent on the electron density at the para carbon atom is demonstrated by the existence of good correlations with substituent parameters such as σ_p^+ , with $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{para}}$ chemical shifts and with the analogous $^{19}\text{F}_{\text{para}}$ chemical shifts in fluorinated compounds. The variation in electron density at the para position is dominated by the resonance effect of the substituent as exemplified by the dual substituent parameter relation shown below (Hehre, 1976).

$$S_{\text{H}_{\text{para}}} = 0.27 \sigma_{\text{I}} + 1.25 \sigma_{\text{R}}^0 \quad (3.10)$$

It must be remembered, however, that the coefficient of σ_{R}^0 conceals a contribution from the changes in the ring-current.

To a first approximation the magnitude of the resonance effect may be inferred from the substituent chemical shift of the para proton. Further refinement may involve comparison of this shift with that of the meta proton for which the effects of substituent polarity and of changes in the ring current are of comparable magnitude to those at

the para position but the effects due to resonance are considerably reduced. It has been shown that the calculated charge at both the meta and para protons can be related to their substituent chemical shifts by inclusion of a term proportional to the total π -charge transferred to, or from, the ring by the substituent (Hehre, 1976) (3.11).

$$S_{1H} \propto \Delta q_{\sigma}^H - 0.14 |\Sigma \Delta q_{\pi}| \quad (3.11)$$

This is somewhat analogous to Yamada's treatment of the dependence of $S_{1H_{meta}}$ on σ_m and $|\sigma_{\pi}|$ (3.8) -- the $|\Sigma \Delta q_{\pi}|$ term in (3.11) accounting for the effect of the change in the ring current. If such a relationship holds in general then the difference between the para-proton chemical shift and that of the meta-proton should be proportional to the difference in σ -charge densities at these protons since the ring current effect is cancelled out. Similarly the algebraic difference between equations (3.7) and (3.10) should afford the relative dependence of this charge density difference on 'field' and 'resonance' mechanisms. Comparison of these two equations shows that $(\delta_{1H_{para}} - \delta_{1H_{meta}})$ is almost exclusively dependent on σ°_R with little contribution from σ_I . This suggests that polar effects are of comparable magnitude at the meta and para protons and that the difference $(\delta_{1H_{para}} - \delta_{1H_{meta}})$ is a

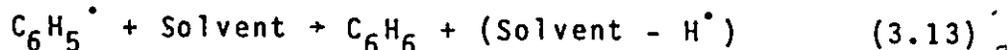
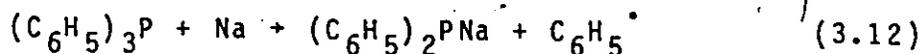
better measure of the substituent's resonance effect than $S_{1H_{para}}$ alone.

(ii) Results and Discussion

It has been shown that deprotonation of phenylgermane (Birchall, 1970) or triphenylstannane (Birchall, 1975) results in increased shielding of the meta and para protons while the ortho protons were deshielded in each case. This result was interpreted (Birchall, 1970) as signifying that the dominant effect of the anionic ring substituents in these cases was to polarize the π -electrons of the phenyl group rather than to delocalize the negative charge into the ring. This interpretation was consistent with the observation that phenyl-substitution of germane did not increase the acidity of the remaining protons (Birchall, 1966) because the anions are not stabilized by resonance delocalization of the negative charge. In the present study the phenyl-substituted hydrides of the group 5B elements are similarly investigated to see if the observed increase in acidity of the hydrides (Issleib, 1965) upon phenyl substitution may be related to a resonance delocalization in the anions.

In a preliminary experiment $(C_6H_5)_2PNa$ was generated in THF solution by the reaction of $(C_6H_5)_3P$ with sodium metal. The 90 MHz 1H NMR spectrum showed, besides a single line attributed to benzene, three complex multiplets, the fine structure of which could not be resolved, (Figure 3.3).

possibly because of line-broadening due to the presence of paramagnetic species or suspended solids in these dark-coloured solutions. A simple homonuclear decoupling experiment, shown in the figure, reveals that the low-field multiplet must be assigned to the ortho protons because it does not display a large coupling to the multiplet at highest field-strength which is clearly attributable to the para proton because of its relative intensity. The relative areas under these multiplets and under the benzene peak are completely consistent with the reaction given by equations (3.12) and (3.13)



A similar experiment with $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{Sb}$ did not yield a stable anion at room temperature (see Chapter 2). However the ^1H NMR spectrum of the THF solution, shortly after preparation at reduced temperature, revealed the presence of a species whose ^1H NMR spectrum bore close resemblance to that of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeH}_2\text{Na}$ (Birchall, 1970) in the aromatic region. The spectrum of the stibide was not fully analysed because of low resolution and the presence of other unidentified aromatic species. However, the resonances which can reasonably be attributed to $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{SbNa}$ indicate that the

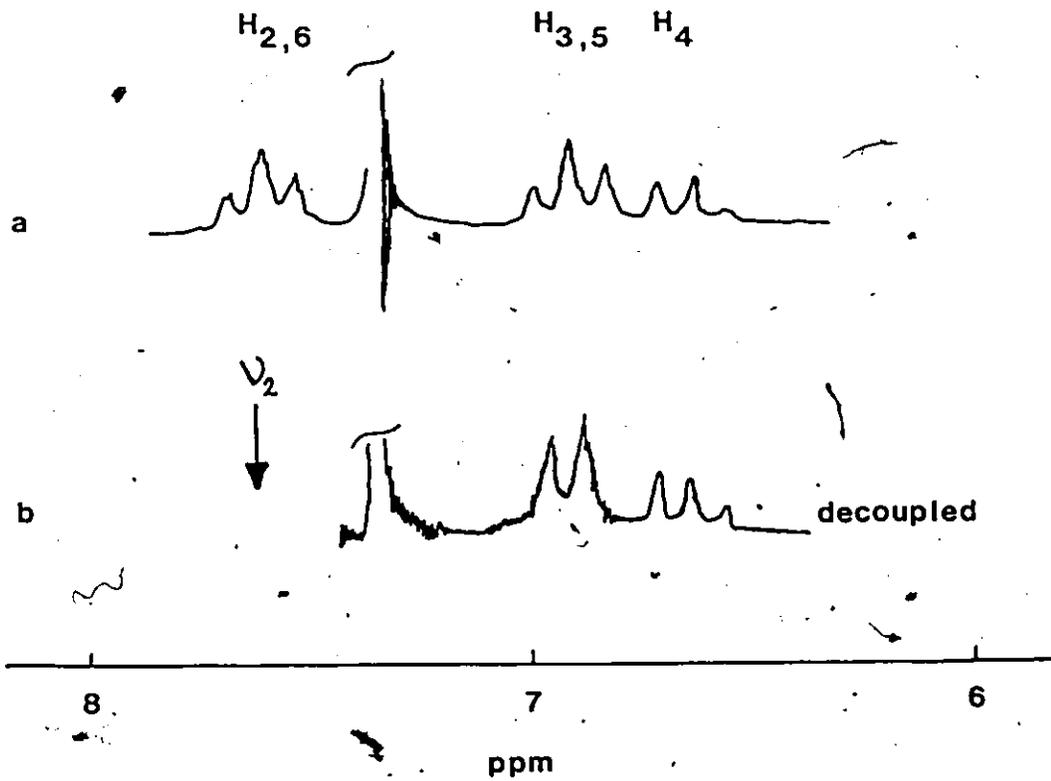


Figure 3.3: Aromatic Region of ^1H NMR Spectrum of $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PNa} + \text{C}_6\text{H}_6$.

- (a) Fully coupled spectrum;
- (b) Decoupler frequency centred on the low-field multiplet.

ring protons in this species have chemical shifts at: -0.45 ppm ($H_{2,6}$), +0.52 + 0.60 ppm ($H_{3,5}$ and H_4) relative to benzene.

The similar relative positions of the ring-proton resonances in these group 5B anions compared to those found for $C_6H_5GeH_2^-$ (Birchall, 1970) suggested that the electronic interactions of the substituents with the phenyl rings in the group 5B anions might not be significantly different from those in analogous group 4B anions. However it was noted that the para-proton substituent chemical shift of $(C_6H_5)_2PNa$ occurred at somewhat higher field than that of $C_6H_5GeH_2Na$ suggesting that there is possibly greater delocalization of negative charge to the para position in the former species.

It is more appropriate, of course to compare the germanium species with analogous arsenic compounds since these elements belong to the same period. Consequently the complete series of phenyl- and diphenylamines, -phosphines and -arsines along with their respective monosodium salts were studied by 1H NMR as ~1M tetrahydrofuran solutions. The spectra of the anions, prepared by reaction of the hydrides with Na, displayed greatly improved resolution over those of the anions prepared from reaction of the triphenyl-compounds with Na as the reactions of the hydrides appear to proceed quite cleanly with the production of H_2 gas and with no side reactions.

The aromatic regions of these spectra were computer simulated and the best fits to the experimental spectra were obtained. An example of such a simulation was shown in Figure 2.4. The ^1H - ^1H and ^1H - ^{31}P coupling constants were found to be in the normal ranges for monosubstituted benzenes (Becker, 1980; Parr, 1978). Variations in the derived coupling constants from compound to compound, however, were found to be only of comparable magnitude to their individual standard deviations as obtained from the iterative program NUMARIT (Worvill, 1975). Therefore, the discussion in this section shall be confined mainly to the experimental chemical shifts. ^{31}P - ^1H spin-spin couplings will be discussed in the section on ^{31}P NMR (section 3(d)).

The 80 MHz ^1H spectrum of $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{NNa}$ in THF is included here (Figure 3.4) since it is an interesting example of a 'deceptively simple' spectrum (Becker, 1980). For this sample the resonances of the ortho and meta protons coincide and the spectrum appears to be independent of the coupling constants between these protons. Also, the observed pseudo-first-order splitting in the spectrum is the average of the ortho-para coupling and the meta-para coupling. A simulated spectrum which agrees closely with the observed spectrum is also shown in Figure 3.4. Because of the features mentioned above, however, not too much reliance should be placed on the coupling constants obtained because they rely to a large extent on speculative assignments of the weaker, poorly

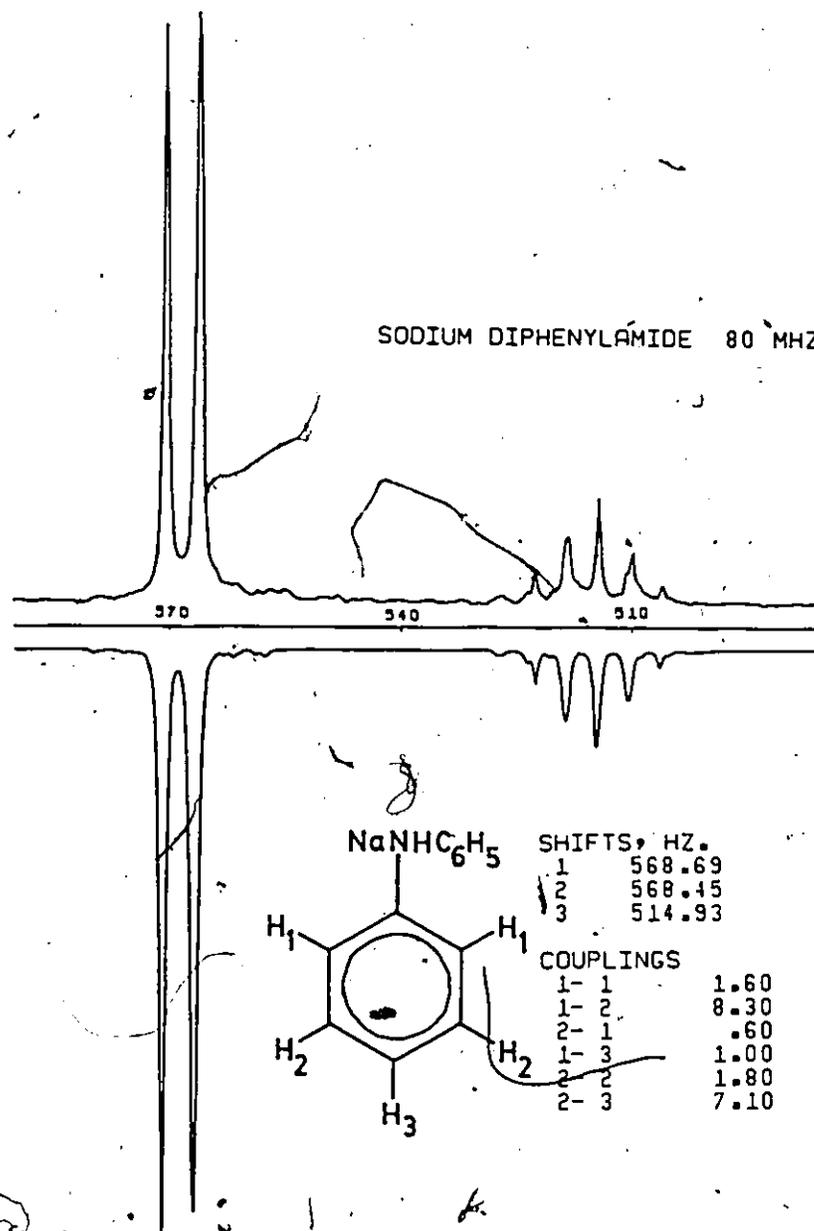


Figure 3.4: Observed (upper) and simulated (lower) ^1H NMR spectra for $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{NNa}$ in THF: recorded at 80 MHz.

resolved peaks in the spectrum. Thus using a range of different values for some of these couplings very similar spectra can be simulated.

The ^1H chemical shift data for the series of compounds studied is summarized in Table 3.1. Figure 3.5 shows, schematically, the chemical shifts of the aromatic protons relative to benzene. Recently published data (Berestova, 1982) for the lithium salts of the phenyl- and diphenylamines, and -phosphines in DMSO solvent display the same trends as observed here for the sodium salts in THF. The data for phenylgermane and sodium phenylgermyl (Birchall, 1970) are included in Table 3.1 and Figure 3.5 for comparison. These latter data were measured using solutions in CCl_4 and NH_3 respectively, therefore caution is required when comparing these data with those for the compounds in the present work where tetrahydrofuran was used as the solvent in all cases. For the neutral hydrides the differing abilities of the solvents to form H-bonded interactions involving the 'hydride' hydrogen atoms (i.e. the hydrogen atom bonded directly to the variable main group element) of the solute are important. Also, more polar solvents will favour contributions from resonance forms of the solute having larger charge separation. These effects may be illustrated by a comparison of the chemical shifts of the aromatic protons of aniline (relative to that of benzene) in the solvents CCl_4 (5% solution) (Spiesecke, 1961) and THF (~1M).

Table 3.1:
 ^1H Chemical Shifts^a (p.p.m.)

	1(X-H)	2,6 (ortho)	3,5 (meta)	4 (para)
1. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NH}_2$	4.23(br)	6.52	6.98	6.52
2. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$	3.90	7.43	7.21	7.21
3. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{AsH}_2$	b	7.47	7.20	7.21
4. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHNa}$	2.75	6.20	6.65	5.77
5. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$	2.23	7.16	6.58	6.29
6. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{AsHNa}$	1.18	7.36	6.59	6.43
7. $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{NH}$	(5.29) ^c	7.04	7.16	6.78
8. $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}$	5.17	7.43	7.24	7.21
9. $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{AsH}$	4.89	7.44	7.19	7.18
10. $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{NNa}$		6.92	6.92	6.25
11. $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PNa}$		7.48	6.79	6.52
12. $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{AsNa}$		7.59	6.80	6.63
13. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeH}_3$ ^d	4.29	7.49	7.29	7.32
14. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeH}_2\text{Na}$ ^e	3.30	7.51	6.78	6.73

Footnotes for Table 3.1

- (a) Unless otherwise indicated, chemical shifts (0.01 ppm.) are for THF solutions, ~ 1M; measured relative to neat external TMS, and corrected empirically to the value relative to internal TMS; the benzene resonance occurs at 7.31 ppm. relative to internal TMS in THF.
- (b) Peak obscured by solvent signal (3.4 + 3.7 ppm.).
- (c) Peak not observable because of broadening in THF solvent; the value given was measured in CDCl_3 relative to benzene; benzene assigned 7.31 ppm.
- (d) Birchall, 1970; Chemical shifts measured in CCl_4 solution (1M) relative to benzene; benzene assigned 7.31 ppm.
- (e) Birchall, 1970; Chemical shifts measured in NH_3 solution (1M) relative to benzene; benzene assigned 7.31 ppm.

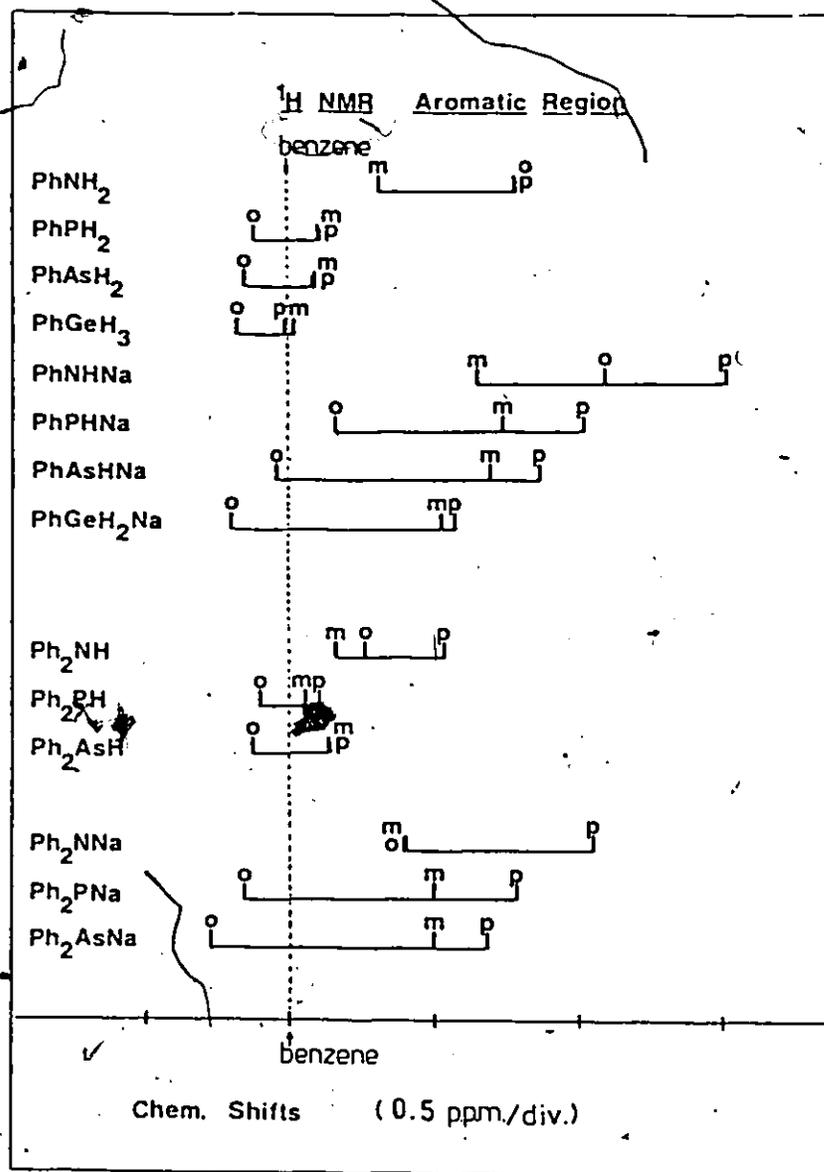


Figure 3.5: Schematic diagram of phenyl-proton chemical shifts; data from Table 3.1.
 Ph = phenyl; o = ortho; m = meta; p = para

In CCl_4 the chemical shifts are: $\text{H}_{2,6}$, -0.76 ppm; $\text{H}_{3,5}$, -0.20 ppm; H_4 , -0.63 ppm; whereas in THF they are slightly different: $\text{H}_{2,6}$, -0.78 ppm; $\text{H}_{3,5}$, -0.32 ppm; H_4 , -0.78 ppm. For the THF solution the meta and para ^1H resonances have shifted to higher field strength relative to the ortho ^1H resonance so that in THF the ortho and para resonances coincide. These differences are most likely partly due to the greater ability of the tetrahydrofuran solvent molecules to form hydrogen bonds with the N-H protons. This is further evidenced by the low-field shift of the N-H proton resonance in THF relative to the same resonance in CCl_4 (Ryan, 1965). It is also observed that the N-H resonance of aniline in THF is quite broad ($\sim 17\text{Hz}$) while that of diphenylamine is so broadened as to be not observed in this solvent. In solvents such as chloroform or carbon tetrachloride these same resonances are relatively sharp ($\sim 1\text{Hz}$). This broadening effect is undoubtedly due to the nuclear quadrupole moment on ^{14}N and the differing quadrupolar relaxation rates in the different solvents. Hydrogen-bonded interactions with the solvent are less likely to be important for the hydrides of phosphorus and arsenic compared to those of nitrogen. For example the half-height linewidth of the As-H proton resonance for diphenylarsine in THF is relatively narrow (1.3Hz) despite the fact that ^{75}As is 100% abundant and has a large quadrupole moment.

For the anionic species the ability of the solvent to separate the ion pairs must be considered (O'Brien, 1976). More polar solvents such as NH_3 will favour an increased proportion of solvent separated pairs thus permitting the effect of the anionic charge to be brought to bear more fully on the electron distributions in the phenyl rings.

(a) Protons directly bonded to the group 5B element:

The interpretation of the chemical shift changes observed for the protons directly attached to the group 5B element appears to be relatively straightforward. Successive replacement of the hydrogen atoms of the YH_3 ($\text{Y}=\text{N}, \text{P}, \text{As}$) compounds by phenyl groups results in shifts of the Y-H resonances to lower field strengths. This is as expected since the phenyl group may potentially withdraw electron density from Y either inductively or by resonance thus deshielding the remaining protons. In addition there is the deshielding effect of the ring current associated with the phenyl ring. The effective change in shielding that the phenyl group introduces at the remaining protons of a substituted hydride has been shown (Ryan, 1965) to have a crude dependence on the electronegativity of the substituted element. Therefore the relative values for this shielding, from one compound to the next, may reflect the abilities of these elements to transmit the inductive effect of the phenyl group.

When the phenyl substituted hydrides are deprotonated, there is an upfield shift of the resonance of the remaining proton of 1-2 ppm because of the increased shielding introduced by the negative charge. It is of interest to note that the magnitude of this shift increases as group 5B is descended. This may reflect either the differences in electronegativities of these elements or the varying tendencies of the anions to form ion pairs with the cation Na^+ . Perhaps more important however are the relative abilities of the group 5B elements to participate in a $\text{p}\pi\text{-p}\pi$ interaction with the π -system of the phenyl-ring thus allowing resonance delocalization of the negative charge of the anions. Unfortunately a comparison with the analogous shift upon deprotonation of phenylgermane (Birchall, 1970) is rendered of doubtful significance because of the use of different solvents in this earlier study.

(b) Ring Protons

The conclusion that delocalization of negative charge from germanium into the phenyl ring does not occur for $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeH}_2^-$ (Birchall, 1970) was based upon the fact that the ortho protons resonated to lower field strength of the benzene resonance whereas both the meta and the para protons resonated at higher field strength thus indicating that the dominant effect was the polarization of the phenyl ring caused by the anionic charge being localized on germanium.

The ^1H chemical shift trends for the series of compounds shown in Figure 3.5, as well as those for the ^{13}C resonances (see below), essentially confirm this conclusion but the reasons for it perhaps need clarification. It is apparent that there are large contributions to the proton shifts which are not directly related to the charge densities at the sites in question.

The chemical shift of the ortho proton in particular is influenced by a variety of competing factors: inductive, resonance, magnetic anisotropy and electric field effects as well as dispersion forces and steric effects as a result of the proximity of bulky substituents. Most of these effects will be much smaller for the meta proton while resonance is usually the dominant effect for the para proton.

As has been mentioned, only the para- ^1H chemical shift shows, in general, a good correlation with the analogous ^{13}C chemical shift (Stothers, 1972). Two such correlations, -- one for the data in the present study and another for literature data for some common monosubstituted benzenes (Hayamizu, 1968; Stothers, 1972) -- are shown in Figure 3.6. The fact that these correlations are not greatly divergent suggests that for the anions, as well as for the neutral species, the para- ^1H substituent chemical shift is an indicator of the electron density at the para-carbon atom. The relatively small displacement of the data in the present study from the correlation of the literature data can be

S PARA-¹³C
(PPM)

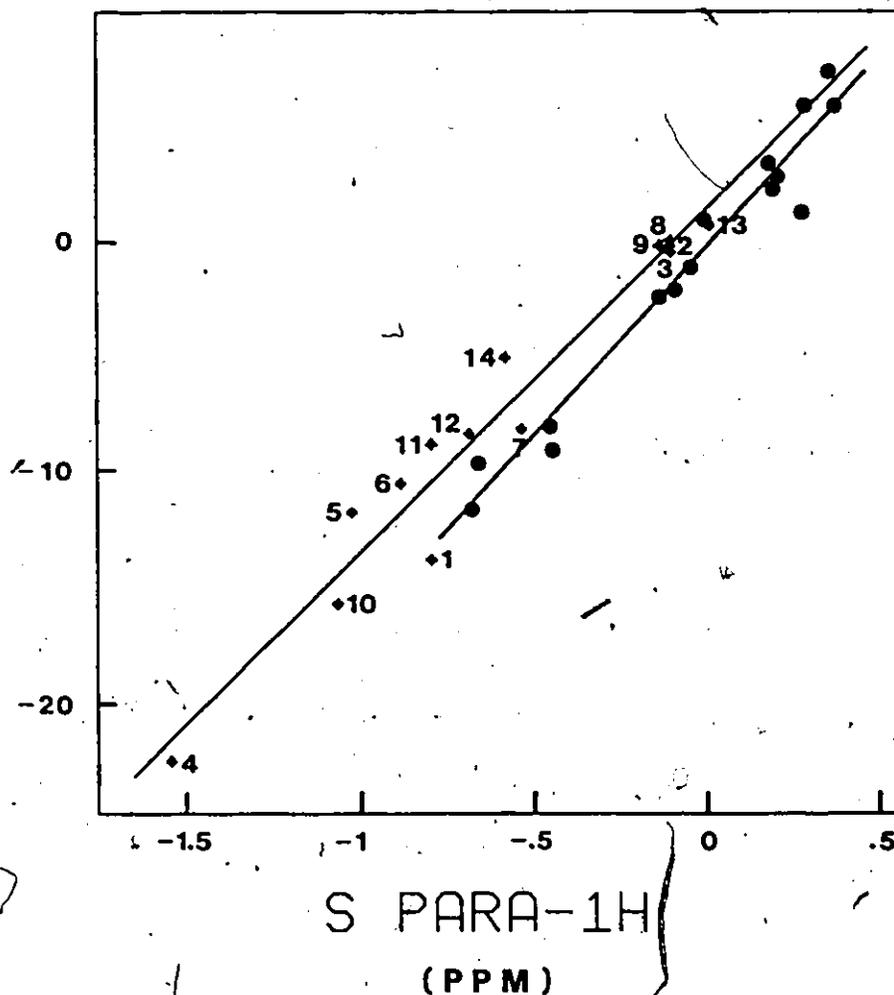


Figure 3.6: Plot of the para-¹³C substituent chemical shift versus para-¹H substituent chemical shift; the numbered points refer to the compounds listed in Table 3.1; the solid circles represent literature data for some common monosubstituted benzenes (Hayamizu, 1968; Stothers, 1972); the upper line represents the best linear fit to the numbered data (slope = 14.888, intercept = 1.434, $r = 0.9756$); the lower line represents the best linear fit to the literature data (slope = 16.497, intercept = 0.217, $r = 0.9798$); linear regression analysis of all points gives: slope = 14.316, intercept = 0.374, $r = 0.9740$.

attributed in part to the use of polar solvents (THF for compounds 1-12, NH_3 for compound 14) whereas the literature data correspond in general to CCl_4 solutions. This will have a more marked effect on the ^1H data than on the ^{13}C data.

