STRUCTURE AND REACTIVITY OF THE 1,3-DIOXOLAN-2-YLIUM ION SYSTEM

By

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A Thesis

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies

in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements

for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

McMaster University

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPH (Chemistry)	HY (1994)	McMASTER UNIVERSITY Hamilton, Ontario
TITLE:	Structure and Reactivity of Ion System	the 1,3-Dioxolan-2-ylium
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SUPERVISOR:	Dr. R.F. Childs	
NUMBER OF PAGES:	xiv, 209	

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Abstract

The 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion is an important intermediate occurring in many carbohydrate transformations. The system has been widely studied, yet conflicting views on the effect of substituents on the ground state structure of 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions have been presented. This thesis embodies the results of a series of investigations, utilizing a number of complementary techniques, to examine the effect of substitution on the structure and reactivity of a homologous series of 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions.

The possible use of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium system as a model for the transition state structures of nucleophilic displacement reactions has been explored. The intramolecular nucleophilic attack of an acetate group on a 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion has been investigated for a series of C(4)-aryl substituted cations. A Hammett study revealed that this isomerization reaction proceeds via a step-wise mechanism involving a carbenium ion intermediate. In contrast, when the C(4) substituent is hydrogen or methyl, a concerted isomerization mechanism is operative, as revealed by semi-empirical calculations. It is suggested that when the C(4) substituent is sufficiently electron donating, the system may adopt a trigonal bipyramidal geometry and hence may serve as a model for the S_N2 transition state.

Dual substituent parameter (DSP) correlations were used to establish the dependence of the ¹³C chemical shifts of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system on the

electron donating power of the C(4)-aryl substituent. These correlations support the inclusion of an ionic resonance contributor to the ground state description of the system. The weight given to the ionic resonance contributor increases with better electron donating C(4)-substituents.

X-ray crystallography has been used to determine the solid state structures of two 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion salts with different C(4) substituents. The changes in bond lengths observed in going from a hydrogen to a phenyl substituent at C(4) are partly attributed to the increased importance of the ionic resonance structure in the aryl system.

Semi-empirical calculations at the AM1 level revealed the effects of differential C(4)-substitution. Better electron donating substituents lowered the isomerization barrier and increased the relative importance of the ionic resonance contributor in the ground state, in accord with the experimentally determined results. The ability of a CF_3 substituent at C(2) to achieve similar changes in structure and reactivity was also established.

Acknowledgements

I wish to thank my research supervisor, Dr. R. F. Childs, for his guidance, support and patience throughout the course of this work. I would also like to thank the members of my supervisory committee, Dr. P. Harrison and Dr. J. Warkentin for their helpful comments and suggestions.

I am grateful for the technical assistance provided by: Dr. D. Hughes, Mr. B. Sayer, Mr. I. Thompson and Dr. A. Bain of the NMR facility; Dr. R. Smith and Mr. F. Ramelan of the mass spectroscopy facility; Dr. J. Britten, Dr. C. Frampton, and Dr. T. Wark of the x-ray crystallography facility.

For providing an enjoyable atmosphere in which to work, I wish to thank my lab mates in ABB 359, past and present. Special thanks goes to Brad, George and Teresa for their friendship inside and outside of the lab. I would also to thank Fred, Dave, and Tex for their valued insights into the human condition.

Finally, I wish to thank my family for their constant support and encouragement.

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"Nature is a language - can't you read?"

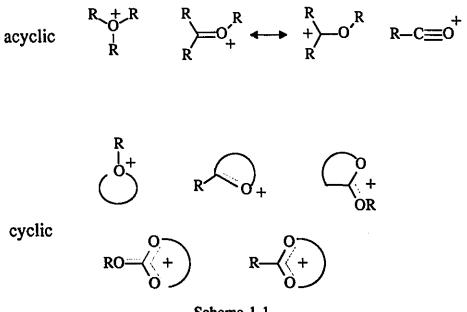
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Chapter 1

Introduction

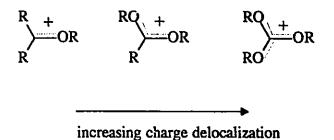
Oxonium ions are of fundamental importance to organic chemistry, occurring in a wide range of reactions and transformations. They are among the best studied of all organic intermediates and have been extensively reviewed.¹⁻³ The term oxonium ion is applied to a species containing a positively charged trivalent oxygen atom with an electron octet. The ions may be classified as *saturated* (containing 3 C-O single bonds) or *unsaturated* (containing a C-O double bond). A further distinction may be made between cyclic and acyclic oxonium ions. The general structures of the various oxonium ion types are shown in Scheme 1.1.



Scheme 1.1

1.1 Oxonium Ion Stability

One reason for the vast amount of attention paid to oxonium ions is their ease of study resulting from their greater stability over their carbenium ion counterparts. Oxonium ions can be regarded as carbenium ions with a stabilizing heteroatom substituent. Increased charge delocalization is expected to decrease the relative energy of the ion as shown in the following series (Scheme 1.2)²:



Scheme 1.2

This stability sequence has been found to be valid in the gas phase.^{4,3} The stabilization energies of a series of differentially substituted ions were calculated from the difference in appearance potentials of CH_3^+ and the corresponding ion (Table 1.1). As the number of oxygen atoms adjacent to the positive center is increased, a progressive increase in ion stability is observed.

Table 1.1:Stabilization energies of substituted methyl cations in the gas
phase.

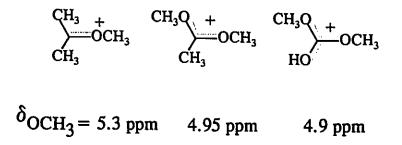
Cation	S.E. (kcal/mol)
CH ₃ ⁺	0
CH ₁ CH ₂ ⁺	37 ± 3
(CH ₃ O)CH ₂ ⁺	66 ± 3
(CH ₃ O) ₂ CH ⁺	85 ± 3
(CH ₃ O) ₃ C ⁺	90 ± 3

The stabilizing ability of an oxygen atom can be further illustrated by comparing the gas phase heats of formation of oxonium ions with those of cations substituted by an adjacent halogen, alkyl group, or sulfur atom (Table 1.2).⁴⁶ The oxygen atom is by far the most efficient stabilizer of an adjacent positive charge and is comparable to the stabilizing ability of a nitrogen atom, as evidenced by the lower heats of formation for these ions.

 Table 1.2:
 Gas phase heats of formation of selected cations.

Cation	ΔH_{f} (kcal/mol)
CH ₁ ⁺	258
CH ₃ CH ₂ ⁺	224
HOCH, ⁺	174
CH ₁ OCH ₂ ⁺	158, 167-173
$(CH_1O)_2C^+CH_1$	131
(CH ₁ O) ₁ C ⁺	66-74
H ₂ NCH ₂ ⁺	176
HSCH ₂ ⁺	212
CH ₁ SCH ₂ ⁺	199
FCH ₂ ⁺	233, 197
CICH ₂ ⁺	228, 296
BrCH ₂ ⁺	220, 217
ICH,	232, 221

The stability of oxonium ions in solution cannot be directly inferred from the order established for the gas phase. However, the effect of increased oxygen substitution on charge delocalization within oxonium ions has been investigated by 'H NMR.⁷ The proton chemical shift of the OCH₃ group in a series of structurally related ions was found to move progressively to higher field with increased oxygen substitution (Scheme 1.3). The order is consistent with that established for the gas phase and with the notion that charge delocalization (and hence stability) increases with increased oxygen substitution.

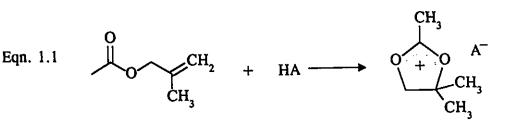


Scheme 1.3

The heats of protonation for a variety of oxygen-containing compounds have been determined in FSO₃H (Table 1.3)³. Particularly striking are the low heats of protonation measured for the olefin-containing esters. This is a result of the protonation-cyclization reaction which gives the stable 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion (Eqn. 1.1).

Compound	ΔH_{R+} , FSO ₃ H (kcal/mol)
Ph ₂ C=CH ₂	-14.7 ± 0.2
H ₁ C-COCH,	-19.1 ± 0.1
CH,COOEt	-17.4 ± 0.1
PhCOCI	-6.0 ± 0.5
ELO	-19.1 ± 0.7
EtOH	-19.1
H ₂ O	-16.4
Et _N	-49.2 ± 0.3
$CH_{3}COOCH_{2}C(CH_{3}) = CH_{2}$	-31.5 ± 0.4
$C_{e}H_{2}COOCH_{2}C(CH_{3})=CH_{2}$	-28.6 ± 0.2
$p-\text{MeOC}_6\text{H}_4\text{COOCH}_2\text{C(CH}_3)=\text{CH}_2$	-32.6 ± 0.8

Table 1.3: Relative Heats of Protonation in Fluorosulfonic Acid at 25 °C.



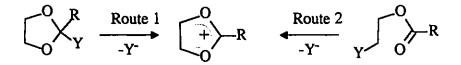
Inspection of the values in Table 1.3 reveals that the heat of formation of the 1,3dioxolanylium ion is nearly twice that observed for the protonation of ethyl acetate and more than twice that of the protonation of 1,1-diphenylethylene. Also of interest are the relative heats of protonation obtained for the 2-phenyl- versus the 2-methyl-1,3dioxolanylium ion. The lower ΔH_{R+} for the latter was attributed to the greater resonance interaction of the phenyl ring with the ester function in the ground state than in the corresponding atoms in the cation.

Since the focus of this thesis is the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion, the remaining

discussion of oxonium ion chemistry will concentrate on this system.

1.2 Preparation of 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium lons

Most routes towards the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion can be classified into one of two categories.¹⁻³ Route 1 represents the splitting off of a suitable leaving group from the preformed heterocycle. Route 2 involves an intramolecular alkylation (Scheme 1.4).



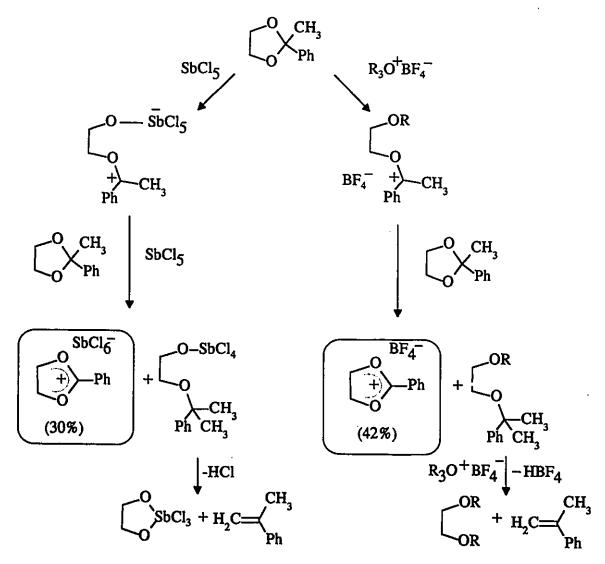
Scheme 1.4

(i) Route 1

Hydride abstraction from 1,3-dioxolan derivatives may be accomplished with the use of a suitable acceptor such as: trialkyloxonium, triphenyl carbenium, alkoxycarbenium, dialkoxycarbenium, aryl diazonium salts or with alkyl halide/AgBF₄ (Eqn. 1.2).^{2,4}

Eqn. 1.2
$$\left(\bigcup_{0}^{O} \bigvee_{CH_{3}}^{H} + (Ph)_{3}C^{+}BF_{4}^{-} \xrightarrow{-H^{-}} \left(\bigcup_{0}^{O} -CH_{3}^{+} \right) \right)$$

Similarly, an alkyl transfer can be initiated with the use of a Lewis acid such as BF₃ or SbCl₅ or alkylating agents (R_3O +). The mechanism is believed to involve a disproportionation reaction (Scheme 1.5).² This mechanism is supported by the detection of alkene dimers in the product mixture and by the fact that the reaction yields are never greater than 50%.



Scheme 1.5

Alkoxide transfer from a cyclic orthoester is another example of a route 1 synthesis which has been widely used (Eqn. 1.3).^{1n,8}

Eqn. 1.3
$$\left(\begin{array}{c} O \\ O \\ CH_3 \end{array} \right)^{OR} + 4 BF_3 \xrightarrow{-OR^-} 3 \left[\begin{array}{c} O \\ H_3 \end{array} \right]^{O} + B(OR)_3 + B(OR)_3$$

(ii) Route 2

The second common route towards the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system takes advantage of the neighbouring group participation reaction of ester carbonyl groups.⁹⁻¹¹ The reaction takes place as illustrated in Eqn. 1.4 where A is an acceptor for the anionic leaving group Y.

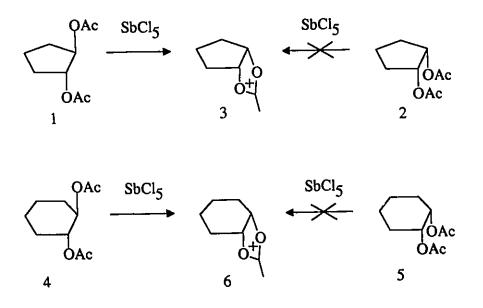
Eqn. 1.4
$$A + \bigvee_{Y} \bigcirc R \longrightarrow A-Y + \bigvee_{O} \bigcirc R$$

Table 1.4 lists some examples of leaving groups and acceptors which are of preparative importance.^{1a}

Acceptor
AgBF₄, AgSbF₅
BF ₃
BF ₃ , SbCl ₅ , R ₃ O ⁺
FSO ₁ H, CH ₁ OSO ₂ F
FSO,H, HClO
FSO ₃ H, SbCl ₃

Table 1.4: Leaving Groups and Acceptors for the Preparation of 1,3-Dioxolan-2-ylium Ions via Route 2.

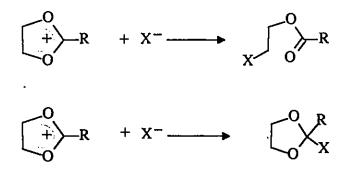
Some examples of this route towards the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion are given in Scheme 1.6 which also serves to illustrate the stereochemical requirements of the reaction.¹¹ Antimony pentachloride reacts with the *trans* diesters 1 and 4 to give the corresponding dioxolanylium ions, 3 and 6. Under the same conditions the *cis* diesters 2 and 5 give only partially soluble adducts from which unchanged starting material can be recovered upon hydrolytic work-up. In the *trans* isomers, the acetate group can readily approach the orientation favoured for the back-side, nucleophilic attack and the neighbouring group reaction is facilitated. Further evidence is provided by noting that the cyclopentane derivative 1 reacts faster than the cyclohexane derivative 4. In 4 the ester groups are initially in a diequatorial relationship and must be brought into a diaxial orientation before the neighbouring group reaction can take place. The *cis* compound 5 can be converted to the dioxolanylium ion 6 in liquid HF.¹² The mechanism of this socalled "front-side attack" is unclear.



Scheme 1.6

1.3 Role of the Anion

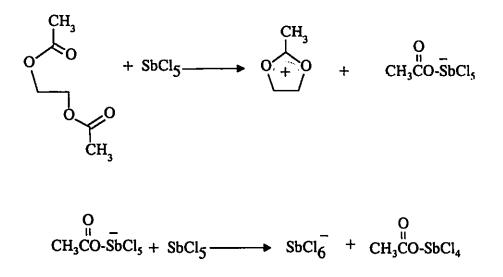
Many of the anions accompanying 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium cations are halogen complexes of the general formula $Z(Hal)_n$, the most important examples of which are BF_4 and $SbCl_6$. In general, the anions in the presence of oxonium ions should be of low polarizability and weak nucleophilicity to avoid the following nucleophilic addition reactions (Scheme 1.7):^{1a}





Even with the use of the most favourable complex anions, the above decomposition reactions may take place to some extent. Recently, the rate of decay of the 2-phenyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium cation in the presence of a series of anions was measured.¹³ The rate of decay is slow (on the order of 10⁻⁶ to 10⁻⁵ s⁻¹ at 288 K) and the stability sequence SbCl₆ > AsF₆ > SbCl₅Br was established. This order is similar to that reported for trialkyloxonium salts.¹⁴

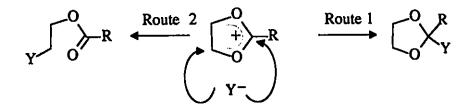
The formation of the complex anion $SbCl_{\delta}$ is an example of a disproportionation reaction² which occurs in the presence of excess $SbCl_{\delta}$ (Scheme 1.8).



Scheme 1.8

1.4 Reaction with Nucleophiles

A nucleophile may add to a 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion in one of two ways, and thus oxonium ions of this and related types are said to be ambident. These pathways are !abelled Route 1 and Route 2 in Scheme 1.9 and correspond to the reverse reactions for the formation of the ion already discussed.



Scheme 1.9

Hunig¹³ has reviewed the reactions of ambident cations and has explained their behaviour by considering the reaction profiles for the two different routes (Fig 1.1). Route 1 represents the kinetically controlled path since it involves the attack of the nucleophile at the carbon with the lowest electron density and requires the least amount of bond re-organization. The kinetic product can be isolated when the gain in energy from the formation of the bond is large enough. If an equilibrium can be established between the addition product 8 and the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion 7, then attack via route 2 will result to give the thermodynamically favoured product, 9. In route 2, the energy cost of extensive bond re-organization is more than compensated for by charge neutralization and the resonance stabilization provided by the generation of the ester function.

(i) The Effect of the Nucleophile on the Course of the Reaction

When highly nucleophilic anions are used, reaction by route 1 predominates. This is a result of the high gain in energy in ΔG_1 . On the other hand, with weak nucleophiles ΔG_1 is small. The resulting adduct, 8, may easily dissociate to reform the cation 7 which may then react further via route 2. This analysis assumes that the effect of the nucleophile on ΔG_2 , ΔG_2^+ , and ΔG_1^+ are negligible in comparison to its effect on ΔG_1 . These rules are generally obeyed so that strongly nucleophilic or basic reagents such as CH₃O⁻, CN⁻, and HO⁻ give the kinetic product (route 1) while weaker nucleophiles such as 1⁻, Br⁻ and Et₃N give the thermodynamic product (route 2).³

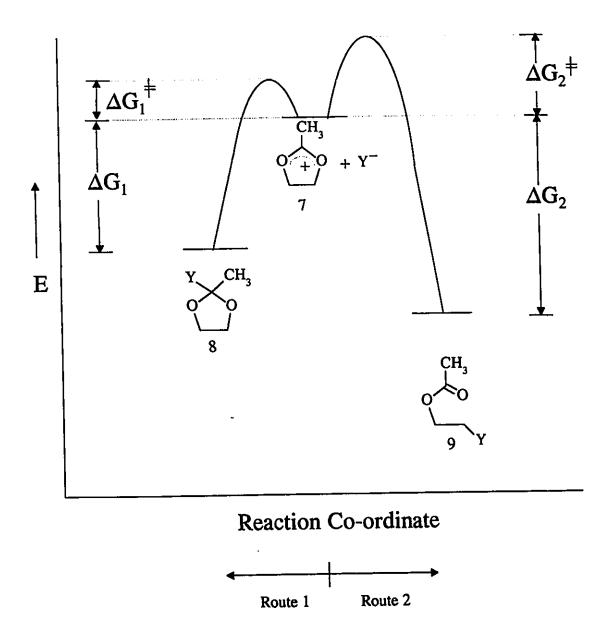


Fig. 1.1: Reaction of ambident cations with nucleophiles.¹³

14

(ii) The Effect of Ambident Cation Stability on the Course of the Reaction

In principle, the relative position of the cation 7 with respect to the addition products 8 and 9 within the energy profile could also determine whether the kinetic product may be isolated (Fig. 1.2).¹³ For high energy (less stable) cations, the magnitude of ΔG_1 becomes greater. As the cation is increasingly stabilized, the kinetic route becomes less attractive because ΔG_1 becomes less exothermic. These considerations may be important for extremely stable ambident cations for which even strong nucleophiles react to give the thermodynamic addition product. However, even the very stable 2-aryl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions are of high enough energy that only kinetically controlled additions are observed with strong nucleophiles.²

(iii) Other Factors¹⁵

Temperature plays an important role in determining the addition of a nucleophile to an ambident cation. Running the reaction at higher temperatures favours the thermodynamic pathway while lower temperatures facilitate the isolation of kinetic products. Longer reaction times favour thermodynamic addition. Steric interactions may reverse the expected course of the reaction. If the site of nucleophilic attack which is normally favoured under a given set of conditions is made sterically inaccessible, then the other route will predominate.