To a first approximation the SCS of the para protons might be considered to depend predominantly upon the change in π -electron density at the para carbon as a result of resonance with the substituent. Using this approximation it can be seen that the phenylarside anion exhibits greater delocalization of negative charge to the para carbon atom than does the anion of phenylgermane. The fact that a more polar solvent, NH_3 , was used for the latter case only serves to enhance this conclusion. The extent of resonance delocalization in the anions appears to increase further on going from As to P to N as would be expected based upon the degree of overlap possible between the $2p(\pi)$ orbital of C, and the $4p$, $3p$ or $2p$ orbitals of the group 5B elements, respectively. It is also apparent that for the neutral hydrides only the nitrogen containing compounds display a significant resonance effect. (See Figure 3.5)

The relatively large substituent chemical shifts of the meta protons in the anions suggest that the polar effects of the anionic substituents are, as previously concluded (Birchall 1970), contributing to the observed proton chemical shifts as are, also, the ring current effects. Therefore a better estimate of the actual resonance effect of the

substituent may be more truly reflected by the relative chemical shift of the para and meta protons. The so-called 'inductive' substituent effect is usually considered to be of nearly equal magnitude at both the meta and para positions and calculations confirm this (Vorpagel, 1981). It may also be noted that in the dual substituent parameter equations (3.7) and (3.10) the coefficients of σ_I are of comparable magnitude.

The trend in the chemical shift difference ($\delta_{1H_{para}} - \delta_{1H_{meta}}$) for the series of compounds listed in Table 3.1 is essentially the same as the trend for $\delta_{1H_{para}}$ alone therefore the same conclusions can be reached using this 'correction' to the para proton chemical shift. Added information obtained is that despite the relatively large value for $\delta_{1H_{para}}$ for $C_6H_5GeH_2Na$ the actual resonance interaction in this anion is likely to be small considering the closely comparable substituent chemical shifts for the meta and para protons in this species.

The validity of the above 'correction' to $\delta_{1H_{para}}$ is brought into question, however, when it is observed that, unlike the para- 1H chemical shifts, the meta 1H chemical shifts show no correlation with the analogous ^{13}C chemical shifts (Figure 3.7). This is due, in part, to the fact that the proton chemical shifts include a significant contribution from changes in the magnetic anisotropy associated with the

'ring current' which may be disrupted by substituents which interact strongly with the π -system of the ring. If the nitrogen substituted compounds are excluded, a crude correlation exists which shows that for the other anionic species the effect of the substituent's polarity dominates the ^1H meta SCS. In general however, chemical shifts of meta- ^1H have not been found to correlate well with either calculated electron densities or empirical substituent parameters unless corrections for the 'ring current' effect are made. (Ewing, 1978; Yamada 1970; Hehrè, 1976). Such corrections require independent measures of 'resonance' substituent parameters which are not available for most of the species considered here.

Although the ortho proton substituent chemical shifts of monosubstituted benzenes have not been found in general to correlate well with the analogous ^{13}C SCS (Nelson, 1976), the data collected in this study appear to show a rough correlation, Figure 3.8 ($r=0.896$; $n=14$). In particular, the correlation is considerably improved when only the monophenyl derivatives are considered ($r=0.987$; $n=8$). This apparently reasonable correlation is no doubt heavily weighted by the fact that there is a large separation between the data points for the nitrogen containing derivatives and the other data points. When the points for aniline and sodium anilide are excluded the correlation is somewhat worse ($r=0.936$; $n=6$). This correlation is perhaps coincidental, but it is of

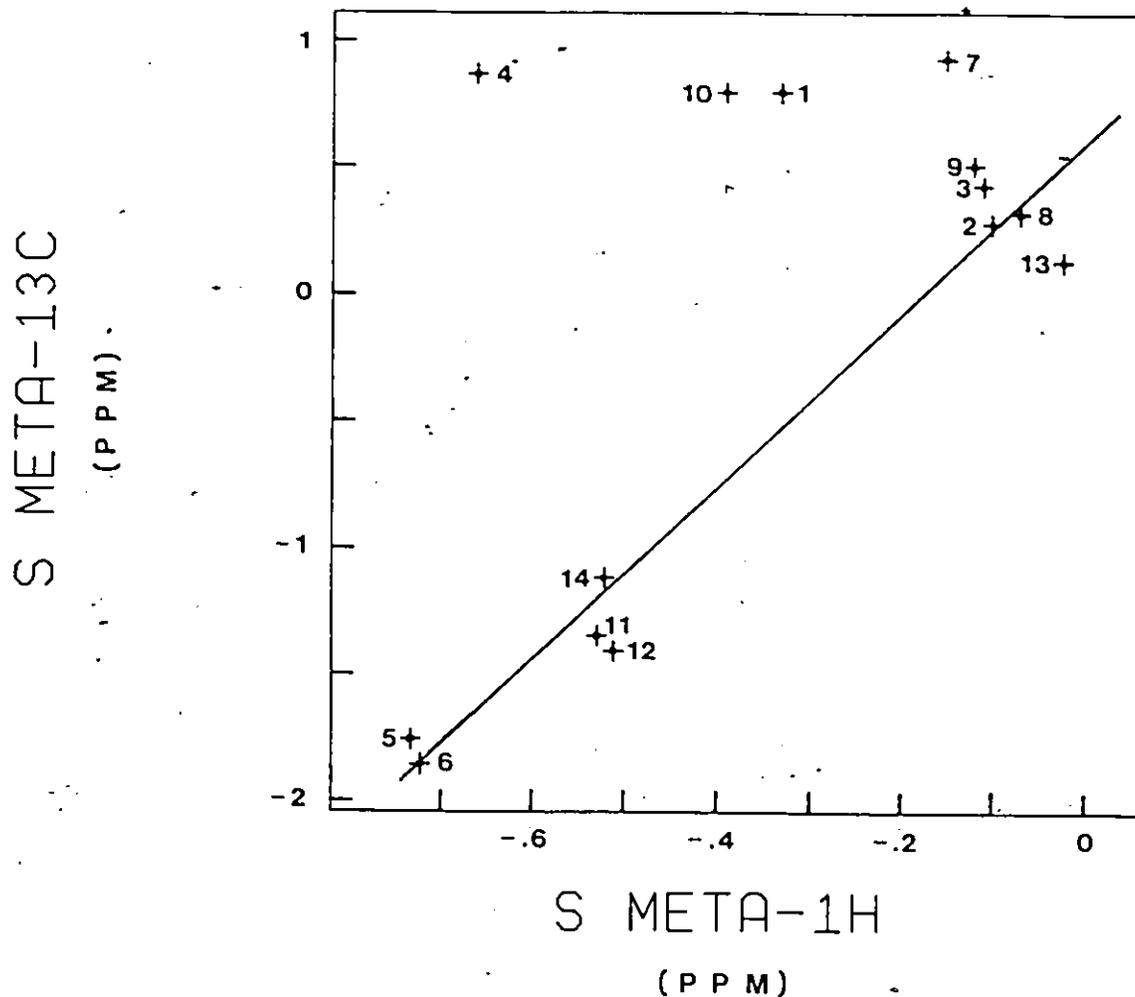


Figure 3.7: Plot of the meta-¹³C substituent chemical shifts versus the meta-¹H substituent chemical shifts for the series of compounds listed in Table 3.1. The line represents the best straight line fit to the data excluding the nitrogen containing compounds -- points 1, 4, 7 and 10; $n = 10$, $r = 0.976$.

interest to note that the relative order of $C_6H_5GeH_3$ to $C_6H_5GeH_2Na$ in terms of both 1H and ^{13}C data is reversed from the orders observed for the neutral species and anions of the group 5B compounds.

Although there is considerable uncertainty as to the exact significance of the 1H substituent chemical shifts it is apparent that there is a considerable change in the nature of the π -interaction between ring and substituent for the phenylgermyl anion and those of the group 5B compounds. This difference is most easily rationalized in terms of the differences in resonance delocalization in these compounds. Consideration of the ^{13}C data for these compounds will give more conclusive evidence for this.

C. ^{13}C NMR

Substituent chemical shifts of carbon-13 nuclei occur over a much wider range than do the analogous 1H -SCS. This is attributed to the fact that ^{13}C -SCS result mainly from changes in the larger paramagnetic term in Ramsey's equation for local electronic shielding (Nelson, 1976). A consequence of this large range of SCS is that the effects of magnetic anisotropies are relatively unimportant and therefore ^{13}C SCS may be more readily related to changes in the local electronic environment of the nucleus in question. ^{13}C NMR spectra, which are usually recorded with 1H broadband decoupling, more easily yield exact chemical shifts than do

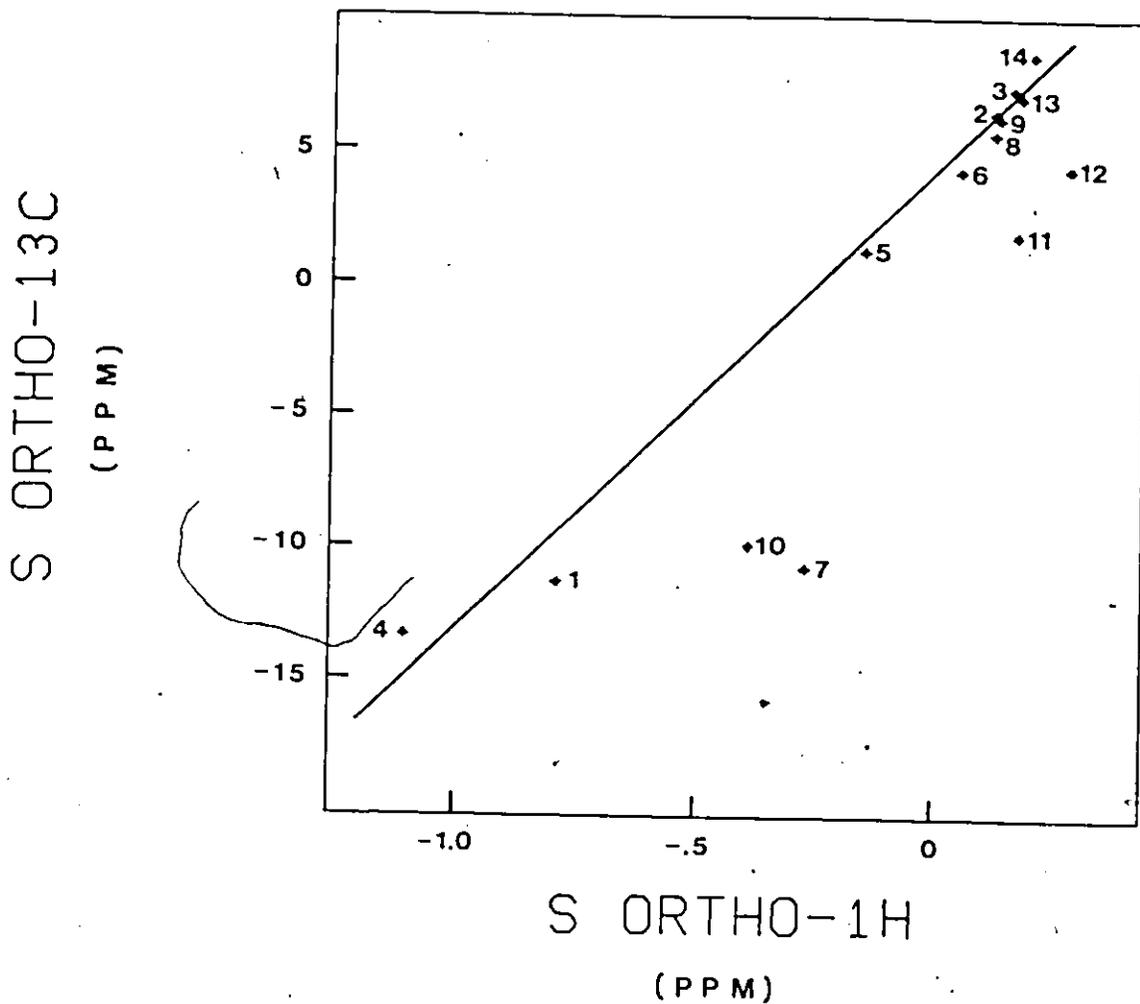


Figure 3.8: Plot of ortho-¹³C substituent chemical shift versus ortho-¹H substituent chemical shift for the compounds listed in Table 3.1. The straight line represents the best linear fit to the data for the monophenyl-compounds only (i.e. excluding points 7-12).

^1H spectra since the low natural abundance of ^{13}C (1.108%) eliminates the complicating factor of homonuclear spin-spin coupling. The paramagnetic term for local shielding, however, is not as readily related to local electron density as is the diamagnetic term.

(i) Monosubstituted Benzenes

In general ^{13}C chemical shifts do not correlate well with either calculated electron densities or to experimental parameters which are related to electron densities (Nelson, 1976). However for ^{13}C nuclei which belong to a series having closely similar environments such correlations may be observed. Karplus and Pople (1963) have presented a theoretical rationale for such observations in series of sp^2 hybridized carbon atoms in conjugated molecules. Consideration of their approximate expression for $\sigma_p^{13\text{C}}$ (3.3) will demonstrate how this rationale may be applied to the individual carbon nuclei in monosubstituted benzenes. Ewing (1979) has summarized the current understanding of ^{13}C SCS in monosubstituted benzenes and has presented a nearly comprehensive list of published chemical shifts for such systems.

(a) Ipsso Carbon

The carbon atom which is directly bonded to the variable substituent shows the largest range of substituent chemical shifts. These shifts do not correlate well with

charge density although certainly the charge density is a major contributing factor, influencing σ_p^{loc} via the $\langle r^{-3} \rangle_{2p}$ term. It has been suggested that significant contribution to ipso ^{13}C -SCS may arise from local changes in the average excitation energy term in equation 3.3 (Lynch, 1977). Changes in $\sum_B Q_{AB}$ are also likely to have an effect as a result of varying C-X bond orders. Contribution by all of these factors complicate the interpretation of the ipso ^{13}C SCS.

It has been shown that after making an empirical correction for what was loosely termed 'magnetic anisotropy' the ipso ^{13}C chemical shift showed a linear correlation with the electronegativity of the substituent atom for neutral monosubstituted benzenes (Spiesecke, 1961). Both ipso and ortho ^{13}C SCS show considerable dependence on the semi-empirical parameter Q (Hruska, 1965) discussed earlier with regard to ortho ^1H SCS. Triple parameter correlations involving σ , resonance and field substituent parameters have also been formulated (Smith, 1972). The significance of these correlations is uncertain although Q may be related to either the ΔE^{-1} term in the expression for σ_p^{loc} or to an alternating through bond inductive effect. (Ewing; 1978)

(b) Ortho Carbon

Ortho ^{13}C substituent chemical shifts cover a smaller range than the ipso ^{13}C SCS. The absence of good single correlations of $S_{^{13}\text{C}_{ortho}}$ with charge density or substituent parameters again suggests that contributions to the ΔE^{-1} and

$\sum_A Q_{AB}$ terms in the expression for σ_p^{loc} are significant although presumably less so than for $S_{13C_{ipso}}$. This is exemplified by the smaller magnitude of the coefficient of Q in the triple parameter correlation for $S_{13C_{ortho}}$ with field, resonance and Q parameters (Smith, 1972) than for the analogous correlation of $S_{13C_{ipso}}$. The suggestion that the inclusion of the Q parameter represents an alternating through-bond inductive effect arises from the observation that $S_{13C_{ortho}}$ has a reversed dependence on Q than either $S_{13C_{ipso}}$ or $S_{1H_{ortho}}$ (Ewing, 1978). The magnitude of contributions to σ_p^{loc} as a result of close non-bonded contacts between the ortho C-H group and the variable substituent is undetermined but may be considerable. The observed substituent chemical shifts are apparently a result of these competing influences and thus there is no simple interpretation for these values. Isolated comparisons of relative SCS may, with caution, be attributed to one effect or another.

(c) Meta Carbon

The chemical shifts of the meta ^{13}C resonances of monosubstituted benzenes always occur within a few ppm of that of benzene. This is consistent with the expectation that variations in the charge density at this position as a

result of the substituents' resonance effects will be minimal. The approximation that ΔE^{-1} is invariant is reasonable for meta carbon. Similarly changes in the electron imbalance term are likely to be small in most cases (Karplus, 1963), but given the small total range of $S_{13C_{meta}}$, this term may still be an important factor. This might account for the apparent lack of correlations of this parameter with either calculated charge densities or with substituent σ -parameters. This lack of correlations may also be because of inherent weaknesses in the charge density calculations and in the uncertainties associated with empirical substituent parameters. Changes in charge density at the meta carbon arise mainly from the overall polarization of the π -system. Consideration of the meta ^{13}C SCS for the anions studied in this work as well as for other anionic and cationic species from the literature (Ewing, 1979), confirm that there is a major dependence of this parameter on the intrinsic polarization of the π -system of the given monosubstituted benzene.

(d) Para Carbon

Para carbon substituent chemical shifts occur over a wide range (~60ppm). As for the meta carbon changes in the ΔE^{-1} term of σ_p^{10c} are expected to be negligible. Similarly contributions to the electron imbalance term will be small in comparison to the effect of changes in π -electron density (Karplus, 1963). There is considerable experimental support

for a direct relationship between the para carbon chemical shift and the charge density at this carbon atom as evidenced by numerous correlations of $S_{13C_{para}}$ with Hammett σ -values, calculated charge densities as well as $^1H_{para}$ and $^{19}F_{para}$ chemical shifts (Ewing, 1979). It is apparent that the dominant effect is the change in the π -electron density and that the variations that result are mainly from resonance with the substituent on the ring. Therefore $S_{13C_{para}}$ is frequently taken to be a measure of the substituent's resonance effect.

A further refinement may be considered in an attempt to separate the resonance contribution to this chemical shift from the generally smaller field effects. Maciel and Natterstad (1965) observed a small improvement in the correlations of $(\delta_{13C_{para}} - \delta_{13C_{meta}})$ with Taft's σ_R or σ_R^o constants as compared to correlations involving $S_{13C_{para}}$ alone. Their assumption was that field, and any other small effects, should be of comparable magnitude at the meta and para positions. It was concluded that the difference between the meta ^{13}C and para ^{13}C chemical shifts was a better indication of the change in π -electron density at the para position resulting from resonance with the substituent. More recent studies involving substituents known to have effectively no resonance effect but considerable polarity (Ewing, and Toyne, 1979) have shown that the resultant SCS for the para carbon is approximately twice that for the meta

carbon. This is consistent with an overall polarization of the phenyl π -system as the dominant mechanism for transmitting the field effect of the polar substituent to the atoms in the ring. The 'correction', $S_{13C_{para}} - 2S_{13C_{meta}}$, may therefore be a truer estimate of the substituent's resonance effect especially for highly polar substituents which possess only limited ability to conjugate with the ring. In general, regardless of whether $S_{13C_{para}}$, $\delta_{13C_{para}} - \delta_{13C_{meta}}$, or $S_{13C_{para}} - 2S_{13C_{meta}}$ are considered the conclusions regarding the extent of electron delocalization to, or from, the phenyl ring are essentially the same because the values of $S_{13C_{meta}}$ are so small. There are perhaps two practical advantages to the simple difference $\delta_{13C_{para}} - \delta_{13C_{meta}}$: (i) it serves as a kind of internal reference when comparing literature data and (ii) semantically it serves as a reminder that in some cases the field contribution to the para chemical shift may be significant.

(ii) Results

(a) Phenylhydrides of Group 5B and their Anions

The same series of compounds (~1M solutions in THF) as were examined by 1H NMR were also analysed by ^{13}C NMR. The chemical shifts are listed in Table 3.2 and are shown schematically relative to that of benzene in Figure 3.9. Similar data for the lithium salts of the phenyl- and diphenyl-nitrogen and phosphorus compounds have been

recently published (Berestova, 1982) which are consistent with the results reported here. ^{13}C - ^{31}P coupling constants will be discussed in the section on ^{31}P NMR.

A sample spectrum is shown in Figure 3.10. Because of their relative intensities, it was comparatively easy to assign the resonances of the ipso and para carbon atoms. Assignment of the ortho and meta carbon resonances was made on the basis of observed trends of these values from literature data (Ewing, 1979) -- mainly upon the fact that the resonance of the meta carbon is generally within a few ppm of that of benzene. In a few cases additional confirmation of the assignments was made by selective proton decoupling experiments. An example of such an experiment is shown in Figure 3.11 for $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHNa}$. Similar experiments were carried out for $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{AsH}_2$ and $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{AsNa}$.

In the case of phenylphosphine the ipso carbon resonance was obscured by the resonances of the meta and para carbon atoms. An ^1H -coupled spectrum was recorded so that when the meta and para resonances were further split by the one-bond ^1H - ^{13}C coupling the ipso carbon resonance was revealed. An off-resonance experiment (Levy, 1980) was also performed to reduce the long-range ^{13}C - ^1H coupling constants and thus reveal the splitting caused by the one-bond ^{31}P - ^{13}C coupling (Figure 3.12). The resonances in this spectrum are still somewhat broadened because of residual long range coupling however further increase in decoupling power would

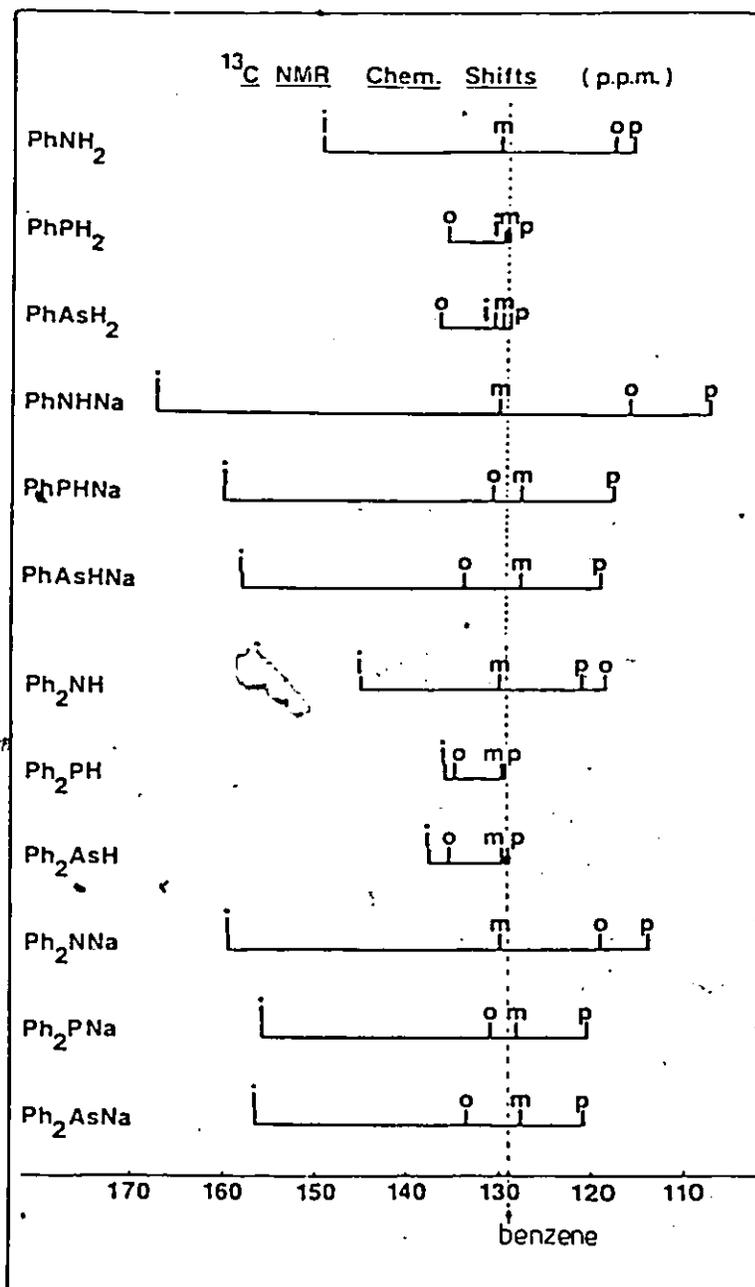


Figure 3.9: Schematic diagram of phenyl- ^{13}C chemical shift of group 5B phenylhydrides and anions; i = ipso; other abbreviations as for Figure 3.5.

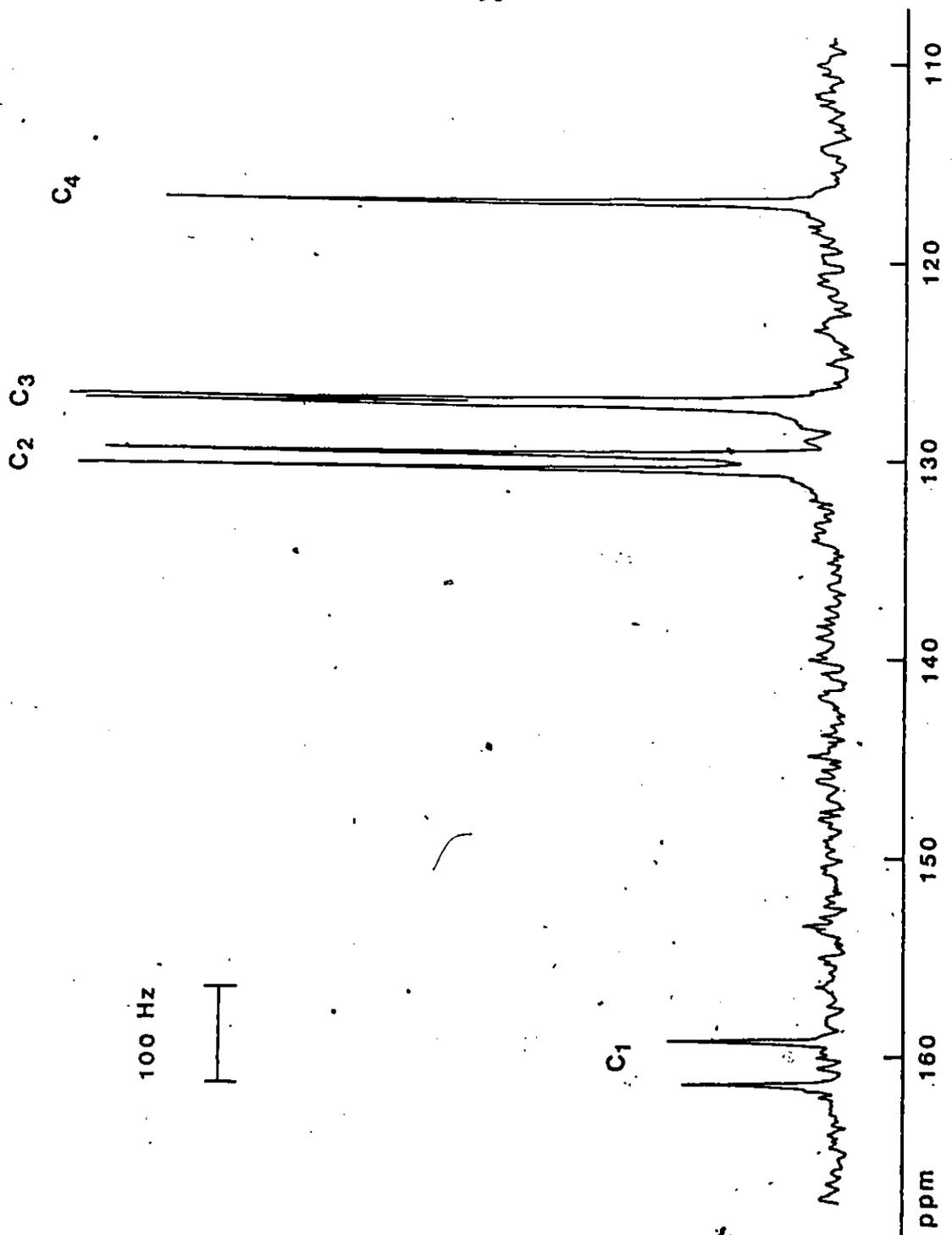


Figure 3.10: 80 MHz ^{13}C NMR spectrum of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$, 0.61 M in THF; ^1H -broadband decoupled.

Table 3.2:

¹³C Chemical Shifts^a (p.p.m.) of Group 5B Phenylhydrides and Anions

		δ_{C1} (ipso)	δ_{C2} (ortho)	δ_{C3} (meta)	δ_{C4} (para)
1.	$C_6H_5NH_2$	149.22	117.55	129.71	115.21
2.	$C_6H_5PH_2$	129.16	135.45	129.19	128.80
3.	$C_6H_5AsH_2$	130.20	136.36	129.34	128.54
4.	C_6H_5NHNa	167.16	115.54	129.78	106.50
5.	C_6H_5PHNa	159.98	130.18	127.15	117.28
6.	C_6H_5AsHNa	157.70	133.22	127.05	118.53
7.	$(C_6H_5)_2NH$	144.93	118.13	129.84	120.87
8.	$(C_6H_5)_2PH$	135.85	134.64	129.23	129.05
9.	$(C_6H_5)_2AsH$	137.46	135.26	129.42	128.83
10.	$(C_6H_5)_2NNa$	159.49	118.98	129.71	113.33
11.	$(C_6H_5)_2PNa$	155.45	130.81	127.79	120.21
12.	$(C_6H_5)_2AsNa$	156.37	133.35	127.50	120.68

(a) Chemical shifts ($\pm .04$ p.p.m.) are relative to neat external TMS; all solutions are approximately 1M in THF; the benzene resonance occurs at 128.91 p.p.m.

result in the ipso resonance again being obscured. Phenylphosphine presented a further problem regarding chemical shift assignments in that the resonances attributed to the meta and para carbon atoms occur as three nearly equally-spaced equal-intensity peaks in the broadband decoupled spectrum -- the meta resonance being split by the three-bond ^{31}P - ^{13}C coupling. It was not immediately obvious how these three lines should be assigned. However, since typical three-bond ^{31}P - ^{13}C couplings for ^{31}P substituted benzenes are 6-7 Hz and the meta carbon resonances are usually close to 129 ppm the assignment was chosen which most closely agrees with these values (Table 3.2). This assignment was later confirmed by a ^{13}C spectrum of phenylphosphine recorded at higher frequency (100.6 MHz) and field strength, and is in agreement with a recent literature assignment (Parr, 1978).

The effect of the choice of solvent upon the ^{13}C substituent chemical shifts may be noted by comparison of the values for aniline in CCl_4 (5%) (Spiesecke, 1961) with those obtained here for aniline in THF (~ 1M). The former values (ppm; relative to benzene) are: $S_{c_1} = 19.2$; $S_{c_2} = -12.4$; $S_{c_3} = 1.3$; $S_{c_4} = -9.5$; compared to $S_{c_1} = 20.2$; $S_{c_2} = -11.5$; $S_{c_3} = 0.71$; $S_{c_4} = -13.8$ for the THF solution. In THF the para carbon resonance is shifted to higher field strength from that of the ortho carbon. This shift is analogous to that observed for the para proton resonance for aniline in the same pair of solvents, and is in agreement with the

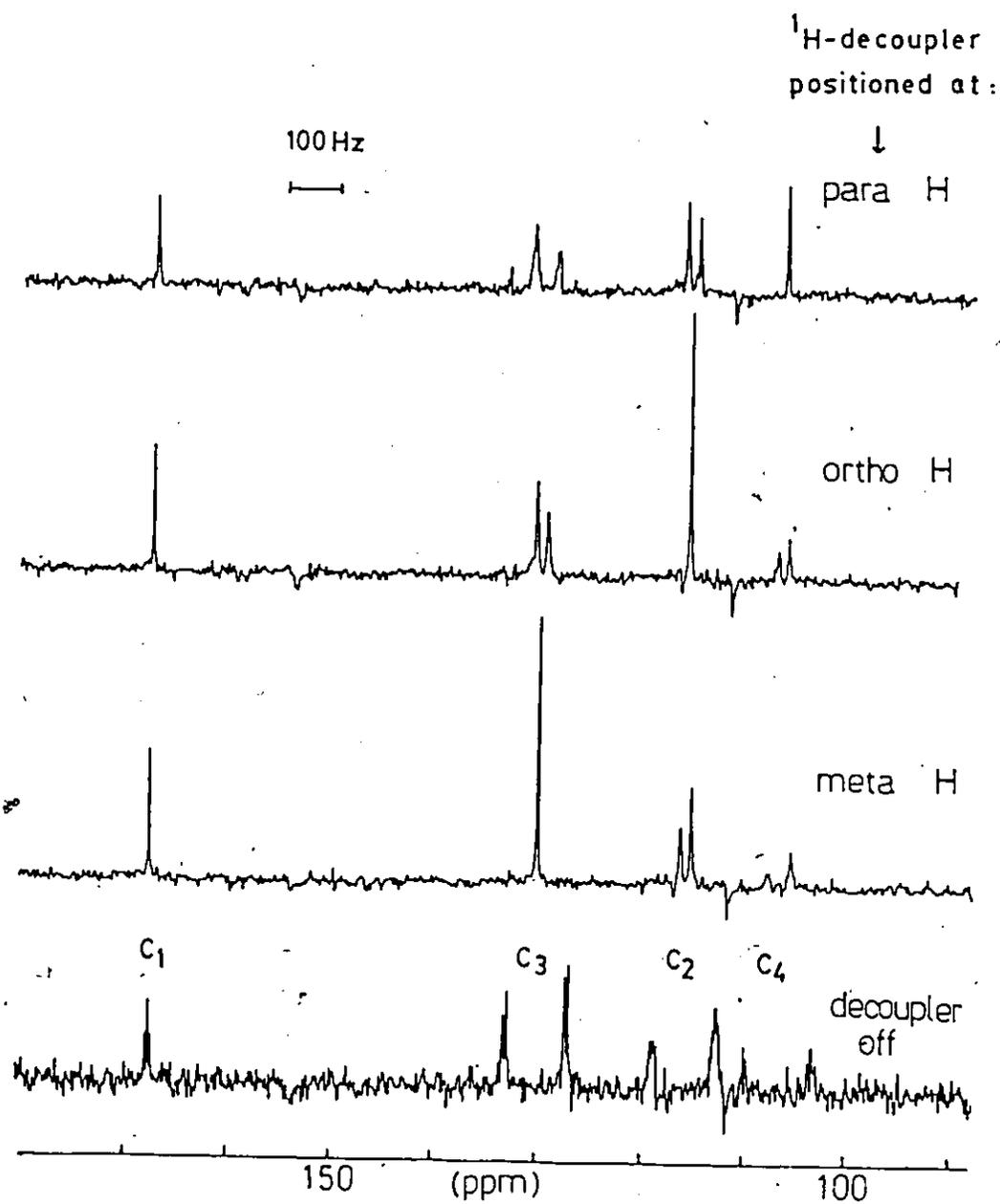


Figure 3.11: ^{13}C NMR spectra of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHNa}$ in THF demonstrating selective ^1H -decoupling -- to confirm assignments of ^{13}C resonances.

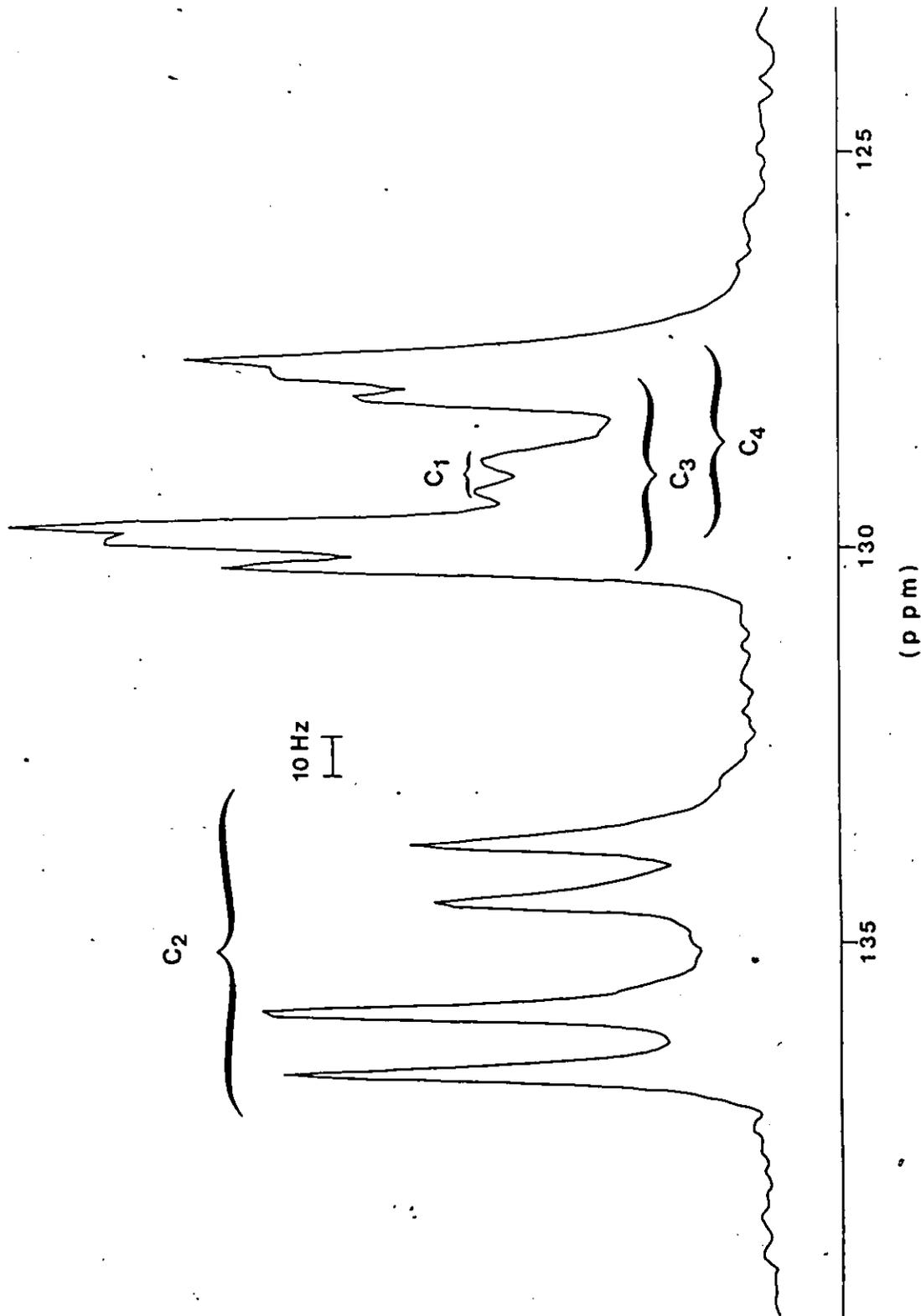
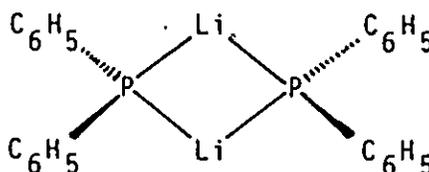


Figure 3.12: ^{13}C NMR Spectrum of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$ with off-resonance decoupling of the ^1H region.

suggestion that the change of solvent actually affects the electron distribution in the phenyl ring, probably via interactions such as hydrogen-bonding between the solvent and the -NH_2 protons. Such effects are likely to be less significant for the phenyl hydrides of phosphorus and arsenic. For instance it is found that there is not a significant difference between the ^{13}C chemical shifts of phenylarsine in THF solution (Table 3.2) and those of neat phenylarsine: $\delta_{\text{C}_1} = 130.73$; $\delta_{\text{C}_2} = 136.65$; $\delta_{\text{C}_3} = 129.49$; $\delta_{\text{C}_4} = 128.68$ (ppm; relative to external neat TMS).

A change of solvent for the anions will have a more important effect. For example, the chemical shift of the para carbon resonance of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PNa}$ shifts from 117.28 ppm in THF solution to 114.13 ppm (relative to external TMS) when measured in NH_3 solvent. This indicates an increase in electron density at the para position in the latter solvent. Presumably this arises because of a greater degree of solvent separation of ion pairs in the more polar NH_3 solvent. As well as equilibria involving solvation of ion pairs there is the possibility of self-association of the ion pairs. An example of this is that, for $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PLi}$ in diethylether solution, ^7Li and ^{31}P NMR (Colquhoun, 1982) reveal that this species adopts a dimeric structure. Variation of the



concentration of C_6H_5PHNa in THF, however, causes only minor changes in its ^{13}C chemical shifts (Figure 3.13), the largest observed change being -1.6 ppm for the ipso carbon resonance as the concentration was changed from 0.28M to 2.22M. An analogous but larger ^{31}P chemical shift dependence on concentration is also observed.

(b) Arylgermanes and their Anions

For the purpose of comparison several arylgermanes and their respective monosodium salts were also investigated by ^{13}C NMR. Table 3.3 presents the chemical shifts of these species and of phenyl- and diphenylsilanes along with some literature data for phenyl-silanes and $(C_6H_5)_3SiLi$. Figure 3.14 displays the ^{13}C substituent chemical shifts of the germanium species studied relative to benzene.

Ideally it is desirable to compare chemical shifts obtained from dilute solutions in a common solvent. These conditions could not be realized however, because the germyl anions require a solvent of considerable polarity, namely NH_3 , to yield stable solutions, whereas the neutral germanes do not have appreciable solubility in ammonia. Therefore when making comparisons of the ^{13}C NMR data for the germyl anions with other species studied in this work the relative effects of the different solvents must be considered. The diamagnetic correction between various solvents is not significant in comparison to the magnitudes of the ^{13}C

DELTA 13C

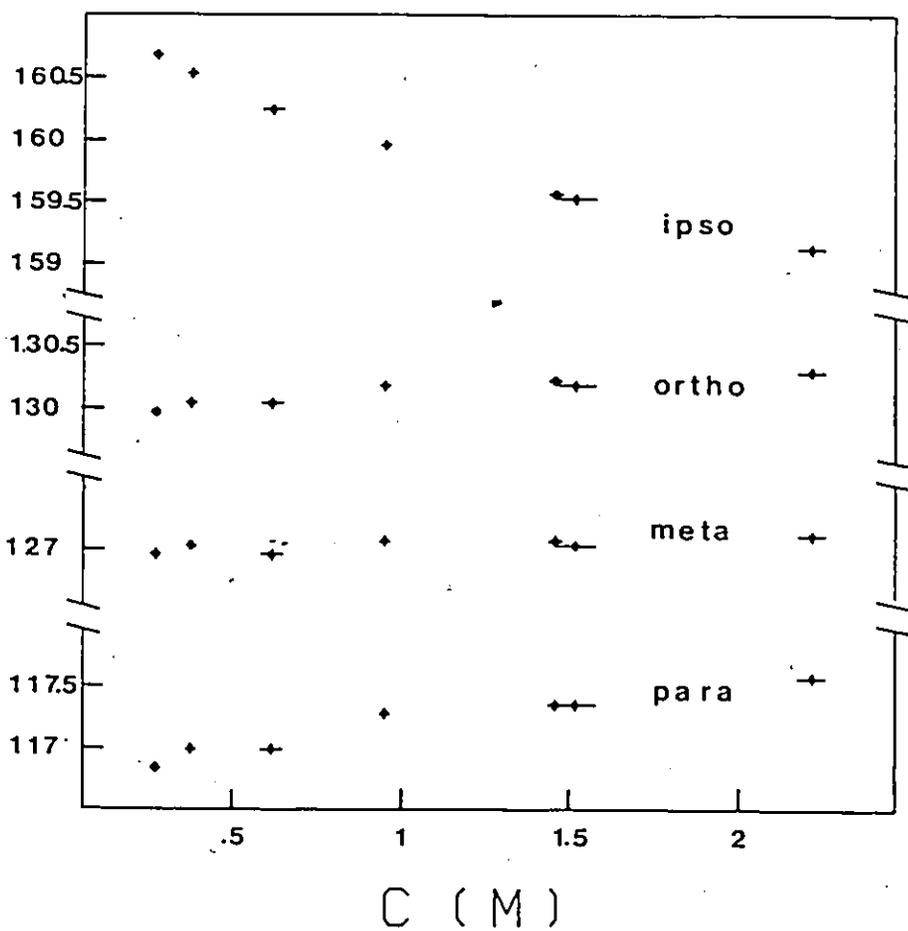


Figure 3.13: Chemical shifts of the carbon-13 atoms of C_6H_5PHNa (ppm; relative to external neat TMS) as a function of concentration (M; in THF).

substituent chemical shifts. Solute-solvent interactions appear to be relatively unimportant for the neutral germanes and silanes because of their non-polar character.

Of most importance is the effect of the different solvents on the chemical shifts of the anions. The questions of solvation or association of ion pairs, already discussed for the group 5B compounds again arises. For example, the differences in the ^{13}C chemical shifts for triphenylsilyl lithium in THF and triphenylgermyl sodium in liquid ammonia most likely reflect the differences in solvation of the salts. The species studied in liquid ammonia will have a higher proportion of solvent separated ion pairs whereas the species dissolved in the less polar THF will be more highly associated. As a result the species dissolved in NH_3 will exhibit more ionic character and the ^{13}C NMR spectra reveal larger substituent chemical shifts as a result of enhanced resonance and polarization effects. The different counterions, Li^+ or Na^+ will most likely also influence the ion-pairing equilibria in solution. Presumably with the same counterion and the same solvent the NMR parameters of $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{Ge}^-$ and $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{Si}^-$ would more closely resemble one another.

Table 3.3

¹³C Chemical Shifts (ppm) of Silanes, Germanes and Their Anions.^a

	δ_{C_1} (ipso)	δ_{C_2} (ortho)	δ_{C_3} (meta)	δ_{C_4} (para)	δ_{me}
$C_6H_5SiH_3$ ^b	128.39	136.51	128.83	130.58	
$C_6H_5SiH_3$ ^c	127.97	135.83	128.10	129.78	
$(C_6H_5)_2SiH_2$ ^d	131.90	136.29	128.68	130.36	
$(C_6H_5)_2SiH_2$ ^c	131.41	135.63	128.08	129.82	
$(C_6H_5)_3SiH$ ^e	133.7	136.1	128.4	130.1	
$(C_6H_5)_3SiH$ ^c	133.30	135.78	128.03	129.78	
$(C_6H_5)_4Si$ ^f	134.17	136.44	127.90	129.61	
$(C_6H_5)_3SiLi$ ^g	145.0	136.1	127.5	128.4	
$C_6H_5GeH_3$ ^b	131.60	136.06	129.04	129.70	
$(C_6H_5)_2GeH_2$ ^b	134.65	135.84	129.11	129.83	
$(C_6H_5)_3GeH$ ^b	136.36	135.78	129.05	129.82	
$(C_6H_5)_4Ge$ ^h	141.5	136.3	128.2	129.0	
$(p-CH_3C_6H_4)_3GeH$ ^b	133.06	135.69	129.70	139.95	21.35
$C_6H_5GeH_2Na$ ⁱ	163.28	139.61	127.69	124.11	
$(C_6H_5)_2GeHNa$ ⁱ	164.39	137.79	126.85	123.49	
$(C_6H_5)_3GeNa$ ⁱ	165.31	137.31	126.93	123.85	
$(p-CH_3-C_6H_4)_3GeNa$ ⁱ	161.29	137.30	127.65	132.33	21.20

Footnotes for Table 3.3

- a Unless indicated otherwise solutions are approximately 1M; chemical shifts are relative to neat $(\text{CH}_3)_4\text{Si}$, external; (± 0.06 ppm).
- b Solutions in tetrahydrofuran; benzene resonance occurs at 128.91 ppm.
- c Rakita (1976); 20-40% in CDCl_3 ; CHCl_3 internal reference assigned 77.20 ppm.
- d Neat liquid.
- e Olah (1980); tetrahydrofuran solution; relative to internal $(\text{CH}_3)_4\text{Si}$.
- f Rakita (1976); 2% in CDCl_3 ; referenced as for b.
- g Olah (1980); tetrahydrofuran solution; secondary reference solvent tetrahydrofuran, peaks assigned 26.2 and 78.0 ppm.
- h Saturated solution in CDCl_3 ; secondary reference, CDCl_3 assigned 76.9 ppm.
- i Solutions in NH_3 ; benzene resonance occurs at 129.04 ppm.

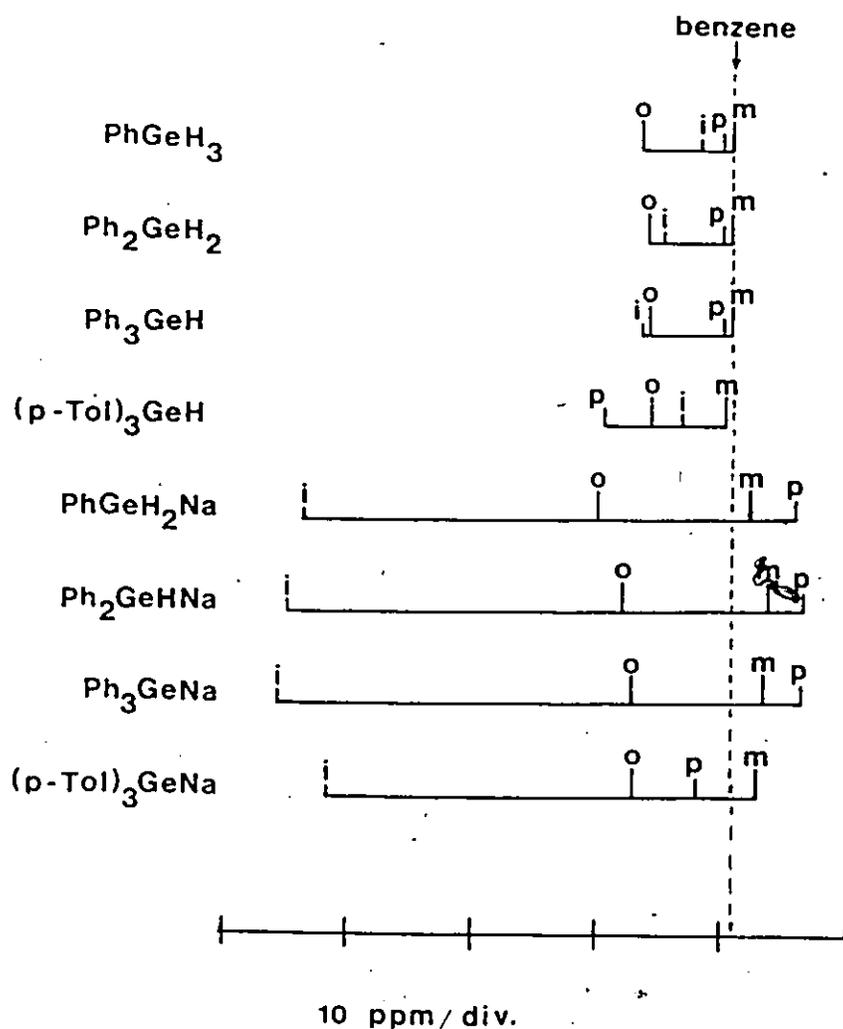


Figure 3.14: Schematic diagram showing the ^{13}C substituent chemical shifts of the ring carbon atom resonances for arylgermanes and their monoanions relative to that of benzene; p-Tol = para-tolyl group, $\text{p-CH}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ -; other symbols as for Figure 3.9.

(iii) Discussion

Consideration of the trends in the chemical shifts of the individual types of carbon atoms in these series of phenyl-substituted amines, phosphines, arsines, silanes and germanes and their anions will allow some general conclusions to be made regarding the nature of the electronic interactions between the aromatic ring and the main group element substituents.

(a) Ipsso Carbon

Although the substituent chemical shift of the ipso carbon atom is not simply related to the electron density at this position the electron density is still likely to be the major contributing influence. Trends in the ipso carbon SCS, in particular the large shifts observed for the anionic species, no doubt reflect relatively large changes in electron density at the ipso carbon atom. Corroborating evidence of this is found by considering the reasonable additivity of substituent chemical shifts for para-disubstituted benzenes (Lynch, 1977). It is apparent that substituents influence the chemical shifts of the carbon atom para to themselves through changes in the π -electron density at this carbon atom. For example the SCS of the para carbon resonance of toluene, $C_6H_5CH_3$, of -3 ppm (Levy, 1980) may be attributed to the increase in π -electron density at this carbon atom ($\Delta q = 0.021$; Pross, 1981) relative to benzene. However for a para

substituted toluene the proportionality between substituent chemical shift at the carbon atom para to the methyl group and the change in π -electron density induced at that position by the methyl group may be modulated by the influence of the second substituent on the terms ΔE^{-1} and $\sum_B Q_{AB}$ in the equation for σ_p^{loc} which are not proportional to electron density. The observation that para-methyl substitution of $(C_6H_5)_3GeH$ or $(C_6H_5)_3GeNa$ (see Table 3.3) results in shifts of the ipso carbon resonance (i.e. that C bonded to Ge) of -3.3 and -4.02 ppm respectively and that these values are of comparable magnitude to the analogous SCS for toluene (-3 ppm) suggests that modulation of the electron density contribution to the chemical shift of this carbon resonance is relatively small. Therefore to a first approximation large shifts of the ipso carbon resonance in such compounds will reflect a relatively large change in electron density at that carbon.

For the neutral phenyl-substituted silanes, germanes, phosphines and arsines the resonance of the ipso carbon is the only resonance which displays major variations in chemical shift upon change in degree of phenyl-substitution or main group element (Figures 3.9 and 3.14). In all these cases the ipso carbon resonance shifts to lower field strength upon increased phenyl-substitution (Fig 3.15). This may be attributed predominantly to the inductive electron withdrawing effect of each additional phenyl group. There

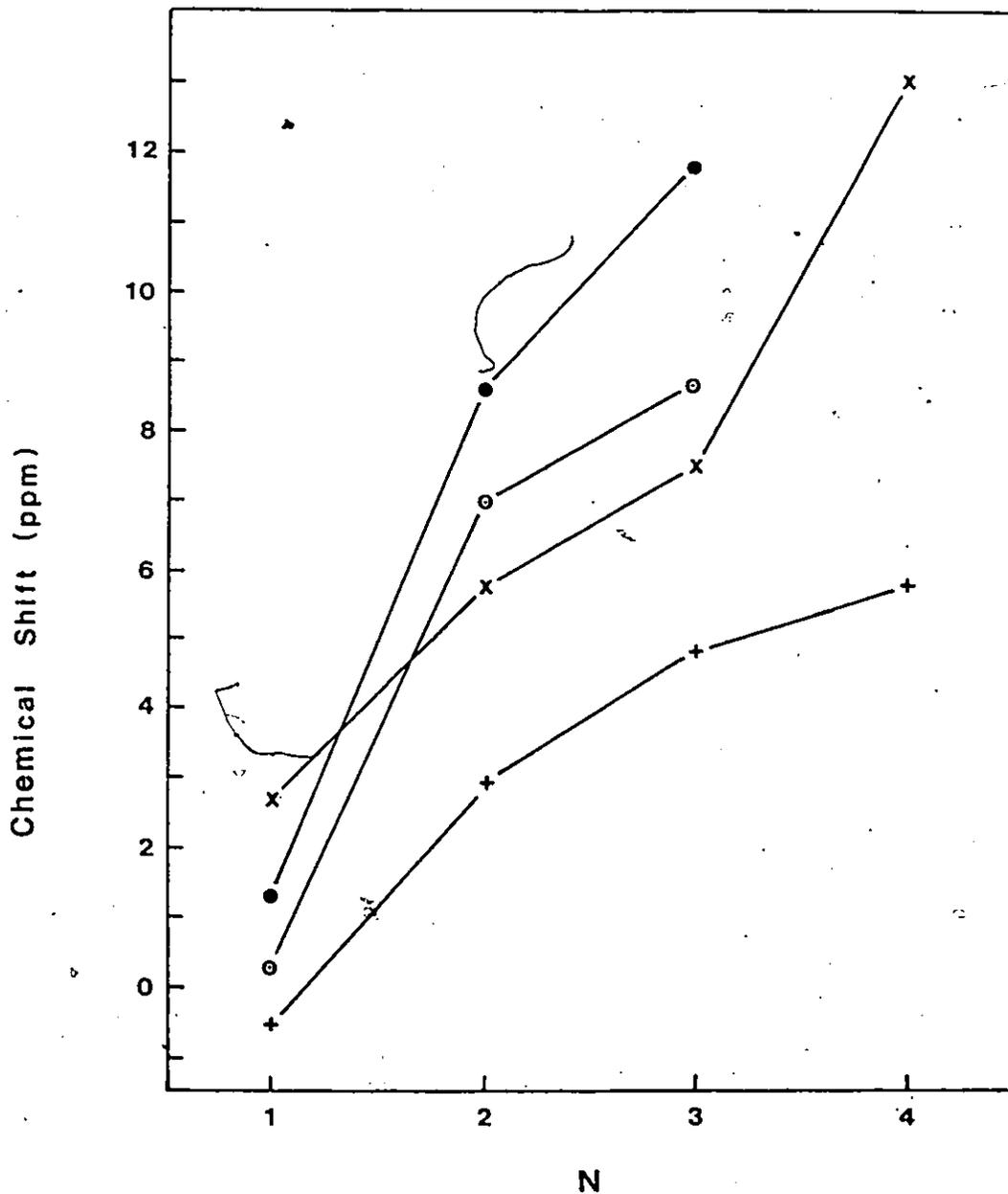


Figure 3.15: Graph of the substituent chemical shift of the ipso carbon atom resonance of phenyl substituted hydrides versus the degree of phenyl-substitution (N); o = phosphines, • = arsines, + = silanes, x = germanes.

may also be a small contribution from the magnetic anisotropy associated with the ring current of each additional phenyl group.