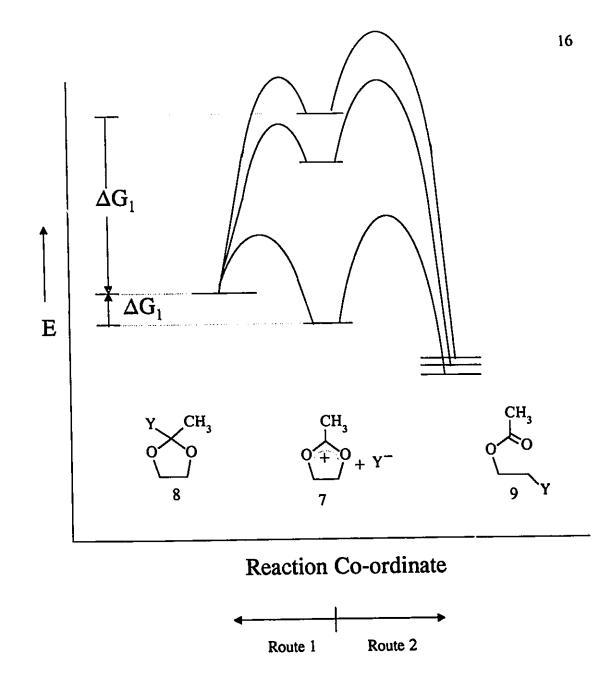
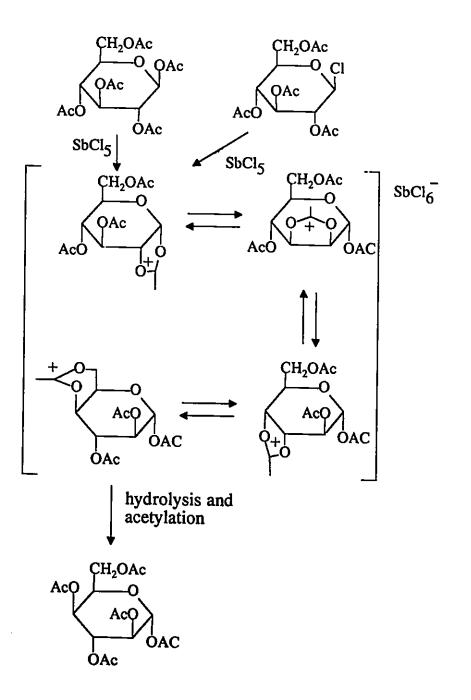


Fig. 1.2: Effect of cation stability on nucleophilic addition.¹⁵

1.5 Dioxolanylium lons as Intermediates in Carbohydrate Rearrangements

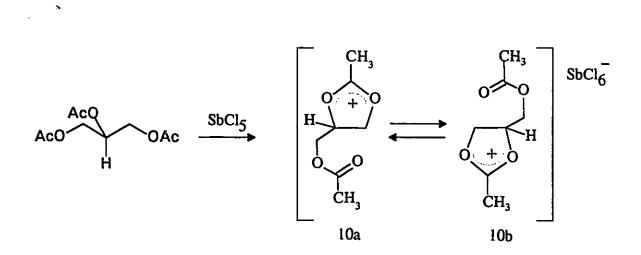
Paulsen has investigated a large number of transformations of carbohydrate and polyol compounds which proceed through 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions.^{8,11} These reactions involve the intramolecular attack of a nucleophilic substituent within the sugar molecule and serve as further examples of neighbouring group participation.^{10,16} If the polyfunctional compound contains neighbouring groups that are favourably situated, then a complex sequence of transformations can be observed. An impressive example of this is the transformation of D-glucose to D-idose (Scheme 1.10).¹⁷

Treatment of tetra-*O*-acetyl-ß-D-glucopyranosyl chloride with antimony pentachloride yields a crystalline 4,6-acetoxonium salt of idopyranose. The reaction manifold consists of the formation of a gluco 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium salt which rearranges to a manno ion and then to an altro ion by fast 1,2-neighbouring group reactions. The ido ion is formed from a 1,3-neighbouring group reaction and has low solubility in methylene chloride and continually crystallizes from the equilibrium mixture. In general, the synthetic utility of such transformations is limited since with most other saccharides, the hexachlorantimonate salts obtained contain a mixture of isomeric ions. However, with careful consideration of the stereochemical requirements of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion rearrangement, many useful transformations are possible.^{17-21.} This continues to be an important area of carbohydrate research.



Scheme 1.10

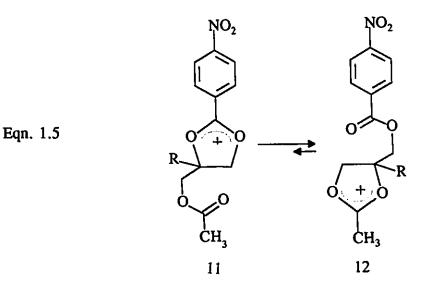
Paulsen has also investigated the reaction dynamics of the 1,2- (and 1,3-) neighbouring group rearrangement. The basic template for the 1,2-rearrangement is provided by 10a = 10b which may be prepared by treating glycerol triacetate with antimony pentachloride (Scheme 1.11).²²



Scheme 1.11

The room temperature 'H NMR spectrum of these species contain two separate methyl signals corresponding to the acetoxonium methyl on the dioxolanylium ion ring and the methyl of the acetate group. Upon warming, these methyl signals broaden and eventually coalesce at 365 K. From this, the barrier to isomerization, ΔG^+ , was calculated to be 18.7 kcal/mol. This represents the barrier to the 1,2-neighbouring group reaction.

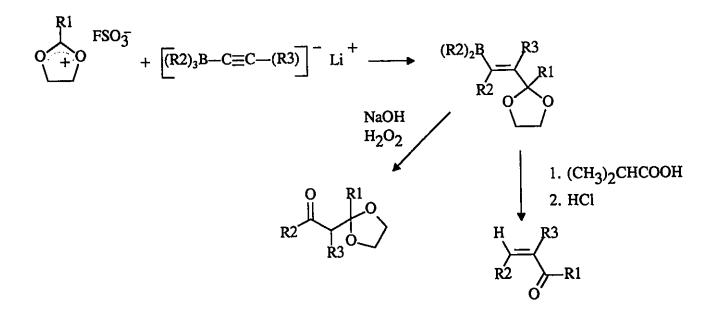
In addition to the degenerate rearrangement described above, the mixed ester system $11 \neq 12$ was also observed to give rise to a 1,2-rearrangement (Eqn. 1.5).²³ In this case, the stability of the cations involved is different. The electron withdrawing *p*-nitrophenyl group destabilizes the cation in 11, and hence the equilibrium is shifted almost entirely towards 12.



1.6 Synthetic Utility

While the occurrence of 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions in carbohydrate chemistry is ubiquitous, the use of these ions in other areas of synthetic organic chemistry is less extensive. One recent example is the preparation of functionalized ketones (Scheme 1.12).²⁴ The reaction of 2-alkyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium fluorosulphonates with

alkynyltrialkyl borates gives α , β -unsaturated ketones or mono-protected 1,3-diketones depending on the work-up conditions.





Other synthetically useful reactions include the addition of 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions to cyclic ketones²⁵, enamines^{26,27}, ketene silyl acetals²⁷, and lithium organocuprates and lithium organoaluminates²⁸. Recent attention has also been given to the use of 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions as initiators for the polymerization of 1,3-dioxane²⁹, THF³⁰, and 1,3-dioxolane³¹.

1.7 X-ray Crystallographic Studies

(i) Background

Single crystal x-ray crystallography is the most powerful and direct method presently available for the determination of molecular structures. The value of examining a series of closely related molecules has been demonstrated by the structure-correlation method of Burgi and Dunitz.^{32a,6} The strategy is to collect as many structures as possible which contain a structural fragment or molecule of interest. Each structure represents a "snapshot" of the fragment in a particular environment and these are ordered in a sequence which represents a gradual deformation of the fragment. The observation of systematic structural changes serves as an experimental basis for mapping the reaction coordinate of a dynamic process. Dunitz has used this method to examine the approach of nucleophiles to an electrophilic center.³³

Kirby has employed the structure-correlation method to examine the heterolytic cleavage of a C-O bond.^{34a-1} An analysis of a series of ethers and esters from the crystallographic literature revealed that the length of the bond in the R¹-OR² system increases with increasing electron withdrawal in the OR² group and as the R¹ group changes from methyl through primary, secondary and tertiary alkyl (Table 1.5) This was attributed to an ionic contribution to this bond in the ground state description of the system (Eqn. 1.6).^{34e}

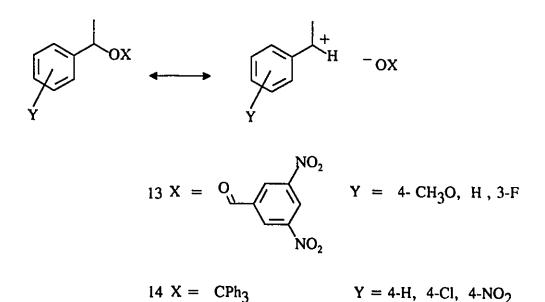
Eqn. 1.6
$$R^1 - OR^2 \leftrightarrow R^1 + -OR^2$$

	Ether	Esters	
R	$R^2 = alkyl$	R ² = aryl	$R^2 = acyl$
СН,	1.418(2)	1.424(1)	1.450(1)
RCH,	1.426(2)	1.437(3)	1.452(2)
R ₂ CH	1.432(2)	1.444(6)	1.460(2)
R ₃ C	1.450(2)	1.478(4)	1.475(2)

Table 1.5: C-O Bond Lengths (R¹-OR²) in Ethers and Esters

The structure correlations of Burgi and Dunitz^{32a,b} are structure-structure relationships between geometrical parameters such as bond lengths and angles. Kirby and co-workers have built upon this concept to establish meaningful structure-*reactivity* relationships which correlate geometrical parameters with rate or equilibrium constants. The structure-reactivity correlation for the S_{n1} cleavage of 1-arylethanol derivatives is a particularly illuminating example.^{34b,c} The C-OX bond lengths in a series of esters (13) and ethers (14) of 1-arylethanol were examined. An increase in this bond length was observed for better leaving groups 'OX, and this increase was inhibited by electron withdrawing substituents Y. An ionic contribution to the C-OX bond in the resonance description of this system was used to account for these observations (Scheme 1.13). Furthermore, the C-OX bond lengths in each of the two series were found to correlate with Hammett σ constants to give the structure-reactivity relationship. From this and other examples, Kirby has defined two working rules relating bond length and reactivity:³⁴

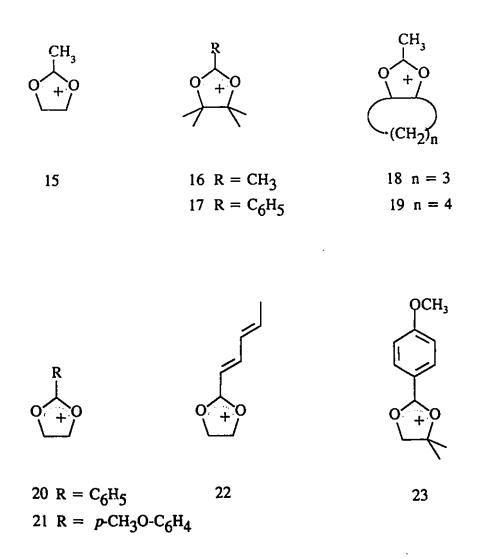
- 1. The longer the bond, in a given system, the faster it breaks.
- 2. The more reactive the system, the more sensitive is the length of the bond to structural variation.



Scheme 1.13

(ii) Structure of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium Ion

Despite the wealth of information provided by x-ray crystallography, relatively few structure determinations of 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium salts have been carried out. One reason for this may be the difficulty involved in obtaining good quality crystalline samples. To date, a total of nine 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion structures (15-23) have been reported in the literature.³⁵⁻⁴⁰ Selected bond lengths from these ions are given in Table 1.6.



For most cations in this series, the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ring is planar. The exception is 19 in which the 5-membered ring adopts a slight twist conformation. In each of 15, 16, 18, and 19 the acetoxonium methyl group is co-planar with the ring. An approximate coplanarity also exists for the phenyl and the dioxolanylium rings in each of 17, 20, 21, and 23. In 22, the polyene chain adopts an s-*trans* conformation about both of the formal single bonds. This chain is planar and the angle between this plane and the ring is small.

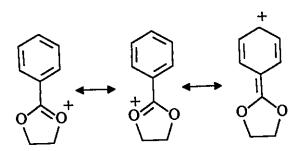
15-23.
Salts
Dioxolanylium
A) for 1
<u>a</u>
Lengths
Волd
Selected
9
Ч
Table

pulloanoo				Bond			
nuputino	0(1)C(2)	C(2)0(3)		0(3)C(4) C(4)C(5)	C(5)O(1)	c(2)c(1') c(2)c(6)	c(2)c(6)
1537	1.250(6)	1.263(6)	1.470(7)	1.497(6)	1.477(6)	I	1.452(9)
16 ³⁶	1.277(18)	1.241(2)	1.520(19)	1.520(19) 1.566(10) 1.521(15)	1.521(15)	I	1.504(18)
17 ³⁵	1.29(1)	1.29(1)	1.52(1)	1.56(2)	1.52(1)	1.47(2)	ı
1839	1.257(3)	1.253(3)	1.479(2)	1.516(4)	1.496(3)	I	1.481(4)
19 ³⁸	1.269(2)	1.280(8)	1.481(4)	1.535(4)	1.497(6)	1	1.479(7)
2040	1.281(3)	1.282(3)	1.472(3)	1.505(5)	1.480(3)	1.422(3)	I
2140	1.292(8)	1.294(9)	1.475(9)	1.504(11) 1.468(9)	l.468(9)	1.413(9)	ı
2240	1.288(5)	1.290(5)	1.469(5)	1.515(6)	1.472(5)	1.417(5)	1
2340	1.30(2)	1.29(2)	1.51(2)	1.58(2)	1.46(2)	1.40(2)	1

The cyclopentane ring in 18 adopts an endo-envelope conformation. The cyclohexane ring in 19 lies between a chair and half-chair conformation. The methyl groups at C(4)/C(5) in both 16 and 17 are in a sterically unfavourably two-fold eclipsed configuration due to the planarity of the dioxolanylium ring. The presence of this eclipsed conformation provides evidence for the strong resonance energy of the O(1)-C(2)-O(3) π system which requires total planarity for maximum stabilizing orbital overlap.³⁶ This mesomeric stabilization outweighs the combined effects of the steric interaction of the two pairs of methyl groups.

For all the dioxolanylium ions 15-23, the O(1)-C(2) and O(3)-C(2) bonds are intermediate in length between those of a C-O single bond in 1,3- dioxolanes (1.41 Å) and a C-O double bond (1.22 Å).⁴¹ The cations can be grouped into two classes with respect to the substituent at C(2).⁴⁰ Those with an alkyl group at C(2) (15, 16, 18, 19) have a mean O(1)-C(2)/O(3)-C(2) bond distance of 1.261(5) Å.⁴¹ Cations 17 and 20-23 in which the C(2) substituent is an aryl or unsaturated group, have significantly longer O(1)-C(2)/O(3)-C(2) bond lengths with a mean distance of 1.291(2) Å. The longer O(1)-C(2)/O(3)-C(2) bond lengths for the latter group of cations is indicative of delocalization of positive charge onto the aryl or unsaturated substituent at C(2). This results in a reduction in the double bond character in these C-O bonds (Scheme 1.14).⁴⁰

The errors for mean bond lengths are given by $\sigma_{\rm D} = [\Sigma_{\rm n}({\rm D}-{\rm d}_{\rm n})^2/n({\rm n}-1)]^{1/2}$ where D is the mean bond distance of n independent variables.

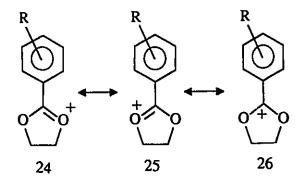


Scheme 1.14

Further evidence for the importance of conjugation between the C(2) substituent and the charged system was provided by examination of the C-C bond lengths within the aryl substituent. As charge is delocalized onto the phenyl substituent, distortions in the benzenoid ring are expected. The non-equivalence of the C-C bonds in the aryl rings of 20 and 21 are in support of this. A similar analysis of the C-C bond lengths in the dienyl chain in 22 also reveals that the positive charge is delocalized to some extent in the unsaturated substituent.⁴⁰

These findings seem to contradict the conclusions of Hart and Tomalia.⁴² The dependence of the ¹H NMR chemical shifts of the C(4)/C(5) protons on the C(2) substituent in a series of 2-aryl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions was investigated. The chemical shifts were found to correlate better with the Hammett σ values (r=0.966) than with σ ⁺

values (r = 0.944). The authors concluded that resonance interactions between electronreleasing substituents and the electron deficient 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ring are not strong. It was postulated that the important contributors to the resonance hybrid are 24 and 25 rather than 26 (Scheme 1.15). These findings can perhaps be reconciled with the recent crystallographic investigations by stating that while 26 may not be a major resonance contributor, its contribution is still significant and detectable.



Scheme 1.15

The effect of the C(2) substituent on the O(3)-C(4)/O(1)-C(5) bond lengths is also of interest. Comparison of these C-O bond lengths in 15, 20 and 21 show no significant differences as the C(2) substituent is varied from methyl, through phenyl and pmethoxyphenyl. Thus, the chemical shift dependence observed for the C(4)/C(5) protons on the nature of the C(2) substituent is not reflected as a detectable change in the O(3)-C(4)/O(1)-C(5) bond lengths.⁴⁰

The cations 15-23 may be grouped according to the number of alkyl substituents attached to the C(4)/C(5) carbon atoms.⁴⁰ This allows three types of O(3)-C(4)/O(1)-C(5)

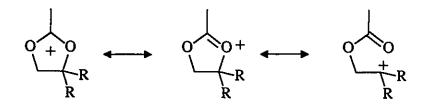
bonds to be identified: $O-CH_2R$, $OCHR_2$, and OCR_3 . The mean bond lengths for each type of C-O bond in the cations is given in Table 1.7. For comparison, the O-C(alkyl) bond lengths observed in alkyl esters are also given.^{40,34e}

	Bond Length (Å)			
O-C Bond Type	Dioxolanylium Ion	Ester		
0-CR ₃	1.525(5)	1.475(2)		
O-CHR ₂	1.491(5)	1.460(2)		
O-CH,R	1.474(2)	1.452(2)		
O-CH,	-	1.450(1)		

Table 1.7: Mean O-C(alkyl) Bond Lengths

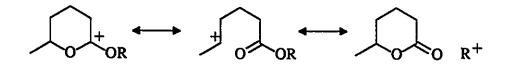
Inspection of the values in Table 1.7 reveals several interesting features.

The O-C(alkyl) bond lengths within the dioxolanylium ring are longer than the corresponding bonds found in the neutral esters. Secondly, substitution at the alkyl carbons in the dioxolanylium rings has a greater effect on the O-C(alkyl) bond lengths than does substitution in the esters. Finally, the O-C(alkyl) bond lengths in the dioxolanylium ions increase as the degree of substitution at the alkyl carbons is increased. This last point was taken as evidence for an ionic contribution to the O-C(alkyl) bond with positive charge residing on the alkyl carbon atom. Increased substitution at C(4)/C(5) allows the alkyl carbon atom to accept more positive charge due to the stabilization provided by these substituents (Scheme 1.16).⁴⁰



Scheme 1.16

Thus, the concept of an ionic contribution to the O-C(alkyl) bonds in ethers and esters proposed by Kirby³⁴, can now be extended to include the dioxolanylium ion system as well. A further example has been provided by Childs and co-workers⁴³, who have observed a similar substituent effect in tetrahydropyranylium cations. Long O-C(alkyl) bonds were attributed to an ionic contribution to this bond, with positive charge residing on the alkyl carbon atom (Scheme 1.17).



Scheme 1.17

1.8 ¹³C NMR Investigations

The non-bonded resonance structures depicted in Schemes 1.16 and 1.17 are not usually included in the resonance description of alkoxy carbenium ions. There is further experimental evidence, however, that a portion of the positive charge in 1,3-dioxolan-2ylium cations resides on the C(4)/C(5) alkyl carbon atoms. Paulsen³⁷ has undertaken a detailed ¹³C NMR study of dioxolanylium ions with alkyl substituents at the C(2), C(4) and C(5) carbon atoms. The effect of increased substitution at the alkyl carbons was probed by calculating the chemical shift difference ($\Delta\delta$) for the C(4)/C(5) resonances between the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion and the corresponding neutral 1,3-dioxolane (Table 1.8). As one and then two methyl groups were placed at each of the C(4) and C(5) carbon atoms, the value of $\Delta\delta$ grew progressively larger. This was attributed to an increase in positive charge density at C(4)/C(5) with increased substitution.

It would be of interest to apply the same analysis to the C(2) chemical shifts in 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions and 1,3-dioxolanes. This might allow an assessment of how increased substitution at C(4)/C(5) affects charge at C(2). The authors did not perform this calculation, but from the data provided,³⁷ such an analysis is possible and the results are listed in Table 1.8. A systematic dependence of $\Delta\delta$ for C(2) on the degree of methyl substitution at C(4)/C(5) is absent. A decrease in C(2) charge density is expected to accompany an increase in charge density at C(4)/C(5) based on the resonance description of the ions given in Scheme 1.16.

1,3-dioxolane	1,3-dioxolanylium	Δδ C(4)/C(5)	Δδ C(2)
o H H		11.1	91.6
0 H		14.2	81.0
O H		13.0	81.7
	0(+0	20.3	89.9

.

Table 1.8: ¹³C Chemical Shift Differences in 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium Ions and 1,3-dioxolanes in CH₃CN.

-

Olah⁴⁴ has correlated the ¹³C NMR chemical shifts with π electron density on the positively charged carbon atom of oxonium ions (Eqn 1.7).