Unlike their phosphorus and arsenic analogues, aniline ($C_6H_5NH_2$) and diphenylamine ($(C_6H_5)_2NH$) display large low-field SCS for their ipso carbon resonances. This is a result of large $p\pi-p\pi$ interactions between filled nitrogen orbitals and the phenyl rings in these compounds. It has been shown that such interactions which frequently result in net electron transfer to the ring, also cause an alternating polarization (Libit, 1974) with net reduction in π -electron density at the ipso carbon. This is certainly the primary explanation for the observed shifts for the neutral nitrogen containing compounds.

Spiësecke and Schneider (1961) found that, after making an empirical correction for "substituent anisotropy", there was an apparent correlation between the chemical shift of the C_1 atom in a monosubstituted benzene and the substituent's electronegativity. The more electronegative substituents give rise to C_1 resonances at lower field strength. It is of interest to note that, for all of the compounds studied in the present work, deprotonation of the substituent resulted in large shifts to lower field strength for the ipso carbon resonance. These shifts are clearly in the opposite direction to those expected for a decrease in substituent electronegativity. Similar low field shifts,

have been observed for the ipso ^{13}C resonances of the phenoxide ion (Maciel, 1965), the benzenethiolate ion (Carson, 1981), the phenylmethyl carbanion (O'Brien, 1976), and triphenylsilyl anion (Olah, 1980). It appears that this is a general phenomenon for monosubstituted benzenes in which the substituent atom is the centre of anionic charge. Other literature data (Ewing, 1979) show that substituents which are cationic centres generally cause the opposite effect, namely a large high-field shift of the C_1 resonance. Such shifts may in some cases be attributed partly to the $p\pi-p\pi$ orbital effect described above. In addition, it is apparent that an electronic charge which is localized on the substituent atom causes a polarization of the π -system of the phenyl ring resulting in a gradual increase, or decrease depending upon the sign of the ionic charge (cf. $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NH}_3^+$; Pross, 1981), of the π -electron densities as the distance from the substituent increases. It is clear that for the ionic species such field effects predominate over the inductive effect of the substituent in determining the ipso ^{13}C substituent chemical shift.

The relative importance of this electric field effect compared to the $p\pi-p\pi$ orbital effect, which causes a parallel shift of the ipso ^{13}C resonance, is exemplified by the group 4B element phenyl hydrides and their mono-anions. The triphenylsilyl anion, $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{Si}^-$, (Olah, 1980) displays considerably less delocalization of negative charge into the

phenyl ring than does the analogous carbanion, $(C_6H_5)_3C^-$, as evidenced by the chemical shifts of their para-carbon resonances, yet the ipso carbon resonance of $(C_6H_5)_3Si^-$ displays a larger shift to low field strength relative to that of the neutral hydride $(C_6H_5)_3SiH$ than does that of $(C_6H_5)_3C^-$ relative to $(C_6H_5)_3CH$. Deprotonation of $(C_6H_5)_3GeH$, observed in the present study, results in an even larger shift of the ipso carbon resonance to lower field strength. This latter observation, however, may be attributed, in part, to the choice of solvent, NH_3 , as opposed to THF for the carbon and silicon analogues (Olah, 1980). The effect of the more polar solvent will enhance the field effects giving rise to these large shifts (see Figure 3.14 and Table 3.3).

Increased phenyl-substitution of the anions of the germanes studied causes a trend to lower field strength for the ipso ^{13}C chemical shifts which is analogous to that observed for the neutral germanes and which may be attributed to the inductive effect of the additional phenyl groups. The anions of the group 5B phenylhydrides, however, show a slight upfield shift for the ipso carbon resonance upon increased phenyl-substitution. This may be evidence of increased delocalization of the negative charge in these anions. An analogous shift is also observed for the neutral diphenylamine relative to aniline.

(b) Ortho Carbon

In general the substituent chemical shifts of the ortho carbon atoms are not well understood. The observed shifts are the net result of a variety of influences because of the proximity of the substituents which possess varying sizes, electronegativities, polarities and resonance interactions. Of the neutral phenyl-hydrides studied here, those of the third and fourth period elements, Si, Ge, P, As, exhibit similar ortho ^{13}C SCS (5-7.5 ppm). These shifts may be largely the result of a close non-bonded contact between the ortho C-H group and the substituent on the ring. Figure 3.16 shows that the ortho ^{13}C resonance undergoes a significant shift to higher field strength with increased phenyl-substitution in the cases of the phosphines and arsines but not in the cases of silanes and germanes. These differences might be related to more severe crowding of the phenyl groups in the group 5B compounds because of the large stereochemical influence of the formally non-bonding pair of electrons. Changes in the polarities of these molecules with changing degree of substitution may also contribute to the observed shifts. For the analogous compounds of nitrogen, aniline and diphenylamine, the ortho ^{13}C shift is clearly dominated by the resonance contribution to the electron density at this position.

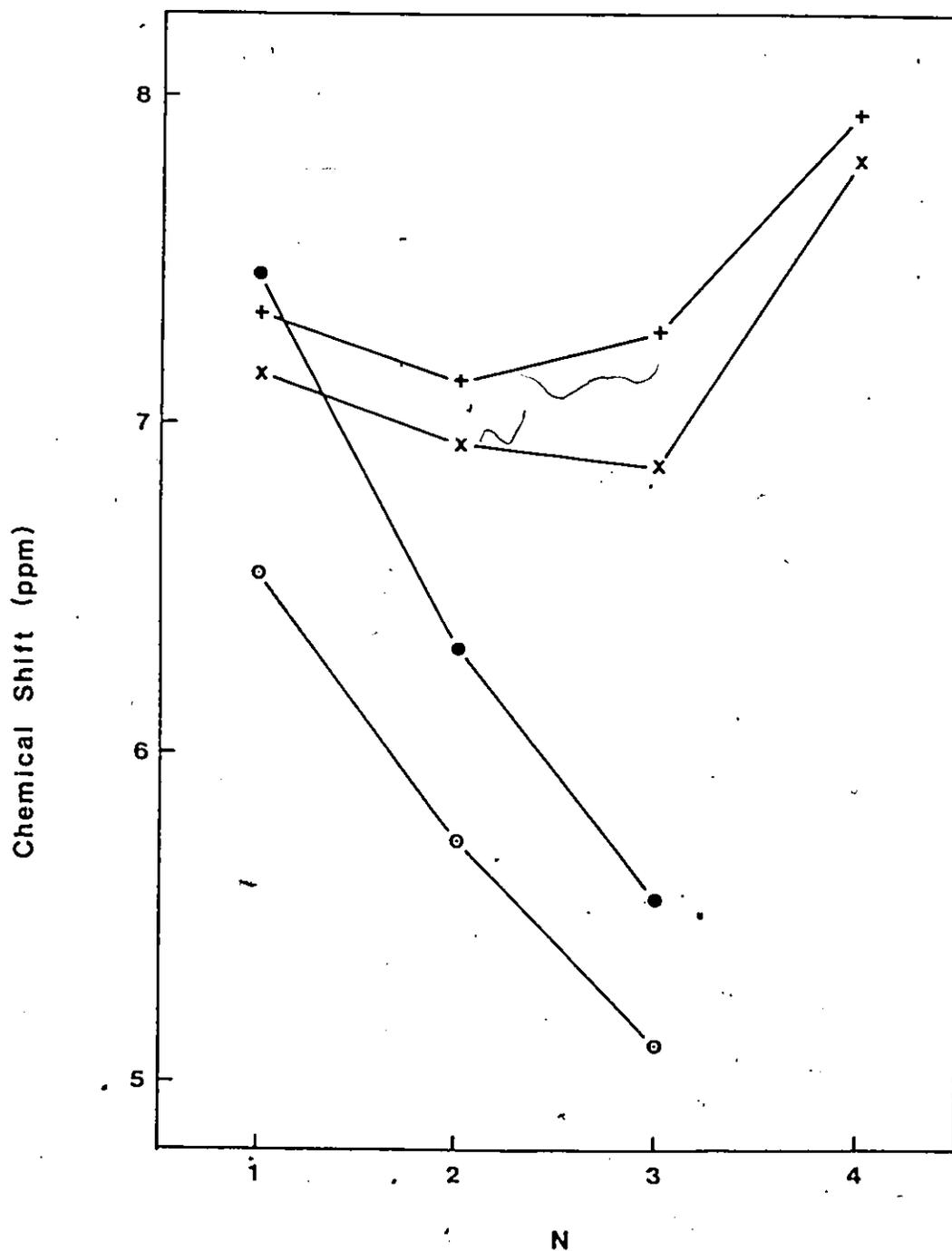


Figure 3.16: Graph of the substituent chemical shift of the ortho carbon atom resonance of phenyl-substituted hydrides versus the degree of phenyl-substitution (N); o = phosphines, ● = arsines, + = silanes, x = germanes.

Deprotonation of the arylgermanes results, in all cases, in a small shift to lower field strength for the ortho carbon resonances. In contrast to this, deprotonation of phenyl- or diphenylphosphines or -arsines causes a small, high-field shift of this resonance. This is consistent with the proposed lower degree of delocalization of negative charge for the arylgermyl anions relative to the group 5B anions. The apparent difference, however, is relatively small because the resonance contribution is masked by other effects such as increased field polarization in the anions as well as unknown contributions of the ΔE^{-1} and $\sum_B Q_{AB}$ terms to the paramagnetic shielding.

(c) Meta Carbon

As expected the meta carbon chemical shifts of all the species studied do not vary greatly from that of benzene. In all cases this shift is independent of the degree of phenyl substitution, but there are small differences with change of main group element. Although not yet definitively established variations in meta ^{13}C chemical shifts probably reflect the variations in electron density at this position. Of particular note is that deprotonation of the phenyl-substituted germanes, arsines and phosphines results in a shift to higher field strength for the meta ^{13}C resonances of these compounds. Comparison with the literature data for monosubstituted benzenes (Ewing 1979) reveals that these

shifts, although small, are among the largest high field SCS observed for meta carbon atoms. Similarly the largest low-field meta ^{13}C SCS occur when the substituent atom is the centre of cationic charge. These observations suggest that for ionic or highly polar substituents the meta ^{13}C SCS depends largely upon the polarization of the π -system as a result of the electronic charge which is to a large degree localized on the substituent atom. By contrast it is noted that deprotonation of either aniline or diphenylamine does not give rise to a significant shift of the meta ^{13}C resonance. This is no doubt a consequence of the stronger $p\pi$ - $p\pi$ interaction in these anions which has been noted to cause a small decrease in electron density at the meta position (Pross, 1981). Also the negative charge in these anions is more delocalized thus reducing the effective polarity of the negatively charged substituent.

(d) Para Carbon

In all the phenyl-substituted neutral silanes, germanes, phosphines and arsines the resonances of the para carbon atoms occur within 2 ppm of that of benzene. Like the meta carbon resonances their chemical shifts show no dependence upon degree of phenyl substitution. There is, however, a small but notable difference between the group 4B and group 5B compounds. For the silanes and germanes the para carbon resonance always occurs at lower field strength.

than the meta carbon resonance, while for the phosphines and arsines the opposite is true. These differences are very small but may be indicative of a weak $p\pi-d\pi$ interaction in the former case and a weak $p\pi-p\pi$ interaction in the latter. Compared to the para-carbon substituent chemical shifts observed for the amines and for the anions of the various phenyl-hydrides, however, these effects are hardly significant. Essentially the conclusion must be made that for the neutral phenylhydrides of Si, Ge, P and As net charge transfer between ring and substituent is negligible. For aniline and diphenylamine, however, the large high-field substituent chemical shifts of the para carbon resonance show that there are significant increases in electron density at the para carbon atom resulting from the $p\pi-p\pi$ interaction between the nitrogen and the ring involving the formally non-bonded electron pair of nitrogen.

While it has been well established that the para carbon SCS show reasonable linear dependence on the π -electron density at this carbon atom for neutral molecules, there has been little systematic investigation of anionic monosubstituted benzenes. Therefore extension of this conclusion to include these anionic species may require some justification. In this regard, it may be noted that the phenoxide ion was included in the study of Maciel and Natterstad (1965) and the data for this anion did not deviate from the observed correlations of para carbon chemical shift

with σ_R and σ_R° substituent constants. It may also be noted that the data for the anions presented here do not deviate greatly from the correlation of ^{13}C and ^1H para chemical shifts shown in Figure 3.6. For these reasons, and also because of the observation that the meta carbon chemical shifts of the anions do not vary greatly from that of benzene, it would appear that no unusual effects are influencing the meta and para carbon chemical shifts other than the 'resonance' and 'field' contributions to the electron density.

A qualitative ranking of the various species studied, in terms of the resonance effect of the substituent on the ring, may be obtained from consideration of the substituent chemical shifts of the para carbon atoms. As has been noted, for compounds in which the relative contribution of the field effect to the para ^{13}C chemical shift is significant, it may be more appropriate to consider the relative chemical shifts of the meta and para carbon atoms. Table 3.4 lists the values of $S_{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{para}}}$, $\delta_{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{para}}}$, $-\delta_{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{meta}}}$, and $S_{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{para}}} - 2S_{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{meta}}}$. It can be seen that the observed trends in these values are very similar because the values of $S_{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{meta}}}$ are very small. For compounds which are highly polar but which display a relatively low value of $S_{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{para}}}$ the value of

Table 3.4: Relative ^{13}C Chemical Shifts (ppm) Indicative of Substituent Resonance Effects^a

	$\delta_{13\text{C}}$ para	($\delta_{13\text{C}}$ para - $\delta_{13\text{C}}$ meta)	($\delta_{13\text{C}}$ para - $\delta_{13\text{C}}$ meta)
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHNa}$	-22.41	-23.28	-24.15
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{NNa}$	-15.58	-16.38	-17.18
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NH}_2$	-13.21	-14.50	-14.81
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{NH}$	-8.04	-8.97	-9.90
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$	-11.63	-9.87	-8.11
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{AsHNa}$	-10.38	-8.52	-6.66
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PNa}$	-8.70	-7.58	-6.46
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{AsNa}$	-8.23	-6.82	-5.41
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeH}_2\text{Na}^b$	-4.93	-3.58	-2.23
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{GeHNa}^b$	-5.55	-3.36	-1.17
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{GeNa}^b$	-5.19	-3.08	-0.97
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$	-0.11	-0.39	-.67
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{AsH}_2$	-0.37	-0.80	-1.23
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}$	+0.14	-0.18	-.50
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{AsH}$	-0.08	-0.59	-1.10
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{GeH}_3$	+0.79	+0.66	+0.53
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{GeH}_2$	+0.92	+0.72	+0.52
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{GeH}$	+0.91	+0.77	+0.63

(a) All data for tetrahydrofuran solutions unless noted otherwise.
 (b) NH_3 solutions.

$S_{13C_{para}} - 2S_{13C_{meta}}$ might be the best indication of the resonance effect. However, when the resonance effects are large relative to the field effects of the substituents then this 'correction' is certainly not significant.

The general qualitative conclusions may be summarized as follows. Clearly both aniline and diphenylamine as well as their monoanions exhibit, particularly for the anions, considerable negative charge transfer from nitrogen into the phenyl rings. The anions of phenyl- and diphenylphosphines and arsines display less delocalization and consequently field effects begin to assume some importance because of the more localized charge, but the resonance contribution is still significant. The resonance effect is small for the phenylgermyl anions and in these cases the negative charge must be largely localized on germanium thus giving rise to relatively large field contributions to the para and meta ^{13}C chemical shifts. The neutral phosphines and arsines show minimal resonance effects and for the neutral germanes a weak $p\pi-d\pi$ interaction between the ring and germanium might be postulated.

The effect of the use of a different solvent for the germyl anions (NH_3 as opposed to THF for all other species) has already been noted. If it were possible to use the same solvent for all cases it is expected that the differences between the group 5B anions and group 4B anions would be enhanced and that the phenyl germyl anions would display

negligible resonance effects in solvents of lower polarity as is observed for $(C_6H_5)_3Si^-$ in THF (Olah, 1980).

Consideration of the SCS of all four types of carbon atom in the anions studied leads to the conclusion that the distribution of π -electron density in the phenyl rings is mainly a result of the balance between 'resonance' effects, which may be considered to include both charge transfer and π -orbital effects, and 'field' effects as a consequence of the degree of localization of the negative charge on the substituent atom.

D. ^{31}P NMR

The ^{31}P NMR parameters of the phosphines and phosphides studied as well as the coupling constants derived from 1H and ^{13}C NMR spectra are shown in Table 3.5. The available literature data on these species are included for comparison and there is generally good agreement. It has been previously noted that ^{31}P chemical shifts appear to depend not so much on the overall electric charge on the molecule as on the geometry at phosphorus (Van Wazer, 1967). In addition the nature of the substituents bonded to phosphorus, in particular their ability to form bonds of higher order also have an important influence on the ^{31}P chemical shifts. The most notable feature of the observed trends in ^{31}P chemical shift (Table 3.5) is that deprotonation of PH_3 results in a large upfield shift (-58 ppm), while

Table 3.5:

 ^{31}P N.M.R. Parameters^a

	$\delta_{^{31}\text{P}}$	$^1J_{^{31}\text{P}^1\text{H}}$	$^3J_{^{31}\text{PCC}^1\text{H}}$	$^1J_{^{31}\text{P}^{13}\text{C}}$	$^g 2J_{^{31}\text{PC}^{13}\text{C}}$	$^g 3J_{^{31}\text{PCC}^{13}\text{C}}$
PH_2Na^b	-303.4(1)	147(3) ^e				
PH_2K^c	-256	134				
PH_3^b	-245.4(1)	189(3) ^e				
PH_3^c	-240	182				
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2^b$	-125.7(1)	198.7(2) ^f	6.9(6) ^e	8.8(8)	16.2(8)	5.9(8)
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2^c$	-122	196				
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}^b$	-120.9(1)	162.8(2) ^f	5.4(1) ^f	44.1(8)	16.2(8)	5.9(8)
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}^d$	-98.4(1)	152(3) ^e				
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}^b$	-41.3(1)	215.4(2) ^f	6.6(8) ^e	11.7(8)	16.2(8)	5.9(8)
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}^c$	-41.1	214				
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PNa}^b$	-22.5(1)		6.0(1) ^f	44.1(8)	17.7(8)	4.4(8)
$(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PNa}^c$	-24.4					

a) Chemical shifts are measured relative to external 85% H_3PO_4 ; negative values indicate shifts to higher field strength; the estimated error in the last digit is given in parentheses.

b) This work; approximately 1M in THF solution.

c) Reference (Knoll, 1966); DMF solvent.

d) This work; approximately 1M in NH_3 solution.

e) Coupling as measured by ^{31}P NMR.

f) Coupling as measured by ^1H NMR.

g) Couplings as measured by ^{13}C NMR.

deprotonation of phenylphosphine causes a downfield shift (5 ppm) and deprotonation of diphenylphosphine an even larger downfield shift (19 ppm). The latter shift is consistent with that observed for lithium diphenylphosphide (Grim, 1974) but it may be noted that the chemical shift for PH_2Na is at significantly higher field than the previously reported value of PH_2K in dimethylformamide (Knoll, 1966). The downfield shift of the ^{31}P resonances of phenyl- and diphenylphosphines might be attributed to a $p\pi-p\pi$ interaction with the phenyl groups, as has previously been suggested for $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PLi}$ (Grim, 1974) and which is in accord with the present interpretation of ^{13}C and ^1H NMR results for such species. These shifts upon deprotonation might also be influenced by the changes in the bond angles, about the phosphorus atoms having varying degrees of substitution.

It is of interest to note that the solvent plays a significant role in determining the ^{31}P chemical shift of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$. For a solution of this compound in liquid ammonia the ^{31}P resonance occurs at about 22 ppm to lower field strength than for a THF solution of similar concentration. The parent hydride, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$, displays the same chemical shift in both solvents. Presumably the ^{31}P chemical shift of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$ is sensitive to the degree of solvation of this salt. In this regard it was found that the chemical shift

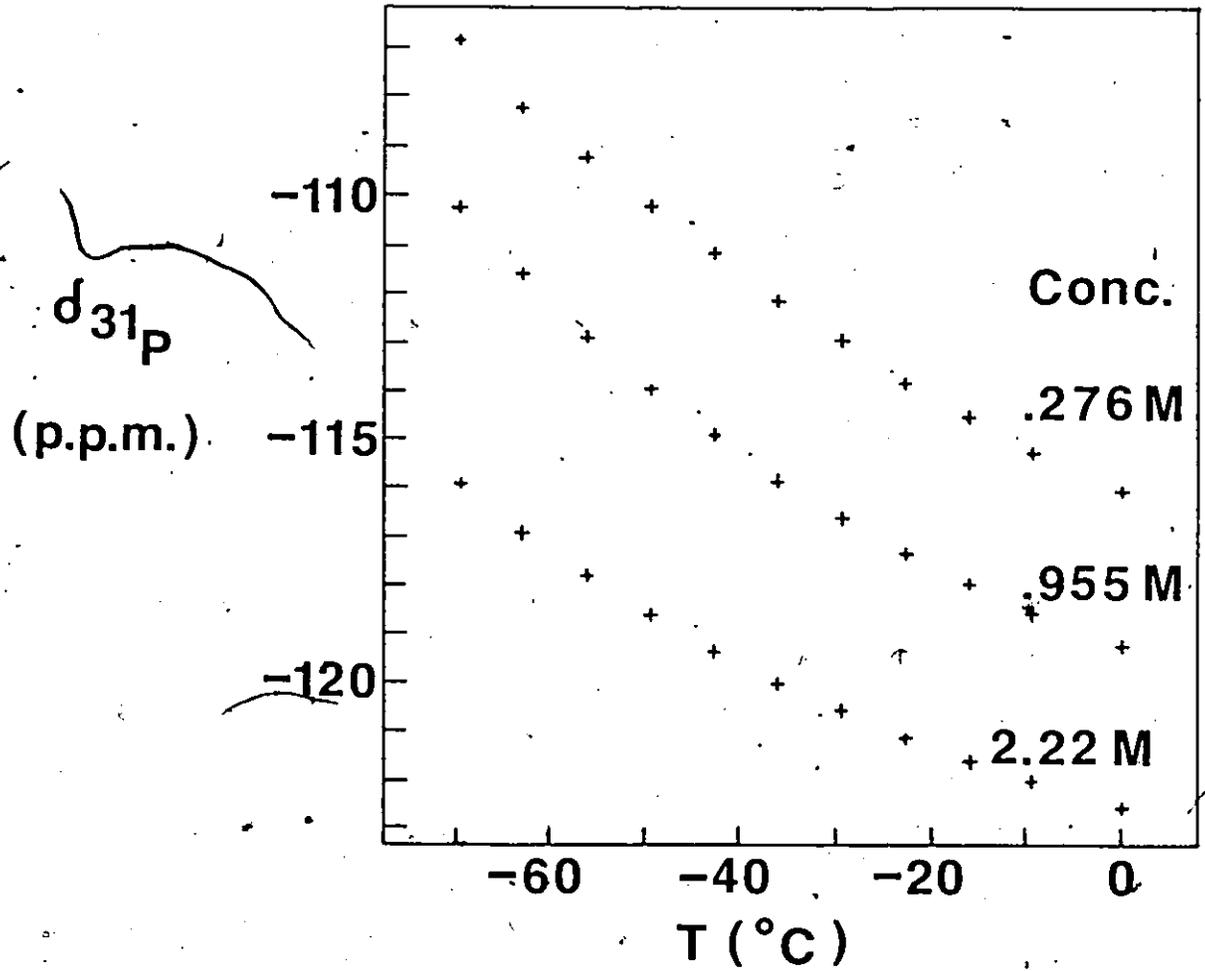


Figure 3.17: ^{31}P Chemical shift of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$ (relative to 85% H_3PO_4 , external) as a function of temperature and concentration.

varied with both temperature and concentration (Figure 3.17). With the limited information available it is not possible to fully describe the equilibria which exist in these solutions, but they are more involved than the simple equilibrium between solvent-separated and contact ion pairs observed for analogous carbanions (e.g. $(C_6H_5)_3CNa$) (Grutzner, 1972; O'Brien, 1976; Buncl, 1978). It is possible that for C_6H_5PHNa the ion pairs may associate to form species of analogous structure to the bridged dimeric species $[(C_6H_5)_2PLi]_2$ (Colquhoun, 1982). This could account for the concentration dependence of the ^{31}P chemical shift which is in addition to the expected temperature dependence.

The one bond $^{31}P - ^{13}C$ coupling constants for both phenylphosphine and diphenylphosphine (Table 3.5) increase by a factor of four upon deprotonation of these hydrides. The significance of this change is uncertain particularly since the relative signs of these couplings are not known. It has been suggested that a large separation in energy between valence s and p electrons may result in a negative one-bond coupling constant (Weigert, 1969). Also for the neutral compounds, $C_6H_5PH_2$ and $(C_6H_5)_2PH$, it may be noted that the one-bond $^{31}P - ^{13}C$ coupling constants are smaller in absolute magnitude than the two-bond $^{31}P - ^{13}C$ coupling constants. The increase in $|^1J_{PC}|$ upon deprotonation may be an indication of a P-C bond order greater than one in the anions.

The two-bond couplings, ${}^2J_{PC}$, do not change magnitude upon deprotonation of either phenyl- or diphenylphosphines. Studies have indicated that such couplings are always positive (Mavel, 1973). The three-bond couplings, ${}^3J_{PC}$, also do not change upon deprotonation. All of the ${}^{31}\text{P} - {}^{13}\text{C}$ couplings, except for the one-bond couplings in the anions, are of comparable magnitude to the analogous couplings for triphenylphosphine (Bodner, 1975).