Eqn. 1.7
$$\delta_{cs2} = -306(1-q_r) + 160$$

In this equation, δ_{CS2} denotes the chemical shift relative to the CS₂ signal in the ¹³C NMR spectrum, q, is the electron density, and (1-q,) is the formal positive charge on the carbon atom for which δ_{CS2} is measured. This equation has been applied to the C(2), C(4) and C(5) ¹³C NMR chemical shifts of dioxolanylium ions.^{37,45} Although the latter two alkyl carbon atoms were included in the analysis, only the C(2) carbon atom is of the correct type to be used in this equation. An increase in the formal positive charge at the C(4)/C(5) carbon atoms was observed with increased methyl substitution (Table 1.9). The charge distribution calculated using Eqn. 1.7 for the 2,4,4,5,5-pentamethyldioxolan-2-ylium cation is similar to that obtained from its ESCA spectrum,³⁷ thus providing some support for the use of this equation.

The charge densities calculated for C(2) are nearly constant throughout this series. As discussed earlier, the resonance structures shown in Scheme 1.16 suggest that a decrease in positive charge density at the C(2) carbon atom would result from increased substitution at the alkyl carbon atoms. Once again, the ¹³C NMR data appear to be at odds with x-ray crystallographic studies.

Compound	Positive Charge	
	C(4)/C(5)	C(2)
0(+)0	0.14	0.52
	0.18	0.51
	0.19	0.51
	0.23	0.51

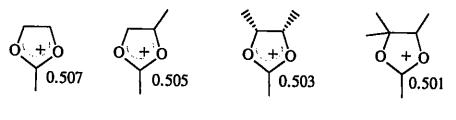
Table 1.9: Charge Densities Calculated from ¹³C Chemical Shifts.

1.9 Semi-Empirical Calculations

Pittman has performed SCF-MO calculations in the INDO approximation on a series of 2-substituted 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions.⁴⁶ The π -bond orders for the O(1)-

C(2)/O(3)-C(2) bonds were found to be in the range of 0.50 to 0.65 depending on the nature of the C(2) substituent. Thus, both MO calculations and x-ray crystal structure data show the importance of the oxonium resonance structure which gives partial double bond character to these C-O bonds.

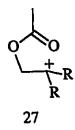
Paulsen has examined the charge distribution in a series of 2-methyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions with a varying degree of methyl substitution at C(4)/C(5).⁴⁷ Using the MINDO/3 approximation, the positive charge density at C(2) was found to decrease with increased substitution at the C(4)/C(5) carbon atoms (Scheme 1.18). Furthermore, the ¹³C NMR chemical shifts of the C(2) carbon atoms were found to correlate well with the calculated C(2) π -charge densities for this series. This supports the notion that there is a contribution from the non-bonded resonance structure to the ground state description of the ion (Scheme 1.16), and that this contribution can be enhanced by increased substitution at the C(4)/C(5) alkyl carbons. However, the dependence of the positive charge density residing on the C(2) carbon atom on C(4)/C(5) substitution is small. This might explain the failure to observe this substituent effect in the ¹³C NMR studies^{37,43} of these ions due to the limited resolution of those experiments.



C(2) charge density Scheme 1.18

1.10 Objectives

Despite the considerable attention paid to 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions in the literature, some discrepanies remain regarding the effect of substituents on the structure It has been suggested⁴⁰ that the ground state description of the of the system. dioxolanylium ion should include resonance structure 27 based on crystallographic evidence. Some support for this is provided by NMR spectroscopic and theoretical investigations in which increased positive charge density was seen to accompany alkyl substitution on the C(4) carbon atoms.^{37,45,47} However, the possibility of observing systematic changes in C(4) charge density with substitution is made difficult due to the differing steric requirements of the substituents employed in these studies. Furthermore, the effect of C(4) substitution on the charge density at other positions in the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion ring has not been adequately demonstrated. While semi-empirical calculations⁴⁷ have suggested a decrease in charge density at C(2) upon alkyl substitution at the C(4)/C(5) carbon atoms, ¹³C NMR investigations^{37,45} have failed to reveal such a substituent effect.

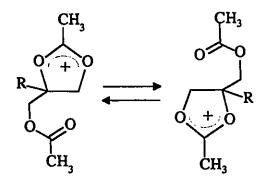


It was proposed that various *p*-substituted phenyl substituents at C(4) could be used to moderate electron density within the dioxolanylium ion ring with minimal effect on the steric requirements of the system. The distribution of positive charge throughout the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system could be assessed by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. The electron donating power of aryl substituents are readily identified by their Hammett-type substituent constants. It was intended, therefore, that the use of aryl substituents at C(4) would provide a more quantitative assessment of subsituent effects than has been possible in previous studies.

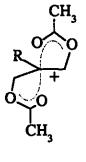
It was further proposed that by a suitable choice of the C(4) substituent, the contribution of the ionic resonance contributor 27 could be enhanced. This could be detected in systematic structural changes using semi-empirical calculations and, where possible, by x-ray crystallography.

The effect of substituents on the reactivity of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion towards nucleophilic substitution was also of interest. Building upon the isomerization reaction reported by Paulsen²², the effect of subsituents on the intramolecular nucleophilic attack of an acetate group on the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system could be investigated (Eqn.1.8). It was proposed that the barrier to this isomerization reaction could be systematically reduced by the introduction of better charge stabilizing substituents at C(4). In this way, the nucleophilic substitution reaction could be "mapped out", with the structure of each dioxolanylium ion representing a point along the reaction co-ordinate, with the aim of gaining information about the transition state structure. This was

intended to increase the scope of the nucleophilic addition studies of Dunitz^{32,33} and the ionization studies of Kirby,³⁴ to include cationic systems. In particular, it was thought that when the C(4) substituent was sufficiently electron-donating, then the ion might adopt a structure with a high degree of carbenium ion character with a greater portion of the positive charge residing on C(4). Since the acetate moieties provide good internal Lewis bases, the possibility exists that the system might adopt the trigonal-bipyramidal structure **28**, and hence serve as a model for the S_N2 transition state.⁴⁴⁻⁵⁰



Eqn. 1.8



Chapter 2

NMR Study

Described in this chapter are ¹H and ¹³C NMR investigations of 1,3-dioxolan-2ylium ion structure and reactivity. In Part A, the syntheses of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion systems chosen for study are outlined. Part B describes the intramolecular nucleophilic attack of an acetate group on the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion. A homologous series of ions were investigated in a systematic attempt to reduce the barrier to this isomerization reaction, and explore the possibility of generating a cation whose structure resembles that of an S_N2 transition state. The mechanism of isomerization was determined with the aid of dynamic NMR techniques. In Part C, the results of a ¹³C NMR correlation analysis on a series of aryl substituted 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ions are presented. The dependence of the carbon chemical shifts on the electron donating capability of the aryl substituent was examined. These substituent effects were used to determine the important resonance contributors to the ground state description of the 1,3dioxolan-2-ylium ion system.

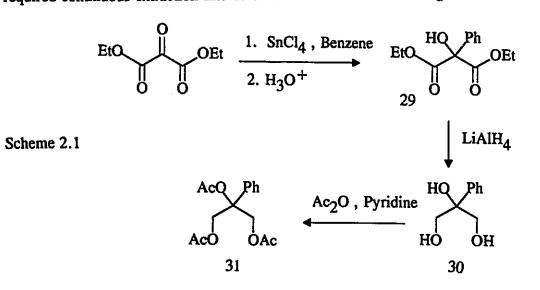
Part A: Syntheses

2.1 Routes Toward Dioxolanylium Ion Precursors

A common strategy was employed to obtain the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium salts described in this work. Triacetates of 1,2,3-propanetriol with various substituents at the C(2) position, provided convenient precursors. The syntheses of the triacetates were achieved using one of the following methods.

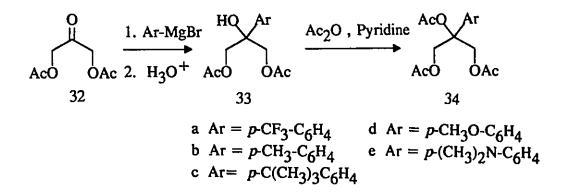
(a) Via Diethylketomalonate

Scheme 2.1 illustrates the route towards 31. The first step is the condensation of benzene with diethylketomalonate in the presence of SnCl₄.⁵¹ Reduction of the diester 29 with LiAlH₄ afforded the triol 30 which was then acetylated. The second step proved to be the most difficult reaction, the diester resisting reduction even with long reaction times at elevated temperatures. Furthermore, isolation of the triol from the reaction mixture required continuous extraction into ether which was time consuming and inefficient.



(b) Via 1,3-Dihydroxypropan-2-one-1,3-diacetate

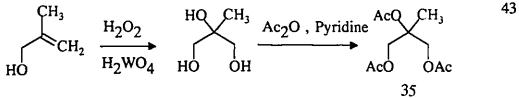
A more successful route towards the triacetate precursors is given in Scheme 2.2. Addition of the appropriate aryl Grignard reagent to 1,3-dihydroxypropan-2-one-1,3diacetate (32)⁵² was performed at -60 °C to allow reaction at the ketone function instead of at the ester carbonyls.⁵³ This regioselectivity was further enhanced by ensuring that 32 was always present in excess during the addition. Acetylation of the resulting tertiary alcohol 33a-e afforded the triacetate precursor 34a-e.



Scheme 2.2

(c) Via Dihydroxylation of an Olefin

The triacetate 35 was efficiently prepared via the dihydroxylation of the commercially available 2-methyl-2-propene-1-ol. As illustrated in Scheme 2.3, the olefin was treated with hydrogen peroxide in the presence of tungstic acid acting as a catalyst.³⁴ Acetylation of the triol gave the desired triacetate.

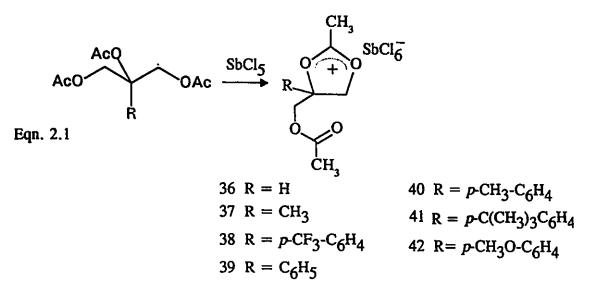


Scheme 2.3

Generation of the Dioxolanylium Ion 2.2

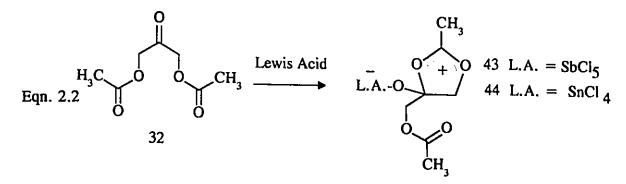
Hexachloroantimonate (SbCl₆) salts (a)

Dioxolanylium ion salts containing an aryl, methyl or hydrogen atom substituent at C(4) were each generated from the corresponding triacetate precursor following the method of Paulsen.²² Ionization of the triacetates with SbCl₅ in CH₂Cl₂ afforded the dioxolanylium ions as their hexachloroantimonate salts (36-42) (Eqn 2.1). The salts could be isolated and handled at room temperature under a dry nitrogen atmosphere for short periods without decomposition but hydrolysed quickly when exposed to atmospheric moisture. The salts could be stored indefinitely in sealed vials at -30 °C. The 'H and "C NMR spectral data for 36 - 42 are presented in Tables 2.1 to 2.3.



(b) Lewis Acid Adducts

The complexation-cyclization reaction of 1,3-dihydroxypropane-2-one-1,3-diacetate 32 with Lewis acids provided an alternative means of generating the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system (Eqn. 2.2). The NMR data for the SbCl₅ and SnCl, adducts, 43 and 44 respectively, are presented in Table 2.4.



Part B: Dynamic NMR Studies

2.3 ^tH NMR of Aryl Dioxolanylium Ion Salts

The 'H NMR spectra of the C(4)-aryl substituted dioxolanylium ions 38-42 were recorded as their SbCl₆ salts in CD₃NO₂ at low temperature. As can be seen from the data presented in Table 2.1, all the salts had similar spectra and were consistent with previously reported spectra for other dioxolanylium ion systems.³

Table 2.1: NMR Data for 36 and 37 in CD₃NO₂.

¹³C NMR

Carbon Atom	Comp	ound	
	36	37	
<u> </u>	193.78	192.80	
C(4)	92.92	101.98	
C(5)	89.88	81.76	
C(6)	15.87	15.94	
C(7)	77.82	66.67	
C(9)	171.74	171.44	
C(11)	20.45	20.38	
other	-	20.68	
~~~~			

# ¹H NMR

Proton	Compour	1d
	36	37
H(4)	6.12 -6.22 (m)	-
H(5a)		5.47 (d)
H(5b)	5.35 - 5.63 (m)	5.20 (d) (10.2 Hz)
H(6)	2.97 (s)	2.95 (s)
H(7a)	4.32 - 4.71 (m)	4.52 (d)
H(7b)	4.52 4.71 (my	4.46 (d) (13.5 Hz)
H(ll)	2.10 (s)	2.10 (s)
other	•	1.95 (s)

		Cor	npound		
Proton	38	39	40°	41	42
H(5a)	5.88 (d)	5.83 (d)	5.91 (d)	5.81 (d)	5.75 (d)
H(5b)	5.49 (d)	5.49 (d) (9.8 Hz)	5.65 (d) (10.2 Hz)	5.51 (d) (9.8 Hz)	5.51 (d) (9.8 Hz)
H(6)	3.00 (s)	2.98 (s)	3.08 (s)	2.97 (s)	2.94 (s)
H(7a)	4.46 (d)	4.36 (m)	4.69 (d)	4.45 (d)	4.48 (d)
H(7b)	4.40 (d) (13.7 Hz)		4.64 (d) (13.6 Hz)	4.40 (d) (13.6 Hz)	4.40 (d) (13.6 Hz)
H(11)	2.04 (s)	2.04 (s)	2.12 (s)	2.05 (s)	2.06 (s)
H(4′)	-		-	-	-
H(3'/5')		7.31-7.55 (m)		7.30 (d)	7.38 (d)
H(2′/6′)	7.53-7.75 (m)		7.42 (s br.)	7.50 (d) (8.4 Hz)	6.97 (d) (8.8 Hz
R	_	-	2.40 (s)	1.20 (s)	3.75 (s)

Table 2.2: 'H chemical shifts' of 38-42.

[•] In CD₃NO₂/CD₂Cl₂ at -98 [°]C except where noted. [•] In CD₃NO₂ at -21 [°]C

Carbon			Compoun	ıd		
Atom	38	39 ^b	39	40 [€]	41	42
C(2)	190.73	191.90	190.29	192.71	190.12	189.99
C(4)	98.94	100.10	99.72	102.55	100.07	100.32
C(5)	79.66	82.66	79.58	81.58	79.41	79.27
C(6)	15.42	17.48	15.36	15.96	15.32	15.32
C(7)	66.12	69.22	66.54	67.60	66.34	66.48
C(9)	169.59	171.90	170.00	171.38	169.63	170.25
<b>C</b> (11)	19.88	21.14	19.98	20.39	19.96	20.05
C(1′)	134.88	132.10	130.65	129.80	127.58	121.58
C(2'/6')	124.94	125.24	124.13	126.32	124.12	126.34
C(3'/5')	125.87	đ	128.98	131.23	126.01	113.86
C(4′)	121.80	131.91	130.47	143.07	153.51	160.34
R	đ	-	-	21.18 29.89	34.21	55.09

Table 2.3: ¹³C chemical shifts^{*} (ppm) of **38-42**.

In CD₃NO₂/CD₂Cl₂ at -98 °C except where noted. Chemical shifts given at a precision of ± 0.02 ppm.
CPMAS spectrum at 21°C. Chemical shifts given at a precision of ± 0.06 ppm.
In CD₃NO₂ at -21 °C.
Not detected

^d Not detected.

NMR data for Lewis acid complexes 43 and 44. Table 2.4:

# ¹H NMR

Compound	Chemical Shifts (ppm)		
43	2.22 (s br., H11)*		
	2.93 (s br., H6)		
	4.81 (s br., H7)		
	5.29 (s br., H5)		
44	2.65 (s. br) ^b		
	5.06 (s. br)		

# ¹³C NMR

Compound	Chemical Shifts (ppm)			
-	Solution	CPMAS		
44	20.99°	21.05		
	68.28	71.76		
	179.62	183.00		
	192.35	195.38		

In CD₂Cl₂ at -62 °C (250 MHz).
In CD₂Cl₂ at -100 °C (500 MHz).
In CD₂Cl₂ at -100 °C (125.7 MHz).
At 25 °C (25.1 MHz).

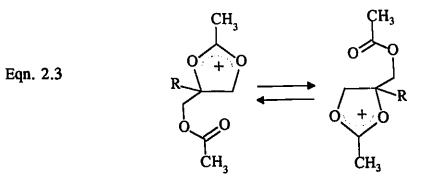
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A sharp singlet for the H(6) methyl protons was consistently observed around 3.0 ppm. The resonance of the H(11) protons corresponding to the methyl group of the acetate moiety, occurred as a sharp singlet around 2.0 ppm. The H(7) methylene protons are magnetically non-equivalent and occurred as a quartet (AB spin system), with a coupling constant of about 13.6 Hz. A second AB spin system was observed for the H(5) methylene protons at lower field than that of the H(7) protons. The coupling constants observed (9.8-10.2 Hz) for the geminal H(5) protons are very similar to those reported for other related dioxolanylium ions.³

For 'H NMR spectra recorded at higher temperatures, the acetate and acetoxonium signals (H(11) and H(6) respectively) began to broaden. Similarly the H(5) and H(7) pairs of methylene protons also broadened. The temperature at which these broadenings first became noticeable was system dependent, usually occurring just above room temperature. As the temperature was increased further, broadening continued and in the case of 42, coalescence of the H(11) and H(6) signals was observed with the eventual formation of a single sharp resonance.

These observations are consistent with a degenerate isomerization reaction as shown in Eqn.  $2.3.^{22}$  The product of this reaction is identical to the starting material. This process may be viewed as an intramolecular nucleophilic displacement reaction at C(4): the acetate group which is bound as the dioxolanylium moiety is the leaving group and the unbound acetate group acts as an internal nucleophile. In effect, the end result of this isomerization is that the acetate methyl group is "exchanged" for the acetoxonium

methyl group. Similarly, the ring methylene protons H(5) are exchanged for the acyclic methylene protons H(7). When the rate of isomerization is sufficiently fast with respect to the NMR time scale, broadening of these two pairs of signals is observed. This broadening is the consequence of a given proton spending time in two different magnetic environments during the time required to collect each scan. As the temperature is increased further, each pair of signals eventually coalesces into a single resonance. This time-averaged signal appears at point between the chemical shifts in the static condition; that is, when no exchange is occurring. The chemical shift of the averaged peak is dependent upon the population of the spins involved. Since the population of the acetate and acetoxonium methyl resonances are equal, the averaged peak should appear midway between these two chemical shifts.



## 2.4 Measurement of Isomerization Rate Constants by Total Bandshape Analysis

It is possible to extract rate information from the NMR spectrum of a system undergoing a dynamic exchange process using total bandshape analysis.⁵⁵ Using various computer programs, calculated line shapes at various rates of exchange are visually compared to the actual spectrum obtained at a given temperature. This simple trial and error approach will produce the value of the rate constant which gives the closest fit of the model to the actual spectrum. Typically, the following input parameters are required: number of exchanging sites, frequency and relative population of each site, estimate of the spectrometer line width (in Hz) in the absence of exchange, the estimated rate of exchange, and exchange map which defines which sites exchange with each other. In practice, the visual comparison of the simulated and actual spectrum results in a range of rate constants which reproduce the spectrum equally well.

Using this approach, the rate of isomerization was investigated for the series of dioxolanylium ions with aryl substituents at C(4) (38-42). For each compound, the ¹H NMR spectrum in  $CD_3NO_2$  was recorded over a suitable range of temperatures. In order for a series of variable temperature spectra to be useful for line shape analysis, the temperature range was chosen such that the rate of exchange was fast enough to observe line broadening but not so fast as to produce a completely averaged (sharp) signal.

Two computer simulation programs were employed: DNMR3⁵⁶ and Exchange.⁵⁷ The former program allowed for the simulation of exchanging spin systems which were coupled; that is, the exchange of the methylene protons H(5) with H(7). This was the case for the *p*-methylphenyl substituted dioxolanylium ion, 40. It was convenient to simulate the methylene groups in this instance since the coalescence of the acetoxonium methyl with the acetate methyl group was somewhat obscured by the resonance at 2.40 ppm of the *p*-methyl group on the phenyl ring. In all other cases, the exchange of the

acetate methyl with the acetoxonium methyl group was simulated with either DNMR3 or Exchange. The rate of exchange of the p-CF₃phenyl compound **38** was too slow to observe any broadening up to 100 °C. In this case, an upper limit for the rate constant was estimated. Figure 2.1 compares the actual and simulated ¹H NMR spectra for the coalescence of the acetate and acetoxonium resonances of **42**. The rate constants obtained in this way for the aryl substituted dioxolanylium ions (**38-42**) are given in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5:	Rates of i	somerization	for <b>38-42</b>	in CD ₃ NO ₂ .

Compound	Substituent at C(4)	Temperature (K)	Rate (s ¹ )
38	<i>p</i> -CF₃C₅H₄	373	< 10 (est.)
39	C ₆ H,	303	10 ± 1
	C6113	313	$10 \pm 1$ 20 ± 1
		323	$55 \pm 5$
		333	$100 \pm 10$
40	<i>р</i> -С <b>H</b> ₃С₅H,	308	100 ± 10
		318	$200 \pm 25$
		323	$390 \pm 40$
41	<i>p</i> -C(CH ₃ ) ₃ C ₆ H ₄	294	15 ± 2
42	<i>p</i> -CH₃OC₅H₄	249	670 ± 30
		254	1170 ± 50
		260	$1800 \pm 100$
		264	4000 ± 250
		270	5600 ± 500

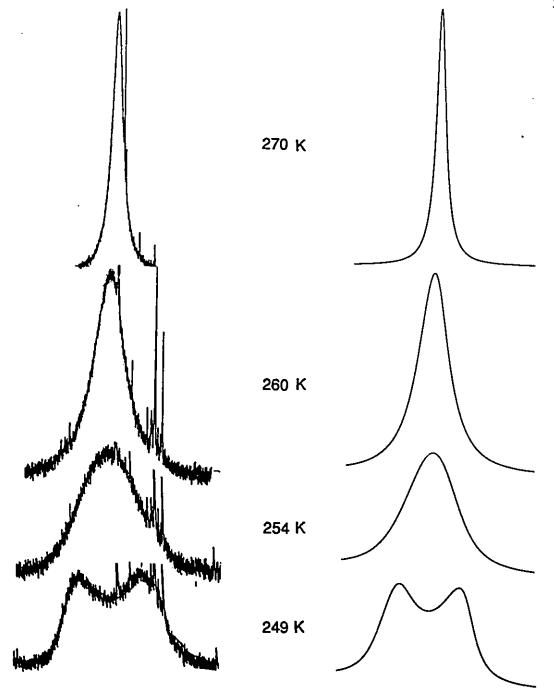


Fig. 2.1: Variable temperature 'H NMR spectra of 42 in CD₃NO₂: coalescence of acetate and acetoxonium methyl resonances.

#### 2.5 Mechanism of Isomerization for Aryl Dioxolanylium Ions

#### (i) Hammett Study

By fitting the kinetic data (Table 2.5) to one of the available Hammett type equations,⁵⁸ information about the mechanism of the isomerization reaction could be obtained. The best correlation was obtained with the Okamoto and Brown  $\sigma$ ' substituent parameters⁵⁹ in a modified Hammett equation (Eqn. 2.4). The plot obtained by fitting the data to Eqn. 2.4 is given in Figure 2.2. The slope,  $\rho$ , was found to be -5.4.

Eqn. 2.4 
$$\log(k_x/k_H) = \rho \sigma^*$$

The  $\sigma^*$  substituent parameters were developed using the solvolysis of cumyl chlorides at 25 °C in 90% aqueous acetone as the model reaction. This form of the Hammett equation is generally used for reactions in which a resonance interaction is possible between the substituent and the reactive centre of an electron demanding transition state. For these reactions, Eqn. 2.4 gives a better fit than the original form of the Hammett equation which was developed using the ionization of benzoic acids. Thus, in the present study, a transition state in which there is a strong resonance interaction between the para substituent on the phenyl ring and an electron deficient reactive center is indicated.

A similar conclusion about the nature of the transition state may be arrived at by considering the value of  $\rho$  obtained. The quantity  $\rho$  is a measure of the sensitivity of the

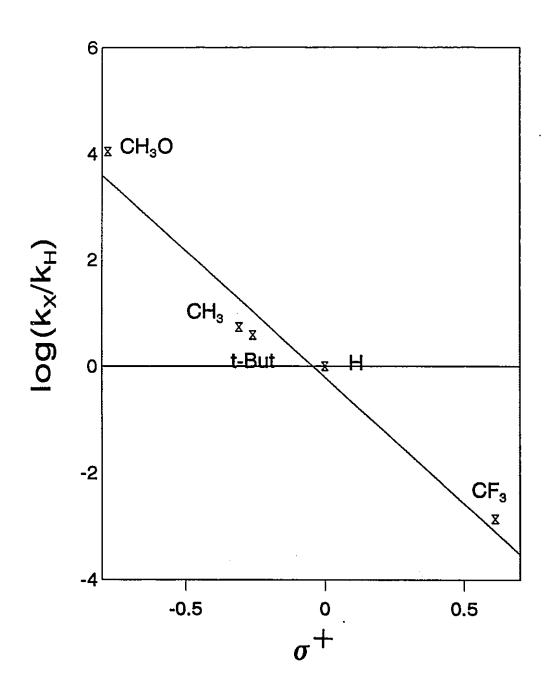


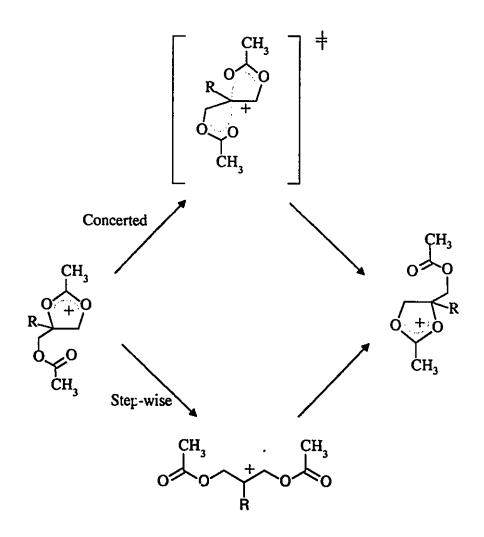
Fig. 2.2: Hammett plot for C(4)-aryl substituted dioxolanylium ion isomerization.

reaction to substituent changes.³⁸ The negative value for  $\rho$  is indicative of an electron demanding transition state which is stabilized by electron releasing substituents. Furthermore, the magnitude of  $\rho$  suggests a highly polarized transition state in which the degree of bond breaking far exceeds that of bond formation.

There are two possible mechanisms by which the intramolecular displacement reaction can occur as shown in Figure 2.3. The first is via a concerted mechanism in which the C(4)-O(3) bond of the dioxolanylium ring is stretched while the carbonyl oxygen of the free acetate group approaches the C(4) carbon atom. This is analogous to the  $S_N2$  reaction in an intermolecular nucleophilic displacement. The alternative mechanism is a stepwise process. A rate determining heterolytic cleavage of the C(4)-O(3) bond yields a carbenium ion intermediate in the first step. This carbenium ion then collapses with a free acetate group to reform the dioxolanylium ion in the second step. This two step process in analogous to the  $S_N1$  reaction in an intramolecular displacement.

In the case of the step-wise mechanism, cleavage of the C(4)-O(3) bond results in the migration of the positive charge from the O(1)-C(2)-O(3) oxocarbenium system to C(4). The resultant carbenium ion is stabilized by the adjacent aromatic ring. Thus, the step-wise pathway should be particularly sensitive to the electron donating capability of the aromatic ring which serves to stabilize the charge both in the transition state and in the carbenium ion intermediate.

In the concerted mechanism, development of positive charge at C(4) is mitigated by the interaction of the carbonyl oxygen of the approaching nucleophile. In effect, the



positive charge in the transition state is shared by two partially formed dioxolanylium ions. Thus, the role of the aromatic ring at C(4) is reduced with respect to the step-wise mechanism. This fact may serve as a convenient and measurable distinction between the two pathways.

Any proposed mechanism for the isomerization of the dioxolanylium ions must be consistent with observations noted in the Hammett study. In particular, it must account for the value of  $\rho$ . It is instructive to compare the  $\rho$  values reported in the literature for other displacement reactions with that obtained here. Known  $\rho$  values do not fall into clear groupings for S_N1-like and S_N2-like mechanisms. Rather, there exists a spectrum of values that reflect the variable nature of displacement reactions which seldom exhibit limiting S_N1 or S_N2 behaviour. Nevertheless, the  $\rho$  value of -5.4 obtained in this study is sufficiently large that there can be no doubt that the reaction proceeds via a step-wise mechanism.³⁸

#### (ii) The Baker-Nathan Effect

It is interesting to note the effectiveness of the methyl versus the tertiary butyl substituent on the phenyl ring in accelerating the rate of isomerization. The increase in the rate of isomerization afforded by the introduction of the *p*-methyl substituent onto the phenyl ring is given by  $k_{p-Me}/k_{H}=5.4$  at 25 °C. Similarly, the effectiveness of the *p-t*-butyl substituent on facilitating the isomerization is  $k_{p-Me}/k_{H}=3.85$  at 25 °C. Thus, in this instance, the methyl substituent is more effective than the t-butyl substituent in

enhancing the rate of isomerization.

This reversal of the inductive order is termed the Baker-Nathan effect and has been observed for many reactions at electron deficient sites.⁶⁰ The origin of the effect, as advanced by Baker and Nathan and subsequently refined by others,⁶¹⁻⁶³ was attributed to a greater effectiveness of C-H hyperconjugation over C-C hyperconjugation in stabilizing a positive charge. An alternative explanation proposed by Shubert⁶⁴ and vigorously defended by Dewar,⁶⁵ attributes the effect to differential solvation. Steric inhibition to solvation for *r*-butyl-substituted compounds may be severe enough to counteract its greater stabilizing power via induction in some instances. Whether the inductive order or the Baker-Nathan order is observed is dependent on the importance of solvation in a given reaction. While differential solvation appears to offer an attractive explanation for the Baker-Nathan effect, a contribution from hyperconjugation can not be discounted. It has also been suggested that hyperconjugation itself may be solventdependent.⁶⁶

The data collected in the present investigation cannot settle the long standing debate as to the origin of the Baker-Nathan effect. However, two observations are particularly noteworthy. First, it has already been shown that the isomerization reaction proceeds via a transition state structure characterized by a large amount of the positive charge being dispersed into the aromatic ring. This condition often accompanies the observation of a Baker-Nathan effect. Secondly, the use of nitromethane as a solvent has been shown to give rise to a particularly large Baker-Nathan effect.⁶⁵ Given the operation

of these two contributing factors, it is therefore not surprising that the Baker-Nathan effect was observed in this system.

## (iii) Evaluation of Activation Parameters

In order to compare the effects of the other substituents on the isomerization reaction, it is useful to calculate the activation parameters. An Arrhenius plot of the data presented in Table 2.5 was used to determine the entropy of activation,  $\Delta S^+$ , for the isomerization of each compound. Not enough data could be collected in the case of the *p*-*t*-butylphenyl and *p*-CF₃phenyl substituted dioxolanylium ions (41 and 38 respectively) to allow accurate determinations of  $\Delta S^+$ . The free energy of activation,  $\Delta G^+$ , was calculated for all compounds using the Eyring equation. The results are presented in Table 2.6.

Inspection of the  $\Delta G^+$  values reveals that the barrier to the dioxolanylium isomerization is lowered as better electron releasing substituents are placed on the phenyl ring. Using the isomerization of the unsubstituted phenyl compound 39 as a reference,  $(\Delta G^+=16.4)$ , the *p*-methoxy substituted dioxolanylium ion 42 ( $\Delta G^+=10.9$ ) exhibited a greatly reduced barrier. This is attributed to the ability of the methoxy group to stabilize the developing positive charge at the C(4) carbon atom in the transition state via a strong resonance interaction.

Compound	C(4) substituent	ΔG+ (kcal/mol)	ΔS+ (e.u.)
38	<i>p</i> -CF₃C₅H₄	(20.3) ^b	-
39	C ₆ H ₃	$16.4 \pm 0.1$	$-1.3 \pm 1.8$
40	p-CH₃C₅H₄	$15.4 \pm 0.1$	4.8 ± 1.0
41	<i>p</i> -(CH ₃ ) ₃ C ₆ H ₄	15.6 ± 0.1 ^c	-
42	p-CH ₃ OC ₆ H ₄	$10.9~\pm~0.1$	9.0 ± 1.0

Activation parameters¹ for the isomerization of 38-42. Table 2.6

In CD₃NO₂ at 25 °C unless otherwise noted.
Estimated at 100 °C.
At 21 °C.

With the introduction of the p-CF₃ substituent (38) the barrier to the isomerization was raised by at least 5 kcal/mol relative to the unsubstituted phenyl dioxolanylium cation 39. This is a result of the powerful electron withdrawing effect of the CF, group. The electron demanding transition state is destabilized inductively and hence the barrier is increased.

The value of  $\Delta S^+$  obtained in all cases was small. This is consistent with unimolecular reactions which exhibit lower values of  $\Delta S^+$  than their bimolecular counterparts. It is interesting to note that  $\Delta S^+$  increases as better electron donating groups are put on the phenyl ring. A looser transition state might be expected when a good electron donating substituent is present on the phenyl ring. The ionization could proceed to a greater extent imparting more internal freedom to the transition state compared to the constrained dioxolanylium ring of the reactant.

# (iv) The "Frozen" $S_N 2$ Transition State

A steady reduction in  $\Delta G^+$  was observed as the *para* substituent on the phenyl ring was made more electron donating. A linear correlation of  $\Delta G^+$  with  $\sigma'$  is expected since the Eyring equation provides a nexus between the Hammett equation and the desired linear free energy relationship. Such a correlation does indeed exist as shown in Figure 2.4 in which  $\Delta G^+$  at 25 °C is plotted against the Okamoto-Brown  $\sigma'$  substituent constants. By extrapolation, a substituent with a  $\sigma'$  value of -2.3 would reduce the isomerization barrier to zero. While no known substituent has such a negative value of  $\sigma^+$ , the N,N-dimethylamino group is one of the best electron donating groups available with  $\sigma^+ = -1.7$ . This suggests that the corresponding dioxolanylium ion with a *p*-N,Ndimethylaminophenyl group at C(4) (45) would adopt a conformation which exhibits a high degree of carbenium ion character. It is possible that simultaneous co-ordination by both carbonyl oxygens would result, and thus the ion could serve as a model for the trigonal bipyramidal transition state of the S_R2 reaction.