The one-bond ${}^{31}\text{P} - {}^1\text{H}$ couplings are in reasonable agreement with the previously reported values (Table 3.5). Couplings involving the hydrogen nucleus are said to depend only on the 'contact' term from the electron spin polarization model for spin-spin coupling (Ramsey, 1952) since the 'orbital' and 'dipolar' contributions depend upon p-electrons. Consequently it might be expected that the magnitude of the coupling constant, ${}^1J_{PH}$, would reflect the s character of the phosphorus hybrid orbital involved in P-H bonding. In this regard it is of interest to note that deprotonation of either phosphine or phenylphosphine results in a decrease in $|{}^1J_{PH}|$ whereas phenyl-substitution of phosphine results in an increase in this parameter. Unfortunately these couplings most likely result from a sum of large terms of opposite sign as was observed for SnH_3^- (Birchall and Pereira, 1972) therefore changes in $|{}^1J_{PH}|$ may reflect relative changes in the magnitudes of these terms

rather than simply a change in phosphorus s-orbital contribution to the bonding orbital.

The three-bond couplings, $^3J_{\text{PH}}$, of phenylphosphine and diphenylphosphine are consistent with previously reported values (Akitt, 1966; Parr 1978). The change in this parameter upon the deprotonation of these molecules is not significant compared to the estimated error in the measurements.

E. Relative Acidities

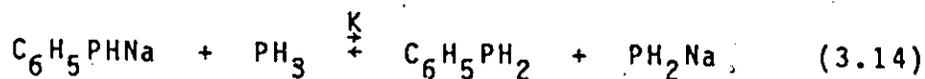
The NMR results discussed here, in particular the ^{13}C chemical shifts, corroborate the previous explanations of the observed relative acidities of the phenylhydrides of the group 4B and 5B elements (Jolly, 1971; Issleib, 1965; Birchall and Drummond, 1972). The increase in the acidity of group 5B hydrides upon phenyl-substitution may be attributed to increased resonance stabilization of the anions. There is not, however, as significant a degree of delocalization of negative charge in the anions of phenyl-substituted germanes, presumably because the large s+p promotion energy required for rehybridization of the Ge orbitals causes the 'non-bonding' pair of electrons to have predominantly s-orbital character (Jolly, 1971). Consequently there is no resonance stabilization of such anions and the observed decrease in acidity of germanes upon phenyl-substitution has been rationalized in terms of relative solvation energies as well

as steric effects (Birchall and Drummond, 1972). The silanes and stannanes are expected to behave similarly. Phenylmethanes, on the other hand, show considerable increase in acidity relative to methane (Streitwieser, 1980). In this case the highly favourable overlap between the $2p_z$ orbital of the deprotonated methyl carbon atom in the carbanion with the appropriate phenyl $p\pi$ -molecular orbitals results in sufficient resonance energy to overcome the necessary $s+p$ promotion energy. That considerable delocalization of negative charge into the phenyl rings of phenylmethyl carbanions occurs is demonstrated by the ^{13}C NMR parameters of such species (O'Brien, 1975; Takahashi, 1970).

The possibility that the observed relative acidity differences between the germanes (Birchall and Drummond, 1972) and the group 5B compounds (phosphines and arsines; Issleib, 1965) are due solely to solvent effects must be considered because the former were measured in liquid ammonia solvent whereas THF was used as the solvent for the arsines and phosphines. In this regard, measured amounts of PH_3 were condensed into both ammonia and tetrahydrofuran solutions containing comparable known amounts of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$. After allowing these solutions to equilibrate the ^{31}P or ^{13}C NMR spectra revealed that both samples contained predominantly $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$ and PH_3 and much smaller amounts of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$ and PH_2Na . This demonstrates that the order of relative acidities of the two hydrides are the same in NH_3 as in THF.

(i.e. that $C_6H_5PH_2$ is more acidic than PH_3). Therefore the different behaviour of the group 5B phenylhydrides from those of the phenylgermanes cannot be accounted for solely in terms of solvation effects.

It must be pointed out however that considerable uncertainty exists as to the reliability of the reported relative acidities of the phenyl-substituted hydrides of the group 5B elements because the various data used in their determination (Issleib, 1965) represent competitive equilibria involving differing counterions and using different indicators. Furthermore the relative pKa values of phosphine and arsine were not determined but merely suggested as reasonable estimates. It has become apparent that the acidifying effect of the phenyl-substituent on PH_3 and AsH_3 is perhaps not as great as previously suggested. For example the competitive equilibrium (described above):



yielded a value of $-\log K$ of 0.95 ± 0.2 in THF solution whereas the data of Issleib and Kümmel (1965) implied a value of 4.5. The similar experiment (also described above) using NH_3 as solvent gave a value for $-\log K$ of 2.1 ± 0.5 .

Also, the acidities of phenyl and diphenyl-phosphines have recently been remeasured with respect to an established acidity scale for hydrocarbon acids in DMSO solvent

(Terekhova, 1982). These findings suggested that further substitution of phenyl-phosphine to give diphenylphosphine actually results in a decrease in the acidity of the remaining proton by 0.7 logarithmic units. These authors reexamined the data of Issleib and Kümmel (1965), for THF solvent, in the light of more appropriate current values for the pKa's of the indicators used, and concluded that the observed equilibrium constants represent an increased acidity of diphenylphosphine relative to phenylphosphine of only 0.5 logarithmic units as opposed to the value of 2.8 suggested earlier (Issleib, 1965). They further rationalized the remaining apparent discrepancy of 1.2 logarithmic units as possibly arising from the use of different counterions in the earlier study. The possible influence of the use of different solvents in the two studies may also be important. In light of the apparent importance of solvent and ion-pairing effects on the equilibria involved in the acidity measurements, the significance of the relative acidities for the phenyl- and diphenylarsines reported by Issleib and Kümmel are also cast into doubt.

Figure 3.18 shows a graph on which is plotted the average change in pKa per phenyl-substituent for various phenyl-substituted hydrides (relative to the unsubstituted parent hydride) versus the parameter, $\delta_{13C_{para}} - \delta_{13C_{meta}}$, of their conjugate anions. The acidity data for this plot (except for those for the $C_6H_5PH_2/PH_3$ couple (mentioned

above)) are taken from: Birchall and Drummond (1972), Algrim (1978), Terekhova (1982), and Streitwieser (1980). These data represent the relative acidities in non-hydroxylic, dipolar solvents. ^{13}C NMR data for the phenyl-substituted methyllithium salts, $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_n\text{CH}_{3-n}\text{Li}$, are those of Takahashi (1974). The large error-bars indicated for the relative acidity data of the nitrogen and carbon hydrides have been chosen somewhat arbitrarily but are indicative of the uncertainty in the pK_a values for NH_3 and CH_4 as a consequence of their very low acidities. Data points for the phenyl-substituted arsines have unfortunately been omitted from the plot because of doubt concerning the reliability of the reported relative acidity data (Issleib, 1965) but the results obtained appear to indicate that the values may be closely comparable to those for the analogous phosphines.

Despite the uncertainties, the effect of phenyl-substitution on the acidity of the hydrides appears to roughly parallel the trend in the ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts. The observed trend suggests that the degree to which the negative charge may be delocalized into the phenyl-rings of the anions is a major factor in the acid strengthening effect of phenyl-substitution. Although the difference in the influence of the phenyl substituent on acidity between the germanes and the group 5B hydrides is not as large as previously thought it still appears to be significant and is most likely a consequence of the different degrees of resonance stabilization of the anions.

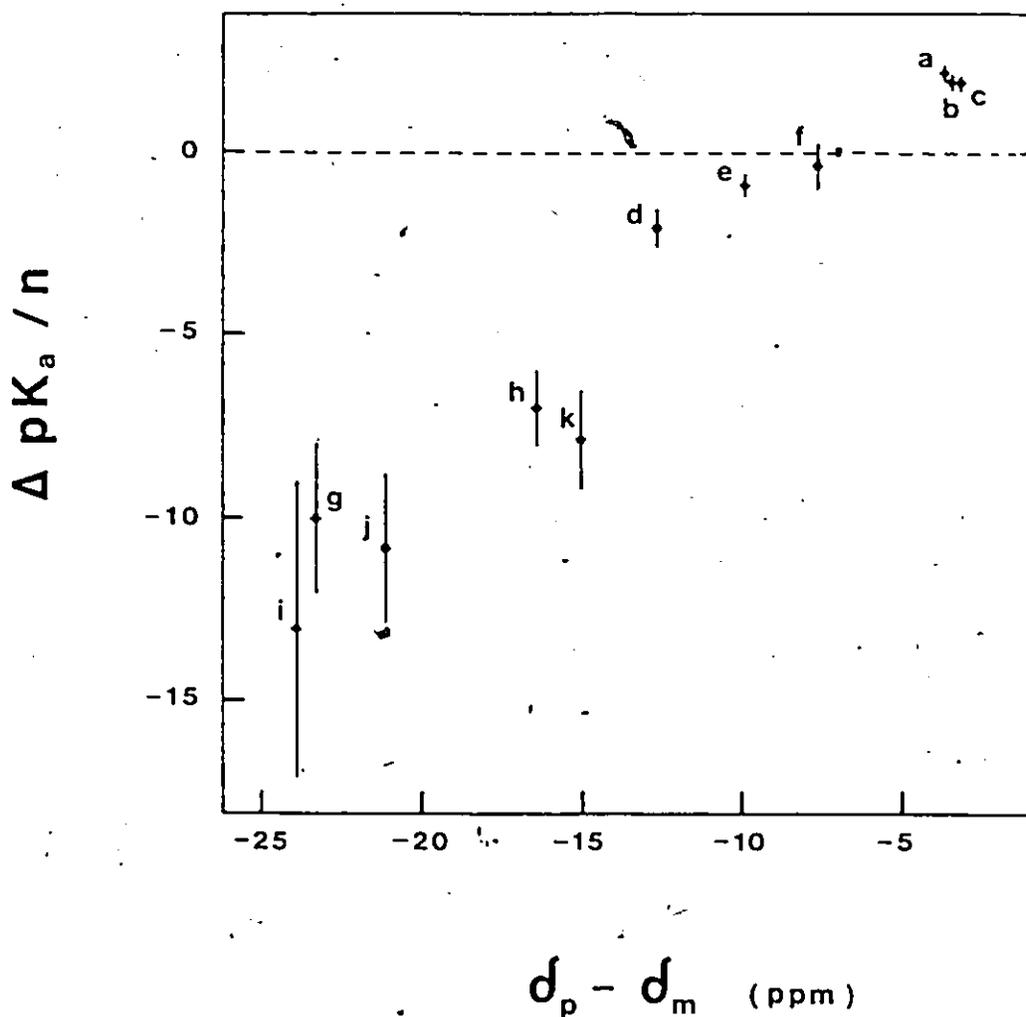


Figure 3.18: Plot of the average change in pK_a per phenyl-substituent for hydrides of carbon, nitrogen, phosphorous and germanium versus the ^{13}C NMR parameter, $\delta_{para} - \delta_{meta}$, for the analogous monoanions;

$$\Delta pK_a / n = [pK_a(Y(C_6H_5)_n H_{m-n}) - pK_a(YH_m)] / n;$$

^{13}C NMR:

a)	$C_6H_5GeH_2Na$	(NH_3)	b)	$(C_6H_5)_2GeHNa$	(NH_3)
c)	$(C_6H_5)_3GeNa$	(NH_3)	d)	C_6H_5PHNa	(NH_3)
e)	C_6H_5PHNa	(THF)	f)	$(C_6H_5)_2PNa$	(THF)
g)	$(C_6H_5)NHNa$	(THF)	h)	$(C_6H_5)_2NNa$	(THF)
i)	$C_6H_5CH_2Li$	(THF)	j)	$(C_6H_5)_2CHLi$	(THF)
k)	$(C_6H_5)_3CLi$	(THF)			

CHAPTER 4

COORDINATION CHEMISTRY OF PHOSPHINES WITH CUPROUS IODIDE

A. Introduction

Although basicity and donor ability are well known properties of trivalent compounds of the group 5B elements (evidence for this comes from innumerable studies of coordination compounds involving ligands such as triphenylphosphine), there has been relatively little investigation of the coordination chemistry of hydrides and organohydrides of the group 5B elements other than nitrogen. Presumably this is because the tertiary derivatives, especially the triphenyl compounds, are much easier to work with. Triphenylphosphine is a readily available, air stable, solid which is relatively non-volatile and is soluble in many organic solvents. The secondary and primary phosphines and arsines are generally volatile liquids and are very susceptible to oxidation thus requiring handling under an inert atmosphere. It is also reasonable to expect that the coordination chemistry of primary and secondary phosphines will be very similar to that of tertiary derivatives. However potential differences do exist. For example there is evidence for the dissociation of P-H bonds with resultant formation of phosphido complexes (Kraihanzel, 1974). Also it has been noted that the order of

basicity for phosphines is tertiary > secondary > primary > PH_3 (Henderson, 1960).

The coordinating ability of a phosphine, however, depends on features other than simple basicity. For example the extent to which π -acidity of the ligand can contribute to the stability of the coordinative interaction has been the centre of much controversy (McAuliffe, 1979). It is unlikely that π -back donation into d-orbitals of the ligand is significant for tertiary organophosphines, but for PF_3 and for phosphites it is apparently important (Emsley, 1976). Vibrational studies on the C-O stretching frequency of a carbonyl group trans to a given phosphine ligand indicate that PH_3 is intermediate in ' π -accepting' ability between tertiary phosphines and phosphites (Emsley, 1976).

It has also been shown that, for tertiary phosphines, the steric bulk of the ligand appears to be the deciding factor in the stability of the coordinative interactions between these ligands and transition metals (Tolman, 1970; Lippard, 1971, 1972). With much smaller phosphine ligands such as PH_3 or the primary phosphines, steric interactions should be greatly reduced (cf. the cone angle of PH_3 is 87° whereas that of $\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3$ is 145° (Tolman, 1970)). For complexes containing these small ligands, electronic factors should assume increased importance.

The systems $(\text{CuX})_m(\text{PR}_3)_n$ ($\text{X} = \text{halide}$) appeared to be potentially useful for investigations concerning the relative importance of steric and electronic factors because a large number of X-ray crystallographic studies (Gill, 1976, and references therein) have shown that the steric bulk of both the phosphine ligands and the halides have a tremendous influence on the degree of association and resulting structure of such complexes. Spectroscopic characterization of these complexes has proven to be somewhat problematic however and as a consequence of this they have been largely studied by X-ray crystallography (McAuliffe, 1979).

In the present work complexes based on cuprous iodide were investigated with the hope that ^{127}I Mössbauer spectroscopy could be used to characterize the different species according to the geometries about the iodine. Iodine can be triply-bridging, doubly-bridging, terminal or potentially ionic in these compounds depending on the CuI to phosphine ratio. It was expected that the differences in these iodine environments would be reflected in the quadrupole coupling constant and the asymmetry parameter for ^{127}I . As shall be seen, however, this turns out not to be the case. NMR and vibrational studies are of limited use for structural characterization of these compounds but are briefly considered. It is still the case therefore that X-ray crystallography must be resorted to for unambiguous characterization of $\text{CuX}\cdot\text{PR}_3$ compounds.

7

In early vapour pressure studies (Holtje, 1940; Scholder, 1934) it was concluded that cuprous halides could form complexes with PH_3 in ratios of $\text{CuX} \cdot 2\text{PH}_3$ and $\text{CuX} \cdot \text{PH}_3$ but that these were unstable to loss of PH_3 . Much later, Abel et. al. (1969) studied the complexes formed between $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}$ and cuprous halides in the hope that vibrational and ^1H NMR spectroscopy, with specific focus on the hydrogen bonded to phosphorus, would yield further information on the characterization of these kinds of complexes. These authors found complexes possessing most of the known stoichiometries for $(\text{CuX})_m(\text{PR}_3)_n$, where $m/n = 1/3, 1/2, 2/3, 1/1$. However, while NMR and infrared spectroscopies could differentiate between free and complexed $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}$, these techniques could not discriminate between the different stoichiometries and structures of the complexes. These studies appear to be the only previous investigations of cuprous halide complexes of non-tertiary phosphines.

B. ^{127}I Mössbauer Spectroscopy of $\text{CuI} \cdot n\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3$ Adducts

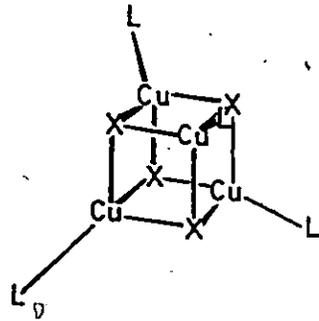
Although a great deal of crystallographic and other work has been published concerning complexes of the cuprous halides with tertiary phosphines, no Mössbauer spectroscopy on such species has been previously reported. To establish the utility of ^{127}I Mössbauer spectroscopy for distinguishing between the different types of structures

found for $\text{CuI} \cdot n\text{PR}_3$ complexes, the series of triphenylphosphine adducts was selected since this series of compounds includes the three types of known geometries for the iodine atom environment and the structures of these compounds are established.

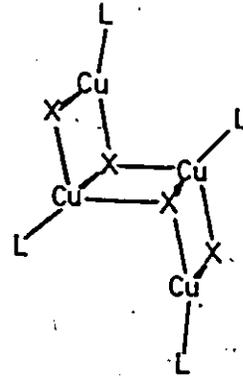
The one-to-one adduct is found to form a tetrameric molecule, $[\text{CuIP}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_4$, possessing the 'step' structure, (II) shown in Figure 4.1 (Churchill, 1975). The reason that this molecule has this 'step' structure as opposed to the more common 'tetrahedral' structure, (I) in Figure 4.1, is that the latter structure would have more inherent steric strain as a consequence of the large halide and the bulky triphenylphosphine ligands. The iodine atoms in $[\text{CuIP}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_4$ occur in two different molecular environments namely di-bridging (bent) and triply-bridging (pyramidal), both of which are asymmetric.

The molecule $(\text{CuI})_2[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ possesses the dimeric structure (IV) in Figure 4.1 (Eller, 1977). Here the two crystallographically unique iodine atoms are in very similar asymmetrically di-bridging environments. The fact that CuI does not form a 2:4 adduct, (III) in Figure 4.1, with triphenylphosphine is, again, most probably the result of the steric bulk of the ligands which restrict one of the copper atoms to pseudotrigonal coordination.

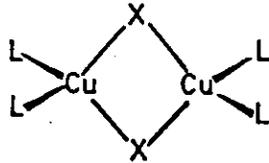
I



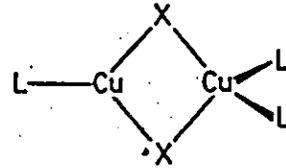
II



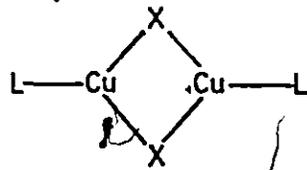
III



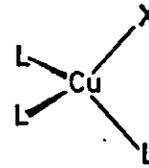
IV



V



VI



VII

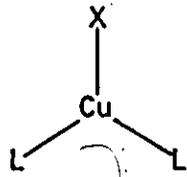


Figure 4.1: Known Geometries of Cuprous Halide-Tertiary-Phosphine Adducts

The structure of $\text{CuI}[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ does not appear to have been determined, however, it is almost assuredly a pseudotetrahedral monomer, (VI) in Figure 4.1, analogous to the structures of $\text{CuCl}[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ (Gill, 1976) and $\text{Cu}[\text{BF}_4][\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ (Gaughan, 1974). Therefore for $\text{CuI}[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ the iodine atom is likely to be terminally bonded to copper.

These compounds were expected to display different ¹²⁷I quadrupolar couplings^r and asymmetry parameters as a result of the different environments about iodine. This would provide a means of characterizing the complexes. The quadrupole coupling constants were expected to be significant because the Cu-I interatomic distances in these compounds are approximately equal to the sum of the covalent radii (2.61Å) (Pauling, 1965), and covalent interactions in these non-spherical environments about iodine should give rise to significant electric field gradients at that nucleus.

The ¹²⁷I Mössbauer spectra of the triphenylphosphine adducts as well as that of CuI itself are shown in Figure 4.2. The relevant data are summarized in Table 4.1. The single striking feature of these spectra is that none of them display any resolvable quadrupole coupling. In fact the half-height linewidths of these spectra are comparable to that found for CuI in which the tetrahedrally coordinated iodine atoms should experience negligible electric field gradients and hence negligible quadrupole coupling. Although

Table 4.1: ^{127}I Mossbauer Parameters for Complexes of CuI ^{a,b}

Compound		Isomer Shift ^c (mm s ⁻¹)	eQV _{zz} ^d (MHz)	Absorber Linewidth (mm s ⁻¹)	τ_A ^e	χ^2 /degree of freedom
CuI		-0.17(2)	0.0*	3.77(1)	0.24(1)	0.90
CuI[P(C ₆ H ₅) ₃] ₃	(1)	-0.26(2)	0.0*	2.64(8)	0.200(4)	1.20
	(2)	-0.17(2)	-465(19)	1.7*	0.280(4)	1.07
[CuI] ₂ [P(C ₆ H ₅) ₃] ₃	(1)	-0.26(2)	0.0*	2.61(7)	0.160(3)	0.91
	(2)	-0.18(2)	-446(18)	1.7*	0.220(3)	0.84
[CuIP(C ₆ H ₅) ₃] ₄	(1)	-0.26(1)	0.0*	3.83(4)	0.478(3)	2.55
	(2) ^f	-0.79(3) +0.28(4)	-624(24) 685(21)	1.7* 1.7*	0.853(5)	1.11
[CuI(C ₆ H ₅ PH ₂) ₂] ₂	(1)	-0.20(2)	0.0*	2.56(6)	0.196(3)	1.33
	(2)	-0.13(2)	-409(19)	1.7*	0.264(3)	1.44
'[CuIC ₆ H ₅ PH ₂] ₄ '		-0.29(1)	0.0*	3.40(4)	0.568(4)	2.07

^a The parameters were obtained from the experimental data using the iterative Mossbauer fitting program GMFP (Ruebenbauer, 1979). The fitted spectra suffer from insufficient extractable information for the number of variable parameters to be determined. Consequently the minima for convergence are ill-defined unless constraints on the parameters are introduced. Therefore there is considerable uncertainty as to the significance of the numbers obtained.

^b In all cases the source linewidth was fixed at the natural linewidth (1.27 mm s⁻¹); * indicates the values of other parameters which also were not permitted to vary during the fitting procedure.

Table 4.1: (continued)

- c Isomer shifts measured relative to the source ($\text{Zn}^{127\text{m}}\text{Te}$).
- d In most cases visually better fits to the experimental data could be obtained by including variable quadrupolar coupling constants. In these cases the absorber linewidth was fixed at a value which represents a reasonable expected minimum (1.7 mm s^{-1}) (Myers, 1982; Birchall, 1981). The fitted values of eQV_{zz} , therefore, represent maximum possible quadrupolar coupling constants. In all cases the asymmetry parameter (η) was fixed at zero although, for some of the sites considered, this condition is not to be expected. Allowing η to vary during the iterative process resulted in non-convergence or in results of dubious significance.
- e Dimensionless absorber thickness.
- f Two sites fitted.

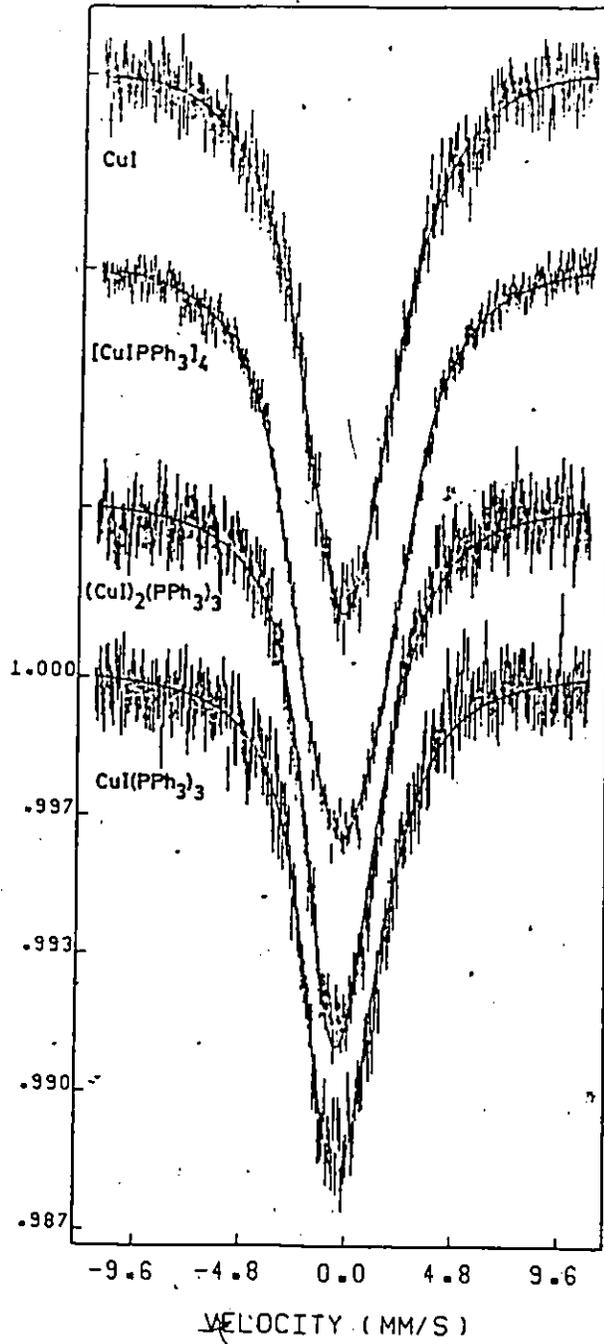


Figure 4.2: ^{127}I Mössbauer spectra of some cuprous iodide complexes

it is noted that the linewidth of the resonance for cuprous iodide can be improved somewhat (i.e., approaches closer to the ideal natural linewidth) by considerably reducing the sample size, it is nevertheless apparent that the quadrupole couplings of the iodine nuclei in the adducts are too small to be resolved by ^{127}I Mössbauer spectroscopy.

The maximum possible magnitudes of the coupling constants (eQV_{zz}) in these adducts are indicated in Table 4.1. By comparison, genuinely covalent interactions of iodine bonded to main group elements in non-cubic configurations can give rise to quadrupole coupling constants as large as 3200 MHz (Birchall, 1981). There have been relatively few iodine Mössbauer investigations of iodide bonded to transition metals however a number of ^{129}I Mössbauer results have been reported for the iodo ligand in Pt(II) coordination compounds (Dale, 1974). Conversion of the ^{129}I quadrupole coupling constants for these species, which contain iodine terminally bonded to platinum, to the corresponding values for ^{127}I yields values ranging from 770 to 1190 MHz. These values are significantly larger than the maximum-possible values for the $\text{CuI}\cdot\text{nP}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3$ complexes.

It must, therefore, be concluded that for the copper(I)-iodo complexes there is little distortion of the electronic environment of iodine from the spherical valence configuration of the purely ionic iodide ion. This would seem to indicate that the nature of the 'bond' between iodine

and copper is not covalent despite the short internuclear separation. Alternatively this could imply that, in the bonding, electrons are withdrawn nearly equally from all of the valence p orbitals of iodine. This is conceivable for the triply bridging iodine environment but not for the di-bridging or terminal environments. The possibility that a lattice contribution to the electric field gradient cancels the valence contribution seems rather unlikely. Consequently it must be concluded that, for compounds of copper(I) iodide, comparison of the actual bond lengths with accepted ionic or covalent radii sums is not necessarily a valid indication of the degree of covalency of the bond.