Attempts at generating this ion via SbCl₅ ionization of the corresponding triacetate **34e** (Eqn. 2.5) were unsuccessful. Presumably, Lewis acid co-ordination to the amine

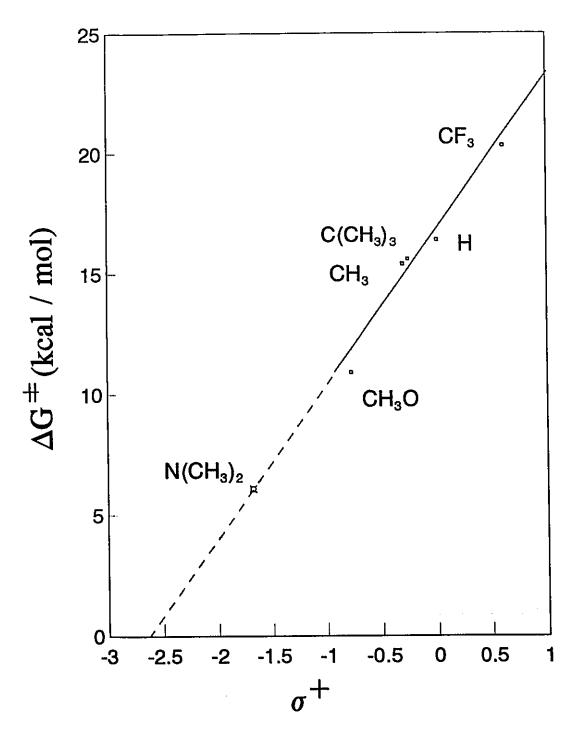
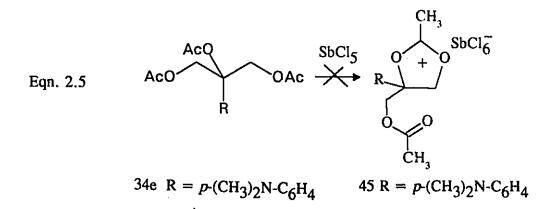


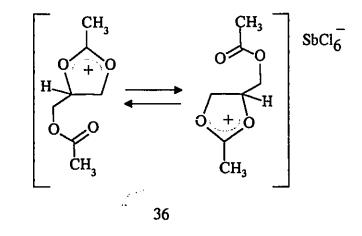
Fig. 2.4: Plot of isomerization barrier vs  $\sigma^+$  for any dioxolany lium ions.

function interfered with the ionization reaction. However, the prediction of a low reaction barrier for this compound was tested by the use of semi-empirical calculations. The results of that study are presented in Chapter 4.



# 2.6 Isomerization of the Non-Aryl Dioxolanylium Ion Salts

It was of interest to examine the effect of non-aryl substituents at C(4) on the rate of the dioxolanylium ion isomerization. Paulsen²² has reported a barrier ( $\Delta G^+$ ) of 18.7 kcal/mol for the isomerization of **36** (Eqn. 2.6). This is more than 2 kcal/mol higher in energy than the isomerization barrier determined for **39** ( $\Delta G^+ = 16.4 \pm 0.1$  kcal/mol). Thus, the phenyl substituent at C(4) provides an effective means of lowering the reaction barrier. While the aryl dioxolanylium ions **38-42** isomerize via a step-wise pathway, Paulsen has suggested an S_N2-like (concerted) mechanism for **36**.²² However, no evidence was given in support of this assertion. In order to help determine which mechanism, step-wise or concerted, controls the isomerization of the non-aryl system, the isomerization of **37** was investigated, in which the C(4) substituent is a methyl group.





It was not convenient to use NMR line shape analysis to obtain the rate of isomerization of the C(4)-methyl substituted dioxolanylium ion 37. At a field strength of 200 MHz no significant broadening of the ¹H signals was observed at temperatures below 100 °C. It was not practical to try to exceed this temperature due to decomposition of the sample. Furthermore, the use of  $CD_3NO_2$  as a solvent imposed its own limit as to which temperatures were accessible. The use of a higher boiling solvent would have interfered with making comparisons with other systems in  $CD_3NO_2$ .

#### (i) Measurement of Isomerization Rate Constants by Selective Inversion

The use of the one-dimensional (1D) magnetization transfer methods allows for the investigation of exchange processes occurring at much slower rates than does the line shape method.⁶⁷ The basic experiment involves selective excitation of a spin system to

generate a transient, and then monitoring the magnetization intensity of the exchangecoupled sites using a variable delay. There are two 1D magnetization transfer techniques: selective saturation and selective inversion.^{68,69} In selective saturation, the transient is generated by constant irradiation at one site so that the magnetization intensity at that site remains at zero throughout the experiment, while the intensity of the unperturbed site is monitored.⁷⁰ In the selective inversion technique, a 180° pulse is applied to one site to invert the magnetization at that site. The advantage of this technique is that the magnetization intensities of both the perturbed and unperturbed signals may be monitored. Thus, selective inversion is often the preferred technique⁶⁷ and was the method of choice for the present investigation.

The two site exchange for the isomerization of 36 was investigated using the selective inversion technique as described by Bain.⁶⁷ The ¹³C resonance of the C(2) carbon atom (see Table 2.1) was inverted with an 180° pulse. The intensity of this spin as a function of time is plotted in Figure 2.5, which illustrates the recovery of the signal to its positive value as governed by the relaxation-exchange processes. Isomerization of the dioxolanylium ion exchanges sites C(2) and C(9), and hence the magnetization intensity of the C(9) signal also is affected. An initial decrease in intensity of the C(9) resonance is observed as magnetization is transferred to this site from C(2), followed by a recovery to the equilibrium condition. Figure 2.6 illustrates the time dependent behaviour of the C(9) signal.

Knowing the magnetization intensities of the signals for the C(2) and C(9) carbon

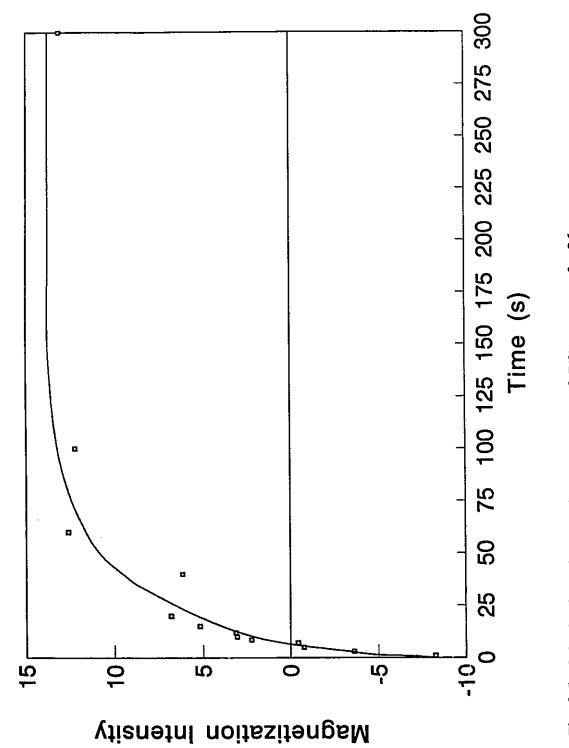


Fig. 2.5: Selective inversion experiment: response of C(2) resonance for 36.

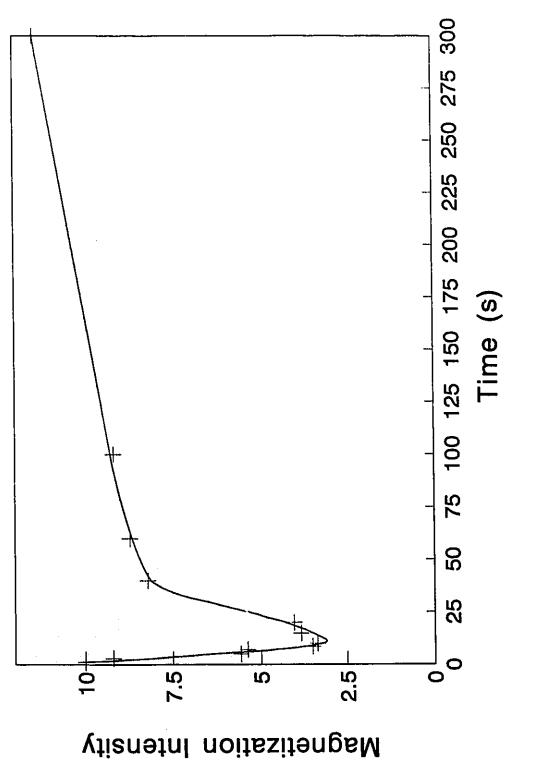


Fig. 2.6: Selective inversion experiment: response of C(9) resonance for 36.

atoms as a function of time, the Bloch equations for the selective inversion experiment can be solved.⁷¹ This involves estimating the value of the exchange rate (k) and relaxation rate ( $T_1$ ). The data are then computer-fitted to the Bloch equations using an iterative approach until a good match between the predicted and experimentally determined curves is achieved. The results are presented in Table 2.7 along with those for the isomerization of 37, which was investigated using the same procedure.

Table 2.7: Rate of isomerization	of 36 and 37 in $CD_3NO_2$ .
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Compound	C(4) substituent	Temperature (°C)	Rate (s ⁻¹ )	ΔG ⁺ (kcal/mole)
36	н	25	0.12 ± 0.02	18.7 ± 0.1
37	CH3	42	0.02 ± 0.01	21.0 ± 0.3
	<u> </u>			

# (ii) Mechanism of Isomerization for 36 and 37.

The value of  $\Delta G^+$  obtained for 36 was 18.7  $\pm$  0.1 kcal/mol at 25 °C, which is in agreement with that determined by Paulsen using a one-point coalescence approximation method.²² This was taken as a validation of the experimental procedure. An increase in  $\Delta G^+$  of more than 2 kcal/mol was found in going from a hydrogen to a methyl substituent at C(4). This effectively rules out the possibility that both of these compounds isomerize by the step-wise pathway. If this were the case, the methyl substituted dioxolanylium should have had the lower barrier because of the greater ability of the methyl group to stabilize the charge at C(4) in the transition state.

In the concerted pathway, however, charge development at C(4) is less pronounced. Therefore, if both compounds isomerized by this pathway, then the inductive stabilization provided by the methyl group would not play a key role. The higher barrier for 37 could be accounted for by the hinderance of the methyl group to the approach of the nucleophile -- an interaction which is absent for 36.

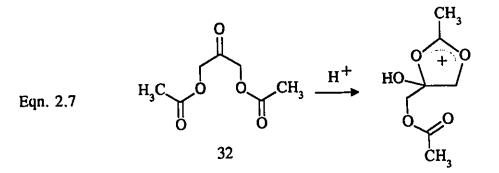
The possibility that 36 isomerizes by the concerted pathway while 37 isomerizes by the step wise pathway must also be addressed. In this case, the higher barrier for 37 is merely accidental. That is, the step-wise pathway has an intrinsically higher barrier than does the concerted pathway. A simple comparison of the values of  $\Delta G^+$  cannot distinguish this situation from the one discussed above in which both compounds isomerize by the concerted pathway. Semi-empirical AM1 calculations were employed to tackle this problem and the results are presented in Chapter 4.

# 2.7 Lewis Acid Adducts

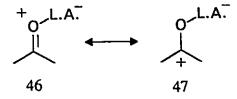
The C(4)-aryl substituted dioxolanylium ions described in the previous sections were investigated as part of a systematic approach to lowering the isomerization barrier, with the ultimate goal of obtaining a model for the  $S_N2$  transition state. Since aryl

substituents of sufficient electron-donating power could not be successfully introduced onto the dioxolanylium ring, other charge stabilizing substituents were investigated.

An oxygen atom bound directly to the C(4) carbon atom would be a very effective means of stabilizing a positive charge at this site. One way of incorporating such a functionality would be via the protonation-cyclization reaction of 1,3-dihydroxypropan-2-one-1,3-diacetate 32 shown in Eqn. 2.7. However, no dioxolanylium ions could be isolated from the reaction of 32 with FSO₃H and CF₃SO₃H. The 'H NMR spectra obtained on solution of 32 in these acids showed that the protonation did not proceed cleanly and the spectra could not be assigned. Presumably, protonation at the ester carbonyl oxygen atoms was also taking place.



It was thought that the use of a Lewis acid in place of protic acids would allow greater control over the intended reaction. A Lewis acid scale has been proposed based on the ability of the Lewis acid to induce chemical shift changes ( $\Delta\delta$ ) in the base upon complexation.⁷² These chemical shift changes reflect the ability of the Lewis acid to modify atomic charge as illustrated in resonance structures 46 and 47.



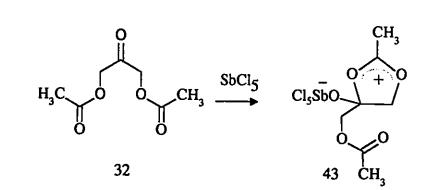
The order established using this approach is as follows:ⁿ

# Et₃Al, SnCl₄, Et₂AlCl, TiCl₄, EtAlCl₂, BF₃, AlCl₃, SbCl₅, BCl₃, BBr₃ increasing relative power →

(i) SbCl_s Complex

Treatment of 32 with 1.5 equivalents of SbCl, at  $-78^{\circ}$  C in CD₂Cl₂, afforded a dark coloured complex which was not isolated, but was analyzed in situ (Eqn. 2.8). The ¹H NMR spectrum at -62 °C (Table 2.4) was consistent with the desired dioxolanylium ion 43. However, all the proton signals were broadened due to the viscosity of the solution at this temperature. As the temperature was increased, an isomerization reaction was observed with broadening of the methyl and methylene resonances. Using the total line shape method previously described, the rate of isomerization and the associated reaction barrier were determined (Table 2.8). The SbCl, complex exhibited a lower barrier to isomerization than any of the aryl-substituted dioxolanylium ions discussed

previously. However, the reaction barrier was still appreciable, suggesting that the complex bears a closer resemblance to a typical dioxolanylium ion rather than a "frozen"  $S_N 2$  transition state. Attempts to obtain a single crystal of the complex suitable for x-ray crystallography were unsuccessful.



Eqn. 2.8

Table 2.8: Rate of isomerization of 43 in  $CD_2Cl_2$ .

Temperature (K)	Rate (s ⁻¹ )	ΔG ⁺ @ 25 C (kcal/mol)
230	30 ± 2	8.5 ± 0.1
235	$100 \pm 2$	
245	550 ± 50	
250	$1800 \pm 100$	

# (ii) SnCl, Complex

In an attempt to lower the isomerization barrier even further, a SnCl, complex was also investigated. According to the ordering of the Lewis acids discussed previously, SnCl, is significantly weaker than SbCl, in its ability to induce chemical shift changes in the complexed base.⁷² This would suggest that the use of SnCl, would reduce the amount of positive charge at C(4) compared to the SbCl₃ complex. A reduction of positive charge density at C(4) should reduce the isomerization barrier, and may be sufficient to promote the "frozen"  $S_N2$  transition state structure rather than the typical dioxolanylium ion structure. Treatment of 32 with SnCl, at -78 °C afforded a white precipitate which was collected. The ¹H, ¹³C (solution) and CPMAS NMR data for the SnCl, complex 44 are presented in Table 2.4.

Only two signals were detected in the ¹H NMR spectrum of the complex at -100 °C: broad singlets centered at 2.60 ppm and 5.10 ppm. This may be consistent with an averaged spectrum for a rapidly isomerizing dioxolanylium ion. If this is indeed the case, the barrier to isomerization must be exceedingly low. The simplicity of the solution ¹³C NMR spectrum may also be indicative of a rapid isomerization. However, the similarity between the solution ¹³C and CPMAS spectra would require that the isomerization is equally fast in the solid state, which seems unlikely.

An alternative view is that the complex resembles the sought after "frozen"  $S_N^2$  transition state. In solution, complexes of carbonyl compounds with Sn derived Lewis acids prefer to form either 1:2 or 1:1 (acid:carbonyl) chelated adducts.^{73,74} For SnCl₄, the 1:1 complexes are possible when the ligand is bidentate.⁷⁴ For both stoichiometries, crystallographic investigations have demonstrated an octahedral geometry about the Sn atom in SnCl₄ complexes.⁷⁴ With these considerations in mind, a structure may be

proposed for 44, which is also consistent with the NMR data (Fig. 2.7). Unfortunately, single crystals of the complex suitable for x-ray crystallography could not be obtained, and so the structure remains in question.

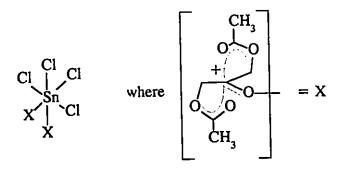


Fig. 2.7 Possible structure of 44

Part C: ¹³C NMR Correlation Analysis

#### 2.8 "C NMR of Aryl Dioxolanylium Salts

Similar ¹³C NMR spectra were observed for the aryl dioxolanylium salts 38-42 (Table 2.3). Assignments of the ¹³C resonances were accomplished using spin-sorts and by comparison with the chemical shifts reported for analogous carbon atoms in other dioxolanylium ion systems and 1,4-disubstituted benzenes.^{37,75} In all cases, the lowest

field signal was for the C(2) carbon atom which is consistent with positive charge at this site. The C(2) resonance was typically 20 ppm further downfield than the C(9) resonance, the carbonyl carbon of the free acetate group. The C(5) resonance was about 13 ppm further downfield than that for the C(7) carbon atom. The C(6) resonance was about 4.5 ppm further upfield compared to that of the C(11) carbon atom. Similar upfield shifts have been reported for the resonances of carbon atoms adjacent to the carbonyl carbon of esters,⁷⁶ ketones,⁷³ aldehydes,⁷² ethers⁷⁷ and imimes⁷⁴ upon complexation or protonation.

Close inspection of the values listed in Table 2.3 reveals subtle variations in the ¹¹C chemical shifts for analogous carbons within the five-membered ring. There is an apparent dependence of these chemical shifts on the electron-donating ability of the *para* substituent of the phenyl ring. Successive replacement with better electron donating substituents generally produced an upfield shift for the C(2), C(5) and C(6) resonances and a downfield shift for the C(4) resonances. Since the chemical shifts being considered are for carbons that are far removed from the substituent on the phenyl ring, the effect is clearly electronic in nature and not due to a steric interaction. A detailed analysis of the trends was undertaken in order to gain a better understanding of these substituent effects and to identify their significance in determining the structure and charge distribution within the dioxolanylium ions.

#### 2.9 NMR Correlation Analysis

#### (a) Background

A linear dependence of the ¹³C chemical shift of a given carbon atom and the charge density on that atom was first recognized by Spiesecke and Schneider.⁷⁹ This relationship has provided an invaluable tool for the study of the structure and stability of carbenium ions.⁸⁰ It is not surprising that correlations of ¹³C NMR substituent effects with Hammett  $\sigma$  parameters may also be found.⁸¹ In general, a linear dependence between ¹³C chemical shifts and structure-reactivity constants (i.e.  $\sigma$  values) is found since both of these quantities respond in a similar way to changes in electron density.⁸²

Single parameter correlations take the form:³³

Eqn. 2.9 
$$\delta = \rho \sigma + \delta_0$$

where  $\delta$  is the chemical shift,  $\sigma$  is one of the many classical Hammett parameters ( $\sigma_1$ ,  $\sigma_p$ ,  $\sigma_p^+$ ,  $\sigma_m$ ,  $\sigma_R^-$ ,  $\sigma_R^0$ ,  $\sigma_R^+$ , or  $\sigma_R^{BA}$ ),  $\rho$  is a proportionality constant, and  $\delta_0$  is an adjustable constant. A constraint that is often applied is  $\delta_0 = \delta_{H}$ , the chemical shift of the unsubstituted parent compound, and the single parameter Hammett equation becomes:¹⁴

Eqn. 2.10 
$$\Delta \delta = \rho \sigma$$

Use of the substituent-induced chemical shift,  $\Delta \delta = \delta - \delta_0$ , forces zero-intercept behaviour

for Eqn. 2.10 and avoids giving unwarranted freedom to fitting the data resulting from the adjustable parameter  $\delta_0$ .

For many chemical systems, single-parameter equations do not give valid correlations.^{81a,82,83,85} Therefore, dual-substituent parameter (DSP) equations have been proposed, the most widely accepted being Taft's DSP equation:^{81b}

Eqn. 2.11 
$$\Delta \delta = \rho_{I} \sigma_{I} + \rho_{R} \sigma_{R}$$

The DSP equation separates the inductive,  $\rho_1 \sigma_1$ , and the mesomeric,  $\rho_R \sigma_R$ , components of the substituent effect. Taft argued that a single set of  $\sigma_R$  substituent parameters could not adequately describe substituent effects in all systems. Therefore, he set out to define four  $\sigma_R$  scales which reflect the different types of resonance effects that are possible:  $\sigma(BA)$ ,  $\sigma^{\circ}$ ,  $\sigma^+$ , and  $\sigma^-$ . It general, it is necessary to try each of the four  $\sigma_R$  parameters in the DSP equation in order to obtain the best fit at a given probe site. This procedure must be repeated for all positions of interest in the molecule since not all probe sites respond in the same way to a change in substitution. It is hoped that the  $\sigma_R$  scale which best correlates with the data also has chemical significance.

The  $\sigma_t$  scale is widely accepted as having general applicability. Despite the use of the term "inductive", that part of the substituent effect which is not a result of through resonance, should not be solely attributed to electrical induction through the bonds of the molecular framework. The possibility that the dipole of a substituent can affect another point in the same molecule, such as a reactive centre, by a through space or field effect is not excluded. Shorter^{stc} has argued that both inductive and field effects are simplifications for the way in which a substituent can modify the overall electron distribution in a molecule. They are both convenient models but neither is satisfactory for describing substituent effects in all cases. It is stressed that the DSP equation makes no attempt to address the relative importance of inductive versus field effects.

# (b) Evaluation of Correlation Models

In the present study of substituent effects in dioxolanylium ions, the ¹³C NMR chemical shifts of **38**, **39**, **41**, and **42** (Table 2.3) were considered. The spectra for this set of compounds were recorded at -98 °C in  $CD_2Cl_2/CD_3NO_2$ . This temperature was chosen to ensure that the rate of isomerization was negligible compared to the NMR time scale so that the static dioxolanylium ions could be observed. The solubility of the salts in  $CD_2Cl_2$  alone was not high enough to give good spectra in a reasonable amount of time. While the salts have appreciable solubility in  $CD_3NO_2$ , the temperature required for this study was far below its freezing point. A combination of these two solvents was used to achieve the required solubility and liquid temperature range. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of **40** was originally recorded in  $CD_3NO_2$  at -21°C. Limited availability of this compound prevented recording the spectrum under the same conditions as the other dioxolanylium salts in this series. The ¹³C chemical shifts of the salts were noted to exhibit a dependence on the nature of the solvent, sc **49** was excluded from this study.