C. Coordination Chemistry of Phenylphosphine with

Cuprous Iodide

(i) $\text{CuI} \cdot \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$

The reaction of excess cuprous iodide with phenylphosphine in THF yielded an infinitely soluble product. The weight of unreacted CuI suggested that the stoichiometry of the soluble product was approximately $(\text{CuI})_{0.8} \cdot \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$. The ^{31}P NMR spectrum of this solution consisted of a triplet at $\delta = -106.62(3)$ ppm having the spin-spin coupling $^1J_{\text{PH}} = 303(3)$ Hz. (The proton NMR spectrum reveals $^1J_{\text{PH}} = 302.2$ Hz). Studies with tertiary phosphines have shown that

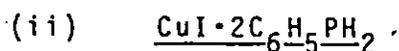
analogous complexes undergo dissociation in solution and rapidly exchange phosphine ligands at room temperature (Lippard, 1971). Below -70°C the ^{31}P resonance of the above solution broadens considerably and shifts slightly, -109 ppm at -90°C , however no new features were observed before the freezing point of the solution was reached. Since the observed room temperature chemical shift is to low field of that of free phenylphosphine by approximately 20 ppm and the P-H coupling constant is ~ 100 Hz greater than that of free phenylphosphine, it must be concluded that these NMR parameters represent a coordinated ligand. Perhaps these ligands undergo rapid exchange, at room temperature, between species of different geometry and degree of association as has been observed for tertiary phosphine adducts (Lippard, 1972; Muetterties, 1970).

The ^{13}C NMR parameters averaged from two different sample preparations are $\delta_{\text{C}_1} = 125.8(2)$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_2} = 135.7(2)$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_3} = 129.5(2)$ ppm, $\delta_{\text{C}_4} = 130.6(2)$ ppm, $^1J_{\text{PC}} = 27(2)$ Hz, $^2J_{\text{PC}} = 12(2)$ Hz, $^3J_{\text{PC}} = 8(2)$ Hz. The notable difference between these parameters and those of free phenylphosphine (see Table 3.2) are the shift to higher field strength for the ipso carbon (-3.4 ppm), the shift to lower field strength of the para carbon resonance (1.8 ppm) and the increase in the one-bond P-C coupling constant from 9 Hz for phenylphosphine to 27 Hz for the coordinated ligand. These

changes are consistent with a coordinative interaction along with the accompanying changes in hybridization at phosphorus.

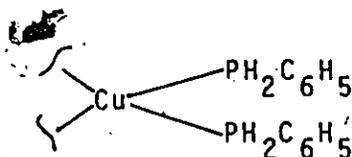
The fact of the high miscibility of the solute with THF along with an apparent slow decomposition of the dissolved adducts to give a dark coloured, THF soluble substance, possibly a phosphido species as a consequence of P-H bond cleavage, prevented the isolation of a pure solid product from the above solutions. However, when the THF solvent was evaporated under vacuum and the viscous glassy residue was immersed in diethylether, colourless crystals slowly grew out of the insoluble mass of residue which ultimately completely solidified. This was accompanied by precipitation of the small amount of dark by-product mentioned above. None of these crystals was found suitable for structure determination by X-ray crystallography. This solid product (density $\sim 2.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$) was, most likely, a tetrameric 1:1 adduct of CuI with $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$ by analogy with the known stoichiometries and structures of other 1:1 adducts between CuX and tertiary or secondary phosphines (Costa, 1965; Churchill, 1975; Abel, 1969). Attempts to recrystallize the solid from different solvent systems were unsuccessful and were accompanied by further decomposition. At the present time it remains uncharacterized. The ^{127}I Mössbauer parameters of the crude product are included in

Table 4.1. No significant differences from those for the triphenylphosphine adducts are observed.



When two equivalents of phenylphosphine were allowed to react with cuprous iodide a crystalline product was obtained after recrystallization from ethanol containing 5% THF. The crystallization was affected by slow evaporation of solvent, the THF evaporating preferentially thus diminishing the THF content of the mixed solvent system. Like the previous solute this substance is infinitely miscible with THF but it has low solubility in ethanol.

A THF solution of the product yielded room temperature ^{31}P and ^{13}C NMR spectra which were essentially identical with those found for the previous solutions prepared using excess CuI. However, the ^{31}P NMR spectrum initially displayed upon cooling, some broadening of the observed triplet until at about -90°C further fine structure was resolved (see Figure 4.3). The low temperature spectrum can be accounted for by postulating a ^{31}P - ^{31}P spin-spin coupling between two phenylphosphine ligands bound to the same copper atom.



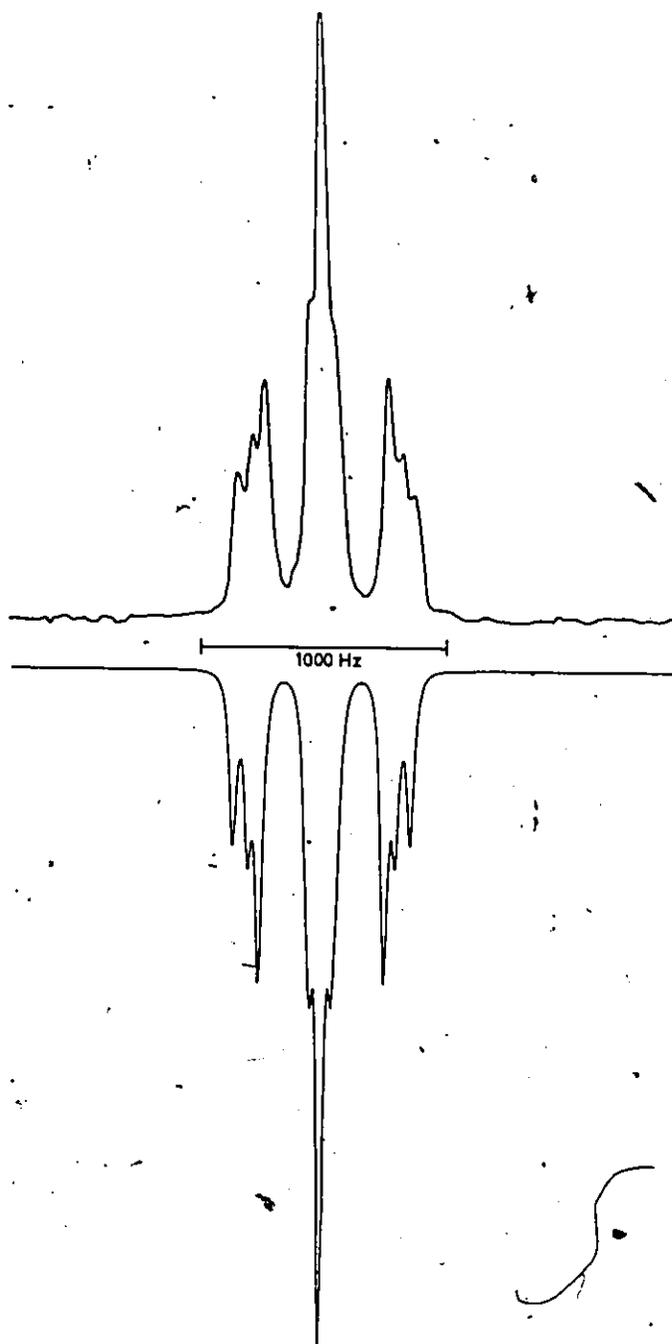
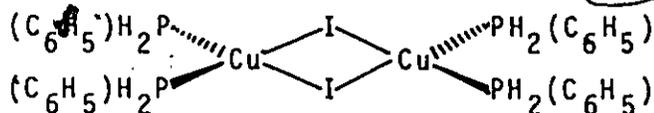


Figure 4.3: Experimental and simulated ^{31}P NMR spectra of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ in THF at -97°C .

Although these two phosphorus atoms are chemically equivalent and thus have the same chemical shift, they are magnetically inequivalent by virtue of the strong coupling to the protons directly bound to them. This kind of second order effect is sometimes known as 'virtual coupling' (Becker, 1980). Figure 4.3 includes a simulated spectrum which represents the best fit to the observed peak positions assuming only coupling between directly bound phosphorus and hydrogen and the two bond ^{31}P - ^{31}P coupling. The three bond ^{31}P - ^1H coupling was fixed at zero for this simulation. The changes in ^{31}P chemical shift and one-bond ^{31}P - ^1H coupling with reduced temperature were insignificant and no new resonances appeared. Therefore, it is apparent that at room temperature the bound phosphine ligands are being exchanged rapidly between different copper atoms. It is not possible to deduce whether this exchange is inter- or intramolecular. However, since it is known that these kinds of complexes may dissociate in solution, it is quite possible that the exchange is intermolecular in nature. The species in solution at low temperature could be the dimer:



The possibility that a THF solvent molecule assumes one coordination position, and thus breaks-up the dimers, cannot be ruled out.

The crystalline solid obtained from the ethanol/THF recrystallization was found by X-ray crystallography to be, indeed, the bridged dimer, indicated above.

The ^{127}I Mossbauer parameters of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ are included in Table 4.1 and again, no resolvable quadrupole coupling was observed. Raman and infrared spectra of this solid showed that a significant amount of free phenylphosphine was present in the sample as evidenced by a band at 2290 cm^{-1} corresponding to the P-H stretching vibration of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$. It is possible that this free $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$ was produced by decomposition of the sample in the laser beam of the Raman spectrometer. Two bands centred at approximately 2322 and 2344 cm^{-1} which occur in both the Raman and infrared spectra may be attributed to the P-H stretching modes of the complexed ligand. Infrared spectra of cuprous halide adducts of diphenylphosphine (Abel, 1969) indicate that the P-H stretch of the coordinated ligand occurs at about 30-40 wavenumbers higher frequency than that of free $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}$. Solid compounds of higher $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2/\text{CuI}$ ratio were not obtained.

(a) Structure of Tetrakis(phenylphosphine)-di- μ -iodo-dicopper(I)

The experimental data for the X-ray diffraction study of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ are summarized in Table 4.2. The structure was initially solved using a partial set of intensity data collected at ambient temperature. Because of the low melting point of the compound (65°C), and the somewhat large atomic temperature factors determined in this initial refinement, a full data set was acquired at -65°C .

The symmetry and systematic absences of the weighted reciprocal lattice indicated that $\text{C}2/\underline{\text{c}}$ and $\text{C}\underline{\text{c}}$ were possible space groups for the crystal. No solution to the Patterson map could be found in the centrosymmetric space group $\text{C}2/\underline{\text{c}}$. Analysis of the normalized squared structure factors (E^2) gives an average value of $|E^2 - 1|$ of 0.82. A centrosymmetric structure would be expected to give a value of 0.97 and a noncentrosymmetric structure a value of 0.74 (Sheldrick, 1976).

The structural solution in the non-centrosymmetric space group $\text{C}\underline{\text{c}}$ was fully refined for all non-hydrogen atoms and included anisotropic temperature factors for Cu, I and P. The subsequent final cycles of refinement included the 20 hydrogen atoms of the phenyl-rings, which atoms were fixed at positions 0.95\AA (Churchill, 1973) from each carbon atom along a vector bisecting each C-C-C angle and in the plane defined by those atoms. The hydrogen atoms were assigned isotropic

Table 4.2: Crystal and Diffraction Data Acquisition Parameters For $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$.

Crystal Parameters (at -65°C).^a

a = 10.625(2) Å	Monoclinic
b = 25.115(8) Å	Space group Cc
c = 11.361(2) Å	Z = 4
β = 105.929(15)°	FW = 821.28
V = 2914.6(12) Å ³	$\rho(\text{calc}) = 1.8716(9) \text{ g cm}^{-3}$
$\mu(\text{MoK}\alpha) = 38.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$	$\rho(\text{obs}) = 1.8(1) \text{ g cm}^{-3}$
Conditions : hkl : h+k = 2n	
h0l : l = 2n	
Crystal dimensions : 0.3 × 0.3 × 0.2 mm ^c	

Intensity Measurements

Radiation	: MoK α ($\lambda = 0.71069 \text{ \AA}$)
Scan Mode	: $\theta:2\theta$
Scan Range	: ($K_{\alpha 1} -1.0^\circ$) to ($K_{\alpha 2} +1.0^\circ$)
Scan rates ^d	: 5.86 to 29.30° min ⁻¹
Reflections measured	: $\pm h, k, \pm l$
Maximum 2θ	: 45°
Standard reflections ^e	: 5 -5 0 (e.s.d. 2.93%)
	: 4 -8 1 (e.s.d. 1.53%)

Table 4.2: (continued)

Details of Refinement^f

Unique Reflections	:	3820
'Unobserved Reflections'	:	less than 3σ :381, zero intensity:36 ^g
R Factors ^h	:	$R_1 = 0.0460$
	:	$R_2 = 0.0593$
Weighting Scheme	:	$w = [\sigma^2 + 0.001741 F^2]^{-1}$
'Second Extinction'	:	$F^* = F(1 - 2.9 \times 10^{-8} F^2 / \sin^2 \theta)$
Final Shift/error	:	Maximum 0.090
	:	Average 0.006
Highest peak ⁱ in final difference map	:	1.010 eA ⁻³
Lowest trough in final difference map	:	-0.655 eA ⁻³

- a 15 reflections $20^\circ < 2\theta < 30^\circ$ were used to determine the cell constants using MoK _{α_1} radiation ($\lambda = 0.70926\text{\AA}$).
- b Neutral buoyancy in aqueous ZnBr₂.
- c The crystal was a rectangular prism; the dimensions given are approximate; measurement of more precise crystal dimensions was unfortunately forestalled by decomposition and liquefaction of the crystal upon rewarming to room temperature after the acquisition of intensity data.

Table 4.2 (continued)

- d Dependent on the intensity of a preliminary count.
- e Measured after every 48 reflections; displayed no systematic deviations in intensity.
- f Data reduction, including Lorentz and polarization corrections, was performed using programs from the XRAY-76 package of crystallographic programs. Absorption corrections were not applied (estimated maximum error in F is ~35%).
- g Reflections of zero intensity were given a weight of zero in the refinement.
- h
$$R_1 = \frac{\sum (|F_{(obs)}| - |F_{(calc)}|) / \sum (F_{(obs)})}{\sum (|F_{(obs)}| - |F_{(calc)}|) / \sum (F_{(obs)})}$$

$$R_2 = [\sum (w(|F_{(obs)}| - |F_{(calc)}|)^2) / \sum (wF_{(obs)}^2)]^{1/2}$$
- i This peak occurs at (0.4035, 0.4229, 0.7104) which is 1.00Å from I_1 . The second most intense peak occurs at 1.09Å from I_2 .

temperature factors fixed at 1.5 times those of the carbon atom to which they were bonded. The positions and temperature factors of the hydrogen atoms were recalculated after each cycle of refinement and were fixed at these new values for the subsequent cycle. The hydrogen atoms bonded to phosphorus could not be found in the electron difference map and were not included in the refinement.

The final positional parameters and equivalent isotropic temperature factors for the atoms are given in Table 4.3. Anisotropic temperature factors for the heavy atoms are listed in Table 4.4. The calculated and observed structure factors and σ -values can be found in the Appendix.

Description of the Structure

The crystal consists of discrete molecular dimers, $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$, separated by normal van der Waals distances. The closest intermolecular contacts, none of which are unusually close, are described below. Each molecule comprises one asymmetric unit of the structure.

The packing of the molecules in the unit cell, shown in Figure 4.4, is particularly interesting because it demonstrates how the packing of potentially flexible molecules can cause those molecules to assume asymmetric conformations. The molecules of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ pack so that three of the phenyl-groups, namely those bonded to P(1),

Table 4.3:
Final Atomic Positional Fractional Coordinates $\times 10^3$ and
Equivalent Isotropic Thermal Parameters for $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$

	x	y	z	$U_{\text{eq}}^{\text{a*}}$ or $U_{\text{iso}} (\text{\AA}^2 \times 10^{-3})$
I(1)	500 ^b	423.29(2)	750 ^b	36.3(5)*
I(2)	591.9	318.56(2)	503.3(1)	39.9(5)*
Cu(1)	530.1(1)	420.58(5)	525.9(1)	39.7(9)*
Cu(2)	575.8(1)	322.41(5)	731.7(1)	40.9(9)*
P(1)	771.9(3)	316.9(1)	871.8(3)	40(2)*
P(2)	336.2(3)	431.0(1)	386.8(3)*	39(2)*
P(3)	687.9(3)	477.2(1)	509.7(3)	43(2)*
P(4)	411.9(3)	270.4(1)	754.8(2)	43(2)*
C(1)	786.9(9)	348.9(4)	1018.8(9)	34(2)
C(2)	900(1)	377.0(4)	1080.5(9)	41(2)
C(3)	906(1)	399.0(5)	1189(1)	56(3)
C(4)	808(1)	395.1(5)	1246(1)	56(3)
C(5)	695(1)	366.7(5)	1188(1)	60(3)
C(6)	686(1)	344.9(4)	1073.6(9)	43(3)
C(7)	314.9(9)	402.0(4)	235.1(9)	33(2)
C(8)	259(1)	352.3(5)	205(1)	57(3)
C(9)	253(2)	332.7(7)	85(2)	81(4)
C(10)	294(2)	362.0(6)	6(2)	80(4)
C(11)	350(1)	408.5(6)	37(1)	68(4)
C(12)	361(1)	428.8(4)	150(1)	42(3)
C(13)	859(1)	464.1(4)	590.2(9)	38(2)
C(14)	961(1)	478.2(4)	542(1)	51(3)
C(15)	1089(1)	466.8(5)	609(1)	60(3)
C(16)	1114(1)	442.4(5)	716(1)	63(3)
C(17)	1015(1)	428.8(5)	770(1)	57(3)
C(18)	887(1)	439.3(5)	703(1)	48(3)
C(19)	243(1)	286.6(4)	677.2(9)	39(2)
C(20)	140(1)	270.1(5)	723(1)	58(3)
C(21)	11(1)	284.5(5)	659(1)	61(3)
C(22)	-14(1)	311.9(5)	552(1)	60(3)
C(23)	87(2)	326.5(5)	511(1)	61(3)
C(24)	215(1)	315.3(4)	573(1)	47(3)
H(2)	971 ^c	380.3	1045	61 ^d
H(3)	983	418.3	1230	84
H(4)	816	411.5	1323	84
H(5)	626	362.5	1225	90
H(6)	609	326.6	1032	64
H(8)	225	332.3	261	86
H(9)	219	298.0	62	122
H(10)	283	349.1	-75	119
H(11)	384	427.8	-20	101
H(12)	401	462.6	171	64
H(14)	944	495.4	465	76

Table 4.3: (continued)

	x	y	z	U_{iso}
H(15)	1159	476.7	577	89
H(16)	1203	433.8	757	94
H(17)	1035	413.3	850	86
H(18)	817	429.1	735	72
H(20)	156	249.6	796	87
H(21)	-60	274.9	691	92
H(22)	-101	320.5	508	90
H(23)	70	345.5	436	92
H(24)	284	327.7	542	71

equivalent positions: x, y, z ; $x+1/2, y+1/2, z$; $x, \bar{y}, z+1/2$;
 $x+1/2, 1/2-y, z+1/2$.

$$a \quad U_{eq} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_i \sum_j U_{ij} \vec{a}_i \cdot \vec{a}_j$$

b Coordinates fixed arbitrarily to define the origin of the unit cell.

c Hydrogen positions are fixed at 0.95Å from their analogous ring-carbon atoms (see Churchill, 1973), along a vector bisecting the C-C-C angle and in the plane of those atoms.

d The isotropic temperature factors of the hydrogen atoms are fixed at 1.5 times those of the carbon atoms to which they are bonded.

Table 4.4: Anisotropic Temperature Factors for the Heavy Atoms in $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$. ($\text{\AA}^2 \times 10^{-3}$)

	U_{11}	U_{22}	U_{33}	U_{12}	U_{13}	U_{23}
I(1)	40.3(4)	30.5(4)	32.0(4)	4.0(3)	7.9(3)	-4.6(3)
I(2)	46.3(4)	34.4(4)	33.4(4)	7.3(3)	12.9(3)	-3.8(3)
Cu(1)	36.9(8)	39.2(8)	34.7(8)	0.4(5)	2.2(6)	-1.1(5)
Cu(2)	44.1(8)	37.8(7)	32.6(8)	3.5(5)	3.6(6)	-0.5(5)
P(1)	40(2)	39(2)	32(2)	9(1)	5(1)	3(1)
P(2)	37(2)	41(2)	32(2)	6(1)	5(1)	3(1)
P(3)	43(2)	30(1)	48(2)	1(1)	5(1)	6(1)
P(4)	58(2)	29(1)	35(2)	-4(1)	7(1)	3(1)

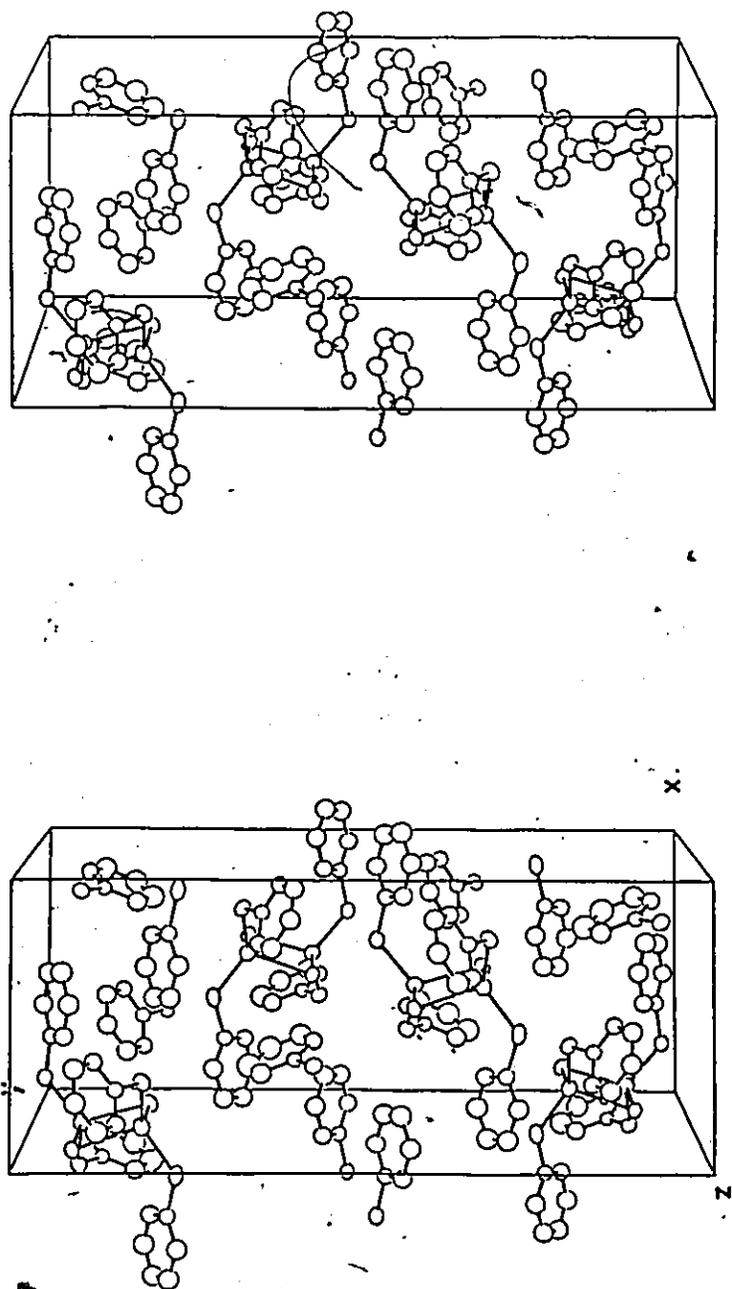


Figure 4.4: Stereoscopic Ortep (Stewart, 1976) drawing of the packing of molecules in $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$.

(The diagram includes the non-hydrogen contents of one unit cell plus atoms to complete the four molecules whose Cu_2I_2 cores occur within the cell and atoms to complete all phenylphosphine groups which protrude into the cell.)

P(3) and P(4), from each molecular unit are incorporated into infinite sliding stacks (see Figure 4.4) in which each ring is related to the ring three levels further along the stack by the c-centering operation. Therefore the axes of these 'pseudo-graphitic' stacks are oriented parallel to the $[1, \bar{1}, 0]$ and $[1, 1, 0]$ directions. Stacks possessing these two different orientations are related to each other by the c-glide plane. Two of the crystallographically unique rings in a given stack are very nearly parallel to one another. The dihedral angle between them is 4.8° (see planes (V) and (VI) in Table 4.5). The third ring, plane (III) in Table 4.5, is tilted somewhat with respect to the other two, giving dihedral angles of 20.6° and 21.4° . This tilting of the ring bonded to P(1) arises because the fourth crystallographically unique phenyl-ring, bonded to P(2), in the structure is situated between adjacent pseudo-graphitic stacks separated by unit translations along a and is in close contact with the former ring. This last phenyl ring is oriented approximately parallel to the axes of the neighbouring stacks and packs edge to edge with Cu_2I_2 rhombuses of adjacent molecules so that it is nearly coplanar with these latter fragments, (see Figure 4.4). The dihedral angle between the plane of this ring and that of an adjacent Cu_2I_2 rhombus is 11.0° (see also plane (VI.I) in Table 4.5). The structure, therefore, contains sets of infinite 'ribbons' parallel to $(1, \bar{1}, 0)$ and $(1, 1, 0)$ consisting of alternating

Table 4.5: Selected Least Squares Planes^a and Dihedral Angles
for $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$

	Atom	Deviation(A)		
Plane Ia:	I(1)	0.036	Plane Ib:	I(1), I(2), Cu(1)
	I(2)	0.036	Plane Ic:	I(1), I(2), Cu(2)
	Cu(1)	-0.036	Plane Id:	Cu(1), Cu(2), I(1)
	Cu(2)	-0.036	Plane Ie:	Cu(1), Cu(2), I(2)
Plane II:	Cu(1)	-0.015		
	Cu(2)	0.094		
	P(1)	-0.014		
	P(2)	0.017		
	P(3)	0.024		
	P(4)	-0.057		
	I(1) ^{*b}	-2.041		
I(2) [*]	2.105			
Plane III:	C(1)-C(6)	no significant deviation from planarity		
	P(1) [*]	-0.044		
Plane IV:	C(7)-C(12)	no significant deviation from planarity		
	P(2) [*]	-0.040		
Plane V:	C(13)-C(18)	no significant deviation from planarity		
	P(3) [*]	0.006 (not significant)		
Plane VI:	C(19)-C(24)	no significant deviation from planarity		
	P(4) [*]	0.022		
Plane VII:	C(7)	0.007	I(1) ^{'d}	-0.136
	C(8)	0.106	I(2) [']	0.180
	C(9)	0.085	Cu(1) [']	-0.191
	C(10)	0.040	Cu(2) [']	0.091
	C(11)	-0.086		
	C(12)	-0.098		

Table 4.5: (continued)

Planes	Dihedral Angles (degrees) ^c
Ia + II	87.6
Ib + Ic	5.0
Id + Ie	4.0
III + IV	40.2
III + V	55.2
III + VI	59.6
IV + V	73.6
IV + VI	75.6
V + VI	4.8
III + V'	20.6
III + VI'	21.4
IV + I'	11.0

a Unless otherwise indicated planes are composed of atoms within the same molecule.

b * -- indicates atoms which were not included in the calculation of the plane.

c Acute dihedral angles given.

d Primed numerals or atom labels indicate planes or atoms from a molecule related by $(x, 1-y, z-1/2)$ to those denoted by the unprimed labels and numerals.

phenyl-rings and Cu_2I_2 rhombuses. These 'ribbons' are sandwiched between the 'sliding stacks' of phenyl-rings and thus represent another facet of the same packing condition which gives rise to the orientations of the stacks. The absence of significant voids in this structure suggests that it represents an optimum packing geometry.

Molecular Structure

A diagram of an individual molecule is given in Figure 4.5 and shows clearly that the two diametrically opposed phenyl-groups bonded to P(3) and P(4) respectively are nearly parallel to one another (dihedral angle = 4.8°), while the other two rings are tilted with respect to them and with respect to each other (see Table 4.5). There is a slight puckering of the Cu_2I_2 rhombus indicated by the dihedral angle of 5° for planes Ib and Ic in Table 4.5. Such puckering is commonly observed in structures of this type (Eller, 1977) and is no doubt attributable to packing forces. The intramolecular atomic separations are listed in Table 4.6 and the bond angles in Table 4.7.

The dimeric molecule contains two pseudotetrahedrally coordinated copper atoms bridged by two iodine atoms. The other coordination sites are occupied by the phosphorus atoms of the phenylphosphine ligands. This molecule may therefore be described as a 'normal' dimer in that it has the most commonly occurring geometries about halogen and copper

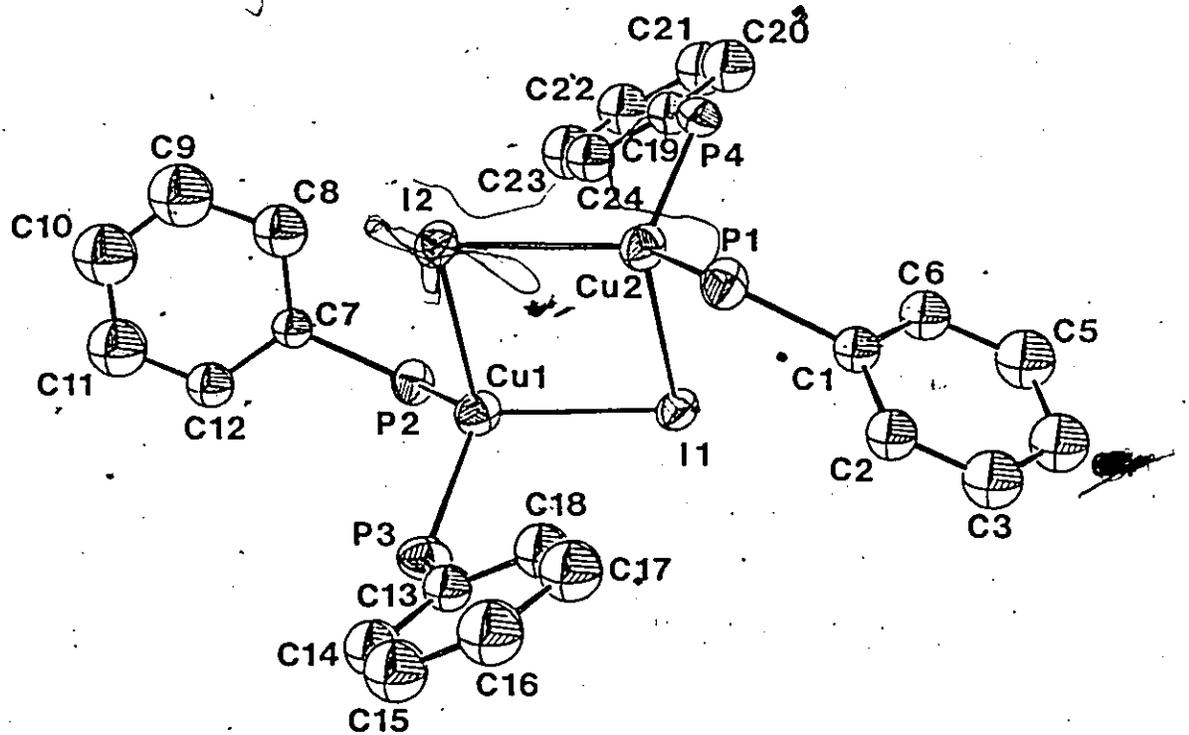


Figure 4.5: Molecule of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$.
 (Ortep drawing, XRAY-76: Stewart, 1976)

Table 4.6: Interatomic Distances (Å) for $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$
(Intramolecular)

I(1) - Cu(1)	2.652(1)	I(2) - Cu(1)	2.675(1)
I(1) - Cu(2)	2.684(1)	I(2) - Cu(2)	2.648(2)
I(1) - I(2)	4.151(1)	Cu(1) - Cu(2)	3.340(2)
Cu(1) - P(2)	2.241(3)	Cu(2) - P(1)	2.252(3)
Cu(1) - P(3)	2.244(3)	Cu(2) - P(4)	2.249(3)
P(2) - C(7)	1.83(1)	P(1) - C(1)	1.82(1)
P(3) - C(13)	1.83(1)	P(4) - C(19)	1.82(1)
C(1) - C(2)	1.40(1)	C(7) - C(8)	1.39(2)
C(1) - C(6)	1.38(2)	C(7) - C(12)	1.37(2)
C(2) - C(3)	1.34(2)	C(8) - C(9)	1.44(2)
C(3) - C(4)	1.37(2)	C(9) - C(10)	1.33(3)
C(4) - C(5)	1.40(2)	C(10) - C(11)	1.32(2)
C(5) - C(6)	1.39(2)	C(11) - C(12)	1.36(2)
C(13) - C(14)	1.39(2)	C(19) - C(20)	1.40(2)
C(13) - C(18)	1.38(2)	C(19) - C(24)	1.35(2)
C(14) - C(15)	1.39(2)	C(20) - C(21)	1.41(2)
C(15) - C(16)	1.33(2)	C(21) - C(22)	1.36(2)
C(16) - C(17)	1.40(2)	C(22) - C(23)	1.33(2)
C(17) - C(18)	1.40(2)	C(23) - C(24)	1.38(2)

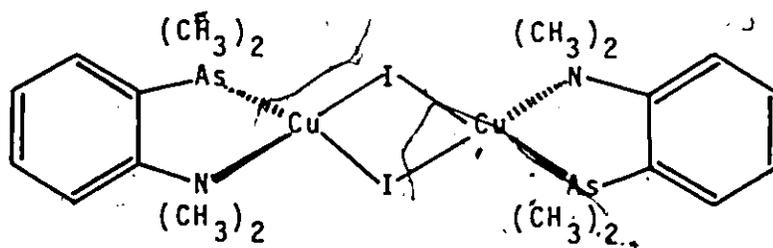
Table 4.7: Bond Angles for $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$
(Degrees)

Cu(1) - I(1) - Cu(2)	77.50(4)	Cu(1) - I(2) - Cu(1)	77.73(5)
I(1) - Cu(1) - I(2)	102.36(5)	I(1) - Cu(2) - I(2)	102.24(5)
I(1) - Cu(1) - P(2)	110.2(1)	I(1) - Cu(2) - P(1)	104.03(8)
I(1) - Cu(1) - P(3)	110.60(9)	I(1) - Cu(2) - P(4)	106.3(1)
I(2) - Cu(1) - P(2)	104.26(9)	I(2) - Cu(2) - P(1)	113.2(1)
I(2) - Cu(1) - P(3)	113.00(9)	I(2) - Cu(2) - P(4)	110.72(9)
P(2) - Cu(1) - P(3)	115.5(1)	P(1) - Cu(2) - P(4)	118.5(1)
Cu(1) - P(2) - C(7)	118.1(3)	Cu(2) - P(1) - C(1)	116.9(3)
Cu(1) - P(3) - C(13)	120.5(4)	Cu(2) - P(4) - C(19)	120.5(4)
P(2) - C(7) - C(8)	121.5(9)	P(1) - C(1) - C(2)	121.8(9)
P(2) - C(7) - C(12)	119.6(7)	P(1) - C(1) - C(6)	119.9(7)
P(3) - C(13) - C(14)	122.4(8)	P(4) - C(19) - C(20)	121.7(8)
P(3) - C(13) - C(18)	118.5(9)	P(4) - C(19) - C(24)	119.6(9)
C(8) - C(7) - C(12)	119(1)	C(2) - C(1) - C(6)	118(1)
C(7) - C(8) - C(9)	116(1)	C(1) - C(2) - C(3)	119(1)
C(8) - C(9) - C(10)	121(2)	C(2) - C(3) - C(4)	123(1)
C(9) - C(10) - C(11)	122(2)	C(3) - C(4) - C(5)	119(1)
C(10) - C(11) - C(12)	120(2)	C(4) - C(5) - C(6)	118(1)
C(7) - C(12) - C(11)	122(1)	C(1) - C(6) - C(5)	122(1)
C(14) - C(13) - C(18)	119.2(9)	C(20) - C(19) - C(24)	119(1)
C(13) - C(14) - C(15)	119(1)	C(19) - C(20) - C(21)	119(1)
C(14) - C(15) - C(16)	122(1)	C(20) - C(21) - C(22)	121(1)
C(15) - C(16) - C(17)	122(1)	C(21) - C(22) - C(23)	118(1)
C(16) - C(17) - C(18)	117(1)	C(22) - C(23) - C(24)	123(1)
C(13) - C(18) - C(17)	122(1)	C(19) - C(24) - C(23)	120(1)

found in copper(I) halide-phosphine complexes. Although a number of compounds have been prepared which possess the same stoichiometric ratio of ligand to metal halide and which almost certainly possess the same structure, no crystal structure has previously been reported for a simple 'binary' dimeric complex of this stoichiometric ratio of CuI to monodentate ligand, nor has any similar structure been reported in which the phosphine ligands were not tertiary phosphines.

Only three structures have been published which consist of dimeric molecules possessing the Cu_2I_2 core. The one which most closely approaches the present structure is for $[\text{CuI}[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{CH}_3]_2]_2 \cdot \text{SO}_2$ which has the same general molecular geometry as $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ except that it contains a molecule of SO_2 which is weakly coordinated via sulfur to one of the bridging iodine atoms (Eller, 1977). This shows that the iodine atoms in such structures possess the capability of forming secondary bonds. The molecule $(\text{CuI})_2[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ (Eller, 1977) contains a similarly di-bridged Cu_2I_2 core but one of the copper atoms is only pseudo-trigonally coordinated. Coordination of a fourth triphenylphosphine ligand in this molecule is thought to be prohibited as a consequence of the steric bulk of the triphenylphosphine ligands. The former compound containing $\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{CH}_3$ ligands as well as the compound $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ presented here, both demonstrate that the use of smaller

phosphine ligands permits full tetrahedral coordination of the copper atoms. The only other published structure based on the Cu_2I_2 core is that of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{As}(\text{CH}_3)_2)]_2$ (Graziani, 1971) in which the bidentate ligand binds to the copper atom via both As and N.



Various authors have concluded that the molecular structures of cuprous halide-tertiary phosphine complexes are the net results of electronic, steric and packing factors (Gill, 1976; Eller, 1977; Churchill, 1975). When the phosphine ligands and halide ions are large (e.g. $\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3$ and I^-) non-bonded intramolecular interactions are dominant in deciding the structural geometry and stoichiometry in concert with the metal-ligand and metal-halide bond distances which appear to be a function of the coordination number about the metal (Gill, 1976). The bond angles about copper and halogen appear to be quite flexible and adopt values which minimize steric interactions. In $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ as well as in other compounds possessing Cu_2I_2 units the geometry of this unit is apparently governed by the minimum distance of mutual approach of the two iodine atoms

(4.151(1)Å for $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$; 4.109(1)Å for $\{\text{CuI}[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{CH}_3]_2\}_2 \cdot \text{SO}_2$; 4.302(1)Å for $(\text{CuI})_2[\text{P}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3]_3$ and 4.370Å for $[\text{CuI}\sigma\text{-C}_6\text{H}_4\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{As}(\text{CH}_3)_2]_2$). Twice the accepted van der Waals radius of iodine is 4.30Å (Pauling, 1965).

The Cu-Cu distance in $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ is non-bonding (3.340(2)Å). The distance in Cu metal is 2.56Å. However, separations of Cu atoms in similar compounds show a considerable range of values and can approach bonding distances. It has been postulated (Hoffmann, 1978) that there may be a net 'soft attractive' interaction between Cu atoms in such complexes rendering the structures relatively indifferent to the magnitude of the metal-metal separation. The result is that this distance is merely a consequence of the minimum halogen-halogen distance and normal Cu-X bond lengths.

The CuI bond lengths, average = 2.665(18)Å, are in the same range normally found for tetrahedrally coordinated copper(I) (2.62-2.81Å) (Churchill, 1975; Eller, 1977). The Cu-P distances, average = 2.247(5)Å, are essentially the same as those found with tertiary phosphines in similar structures, namely 2.24 to 2.27Å (Churchill, 1975; Eller, 1977).

The average of the bond angles about the phosphorus atoms, Cu-P-C = 119(2)°, is larger than an average value of 114° found for triphenyl phosphine bound to copper (Churchill, 1975), but it is not abnormally large. It is reasonable to

expect this angle to be somewhat larger for a primary phosphine because of the relatively small stereochemical requirements of the P-H hydrogen atoms. The P-C bond lengths, average = 1.823(4)Å, are normal for a phosphorus-carbon single bond. The phosphorus atoms deviate very little from the planes of their associated phenyl-rings (see Table 4.5). The C-C-C, average = 120(2)°, and P-C-C, average = 120.6(14)°, bond angles all deviate by less than 3σ from 120°. Apparent deviations in the C-C bond distances from the expected 1.395Å, especially for those between meta and para carbon atoms, may result from systematic errors caused by rigid-body thermal motions. Specifically wagging motions of the phenylphosphine groups about the P-Cu and P-C bond axes may cause the C-C bond lengths furthest from these axes to be systematically low (Churchill, 1975).

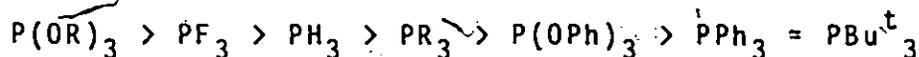
It is perhaps of interest to consider briefly the environment of the iodine atoms in $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ in more detail to look for possible explanations for the small effective electric field gradients at these atoms as indicated above by the ^{127}I Mössbauer results. There are several contacts between the iodine atoms and the projected hydrogen atoms from the phenyl-rings which may be slightly less than the sum of the van der Waals radii for hydrogen and iodine (1.2 + 2.15 = 3.35Å). The values range from 2.95 to 3.35Å assuming that the hydrogens are located 1.1 angstroms from their respective carbon atoms. Given the

uncertainty in the van der Waals radii, these contacts may merely represent ordinary non-bonding separations. The geometry about the phosphorus atom which most closely approaches an iodine atom from an adjacent molecule, $P(3) \cdots I(1) = 3.963(3) \text{ \AA}$, indicates that the hydrogen atoms bonded to phosphorus are not likely to approach the iodine atom by less than 3.1 \AA . Although the hydrogen atoms were not located in the structure refinement and therefore their exact positions are not known, there does not appear to be any clear evidence of secondary bonds to iodine which could act to effectively reduce any electric field gradient at iodine caused by the I-Cu bonds.

D. Interaction of PH_3 with CuI

It has been demonstrated (Lippard, 1971) that the steric bulk of a tertiary phosphine ligand is the dominant contributing factor to the dissociation of their complexes with cuprous halides in solution. The bulkier ligands cause a higher degree of dissociation. Complexes between cuprous halides and the much smaller primary phosphines or PH_3 itself might reasonably be expected to be more stable since, in addition to their smaller cone angles (Tolma, 1970) they have also been postulated to have greater π -acidity than tertiary phosphines (Fischer, 1969). In fact a possible order of

'complexing power' of P(III) ligands has been suggested to be as follows:



(Emsley, 1976). Such a listing is of course rather arbitrary and no doubt the degree to which the various stabilizing or destabilizing factors (i.e., σ -donor strength, π -acidity, steric effects) contribute to the relative order will depend upon the metal atom involved and upon the geometry of the complex.

Earlier workers (Holtje, 1940; Scholde, 1934) found that adducts between PH_3 and cuprous halides are unstable to loss of PH_3 under standard conditions. This indicates that ligand basicity is the dominant factor contributing to the energetics of the metal-phosphine interaction in the absence of steric effects. The relative basicities of PH_3 and the phenyl-phosphines, as given by the pK_a values of the conjugate phosphonium ions, are: $P(C_6H_5)_3$, $pK_a = 2.73$; $P(C_6H_5)_2H$, $pK_a = 0.03$; $P(C_6H_5)H_2$, pK_a est. (-1.7); PH_3 , $pK_a = -14$ (Henderson, 1960). For compounds with Cu(I) it seems that π -back-donation into phosphorus d-orbitals is not sufficient to compensate for the weaker σ -donor ability of PH_3 relative to the phenyl-substituted phosphines. This may

be due, in part, to the d^{10} filled-shell configuration of Cu(I).

To confirm the earlier conclusions regarding the interaction between PH_3 and CuI, solutions of PH_3 and CuI in THF were prepared and examined by ^{31}P NMR. It was found that indeed a considerable excess of PH_3 was required in the sealed NMR tubes in order to dissolve all of the cuprous iodide. ^{31}P NMR spectra of these solutions confirmed complex formation by revealing a complexation shift of approximately 20 ppm to low field and an increase in J_{PH} from 187 Hz for free PH_3 to approximately 233 Hz in the solution. The existence of only one ^{31}P signal, an ^1H -coupled quartet, regardless of the exact composition of the solution indicated that as with other phosphines the complexes undergo rapid ligand exchange in solution at room temperature. Raman spectra of the solutions confirmed this. A sharp band at 2307 cm^{-1} , attributed to the P-H stretching vibration of free PH_3 , as well as a broader, possibly multiple, band centred at 2344 cm^{-1} , attributed to bound PH_3 , were observed. Such an increase in P-H stretching frequency is in agreement with the observation (Abel, 1969) that the P-H stretching frequency of $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2\text{PH}$ increases by about 33 to 41 cm^{-1} upon coordination to copper(I). The NMR and vibrational results are consistent with a strengthening of the P-H bond upon complexation as a result of rehybridization at phosphorus.

When low-temperature ^{31}P NMR spectra of the solutions were recorded, in an attempt to 'freeze out' the ligand exchange process, a white solid precipitated and the time averaged ^{31}P NMR parameters shifted back towards those of free PH_3 . This process was observed to be reversible and possibly indicates that CuI-PH_3 complex formation is endothermic. Crystals of the precipitated solid were shown by X-ray diffraction to be cuprous iodide (Batchelor, 1982).

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION

A. NMR of the Main Group Phenylhydrides and Their Anions

(i) Summary and Discussion

Trends in the ^1H NMR chemical shifts of phenyl-substituted amines, phosphines and arsines as well as of their respective monoanions have been studied. The ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts of the same species have also been obtained and have been compared with the ^1H results. The chemical shifts have been interpreted in terms of the electron distributions of these compounds although other factors also strongly influence some of the observed shifts. ^{31}P NMR spectra of the phosphines and phosphides were also recorded and the results compared with literature data. The interpretation of the ^{31}P NMR parameters is less clear but they are not inconsistent with the conclusions reached from the ^1H and ^{13}C results.

The ^{13}C chemical shifts appear to be the best indicators of the electron distributions in the molecules studied, consequently ^{13}C NMR spectra of a series of aryl-substituted germanes as well as their monoanions are also recorded. The observed chemical shifts were compared with those of the analogous group 5B compounds as well as with

literature data for phenyl substituted methanes and their corresponding carbanions. The results indicate a much lower degree of resonance delocalization of the negative charge in the phenyl-substituted germyl anions as compared with either the analogous carbanions or the anions of phenyl-substituted group 5B hydrides. This is consistent with a previously suggested rationale (Jolly, 1971), based on hybridization ideas, for the lowered acidities of germanes upon increased phenyl-substitution (Birchall and Drummond, 1972). Analogous studies with phenyl-substituted silanes were unsuccessful because of their lower acidities and the occurrence of side reactions when attempting the deprotonation of either phenyl- or diphenyl-silanes. However, the ^{13}C NMR spectrum of $(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{SiLi}$ has been reported (Olah, 1980) and reveals no evidence of resonance delocalization in this compound.

Concentration and temperature dependent studies of the ^{31}P NMR of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PHNa}$ in THF show that ion-pairing as well as aggregation are important in these solutions. ^{13}C chemical shifts of this species in THF, however, show little dependence on concentration. Change of solvent to NH_3 has a somewhat larger effect on the ^{13}C chemical shifts. However, the observed changes in the NMR spectrum, along with the observation that the order of relative acidity of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$ compared to PH_3 is the same in either THF or NH_3 solvents indicates that the effect of the different solvents does not

account for the opposite trends in acidity of phosphines and arsines compared to germanes upon phenyl-substitution. This was of concern because the earlier studies of the acidities of phenylphosphines and -arsines (Issleib, 1965) and of phenylgermanes (Birchall and Drummond, 1972) were conducted using THF and NH_3 solvents respectively.

The objective of this work was to use NMR spectroscopy to demonstrate that the above mentioned, observed differences in the effect of phenyl-substitution on the acidities of main group hydrides can be traced to electronic interactions in these molecules and their anions. However, it is apparent that correlations between chemical properties, such as thermodynamic equilibrium constants, and the NMR chemical shifts are rather tenuous. Conceptually there are two basic steps required to achieve such an analysis. First, the chemical shifts must be related to electron distributions in the molecules concerned. Second, the electron distributions must be related to the energetics of the chemical process which, in this case, is the acid base equilibrium (5.1).



The complexity of the theory of chemical shifts necessitates severe approximations in order to allow a rationale for a simple correlation with electron densities (Karplus, 1963). Empirical correlations of chemical shifts with calculated electron densities do show, however, that such approximations may be valid for special sets of selected data (Ewing, 1978; Hehre, 1976; Nelson, 1976 and references therein). The chemical shifts of the nuclei in the para position of monosubstituted benzenes appear to conform to such correlations. Direct correlation of these chemical shifts with substituent parameters such as σ_R° appears to shortcut the necessity for correlating the electron densities with energy-related parameters although such studies have also been made (Hehre, 1976). Generally, however, consideration of the trends in the various NMR parameters of monosubstituted benzenes permits only qualitative conclusions to be reached regarding the nature of the interaction between the ring and the substituent.

All of the species studied in this work may be considered as substituted benzenes having π -donor substituents, although the extent of π -donation varies drastically. Four limiting cases may be considered:

- (a) neutral molecules having poor π -overlap between the ring and the substituent.
- (b) neutral molecules with good π -overlap between ring and substituent.
- (c) anions with poor π -overlap and therefore little delocalization of negative charge.
- (d) anions with good π -overlap and considerable delocalization of negative charge.

Figure 5.1 can be used as a rough guide to the ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts for these four classifications. Ortho carbon chemical shifts are not included because these shifts appear to show a strong dependence on the size of the substituent which is not well understood. However, for small substituents in which the atom bonded to C_1 is a second period element (C, N, O, F) the ortho ^{13}C chemical shifts loosely parallel those of the para carbon (see Stothers, 1972) as is expected from electronic considerations. Most of the species studied in this work represent intermediate stages between the four extreme cases mentioned above.

The nature of the electronic interactions which give rise to the observed distributions in chemical shifts might best be described as a balance between charge transfer or delocalization, simple polarization and a ' π -molecular orbital effect'. The latter effect causes a redistribution of the π -electrons in the ring as a consequence of a

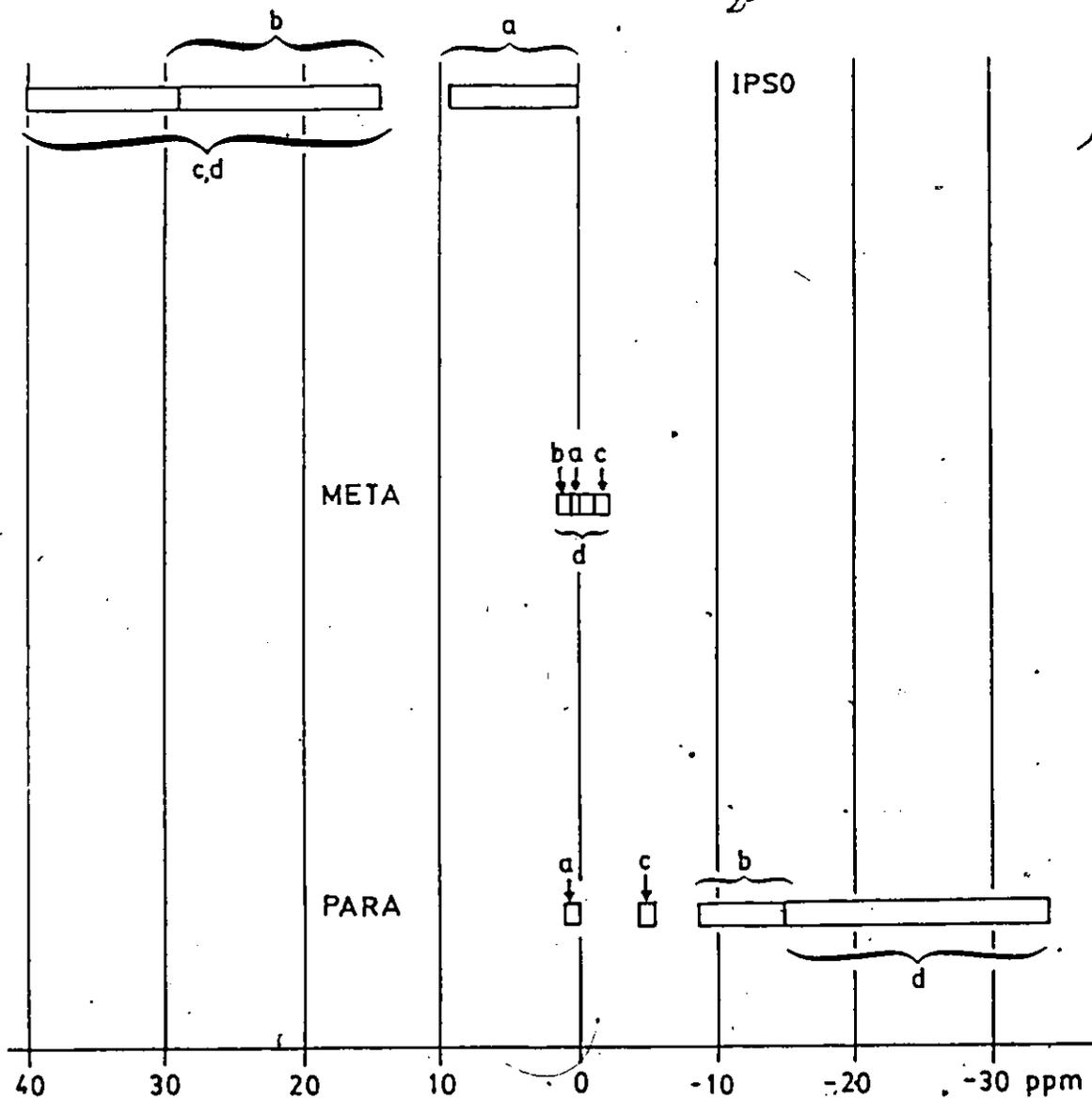


Figure 5.1: Typical ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts for mono-substituted benzenes having potentially π -donating substituents; definitions of a, b, c, d are found on page 175.

repulsive interaction with the electrons in filled orbitals of π -symmetry on the substituent (Libit, 1974; Topsom, 1976) such that π -electron density is shifted from the ipso carbon, and to a lesser extent from the meta carbon, and is accumulated at the ortho and para positions. Examples which distinguish between these influences can be found in calculated electron distributions for various monosubstituted benzenes (Pross, 1981); Figure 5.2. The case of strong delocalization may be represented by the anilide anion. The charge distribution is consistent with a low-field ^{13}C NMR chemical shift for the ipso carbon resonance as well as a high-field shift for the para (and ortho) resonance. The case of simple polarization is exemplified by the anilinium ion in which the completely localized positive charge causes the phenyl-ring to become polarized such that the π -electron density decreases with increasing distance from the positively charged substituent. In the present study, exactly the inverse of this appears to occur for the phenylgermyl anions as evidenced by their large low-field shifts of the ipso ^{13}C resonances and their small upfield shifts of the para and meta ^{13}C resonances.