Correlations between the substituent-induced ¹³C chemical shifts ( $\Delta\delta$ ) and various substituent parameters ( $\sigma$ ) were sought using the single and dual substituent parameter equations (Eqn. 2.10 and 2.11). All the appropriate  $\sigma$  parameters^{86,87} were tried in each equation for each position in the dioxolanylium ion ring. The goodness of fit at a particular carbon atom for a given equation and a set of values is given by the value of F (defined as the mean square due to regression divided by the residual mean square).⁸⁸ The larger the value of F obtained (for specified degrees of freedom) the better the fit.

The single substituent parameter equation gave acceptable fits (significant at the 99% confidence level) for positions C(2) and C(4) with  $\sigma_p$  (Table 2.9). Less satisfactory correlations (significant at the 90 % confidence level) were obtained for the C(5) carbon atom with  $\sigma_p^+$  and for the C(6) carbon atom with  $\sigma_p$ .

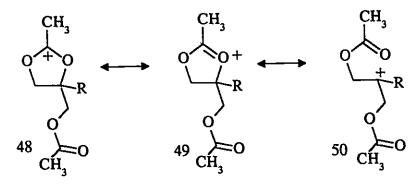
	SS	Р	D	SP
Atomic Position	Parameter	F	Parameters	F
C(2)	σ _p	483	$\sigma_{\rm I}, \sigma_{\rm R}^0$	9483
C(4)	$\sigma_{p}$	214	$\sigma_{\rm I}, \sigma_{\rm R}^{0}$	32517
C(5)	$\sigma_{p}^{+}$	23	$\sigma_1, \sigma_R^0$	70
C(6)	$\sigma_{p}$	54	$\sigma_{\rm I}, \sigma_{\rm R}^{\rm O}$	147

Table 2.9:Evaluation of the single (SSP) and dual (DSP) substituent parameter<br/>correlation models.

With the DSP equation (using  $\sigma_{R}^{0}$  as the resonance parameter), improved correlations were obtained for each of the C(2), C(4), C(5) and C(6) carbon atoms; however, the confidence levels for these correlations remained unaffected. With this limited data set, it is impossible to judge whether the use of the DSP equation provides any significant improvement over the single parameter equation. The apparent improvement in the correlations with the DSP equation may solely be due to the inclusion of a second parameter thereby removing one degree of freedom when fitting the data. However, it has been shown using larger data sets that the increased complexity of the DSP equation is both necessary and sufficient to describe NMR substituent effects.^{15,19} The predominant use of the DSP equation in the recent literature further illustrates its usefulness in correlating spectral data.⁹⁰⁻⁹³ Even when the DSP equation does not appear to provide a significantly better correlation, it's use will allow at least a qualitative discussion of resonance and inductive effects in a given system. For these reasons, the following interpretation of substituent effects in dioxolanylium ions will be within the context of the DSP equation.

# (c) Significance of the Sensitivity Factors in the DSP Equation

The sensitivity factors,  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_R$ , for each position in the dioxolanylium ion ring are given in Table 2.10. At C(2), the positive signs for  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_R$  reveal that electron donating substituents give rise to an upfield shift while electron withdrawing substituents cause a downfield shift relative to the unsubstituted phenyl compound **39**. As stated earlier, differences in chemical shifts (within a series of structurally related compounds) can be related to a change in the electron density. Thus, the upfield shift provided by electron releasing substituents is attributed to an increase in electron density at C(2). This change in electron density at C(2) can be thought of as involving the resonance structures **48** to **50** (Scheme 2.4).



Scheme 2.4

Table 2.10. Dual Subsuluent Parameter Correlation	Table 2.10:	Dual Substituent Paran	neter Correlations.
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Atomic Position	Ρι	₽ĸ	$\lambda = \rho_{R} / \rho_{I}$
C(2)	$0.78 \pm 0.02$	1.13 ± 0.02	1.5
C(4)	$-1.36 \pm 0.02$	-2.16 ± 0.02	1.6
C(5)	$0.05 \pm 0.1$	$0.75 \pm 0.1$	15.0
C(6)	$0.13 \pm 0.03$	0.18 ± 0.03	1.4

Resonance contributor 50 is used to depict an ionic contribution to the O(3)-C(4) bond. The importance of an ionic resonance contributor to C-O bonds in 1,3-dioxolan-2ylium ions and related 6-ethoxytetrahydropyrilium ions has been suggested previously by Childs^{40,43} based on x-ray crystallographic investigations. Kirby has proposed similar ionic resonance structures for the C-O bonds in neutral systems.³⁴ An increased contribution from resonance contributor 50 is possible when the *para* substituent on the phenyl ring is made more electron donating. This would result in a reduction in the amount of positive charge at C(2) with an attendant upfield shift for the ¹³C resonance of this carbon atom, as was observed.

The negative values for  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_8$  at C(4) are taken as particularly strong evidence for the increasing contribution of 50 to the resonance description of dioxolanylium ions. Electron donating *para* substituents give rise to a downfield shift with the opposite effect observed for the electron withdrawing substituent, CF₃. This is a complete reversal of the roles for these substituents reported for *para*-substituted ethylbenzenes and ethylnaphthalenes.⁹⁴ In these neutral systems, the ¹³C resonance for the CH₂ carbon of the ethyl group experiences a downfield shift when the para-substituent is electron withdrawing and an upfield shift when substituent is electron donating. In the present investigation, the observation that electron donating substituents are apparently deshielding while CF₃ effectively shields the C(4) carbon atom may be accounted for by an increasing contribution from 50. The presence of electron donating substituents on the phenyl ring stabilize charge at C(4) thus allowing a greater contribution from 50. The overall effect is to increase positive charge density at C(4) which results in the shift of the C(4) carbon resonance to lower field.

The chemical shifts for the C(5) carbon atom also exhibited a dependence on the substituent on the phenyl ring. As was the case for the C(2) carbon atom, electron donating substituents induce an upfield shift of the C(5) carbon resonance with positive values for both  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_R$ . In terms of resonance structure 50, this can be reconciled with a slight opening of the dioxolanylium ring to yield more open chain character. A fully open, symmetrical carbenium ion would give identical resonances for C(5) and C(7) carbon atoms. The observed shift of the C(5) carbon resonance to higher field towards the C(7) carbon resonance of the acetate chain is attributed to the increased importance of 50 when charge stabilizing substituents are present on the phenyl ring. It should be noted that the correlation for the C(5) carbon atom is only significant at the 90% confidence level. Despite the only modest success of the DSP equation in describing the substituent effect at the C(5) carbon atom, the general trend is consistent across the series.

The correlation of the C(6) carbon atom chemical shifts were also significant only at the 90% confidence level. The positive values obtained for  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_R$  demonstrate that electron donating substituents on the phenyl ring induce an upfield shift. It is tempting to attribute this shift to higher field to an increase in electron density at C(6). In terms of the resonance structures shown in Scheme 2.4, an increase in the contribution from 50 would reduce the amount of positive charge at C(2) and hence, C(6) as well. This would be consistent with the observed trend in the C(6) carbon atom chemical shifts.

However, it is clear that charge density is not the only factor which contributes to the chemical shifts observed at this site. Comparison of the chemical shifts of the C(11) carbon atom with the C(6) carbon atom for each of the dioxolanylium ions under investigation (Table 2.3), reveals that on going from an acetate methyl group to an acetoxonium methyl group, an upfield shift is observed. The direction and magnitude of this change in chemical shift are similar to those reported for other dioxolanylium ions and for the protonation or alkylation of the carbonyl oxygen of esters⁷⁶ and lactones.⁴³ This upfield shift is not what would be expected when a formal positive charge is introduced adjacent to a methyl group. A powerful neighbouring group effect appears to be operating in the opposite sense to the inductive effect described above. Without a clear understanding of all the factors which contribute to the chemical shift of the C(6)carbon atom, it is difficult to draw any conclusions about the electron density at this site. In principle, charge density calculations would be helpful in identifying these effects. However, as will be seen in Chapter 4, calculations at the AM1 level were inconclusive regarding this point.

The success of  $\sigma_{R}^{0}$  in the DSP equation for all positions in the dioxolanylium ion ring is consistent with the structure of the ion. The structure of **39** as determined by xray crystallography (see Chapter 3) reveals that the phenyl ring is twisted so as to prevent a full conjugative interaction with the dioxolanylium ring. Based on the similarity of the ¹³C solution and solid state CPMAS spectra for **39** (Table 2.3), this orientation is also the preferred conformation in solution. While the  $\sigma_R^*$  scale is useful for positively charged systems, it is most effective when there is a strong resonance interaction between the substituent and the probe site. The lack of a fully delocalized  $\pi$ -system precludes its use here. A more detailed analysis of the transmission of substituent effects and the attendant geometrical requirements is presented in Chapter 4.

# (d) Relative Importance of the Inductive and Mesomeric Substituent Effects

The parameter  $\lambda$  is defined as  $\rho_R / \rho_1$  and is indicative of the relative importance of the mesomeric effect versus the inductive effect on the chemical shift differences observed. The value of  $\lambda$  is not constant for all positions in a given molecule. This is a consequence of the fact that both the magnitude and sign of the inductive, field, and mesomeric effects are dependent on the position of the substituent relative to the probe site. Since  $\lambda$  is defined as a blending of these effects, it follows that this parameter is also position dependent. Similar values of  $\lambda$  (1.4 to 1.6) were obtained for positions C(2), C(4) and C(6) (Table 2.10). At these carbon atoms the inductive effect makes an important contribution to the observed substituent effects. At C(5) however, the mesomeric effect of the substituents predominates with  $\lambda = 15.0$ .

# 2.10 Summary

The isomerization reaction of a dioxolanylium ion with an internal nucleophile was shown to be extremely sensitive to the nature of the substituent at the displacement center. Both the ease and mechanism of reaction can be controlled by choice of substituent at C(4). Evidence was presented to suggest that the system may adopt a trigonal bi-pyramidal geometry about the C(4) carbon atom, when substituents of sufficient electron-donating ability are present.

The variation in the ground state structure of the dioxolanylium ion system as a function of the electronic nature of the C(4) substituent was assessed. The effect of the aryl substituent on the charge distribution within the ion was rationalised in terms of a contribution from an ionic resonance structure. Consistent with this, charge-stabilizing substituents at C(4) increase the amount of positive charge at this position while reducing charge at C(2).

# Chapter 3

#### Crystallographic Study of Dioxolanylium Ion Structure

The results of the solid state study of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion structure are presented in this chapter. Further evidence was obtained to support the inclusion of an ionic resonance contributor to the ground state description of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system.

# 3.1 X-ray Structure Determinations

Single crystals of 36 and 39 suitable for x-ray crystallographic studies were obtained by vapour diffusion of diethyl ether into  $CH_2Cl_2$  solutions of the respective compounds at -20 °C. The crystals were found to be moisture sensitive but otherwise stable at room temperature. Accordingly, all manipulations were performed under a dry nitrogen atmosphere. Experimental details pertaining to the data collection and to the solution of the structures are described in the Experimental section. Selected bond lengths and bond angles for 36 and 39 are presented in Tables 3.1 to 3.4. Selected least squares plane data for the dioxolanylium ion ring in 36 and 39 are presented in Table 3.5. Figures 3.1 to 3.3 illustrate the geometry of the cation, packing and stereoscopic view of the unit cell contents for 36. Similar plots pertaining to 39 are presented in Figures 3.4 to 3.8.

Table 3.1:	Selected bond lengths (Å) for 36.		
Sb(1)-Cl(1)#1	2.353(2)	Sb(1)-Cl(1)	2.353(2)
Sb(1)-Cl(3)	2.356(2)	Sb(1)-Cl(3)#1	2.356(2)
Sb(1)-Cl(2)#1	2.376(3)	Sb(1)-Cl(2)	2.376(3)
Sb(2)-Cl(4)	2.35(2)	Sb(2)-Cl(4)#2	2.35(2)
Sb(2)-Cl(5)#2	2.374(4)	Sb(2)-Cl(5)	2.374(3)
Sb(2)-Cl(4A)	2.38(2)	Sb(2)-Cl(4A)#2	2.38(2)
O(1)-C(2)	1.279(9)	O(1)-C(5)	1.480(10)
O(3)-C(2)	1.283(9)	O(3)-C(4)	1.497(11)
O(8)-C(9)	1.358(10)	O(8)-C(7)	1.45(2)
O(10)-C(9) C(4)-C(7) C(9)-C(11)	1.195(10) 1.480(11) 1.496(14)	C(2)-C(6) C(4)-C(5)	1.48(4) 1.512(12)

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Selected bond angles (°) for 36.

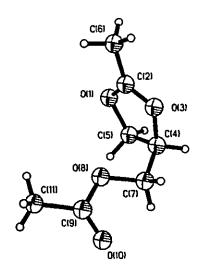
	190.0	CI(1)#1 SE(1)_CI(3)	89.4(3)
Cl(1)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(1)	180.0	Cl(1)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(3)	
Cl(1)-Sb(1)-Cl(3)	90.6(3)	Cl(1)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(2)#1	90.6(3)
Cl(1)-Sb(1)-Cl(3)#1	89.4(3)	Cl(3)-Sb(1)-Cl(3)#1	180.0
Cl(1)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(2)#1	93(2)	Cl(1)-Sb(1)-Cl(2)#1	87(2)
Cl(3)-Sb(1)-Cl(2)#1	90.76(14)	Cl(3)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(2)#1	89.24(14)
Cl(1)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(2)	87(2)	Cl(1)-Sb(1)-Cl(2)	93(2)
Cl(3)-Sb(1)-Cl(2)	89.24(14)	Cl(3)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(2)	90.76(14)
Cl(2)#1-Sb(1)-Cl(2)	179.998(1)	Cl(4)-Sb(2)-Cl(4)#2	180.000(2)
Cl(4)-Sb(2)-Cl(5)#2	90(2)	Cl(4)#2-Sb(2)-Cl(5)#2	90(2)
Cl(4)-Sb(2)-Cl(5)	90(2)	Cl(4)#2-Sb(2)-Cl(5)	90(2)
CI(5)#2-Sb(2)-CI(5)	179.999(5)	Cl(4)-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)	89.80(10)
C1(4)#2-Sb(2)-C1(4A)	90.20(10)	Cl(5)#2-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)	90(2)
Cl(5)-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)	90(2)	Cl(4)-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)#2	90.20(10)
Cl(4)#2-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)#2	89.80(10)	Cl(5)#2-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)#2	90(2)
Cl(5)-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)#2	90(2)	Cl(4A)-Sb(2)-Cl(4A)#2	179.999(2)
C(2)-O(1)-C(5)	108.3(6)	C(2)-O(3)-C(4)	109.1(6)
C(9)-O(8)-C(7)	113.8(10)	O(1)-C(2)-O(3)	116.3(7)
O(1)-C(2)-C(6)	122.8(13)	O(3)-C(2)-C(6)	121.0(14)
C(7)-C(4)-O(3)	106.9(7)	C(7)-C(4)-C(5)	117.1(8)
O(3)-C(4)-C(5)	101.3(6)	O(1)-C(5)-C(4)	103.9(7)
O(8)-C(7)-C(4)	106.2(7)	O(10)-C(9)-O(8)	123.5(11)
O(10)-C(9)-C(11)	125.9(9)	O(8)-C(9)-C(11)	110.5(11)

Symmetry transformations used to generate equivalent atoms: #1 -x,-y,-z #2 -x,-y+1,-z+1

Table 3.3:	Selected bond lengths (A	Å) for <b>39</b> .	
SbCl(1)	2.356(3)	SbCl(2)	2.355(2)
SbCl(3)	2.372(2)	SbCl(4)	2.370(2)
SbCl(5)	2.358(3)	SbCl(6)	2.376(3)
O(1)C(2)	1.311(9)	O(1)C(5)	1.458(10)
O(3)C(2)	1.277(9)	O(3)C(4)	1.514(8)
O(8)C(7)	1.445(9)	O(8)C(9)	1.349(9)
O(10)C(9)	1.187(10)	C(2)C(6)	1.433(12)
C(4)C(5)	1.556(11)	C(4)C(7)	1.503(10)
C(4)C(1')	1.497(10)	C(9)C(11)	1.503(11)
C(1')C(2')	1.389(12)	C(1')C(6')	1.386(11)
C(2')C(3')	1.383(13)	C(3')C(4')	1.366(15)
C(4')C(5')	1.408(15)	C(5')C(6')	1.394(12)
Cl(1')C(12)	1.681(12)	Cl(2')C(12)	1.741(13)
0.(1)0(12)	()		
Table 3.4:	Selected bond angles (°)	for <b>39</b> .	
Cl(1)SbCl(2)	90.6(1)	Cl(1)SbCl(3)	89.8(1)
Cl(2)SbCl(3)	179.5(1)	Cl(1)SbCl(4)	178.1(1)
Cl(2)SbCl(4)	90.5(1)	Cl(3)SbCl(4)	89.1(1)
Cl(1)SbCl(5)	91.3(1)	Cl(2)SbCl(5)	89.9(1)
Cl(3)SbCl(5)	89.8(1)	Cl(4)SbCl(5)	90.2(1)
Cl(1)SbCl(6)	89.0(1)	Cl(2)SbCl(6)	91. <b>5</b> (1)
Cl(3)SbCl(6)	88.9(1)	Cl(4)SbCl(6)	89.5(1)
Cl(5)SbCl(6)	178.7(1)	C(2)O(1)C(5)	108.8(6)
C(2)O(3)C(4)	109.9(5)	C(7)O(8)C(9)	116.2(5)
O(1)C(2)O(3)	115.5(7)	O(1)C(2)C(6)	121.9(7)
O(3)C(2)C(6)	122.6(7)	O(3)C(4)C(5)	99.7(5)
O(3)C(4)C(7)	104.6(5)	C(5)C(4)C(7)	113.4(6)
O(3)C(4)C(1')	109.9(6)	C(5)C(4)C(1')	115.7(6)
C(7)C(4)C(1')	112.1(6)	O(1)C(5)C(4)	103.7(6)
O(8)C(7)C(4)	107.7(6)	O(8)C(9)O(10)	122.3(7)
O(8)C(9)C(11)	112.0(7)	O(10)C(9)C(11)	125.6(8)
C(4)C(1')C(2')	120.7(7)	C(4)C(1')C(6')	119.7(7)
C(2')C(1')C(6')	119.5(7)	C(1')C(2')C(3')	119.3(8)
C(2')C(3')C(4')	122.6(10)	C(3')C(4')C(5')	118.2(9)
C(4')C(5')C(6')	119.8(9)	C(1')C(6')C(5')	120.6(8)
Cl(1')C(12)Cl(2')	116.8(7)		
	•		

Atom	Distance (Å) from plane		
	36	39	
O(1)	0.042 (5)	0.070 (5)	
C(2)	0.000 (4)	-0.007 (4)	
0(3)	-0.040 (5)	-0.056 (4)	
C(4)	0.059 (5)	0.085 (4)	
C(5)	-0.060 (5)	-0.092 (5)	
C(6)	-0.012 (23)	0.011 (15)	

Atoms O(1), C(2), O(3), C(4), and C(5) used to define the plane.



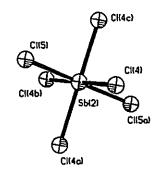


Figure 3.1: Conformation of 36.

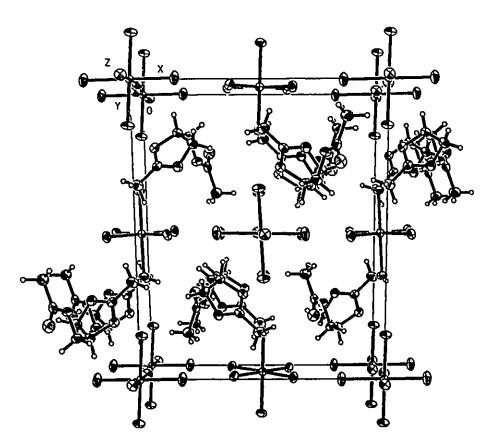


Figure 3.2: Unit cell packing in 36 (viewed along z axis).

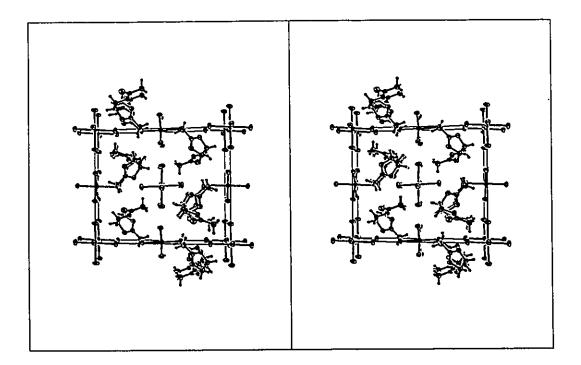


Figure 3.3: Stereoscopic view of unit cell contents for 36 (viewed along z axis).

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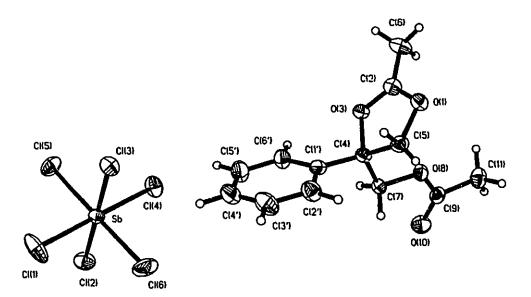


Figure 3.4: Conformation of 39.

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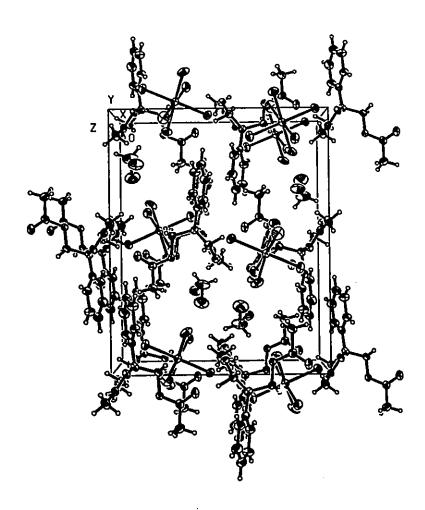


Figure 3.5: Unit cell packing in 39 (viewed along x axis).

:

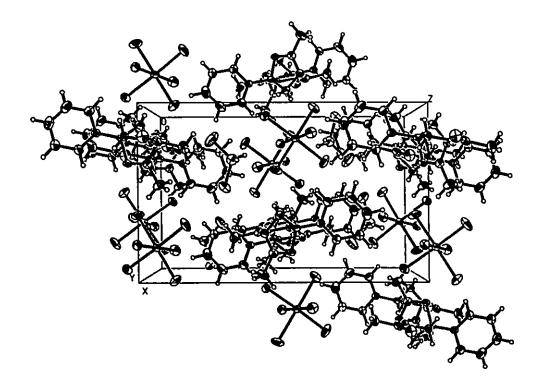


Figure 3.6: Unit cell packing in 39 (viewed along z axis).

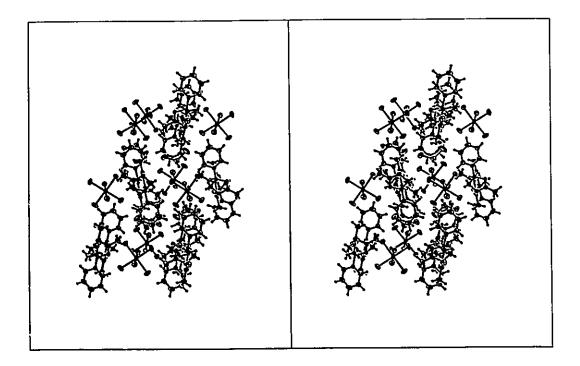


Figure 3.7: Stereoscopic view of unit cell contents for 39 (viewed along z axis).

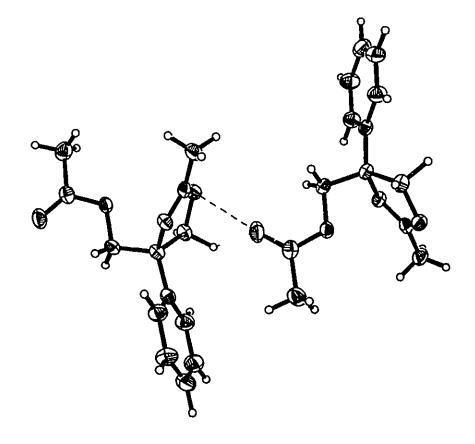
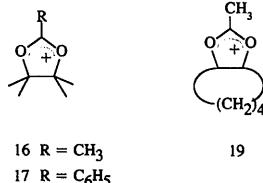


Figure 3.8: Intermolecular interaction in 39.

# 3.2 Conformation of the Dioxolanylium Cation

### (a) Conformation of 36

The overall structure of 36 (Fig. 3.1) is similar to those previously reported for other cations of this type.³⁵⁻⁴⁰ The dioxolanylium ring adopts a planar conformation (Table 3.5), with the maximum displacement from the least-squares plane being 0.060 (5) Å for the C(5) carbon atom. In nearly all of the known structures of dioxolanylium ions, the five-membered ring is planar. The tendency for the dioxolanylium system to remain planar, even in the presence of large steric interactions acting in opposition, is clearly illustrated by the structures reported for 16³⁶ and 17.³³ In each of these structures, planarity of the dioxolanylium ring forces the methyl groups into an unfavourable double eclipsed conformation. Deviations in planarity are not easily achieved due to the resulting cost in resonance energy to the O(1)-C(2)-O(3)  $\pi$  system. The only exception to this rule has been the structure reported by Paulsen and Dammeyer³⁸ for 2-methyl-4,5tetramethylene-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium perchlorate, 19. Fusion with the six-membered ring forces the dioxolanylium ion ring to adopt a twist conformation with an O(1)-C(5)-C(4)-O(3) torsional angle of 25.9°. The O(1)-C(5)-C(4)-O(3) torsional angle in 36 is only 10.0°.



One of the principle reasons for undertaking the crystallographic study of these dioxolanylium ions, was to determine if the ground state structure reflected the reactivity of the ions. The concerted isomerization of **36** involves the approach of the O(10) carbonyl oxygen atom to the displacement center, C(4). In the solid state structure, the O(10) oxygen atom is far removed from the C(4) atom and not in the proper alignment to attack this position. Instead, the free acetate chain lies in an s-*cis* conformation (Fig 3.1).

The closest contact of the SbCl₆ anion with the dioxolanylium ion cation of 36 occurs between the Cl(3) chlorine atom on the counter ion and the H(4) hydrogen atom, and has a distance of 2.582 Å. Possible interactions between a halogen atom on the counter ion and the positively charged C(2) carbon atom of dioxolanylium ions^{33,40} and in related systems^{43,95} have been previously suggested. In these studies, interatomic distances ranging from 3.206 Å to 3.495 Å for C' and chlorine atoms have been observed. In 36, the closest approach between C(2) and the counter ion is achieved with the Cl(2) chlorine atom at a distance of 3.353 Å. Since a good value for the van der Waal radius for a C⁺ atom is not available, it is difficult to determine whether this type of interaction is significant, although it is shorter than that observed for neutral carbon atoms with chlorine (3.50 Å). On the other side of the cationic plane approaching the C(2) carbon atom, is the O(8) oxygen atom, at a distance of 3.170 Å. This distance is achieved by the folding over of the free acetate chain onto the dioxolanylium ring. Again, without a reliable value for the van der Waal radius of a C⁺ carbon atom, it is

difficult to determine if this is a significant interaction.

## (b) Conformation of 39

The structure of 39 also contains a planar dioxolanylium ring (Figure 3.4). The acetate side chain in 39 adopts a similar orientation with respect to the dioxolanylium ring as was observed in 36. The ester group lies in an s-*cis* conformation and is folded over the dioxolanylium ion ring, bringing the O(8) oxygen atom close to the positively charged C(2) atom (2.977 Å).

The closest anion-cation contact for 39 occurs between the H(7b) hydrogen atom and Cl(6) chlorine atom with a distance of 2.771 Å. The anion is far removed from the positively charged C(2) carbon atom. The closest approach by the anion to the C(2) carbon atom is by the Cl(4) chlorine atom at a distance of 3.822 Å. Approaching the C(2) atom from the other side of the cationic plane is an O(10b) carbonyl oxygen from an adjacent dioxolanylium cation within the crystalline lattice (Fig 3.8). The C(2)-O(10b) intermolecular distance is quite short at 2.681 Å. Despite this close approach of a Lewis base to one side of a positively charged carbon atom, there is no distortion of the C⁺ carbon out of the plane of the cation in **39**. A distortion of the C⁺ atom towards the Lewis base is sometimes observed in such cases.^{43,95}

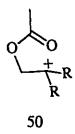
The interaction of the O(10b) oxygen atom with the C(2) carbon atom may be considered an early "snap-shot" of the dynamic process of a nucleophile attacking a cationic center. The concept of examining non-bonded interactions within the crystal environment as a means of investigating dynamic processes has been advanced by Burgi and Dunitz. These authors and their co-workers have systematically applied this technique to investigate the approach of oxygen- and nitrogen-containing nucleophiles to a carbonyl group.^{32,33} The present example and other work in our laboratory,^{40,43,95} has extended this concept to the approach of nucleophiles to charged systems.

The orientation of the phenyl group in 39 is also of interest. The angle between the normals to the plane of the phenyl group and the best fit plane of the dioxolanylium ring is 42.4°. In the step-wise isomerization of 39, rupture of the O(3)-C(4) bond produces a carbenium ion intermediate in which the phenyl ring is coplanar with the plane of the sp² hybridized C(4) atom (see Chapter 4). A similar orientation should be evident in the transition state structure. In the ground state structure, the O(3)-C(4)-C(1')-C(2') torsional angle reveals that the phenyl group is not yet in the proper orientation to maximally delocalize the positive charge which will develop at C(4) during the course of the isomerization. It should be borne in mind, however, that while total planarity between  $\pi$  systems maximizes orbital overlap, significant delocalization can still occur in non-planar systems. This concept is presented in greater detail in Chapter 4.

## 3.3 C-O Bond lengths in 36 and 39.

The O(1)-C(2)/O(3)-C(2) bond lengths in both 36 and 39 are intermediate in length between those of C-O single and double bonds (Tables 3.1 and 3.3). This is a common feature of all dioxolanylium ions, and is a consequence of resonance

delocalization of positive charge across the O(1)-C(2)-O(3)  $\pi$  system.³⁵⁴⁰ In 36, the O(1)-C(2) and O(3)-C(2) bond lengths are not significantly different.⁴¹ In Chapter 2, evidence was presented which supported the inclusion of resonance structure 50 in the ground state description of the dioxolanylium ion system. In light of this, some differentiation might be expected for these two bond lengths; that is, more double bond character for the O(3)-C(2) bond and hence a shorter bond length compared to the O(1)-C(2) bond.



The difference in the O(1)-C(2) and O(3)-C(2) bond lengths in 39 just fail to be significant at the 99% confidence level. These bond lengths differ by  $2.7\sigma$  which is,

$$\sigma = [(\sigma_1)^2 + (\sigma_2)^2]^{1/2}$$

$$|\mathbf{d}_1 - \mathbf{d}_2| > 3\sigma$$

The statistical treatment used to determine the difference between two directly comparable bond lengths,  $d_1(\sigma_1)$  and  $d_2(\sigma_2)$ , is as follows:

where  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  are the standard deviations of the two observed bond lengths,  $d_1$  and  $d_2$ , and  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation between the two values. The bond lengths are significantly different at the 99% confidence level if the following inequality holds:

however, a significant difference at better than the 95% confidence level. To completely dismiss this difference as insignificant, would be to give far too much weight to only a 4% change in confidence level.⁹⁶ It is suggested that the difference observed in the O(1)-C(2)/O(3)-C(2) bond lengths in 39 represents an increased contribution from resonance structure 50, relative to that found in 36.

The O(3)-C(4)/O(1)-C(5) bond lengths also provide a means of assessing the contribution from 50 to the ground state description of dioxolanylium ions. In 36, the length of the O(3)-C(4) bond is not significantly different from that of the O(1)-C(5) bond. This illustrates the difficulty of detecting meaningful differences in bond lengths within a single dioxolanylium ion. However, it has been shown⁴⁰ by comparing the structures of a series of dioxolanylium ions reported in the literature, that an increase in the degree of substitution at the alkyl carbon atoms is accompanied by an increase in the O-C(alkyl) bond lengths. The O(3)-C(4) and the O(1)-C(5) bond lengths in 36 are consistent with the average values reported for O-CHR₂ and O-CH₂R bonds respectively.

The effect of substitution at the alkyl carbon atoms in dioxolanylium ions can be more easily appreciated in the structure of 39. For this cation, the O(3)-C(4) bond is significantly longer (4.4 $\sigma$ ) than the O(1)-C(5) bond. The importance of resonance contributor 50 is clearly indicated by the structure of this cation. Furthermore, the O(3)-C(4) and O(1)-C(5) bond lengths are in agreement with the average values reported⁴⁰ for O-CR₃ and O-CH₂R bonds respectively, in related systems. In principle, steric interactions may also contribute to the differences observed in bond lengths, when the bonds being compared differ in their substitution pattern. This is only likely to be of concern in the most severely crowded systems, since bond lengths are the least likely among the geometrical parameters to experience perturbation from steric strain.^{34a,966}

# 3.4 Summary

Further evidence was found to support the inclusion of the ionic resonance contributor 50 in the ground state description of dioxolanylium ions. The environments around the positively charged C(2) carbon atoms in each of 36 and 39 contain Lewis bases situated nearby. As such, these structures represent early "snap-shots" of nucleophilic addition reactions at positively charged centers. The solid state conformations of 36 and 39 bear little resemblance to the respective transition state structures for the isomerizations of these compounds. Dioxolanylium ions which are more reactive towards isomerization, may adopt structures which represent points further along the reaction co-ordinate. This possibility was explored with the use of semiempirical calculations, and the results are presented in the following chapter.

## Chapter 4

Semi-Empirical Investigation of Dioxolanylium Ion Structure and Isomerization

The use of x-ray crystallography and NMR spectroscopy have provided evidence for the structure, charge distribution, and mechanism of reaction for the dioxolanylium ions studied. It was of interest to compare the results obtained experimentally with those predicted from theoretical calculations. Also, theoretical studies can in principle be used to extend the correlations to cations beyond the ones which could be obtained experimentally. Further insight can be provided by modelling the intermediates or transition states for the dioxolanylium isomerizations, yielding more direct evidence than that which could be inferred from the spectroscopic investigations.

## 4.1 Structure of the Aryl Substituted Dioxolanylium Ions

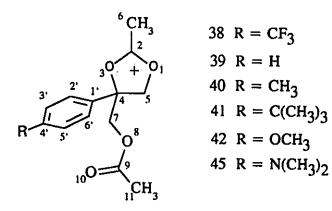
AM1 geometry optimizations were performed on cations 38-42, and 45. The fractional co-ordinates corresponding to the crystal structure geometry of the cation in 39 were first transformed into cartesian orthogonal co-ordinates for input into PCMODEL⁵⁷. Modifications to the base structure of 39 were performed within PCMODEL to obtain

the initial geometries of the remaining cations. The cations were assigned a charge of +1 and AM1 geometry optimizations were carried out using the semi-empirical modelling program AMPAC⁹⁴. In each case, the convergence criteria for the optimum geometry were set to achieve an energy gradient of better than 0.01 Kcal/Å. Selected bond distances and bond angles for the optimized cations are given in Table 4.1 and 4.2 respectively. For simplicity, the numbering scheme used to refer to the dioxolanylium ion salts in previous chapters has been retained, although only the cation (in absence of the counter ion) is considered here.

The AM1-optimized conformations of 38-42 and 45 are similar. The five membered dioxolanylium ring of 39 is planar to achieve maximum orbital overlap within the O(1)-C(2)-O(3)  $\pi$ -system (Fig. 4.1).³⁶ The C(6) carbon atom of the acetoxonium methyl group is coplanar with this ring. The ester function of the acetate side chain lies in an s-*cis* conformation and no interaction of this side chain with the dioxolanylium ring is apparent. The phenyl ring is twisted with respect to the dioxolanylium ring to give a O(3)-C(4)-C(1')-C(2') dihedral angle of 32.2 °. The remaining aryl-substituted dioxolanylium ions (38, 40-42, and 45), share the same basic conformation as that of 39.

			ınd			
Bond	38	39	40	41	42	45
O(1)C(2)	1.329	1.330	1,330	1.330	1.330	1.332
C(2)O(3)	1.321	1.319	1.318	1.318	1.317	1.314
O(3)C(4)	1.509	1.513	1.516	1.517	1.520	1.530
C(4)C(5)	1.542	1.541	1.541	1.540	1.540	1.539
O(1)C(5)	1.470	1.469	1.470	1.470	1.469	1.469
C(2)C(6)	1.469	1.470	1.470	1.470	1.470	1.471
C(4)C(7)	1.529	1.528	1.528	1.528	1.528	1.527
C(7)O(8)	1.429	1.430	1.430	1.430	1.430	1.431
O(8)C(9)	1.390	1.389	1.388	1.388	1.388	1.387
C(9)C(11)	1.485	1.484	1.484	1.484	1.484	1.485
C(9)O(10)	1.226	1.226	1.226	1.226	1.226	1.227
C(4)C(1')	1.493	1.490	1.488	1.488	1.486	1.479
C(1')C(2')	1.400	1.401	1.401	1.399	1.406	1.405
C(2')C(3')	1.395	1.394	1.392	1.394	1.385	1.382
C(3')C(4')	1.397	1.395	1.400	1.400	1.413	1.427
C(4')C(5')	1.396	1.396	1.403	1.406	1.404	1.427
C(5')C(6')	1.394	1.393	1.389	1.390	1.391	1.382
C(6')C(1')	1.400	1.402	1.402	1.401	1.399	1.402
C(4')R	1.531	1.102	1.480	1.506	1.368	1.377

Table 4.1: Selected AM1 optimized bond lengths (Å) for cations 38-42 and 45.



	Compound						
Angle	38	39	40	41	42	45	
	101.37	101.22	101.21	101.20	101.07	100.85	
O(3)C(4)C(5)	101.57	101.22	101.21	101.20	101.07	100.05	
O(3)C(4)C(7)	105.09	105.48	105.54	107.59	107.24	106.85	
O(3)C(4)C(1')	107.99	114.14	114.19	114.18	114.09	114.01	
C(7)C(4)C(5)	114.18	111.62	111.68	111.70	114.07	112.03	
C(7)C(4)C(1')	111.45	115.38	115.44	115.50	116.01	112.05	
C(5)C(4)C(1')	112.46	112.48	112.54	112.59	112.55	112.60	
O(1)C(2)O(3) C(6)C(2)O(1)	123.34	123.19	123.14	123.07	123.02	122.74	
C(6)C(2)O(1) C(6)C(2)O(3)	123.34	124.32	124.32	124.35	124.43	124.65	
C(2)O(3)C(4)	111.07	111.09	111.01	110.97	111.02	110.98	
O(1)C(5)C(4)	104.28	104.39	104.41	104.43	104.51	104.68	
C(2)O(1)C(5)	110.81	110.79	110.80	110.80	110.83	110.88	
Dihedral Angle							
O(3)C(4)C(1')C(2')	29.33	32.21	32.95	33.53	37.24	42.34	

Table 4.2: Selected AM1 optimized bond angles (°) for 38-42 and 45.

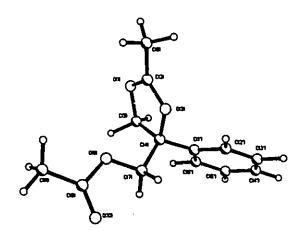
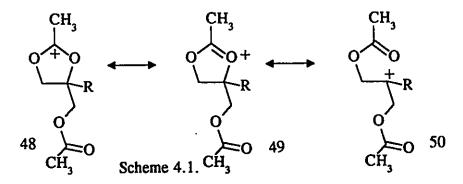


Fig. 4.1: AM1 optimized geometry of 39.

The corresponding bond distances within cations 38-42 and 45 are similar (Table 4.1). Again using cation 39 as a typical example, the O(1)-C(2) and O(3)-C(2) bond distances were found to be intermediate in length between those of single and double C-O bonds. Similar results have been previously reported for crystallographic studies³⁵⁴⁰ and SCF-MO calculations⁴⁶ of other dioxolanylium ion systems. The partial double bond character for these C-O bonds is consistent with charge delocalization across the O(1)-C(2)-O(3) system. Similarly, the O(1)-C(2)/O(3)-C(2) bond lengths in the other cations in this series (38, 40-42 and 45), are also indicative of positive charge delocalization.

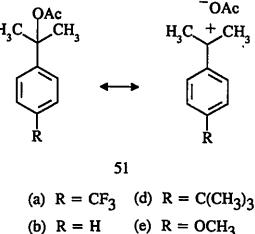
Despite the overall similarity of the structures of 38-42 and 45, some systematic variations in several bond lengths are apparent. A contraction of the C(2)-O(3) bond was observed as the *para* substituent on the phenyl ring is made more electron donating. As was discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, the effect of the *para* substituent on the phenyl ring can be viewed in terms of the relative importance of the non-bonded resonance structure 50 to the ground state description of the ion (Scheme 4.1).



An increase in the contribution of 50 would be expected as the substituent on the phenyl ring is made better electron donating so as to better stabilize the formal positive charge

at C(4). The contraction of C(2)-O(3) bond length across the series is consistent with an increasing contribution of 50 to the resonance description of these cations. Furthermore, the C(2)-O(3) bond lengths for this series was found to correlate well (r = 0.996) with the Okamoto-Brown  $\sigma^+$  constants for the *para* substituents on phenyl ring (Fig. 4.2).

While variation of the aromatic substituent at C(4) has only a small effect on the C(2)-O(3) bond length, it is necessary to establish a suitable point of reference when assessing the importance of this substituent effect. To this end, the AM1-optimized structures of the benzylic esters 51a-f were computed. In light of Kirby's investigations of 1-arylethanol derivatives³⁴ (see Chapter 1), an ionic contribution to the resonance structure description of the neutral ester system is expected as well (Scheme 4.2). The O(3)-C(2) bond distances in 51a-f were found to contract slightly as the aromatic ring was made more electron donating while the O(1)-C(2) bond length was essentially constant across the series (Table 4.3). In comparison then, the trend observed for the C(2)-O(3) bond length in the dioxolanylium ion system, is more pronounced than in the neutral system.



Scheme 4.2

(c)  $R = CH_3$  (f)  $R = N(CH_3)_2$ 

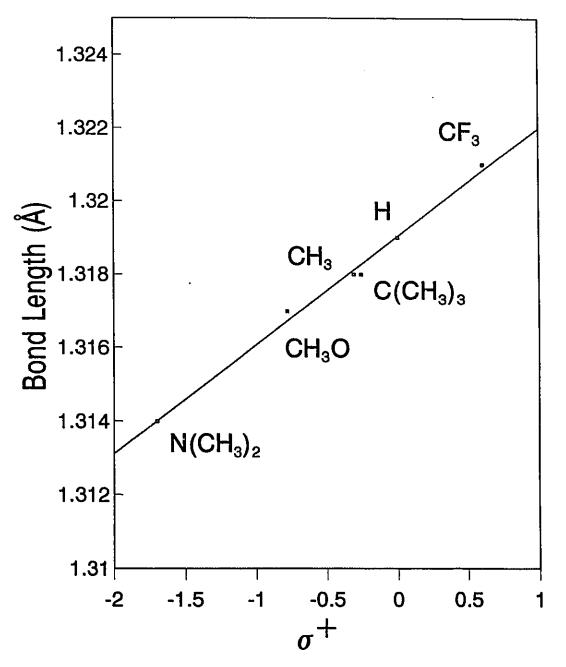
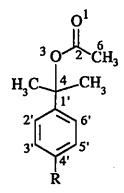


Fig. 4.2: Plot of C(2)-O(3) bond lengths in 38-42 and 45 vs  $\sigma^{\dagger}$ .

	Compound							
Bond	51a	51b	51c	51d	51e	51f		
O(1)C(2)	1.234	1.235	1.235	1.235	1.235	1.235		
C(2)O(3)	1.374	1.372	1.372	1.371	1.371	1.371		
O(3)C(4)	1.441	1.443	1.443	1.443	1.444	1.445		
C(2)C(6)	1.487	1.488	1.488	1.487	1.488	1.488		
C(4)C(1')	1.509	1.507	1.506	1.506	1.506	1.504		
C(1')C(2')	1.398	1.399	1.398	1.396	1.397	1.397		
C(2')C(3')	1.395	1.394	1.394	1.396	1.395	1.390		
C(3')C(4')	1.394	1.394	1.398	1.398	1.394	1.417		
C(4')C(5')	1.398	1.395	1.401	1.404	1.409	1.417		
C(5')C(6')	1.392	1.393	1.391	1.390	1.387	1.387		
C(6')C(1')	1.403	1.402	1.402	1.402	1.405	1.401		
C(4')R	1.524	1.100	1.481	1.506	1.380	1,406		

Table 4.3: Selected AM1 optimized bond lengths (Å) for 51a-f.



A further trend was observed for the O(3)-C(4) bond lengths in the dioxolanylium ions 38-42 and 45. Successive replacement of the *para*-substituent on the aromatic ring with better electron donating groups produced an elongation of the O(3)-C(4) bond. A good correlation (r = -0.993) of these bond lengths with  $\sigma^+$  constants was obtained (Fig. 4.3). This provides additional support for the use of an ionic resonance contributor (50)

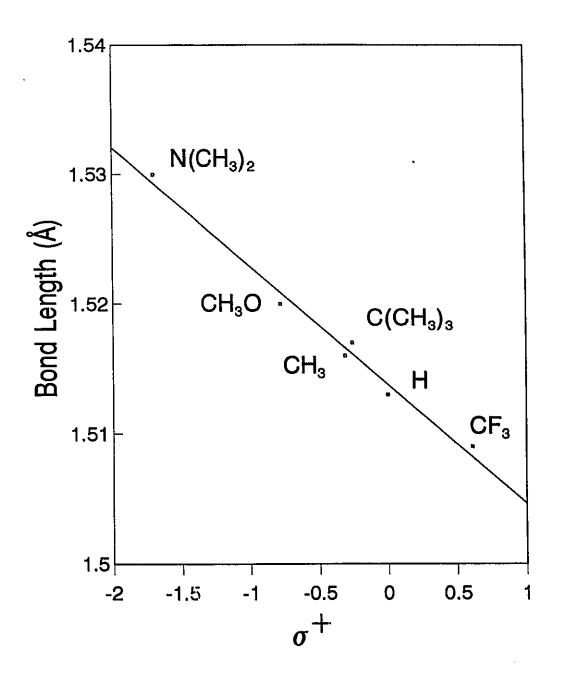


Fig. 4.3: Plot of C(4)-O(3) bond lengths in 38-42 and 45 vs  $\sigma^{\dagger}$ .

in the description of dioxolanylium ions. Comparison with the O(3)-C(4) bond lengths in the ester series 51a-f (Table 4.3), again reveals that the dioxolanylium ion system exhibits a greater sensitivity to the substituent effect.