The case of toluene demonstrates the ' π -orbital' effect (Libit, 1974). For toluene there is little net charge transfer to the ring but the interaction between the ring π -orbitals and orbitals of π -symmetry formed by linear combinations of the C-H σ -orbitals of $-\text{CH}_3$ results in mixing

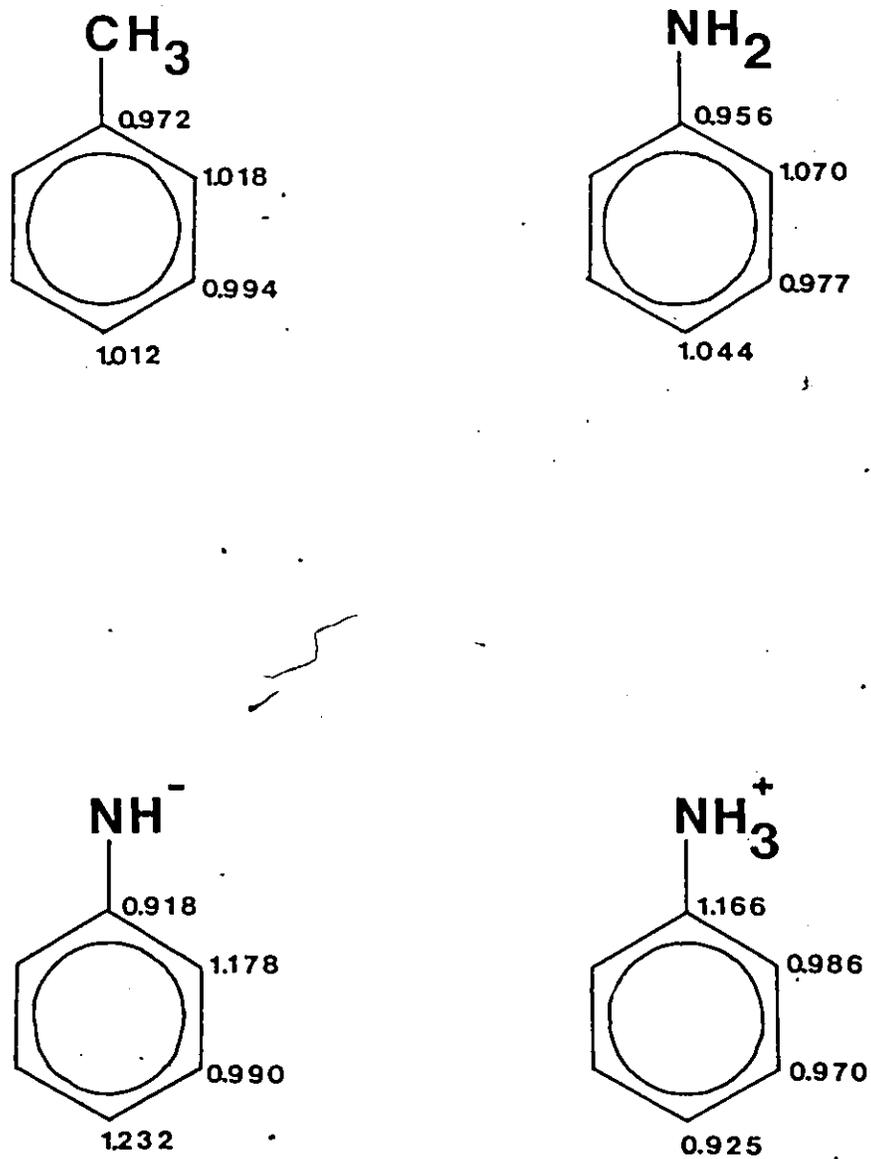


Figure 5.2: Calculated π -electron distributions for some simple monosubstituted benzenes (Pross, 1981).

of π^* -orbitals into the π -orbitals of the ring thus causing the observed redistribution of electrons in the ring. The case of aniline is intermediate between those of toluene and of the anilide ion in that it shows more electron transfer than does toluene but considerably less than the anilide ion.

The above differences in molecular π -electron distribution for benzenes possessing π -donor substituents, viewed in terms of perturbation molecular orbital theory, arise from two things:

- (a) the degree of overlap between the filled π -orbitals of the substituent with π or π^* orbitals of the ring.
- (b) the relative energies of these orbitals.

It is apparent that for a significant degree of charge transfer to occur the occupied π -orbital of the substituent must be of high enough energy to interact with the π^* orbitals of the benzene ring. Also there will be little net stabilization unless such charge transfer occurs (Pross, 1981) (Fig. 5.3). Thus it can be seen that a π interaction between ring and substituent has a much more stabilizing effect in the case of an anion than in the case of a neutral molecule. Therefore, when attempting to demonstrate the effects of resonance delocalization on the equilibrium shown

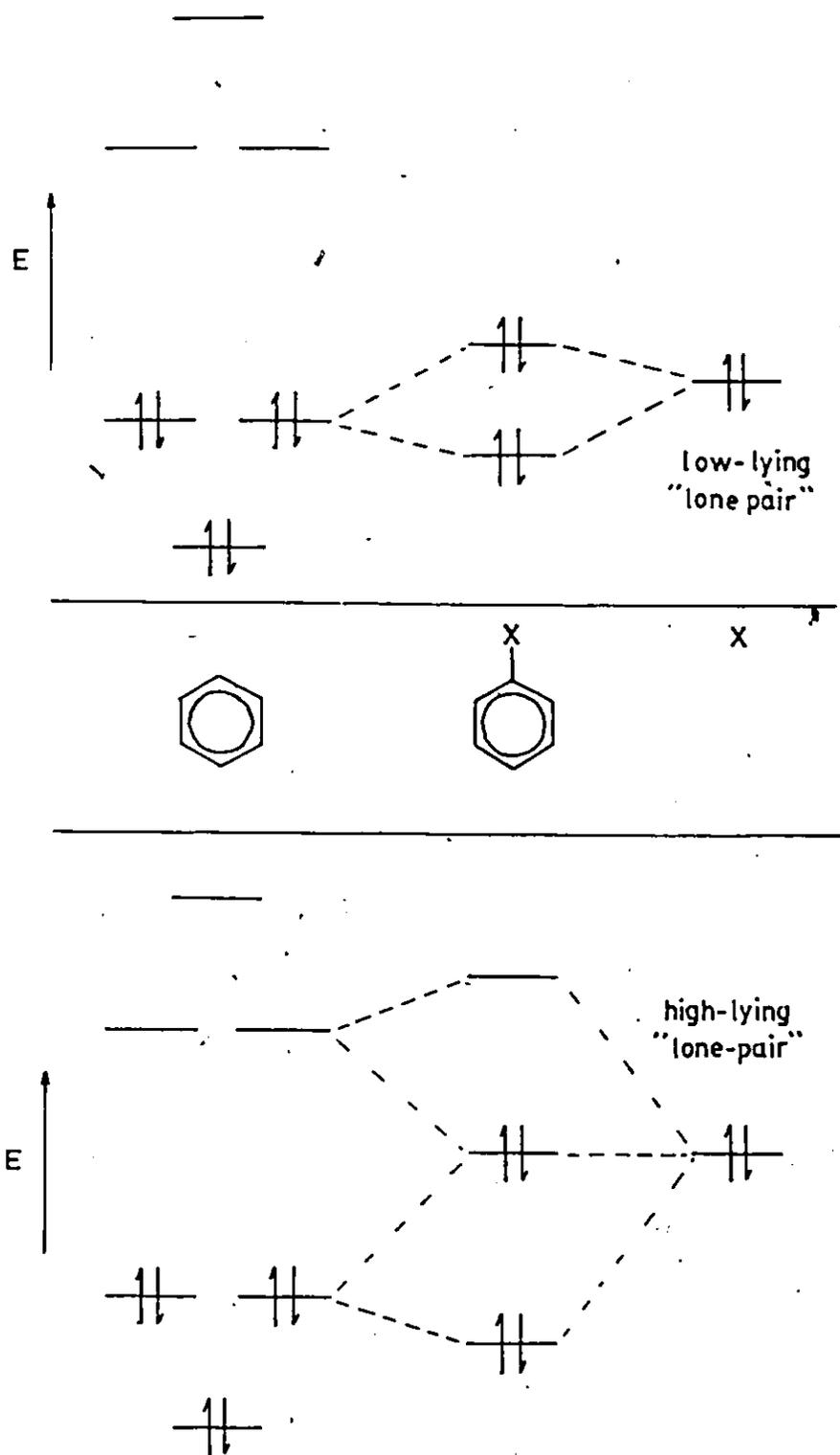


Figure 5.3: Simplified molecular orbital diagrams showing the effect of the relative energy of the substituent 'lone-pair' π -orbital on the interaction with the b_2 π -orbitals of the phenyl-ring (Pross, 1981).

in equation (5.1), only the resonance effects of the anions $(C_6H_5)_m YH^{n-m-1}$ need, at first, be considered. It is for this reason that in Fig. 3.18 the change in pKa per phenyl substituent was plotted versus the NMR parameters of the phenyl substituted anions only and that no term was included to account for the electronic interactions in the neutral molecules.

For the monosubstituted benzenes in which the substituent atom is a heavier main group element, such as P, As, Si or Ge, the amount of overlap between the filled π -orbitals of the main group element and the the π -system of the ring is considerably diminished. Thus while aniline displays some charge transfer from nitrogen to the ring as well as considerable accumulation of electron density at the ortho and para positions at the expense of the ipso position, phenylphosphine does not display either of these effects. The ^{13}C NMR spectrum of either $C_6H_5PH_2$ or $C_6H_5AsH_2$ has the resonances for the para, meta and ipso carbons at approximately the same chemical shift as that of benzene. The highest occupied molecular orbital belonging to the $-PH_2$ or $-AsH_2$ fragments in these molecules is the 'non-bonding' orbital containing the 'lone-pair' of electrons. The overlap between this orbital and the benzene π -system is smaller than that for $-NH_2$ not only because of the fact that the C-P or C-As bond lengths are greater than C-N and that the valence orbitals of the heavier elements are more diffuse but also

because the 'non-bonding' orbital of $C_6H_5PH_2$ or $C_6H_5AsH_2$ must have a higher degree of P or As s-orbital character. The phenylgermyl anion is isoelectronic with phenylarsine and, no doubt, also displays little π -overlap between the highest occupied molecular orbital of $-GeH_2^-$ and the ring. Consequently the electron distribution in the phenyl ring of this species is predominantly affected by the localized charge on Ge which causes a simple polarization of the ring. The anions $C_6H_5PH^-$ and $C_6H_5AsH^-$ have more p-orbital character in the HOMO's of the substituent fragments than does $C_6H_5GeH_2^-$. Consequently for the group 5B anions there is more significant π -overlap and therefore some delocalization of the negative charge although less than that observed for the anilide-ion.

Although partially obscured, the above effects are mirrored in the NMR parameters of these species. The chemical shifts of the para carbon atoms are appropriately attenuated upon multiple phenyl-substitution. The ipso carbon chemical shift is most strongly affected by variable phenyl-substitution most likely as a consequence of inductive or geometric effects.

(ii) Future work

Calculations of charge distributions for monosubstituted benzenes show that there is a good correlation of either the total charge or the π -charge at the para carbon

with the NMR chemical shift for that carbon atom (Hehre, 1976). The reported proportionality constants were 450 and 200 ppm/electron respectively. All of the species studied were, however, neutral molecules. It would be of interest to extend such calculations to the kind of anionic monosubstituted benzenes considered in the present study. A calculated π -electron distribution for the anilide anion has been reported (Pross, 1981). This yields an increase in π -electron density at the para position of 0.232 electrons relative to benzene. The method used for this calculation was the same as was used in the earlier study (Hehre, 1976). This value implies that if the relationship between ^{13}C chemical shift and π -charge density can be extrapolated to include such ionic species then the substituent chemical shift for the para carbon of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NH}^-$ would be -46 ppm. The value of -22.41 ppm found in the present work is surely an indication of a high degree of ion pairing for $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHNa}$ in THF solution. Calculated electron densities for such anions might best be compared with the NMR parameters obtained from solutions in solvents such as DMSO. Alternatively the calculations could, perhaps, be made to include the effect of ion pairing.

Although the NMR results obtained in this study corroborate the previous explanations for the observed relative acidities of the group 4B and 5B hydrides and phenylhydrides, the apparent inconsistencies in the reported

pKa values (Issleib, 1965; Terekhova, 1982) as well as the gaps in and general lack of acidity data for compounds of these types indicate that further systematic studies of the relative acidities of these species are in order. For example, the solution acidity of AsH_3 does not yet appear to have been measured to any reasonable degree of accuracy.

Two complementary approaches to the establishment of reliable pKa values for the hydrides may be considered. First, the so-called 'absolute' acidities could be measured relative to hydrocarbon indicators which have well established pKa values in various solvent systems. The acidity scales of Bordwell (1977), using dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) solvent, and of Streitwieser (1980), using cyclohexylamine (CHA) solvent, provide a sound basis for this approach. Second, the relative acidities of the various compounds studied may be compared directly without the intermediation of a scale of indicator acids. By this method the pKa values of a series of similar compounds are determined on a hierarchical basis thus providing the most reliable measure of the differences in the acidities of hydrides having different degree of substitution or having different central elements. This method has been employed for a series of substituted germanes in liquid ammonia (Birchall and Drummond, 1972). The use of NMR spectroscopy for the determination of relative acidities (Birchall, 1965) may be most useful for such studies as it does not require a

coloured indicator as do spectrophotometric methods. The NMR spectra obtained also can provide information about the nature of the species in solution and about the kinetics of proton exchange.

To aid in the interpretation of the relative acidity and NMR results, it would be worthwhile to make studies of the effects of solvation, ion-pairing and aggregation by use of different solvents. For example, it is generally thought that in DMSO solvent most organo-alkali metal salts are solvated as unpaired ions and therefore acidities in this solvent may reflect more directly the true electronic effect on the acid-base equilibrium, analogous to gas phase data (Streitwieser, 1980). In solvents of lower polarity, such as CHA or THF, ion pairing and aggregation are more important. Temperature and concentration dependent studies of the equilibria as well as use of different cations can provide more information about solvation/aggregation effects. In this regard it is possible that expanded use of multinuclear NMR to include the cation nuclei, such as ^{23}Na or ^7Li , may be highly valuable.

A series of aryl- and alkyl-substituted hydrides of the fourth period elements, Ge, As and Se, may prove to be most profitable subjects for such studies. The lower acidity of silanes may make the study of the analogous third period sequences somewhat problematic, whereas the low stability of hydrides of fifth period elements makes these species also

experimentally more difficult to study. Careful quantification of the relative acidities of such series of compounds may clarify whether or not hybridization changes upon deprotonation of the various hydrides have a noticeable effect. Since the neutral germanes, unlike the As and Se compounds, must all have essentially sp^3 hybridization it may be expected that the germanes could show anomalous acidities. It has previously been found that GeH_4 is intermediate in acidity between AsH_3 and PH_3 (Birchall, 1966). Comparison of the pK_a values for a series of phenylgermanes (Birchall and Drummond, 1972) with those reported for phenylarsines (Issleib, 1965) -- the pK_a values were given in both studies relative to a common standard (indene) -- indicates that GeH_4 may actually be more acidic than AsH_3 . However, this is most likely a consequence of the use of different solvents, NH_3 and THF, and the more favourable solvation of localized anions in more polar solvents.

It is perhaps of interest to speculate on the effect which phenyl-substitution of group 6B hydrides has on their acidities, based on what is now known of the hydrides of groups 4B and 5B. It is apparent that the phenyl-derivatives of the heavier main group hydrides and their anions must possess at least two 'lone pairs' of electrons before a significant π -interaction can take place. Therefore deprotonation of phenylphosphine or phenylarsine receives an extra energetic 'benefit' from delocalization as compared to

deprotonation of phenylgermane. In the case of the hydrides and phenylhydrides of the group 6B elements (S, Se, Te) the neutral species already possess two 'non-bonding' pairs of electrons. Consequently it is possible for a significant π -interaction to occur in, for example, the neutral C_6H_5SH . The ^{13}C NMR spectrum of C_6H_5SH in $CDCl_3$ solution has been reported (Senoff, 1975) and the following assignments given: C_1 , 130.5 ppm; C_2 , 129.1 ppm; C_3 , 128.7 ppm; C_4 , 124.2 ppm. The parameter, $(\delta_p - \delta_m)_{^{13}C} = -3.5$ ppm, is evidence of a π interaction in this compound (cf. $(\delta_p - \delta_m)_{^{13}C} = 0.39$ for $C_6H_5PH_2$ in THF). Such an interaction, however, is not likely to be appreciably stabilizing. The ^{13}C chemical shifts for C_6H_5SNa , in CD_3OD solvent, have also been reported: C_1 , 148.9 ppm; C_2 , 134.4 ppm; C_3 , 128.4 ppm; C_4 , 121.7 ppm (Carson, 1981). In this case $(\delta_{para} - \delta_{meta})_{^{13}C} = -6.7$ ppm confirms the expected increase in π -donation to the ring as compared to the hydride C_6H_5SH , however, this is not as large an effect as was observed for C_6H_5PHNa ; $(\delta_{para} - \delta_{meta})_{^{13}C} = -9.87$ ppm in THF solution. The lower value for C_6H_5SNa may be a consequence of hydrogen bonding by the methanol solvent. It is also worth noting that the electron affinity of sulfur is much greater than that of phosphorus therefore it perhaps should not be surprising that C_6H_5PHNa would display a greater degree of charge transfer to the phenyl-ring than does C_6H_5SNa .

Based on these limited observations one might expect phenyl substitution of H_2S to result in an increase in the acidity of the remaining proton but not so large as is observed for phenyl-substitution of PH_3 . The pK_a 's of H_2S and C_6H_5SH in aqueous solutions at $25^\circ C$ are reported to be 7.033(6) (Sretenskaya, 1974) and 6.615(5) (De Maria, 1973) respectively. Thus C_6H_5SH is ~ 0.42 logarithmic units more acidic, in H_2O solution, than is H_2S . This is consistent with both the suggested rationale and the NMR parameters. The use of H_2O solvent, however, will favour the formation of HS^- as this small anion will produce greater solvation energy than $C_6H_5S^-$. One would expect therefore that, in a less polar, non-hydroxylic solvent, the acidity difference between C_6H_5SH and H_2S might appear to be larger. It would be of interest to record the ^{13}C NMR parameters of the group 6B phenylhydrides and their anions in both THF and NH_3 solvents as well as to measure their acidities relative to the simple binary hydrides in order to make a more direct comparison with the group 4B and 5B analogues of the present study.

B. Some Coordination Chemistry of PH_3 and $C_6H_5PH_2$

Attempts were made, in this work, to prepare and characterize coordination complexes between cuprous iodide and both phosphine and phenylphosphine analogous to those already known for diphenyl- (Abel, 1969) and triphenyl-

phosphines (Costa, 1965). The observation that solutions of $\text{CuI} \cdot n\text{PH}_3$ in THF precipitate crystals of CuI at reduced temperature suggests that the formation of these adducts in solution from solid CuI and dissolved PH_3 may be endothermic. This observation also suggests a new potential avenue of research in that solutions of PH_3 may be used for the preparation of crystalline samples of CuI and perhaps this can be extended to the crystal growth of other metal iodides as well. Crystallization can be easily controlled by regulation of temperature or of PH_3 pressure. This provides a low-energy alternative to the preparation of such crystals from the melt.

By contrast, $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ dissolved in THF does not precipitate CuI at low temperature. ^{31}P NMR shows that the ligands remain coordinated at -100°C . The stronger coordinating ability of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2$ compared to PH_3 parallels their relative basicities (Henderson, 1960). This suggests that σ -donor strength is the dominant influence on the stability of the coordinative interaction when steric effects are minimal. π -Acceptor ability of these ligands appears not to be a factor.

The structure of $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$ demonstrates that full tetrahedral coordination of Cu is achieved when steric considerations permit (cf. structure of $(\text{CuI})_2[\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{P}]_3$, Eller, 1977). The use of ^{127}I Mössbauer spectroscopy

to characterize different structural geometries in such complexes was found to be unfruitful. The observed spectra are not consistent with simple ideas about I-Cu bond covalency.

Appendix

Moduli of the observed and calculated structure factors and standard deviations for $[\text{CuI}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{PH}_2)_2]_2$. $F(000)$ (x 10) on this scale is 15839.

OBSERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS (X₂) FOR (CUI(04206H5)2)2
 (UNOBSERVED REFLECTIONS ARE MARKED +)
 PAGE 1 OF 8

H	K	L	FO	FC	SIG	H	K	L	FO	FC	SIG	H	K	L	FO	FC	SIG
1	0	0	100	100	100	1	0	0	100	100	100	1	0	0	100	100	100
0	1	0	100	100	100	0	1	0	100	100	100	0	1	0	100	100	100
0	0	1	100	100	100	0	0	1	100	100	100	0	0	1	100	100	100
1	1	0	100	100	100	1	1	0	100	100	100	1	1	0	100	100	100
1	0	1	100	100	100	1	0	1	100	100	100	1	0	1	100	100	100
0	1	1	100	100	100	0	1	1	100	100	100	0	1	1	100	100	100
1	1	1	100	100	100	1	1	1	100	100	100	1	1	1	100	100	100
2	0	0	100	100	100	2	0	0	100	100	100	2	0	0	100	100	100
0	2	0	100	100	100	0	2	0	100	100	100	0	2	0	100	100	100
0	0	2	100	100	100	0	0	2	100	100	100	0	0	2	100	100	100
2	1	0	100	100	100	2	1	0	100	100	100	2	1	0	100	100	100
2	0	1	100	100	100	2	0	1	100	100	100	2	0	1	100	100	100
0	2	1	100	100	100	0	2	1	100	100	100	0	2	1	100	100	100
2	2	0	100	100	100	2	2	0	100	100	100	2	2	0	100	100	100
2	0	2	100	100	100	2	0	2	100	100	100	2	0	2	100	100	100
0	2	2	100	100	100	0	2	2	100	100	100	0	2	2	100	100	100
2	2	2	100	100	100	2	2	2	100	100	100	2	2	2	100	100	100
3	0	0	100	100	100	3	0	0	100	100	100	3	0	0	100	100	100
0	3	0	100	100	100	0	3	0	100	100	100	0	3	0	100	100	100
0	0	3	100	100	100	0	0	3	100	100	100	0	0	3	100	100	100
3	1	0	100	100	100	3	1	0	100	100	100	3	1	0	100	100	100
3	0	1	100	100	100	3	0	1	100	100	100	3	0	1	100	100	100
0	3	1	100	100	100	0	3	1	100	100	100	0	3	1	100	100	100
3	3	0	100	100	100	3	3	0	100	100	100	3	3	0	100	100	100
3	0	3	100	100	100	3	0	3	100	100	100	3	0	3	100	100	100
0	3	3	100	100	100	0	3	3	100	100	100	0	3	3	100	100	100
3	3	3	100	100	100	3	3	3	100	100	100	3	3	3	100	100	100

OBSERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS (X.0) FOR (CUI(PH206H5)2)2
(UNOBSERVED REFLECTIONS ARE MARKED *) PAGE 6 OF 18

H	K	L	FO	FC	SIG	H	K	L	FO	FC	SIG	H	K	L	FO	FC	SIG
1	0	0	100	100	0.00	1	0	0	100	100	0.00	1	0	0	100	100	0.00
1	0	1	110	110	0.00	1	0	1	110	110	0.00	1	0	1	110	110	0.00
1	0	2	120	120	0.00	1	0	2	120	120	0.00	1	0	2	120	120	0.00
1	1	0	101	101	0.00	1	1	0	101	101	0.00	1	1	0	101	101	0.00
1	1	1	111	111	0.00	1	1	1	111	111	0.00	1	1	1	111	111	0.00
1	1	2	121	121	0.00	1	1	2	121	121	0.00	1	1	2	121	121	0.00
1	2	0	102	102	0.00	1	2	0	102	102	0.00	1	2	0	102	102	0.00
1	2	1	112	112	0.00	1	2	1	112	112	0.00	1	2	1	112	112	0.00
1	2	2	122	122	0.00	1	2	2	122	122	0.00	1	2	2	122	122	0.00
1	3	0	103	103	0.00	1	3	0	103	103	0.00	1	3	0	103	103	0.00
1	3	1	113	113	0.00	1	3	1	113	113	0.00	1	3	1	113	113	0.00
1	3	2	123	123	0.00	1	3	2	123	123	0.00	1	3	2	123	123	0.00
1	3	3	133	133	0.00	1	3	3	133	133	0.00	1	3	3	133	133	0.00
1	4	0	104	104	0.00	1	4	0	104	104	0.00	1	4	0	104	104	0.00
1	4	1	114	114	0.00	1	4	1	114	114	0.00	1	4	1	114	114	0.00
1	4	2	124	124	0.00	1	4	2	124	124	0.00	1	4	2	124	124	0.00
1	4	3	134	134	0.00	1	4	3	134	134	0.00	1	4	3	134	134	0.00
1	4	4	144	144	0.00	1	4	4	144	144	0.00	1	4	4	144	144	0.00
1	5	0	105	105	0.00	1	5	0	105	105	0.00	1	5	0	105	105	0.00
1	5	1	115	115	0.00	1	5	1	115	115	0.00	1	5	1	115	115	0.00
1	5	2	125	125	0.00	1	5	2	125	125	0.00	1	5	2	125	125	0.00
1	5	3	135	135	0.00	1	5	3	135	135	0.00	1	5	3	135	135	0.00
1	5	4	145	145	0.00	1	5	4	145	145	0.00	1	5	4	145	145	0.00
1	5	5	155	155	0.00	1	5	5	155	155	0.00	1	5	5	155	155	0.00
1	6	0	106	106	0.00	1	6	0	106	106	0.00	1	6	0	106	106	0.00
1	6	1	116	116	0.00	1	6	1	116	116	0.00	1	6	1	116	116	0.00
1	6	2	126	126	0.00	1	6	2	126	126	0.00	1	6	2	126	126	0.00
1	6	3	136	136	0.00	1	6	3	136	136	0.00	1	6	3	136	136	0.00
1	6	4	146	146	0.00	1	6	4	146	146	0.00	1	6	4	146	146	0.00
1	6	5	156	156	0.00	1	6	5	156	156	0.00	1	6	5	156	156	0.00
1	6	6	166	166	0.00	1	6	6	166	166	0.00	1	6	6	166	166	0.00
1	7	0	107	107	0.00	1	7	0	107	107	0.00	1	7	0	107	107	0.00
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1	7	5	157	157	0.00	1	7	5	157	157	0.00	1	7	5	157	157	0.00
1	7	6	167	167	0.00	1	7	6	167	167	0.00	1	7	6	167	167	0.00
1	7	7	177	177	0.00	1	7	7	177	177	0.00	1	7	7	177	177	0.00
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1	8	7	178	178	0.00	1	8	7	178	178	0.00	1	8	7	178	178	0.00
1	8	8	188	188	0.00	1	8	8	188	188	0.00	1	8	8	188	188	0.00
1	9	0	109	109	0.00	1	9	0	109	109	0.00	1	9	0	109	109	0.00
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1	9	3	139	139	0.00	1	9	3	139	139	0.00	1	9	3	139	139	0.00
1	9	4	149	149	0.00	1	9	4	149	149	0.00	1	9	4	149	149	0.00
1	9	5	159	159	0.00	1	9	5	159	159	0.00	1	9	5	159	159	0.00
1	9	6	169	169	0.00	1	9	6	169	169	0.00	1	9	6	169	169	0.00
1	9	7	179	179	0.00	1	9	7	179	179	0.00	1	9	7	179	179	0.00
1	9	8	189	189	0.00	1	9	8	189	189	0.00	1	9	8	189	189	0.00
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1	10	2	112	112	0.00	1	10	2	112	112	0.00	1	10	2	112	112	0.00
1	10	3	113	113	0.00	1	10	3	113	113	0.00	1	10	3	113	113	0.00
1	10	4	114	114	0.00	1	10	4	114	114	0.00	1	10	4	114	114	0.00
1	10	5	115	115	0.00	1	10	5	115	115	0.00	1	10	5	115	115	0.00
1	10	6	116	116	0.00	1	10	6	116	116	0.00	1	10	6	116	116	0.00
1	10	7	117	117	0.00	1	10	7	117	117	0.00	1	10	7	117	117	0.00
1	10	8	118	118	0.00	1	10	8	118	118	0.00	1	10	8	118	118	0.00
1	10	9	119	119	0.00	1	10	9	119	119	0.00	1	10	9	119	119	0.00
1	10	10	120	120	0.00	1	10	10	120	120	0.00	1	10	10	120	120	0.00

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