This difference in sensitivity is a reflection of the better "leaving group" ability of the oxonium ion moiety compared to the ester function. That is, formal cleavage of the O(3)-C(4) bond in the dioxolanylium ions produces a neutral "leaving group", which is preferred to the cleavage of the O(3)-C(4) bond in the ester system which would expel a carboxylate anion. While these considerations are of particular importance to the reactivity of these systems towards C-O bond cleavage, the same factors also play a role in determining the ground state structures. Indeed, this effect forms the basis for Kirby's structure-reactivity correlations.³⁴

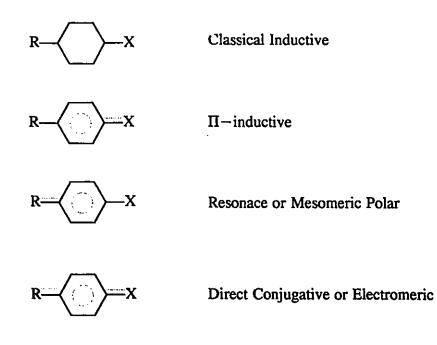
An elongation of the C(2)-O(1) bond in 38-42 and 45 is expected with increasing carbenium ion character as depicted by resonance contributor 50. However, this bond was found to be relatively insensitive to the nature of the substituent on the phenyl ring. Similarly, the O(1)-C(5) bond length is essentially constant across the series. Thus, not all bond lengths respond to substitution to the same degree. A similar conclusion has been reached by examining the effect of C(2)-substituents on dioxolanylium ion structure.⁴⁰ The situation is analogous to that observed in the ¹³C NMR study (Chapter 2) in which the value of  $\lambda$  was position dependent.

In addition to the trends observed for the bond lengths within the dioxolanylium ion ring, many systematic variations in the bond angles about C(4) were also observed.

As the electron-donating ability of the aryl substituent is increased, the C(7)-C(4)-C(1') and the C(5)-C(4)-C(1') bond angles increase (Table 4.2). The C(7)-C(4)-C(5) bond angle showed only small random fluctuations across the series. As greater weight is given to resonance contributor **50**, the orbitals on C(4) approach formal sp² hybridization. The observation of a steady increase in C-C-C bond angles towards 120° is consistent with this view. Systematic decreases in the O(3)-C(4)-C(5), O(3)-C(4)-C(7) and O(3)-C(4)-C(1') bond angles were noted. As the geometry of the carbon atoms bound to C(4) approaches trigonal planar, the O(3)-C(4) bond approaches an orthonormal orientation with respect to this plane.

Various theories for the modes of transmission of substituent effects in organic systems have recently been reviewed.^{81d} The familiar concepts of induction, resonance and field effects are often sufficient in accounting for both the nature of a substituent effect (whether stabilizing or destabilizing) and its magnitude. This approach, within the context of a dual substituent parameter equation, was successful in describing the effect of substituents on the ¹³C chemical shifts of the dioxolanylium ion system (Chapter 2). With the detailed knowledge of the structures of the C(4)-aryl substituted dioxolanylium ions as provided by the AM1 calculations, a more in depth view into the transmission of substituent effects is now possible.

Wells and co-workersth have presented simplified component interaction models for the propagation and distribution of substituent electronic effects. Four types of interactions were identified: classical inductive,  $\pi$ -inductive, resonance or mesomeric polar, and direct conjugative or electromeric (Scheme 4.3). The direct conjugative (and to some extent, the  $\pi$ -inductive) interaction is sensitive to deviation from planarity of the  $\pi$  system.





The resonance energy can be related to the torsional angle,  $\theta$ , between the interacting  $\pi$  systems as follows:^{99,100}

Eqn. 4.1 
$$E_r^{\theta} = E_r^{0} \cos^2 \theta$$

The resonance energy can be taken as an indication of the degree of interaction of the  $\pi$  orbitals. It is a maximum when the torsional angle between the interacting  $\pi$  orbitals is

0 (i.e., total planarity) and a minimum (no interaction) when the  $\pi$  systems are perpendicular. Similar cos² $\theta$  laws have been suggested to account for the dependence of various spectral properties on the torsional angle,  $\theta$ .^{99,101}

Are the substituent effects observed in 38-42 and 45 at least partly due to direct conjugative and  $\pi$ -inductive interactions? Resonance structure 50 provides the most convenient way of visualizing how such interactions may take place. In order for the system to derive the maximum benefit from resonance delocalization, the aryl ring in 50 must be orthogonal to the formal p-orbital at C(4). Alternatively, the same geometric relationship should hold for the O(3)-C(4) bond with respect to the aryl aryl ring when considering the more conventional resonance structures 48 and 49 (Scheme 4.1). Thus the O(3)-C(4)-C(1')-C(2') dihedral angle  $\phi$  provides a criterion for determining the likelihood of effective conjugative interactions (Fig. 4.4).

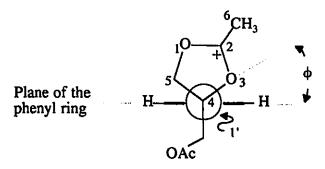


Fig. 4.4: Dihedral angle  $\phi$  in aryl dioxolanylium ions.

The dihedral angle,  $\phi$  is related to the torsional angle  $\theta$  between the interacting orbitals by the following simple relationship:

Eqn. 4.2 
$$\theta = 90^{\circ} - \phi$$

Substituting the values for the O(3)-C(4)-C(1')-C(2') dihedral angles in 38-42 and 45 (Table 4.2) into Eqn. 4.2, gives values of  $\theta$  in the range from 48° to 61°. While the interacting orbitals are far from coplanar, Equ 4.1 indicates some orbital overlap is still possible. While it is true that Eqn. 4.1 strictly applies only to the interaction of porbitals, its use (at least in a qualitative sense) is justified here, given the increasing sp²character for the C(4) hybridization noted earlier.

Indeed, there is evidence for the operation of a direct conjugative interaction when the *para* phenyl substituent is methoxy (42) and N,N-dimethylamino (45), the only two substituents in the series which have a lone pair of electrons capable of participating in such an interaction. For these two dioxolanylium ions, the bond which joins the heteroatom to the aryl ring is significantly shorter than the corresponding bond in the reference esters (51a-f). Similarly, a contraction of the C(4)-C(1') in 45 with respect to the neutral ester 51f was observed. Some distortion in the benzenoid ring in 45 is also apparent. These results suggest a "quinanoid" structure for the aryl ring in 45 and, to a lesser extent, in 42 as well.

It is interesting to note that the dihedral angle,  $\phi$ , (and hence,  $\theta$ ) is not constant throughout the series (Table 4.2). In fact,  $\phi$  varies linearly with the  $\sigma^+$  value for the *para* substituent on the aryl ring (r = -0.991) as illustrated by Figure 4.5. It is precisely because this relationship holds, that all other correlations of the various quantities with

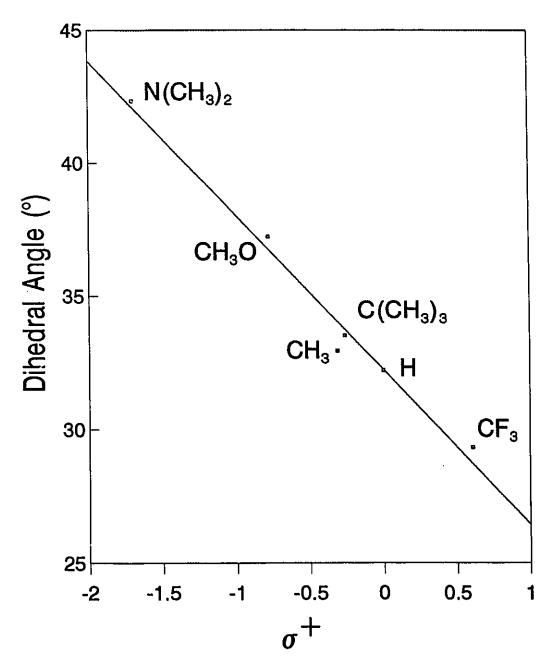


Fig. 4.5: Plot of O(3)-C(4)-C(1')-C(2') dihedral angles in 38-42 and 45 vs  $\sigma$ '.

 $\sigma^*$  were possible. Had  $\phi$  varied randomly, then a correction for this variable would be necessary in any attempted correlation with the substituent parameters.³⁴ At any rate, the most favourable alignment of the aryl ring with respect to a potential conjugative interaction is achieved when the substituent is N,N-dimethylamino ( $\phi = 42.3^\circ$ ,  $\theta = 47.7^\circ$ ). Not coincidentally, this is the system best suited to take advantage of such an interaction.

## 4.2 Charge Distribution

The atomic charge densities for cations 38-42 and 45 are available from the AM1 optimized structures (Table 4.4). Like all calculated quantities, atomic charge densities are dependent upon the basis set used for the calculation, and so care should be taken not to ascribe too much importance to the individual values.¹⁰² However, it is worthwhile to examine trends in charge density as a result of substitution across a series of compounds. When this is done, two important features emerge. First, as the *para* substituent on the phenyl ring is made more electron donating, the amount of positive charge residing on the O(1)-C(2)-O(3) fragment steadily decreases. This is in accord with the increasing importance of resonance structure **50**, in which positive charge is syphoned away from the acetoxonium moiety.

Compound								
Atom	38	39	40	41	42	45		
<u>–––</u>	-0.1447	-0.1485	-0.1496	-0.1497	-0.1512	-0.1557		
C(2)	0.3781	0.3749	0.3740	0.3735	0.3736	0.3698		
O(3)	-0.1562	-0.1555	-0.1561	-0.1562	-0.1578	-0.1617		
C(4)	0.1170	0.1255	0.1295	0.1303	0.1378	0.1509		
C(5)	-0.0514	-0.0517	-0.0514	-0.0516	-0.0516	-0.0511		
C(6)	-0.2189	-0.2176	-0.2175	-0.2174	-0.2173	-0.2163		

Table 4.4 : Selected AM1 calculated charge densities for 38-42 and 45.

The other notable feature of the values presented in Table 4.4 is the response of the C(4) charge densities to substitution. Better electron donating groups on the aryl ring produce an increase in the amount of positive charge residing on the C(4) carbon atom. Again, this is consistent with an increasing contribution from 50 to the resonance description of these ions. The same trend was noted for the ¹³C chemical shifts of C(4) in the NMR spectra of these compounds (Chapter 2). Furthermore, the calculated charge densities at C(4) show a correlation (r = 0.975) with the ¹³C chemical shifts at this site for which data could be collected (Fig. 4.6). This link between theory and experiment demonstrates that SCF-MO calculations at the AM1 level generally perform well in describing the response of the dioxolanylium ion to substitution.

Charge density at the C(5) carbon atom appears to be relatively insensitive to the nature of the aryl substituent, with the value remaining close to zero across the series. The values obtained for C(6) are more intriguing. A slight increase in positive charge density was observed with increasing electron donating capability of the aryl substituent,

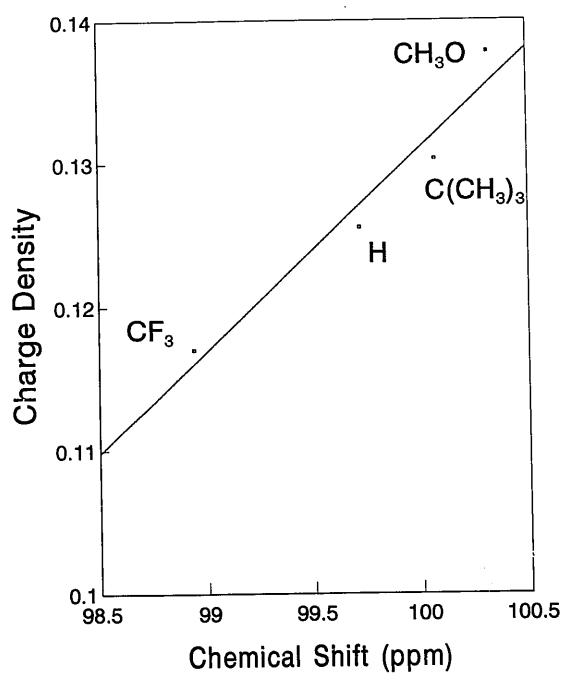


Fig. 4.6: Plot of calculated charge density vs. C(4) chemical shift for aryl dioxolanylium ions.

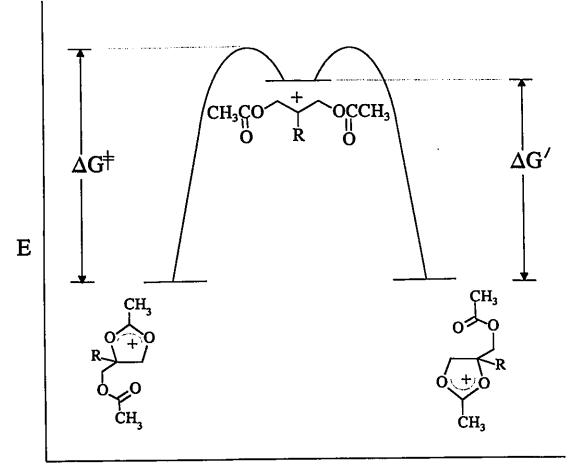
contrary to what would be expected based on the resonance description advanced in this thesis. However, no linear correlation of the C(6) charge densities could be found with any of the Hammett type substituent constants. In light of this, it would be difficult to assign much significance to this apparent trend.

# 4.3 Modelling the Isomerization Reaction of the Aryl System

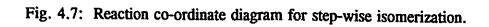
In addition to providing detailed structural information of the dioxolanylium ion ground state, SCF-MO calculations also provided a means to examine the reaction dynamics of the isomerization process. The reaction barrier can be calculated from the heat of formation of the ground state and that of the transition state model. Using this approach, both the concerted and step-wise mechanism could be modelled to determine which pathway was of lowest energy for each system. Comparison with the experimentally determined reaction barriers provides a means of deducing the mechanism of isomerization.

## (a) The Step-Wise Pathway

A schematic representation of the reaction co-ordinate diagram for the step-wise isomerization mechanism is given in Figure 4.7. It resembles the typical two-stepped process for the intermolecular  $S_N1$  reaction. The first barrier is encountered as the O(3)-C(4) bond is ruptured to give the carbenium ion intermediate. The second barrier is traversed as the carbenium ion collapses with the acetate group to reform the



Reaction Co-ordinate



dioxolanylium ion. Because the isomerization is a degenerate process, the carbenium ion intermediate is presented with identical reaction barriers for the forward and reverse processes.

In order to calculate the reaction barrier for this process, it is necessary to obtain the heat of formation of the transition state for the rate-determining step. This corresponds to a structure in which the O(3)-C(4) bond is partially broken. The determination of the point at which this bond stretching results in an energy maximum is a difficult and time-consuming process. However, because the rate determining O(3)-C(4) bond cleavage is endothermic, the transition state structure should resemble the carbenium ion intermediate. That is, the O(3)-C(4) bond is almost completely broken in the transition state. Consequently the electronic requirement of the transition state and that of the intermediate are similar. It was reasoned, therefore, that the structure of the intermediate represents a suitable approximation for the true transition state structure, at least for the purposes of the present study. This postulate has been a valuable tool in many investigations of solvolysis reactions.¹⁰⁰ This approach greatly simplified the calculation by substituting a simple energy minimization for a more complicated transition state structure determination.

The fully optimized geometries of the open carbenium ion intermediates, 52a-f, in the absence of the counter ions, were determined. Selected bond lengths and bond angles are presented in Table 4.5. All the carbenium ions have similar structures and conformations, and 52b provides a typical example (Fig. 4.8). The C(1)-C(2)-C(3)

system adopts a trigonal planar conformation which is coplanar with the phenyl ring. The ion is asymmetrical with respect to the two acetate side chains, with one ester adopting an s-*cis* conformation and the other an s-*trans* conformation. This arrangement presumably minimizes the steric interactions of the ester functions with each other and with the phenyl ring.

As the *para* substituent is made more electron-donating across the series, increased bond alternation is evident in the aryl rings of **52a-f**. This is consistent with increased charge delocalization into the aryl ring. The observation of this trend is facilitated by comparison with the aryl bond lengths in the neutral ester system (Table 4.3) which exhibit much less differentiation.

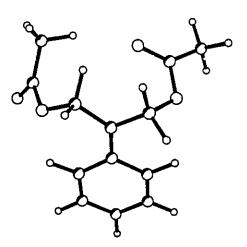


Fig. 4.8: AM1 optimized geometry of 52b.

Compound								
Bond	52a	52b	52c	52d	52e	52f		
C(1')-C(2')	1.438	1.442	1.444	1.442	1.449	1.451		
C(2')-C(3')	1.380	1.377	1.372	1.373	1.363	1.356		
C(3')-C(4')	1.404	1.408	1.416	1.417	1.433	1.453		
C(4')-C(5')	1.395	1.398	1.408	1.412	1.420	1.452		
C(5')-C(6')	1.390	1.384	1.378	1.377	1.370	1.357		
C(6')-C(1')	1.431	1.436	1.439	1.438	1.445	1.449		
C(2)-C(1')	1.396	1.388	1.383	1.382	1.376	1.367		
C(4')-R	1.541	1.105	1.472	1.502	1.339	1.345		
Bond Angle								
C(1)C(2)C(3)	111.44	111.50	111.42	111.82	111.54	111.98		
C(1)C(2)C(1')	127.81	127.54	127.46	127.14	127.40	126.72		
C(3)C(2)C(1')	120.68	120.90	121.06	120.95	120.99	121.22		
C(3)C(2)C(1')C(2')	4.95	6.00	5.66	6.85	6.29	6.42		

Table 4.5:Selected bond lengths (Å) and bond angles (°) for the AM1 optimized<br/>geometries of carbenium ions 52a-f.

AcO 
$$\begin{array}{c} 1 & + & 3 \\ 2 & & & \\ 2' & & & 6' \\ 3' & & & 4' \\ R \end{array}$$
 (a)  $R = CF_3$  (d)  $R = C(CH_3)_3$   
(b)  $R = H$  (e)  $R = OCH_3$   
(c)  $R = CH_3$  (f)  $R = N(CH_3)_2$ 

Further evidence for this is provided by the calculated charge densities of the carbenium ions 52a-f (Table 4.6). The amount of positive charge residing on C(2) is diminished as the charge stabilizing power of the aryl substituent is increased. A similar trend was reported by Olah and co-workers who calculated charge distributions in the

PM1 approximation for a series of benzylic cations.¹⁰⁴

Atom	52a	52b	Compound 52c	52d	52e	52f
<u>C(1)</u>	-0.0483	-0.0428	-0.0394	-0.0387	-0.0319	-0.0219
C(2)	0.1956	0.1667	0.1427	0.1412	0.1031	0.0445
C(3)	-0.0469	-0.0427	-0.0372	-0.0372	-0.0302	-0.0193
C(1')	-0.1664	-0.1683	-0.1649	-0.1628	-0.1654	-0.1382

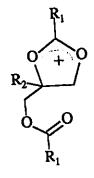
Table 4.6: Selected AM1 calculated charge densities for 52a-f.

From the heat of formation of the carbenium ions and the corresponding dioxolanylium ions, the values of  $\Delta G'$  listed in Table 4.7 were obtained. It should be noted that the barrier calculated in this way is not a true reaction barrier, but rather represents the enthalpy of reaction for the first step of the isomerization. Explicitly, this quantity is equal to the difference between the heat of formation between the dioxolanylium ion ground state and that of the carbenium ion intermediate. This energy difference is labelled  $\Delta G'$  in Figure 4.7. An important consequence of this is that the calculated value will likely be of lower magnitude than the actual reaction barrier,  $\Delta G^+$ . For ease of comparison, the experimental values of  $\Delta G^+$ , where available, are also given in Table 4.7.

As expected from the above considerations, the calculated values of  $\Delta G'$  are indeed lower than the experimentally determined values of  $\Delta G^+$ . Taking this into

Substi	tuents	Compound	Calculated	Barrier, $\Delta G'$	ΔG+
R1	R2		Step-wise	Concerted	
CH,	<i>p</i> -CF₃C₅H₄	38	19.1		(20.3)
CH₃	C₅H₃	39	14.2		16.4
CH3	p-CH₃C ₆ H₄	40	11.2		15.4
CH3	<i>p</i> -C(CH ₃ ) ₃ C ₆ H ₄	41	11.1		15.6
CH ₃	<i>p</i> -CH₃OC₀H₄	42	5.8	17.7	10.9
CH3	<i>p</i> -N(CH ₃ ) ₂ C ₆ H ₄	45	-2.2		
CH3	н	36	50.7	23.0	18.7
CH3	CH3	37	36.5	24.3	21.0
CF ₃	Н	57	32.1	17.5	
CF ₃	CH3	58	20.3	19.4	

# Table 4.7 Calculated Isomerization Barriers



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account, there exists a reasonable correspondence between the experimental and theoretical values. While there exists some discrepancy between the individual values of  $\Delta G'$  and  $\Delta G^+$ , the calculated values as a whole reproduce the dependence of the isomerization barrier on the aryl substituent. A linear correlation exists (r= 0.967) between the experimental and calculated reaction barriers (Fig. 4.9). This demonstrates that the model successfully describes the response of the system to substitution even though it may be less accurate in absolute terms.

Having established the reliability of the theoretical model, it was used to extend the study of substituent effects to compounds which could not be obtained experimentally. The results of Chapter 2 suggested that for 45, in which the *para* substituent on the aryl ring is an N,N-dimethylamino group, the barrier to isomerization would be extremely low. This prediction was tested further by modelling the step-wise reaction for this compound. The negative value of  $\Delta G'$  indicates that the open carbenium ion is more stable than the corresponding dioxolanylium ion. Allowing for the difference between  $\Delta G'$  and  $\Delta G^+$ , this is in support of the value of  $\Delta G^+$  obtained from the extrapolation of the experimental results.

#### (b) The Concerted Pathway

The concerted pathway for the dioxolanylium ion isomerization is also amenable to study by the semi-empirical method. The reaction co-ordinate diagram for this process, shown in Figure 4.10, resembles that of the analogous intermolecular  $S_N 2$ 

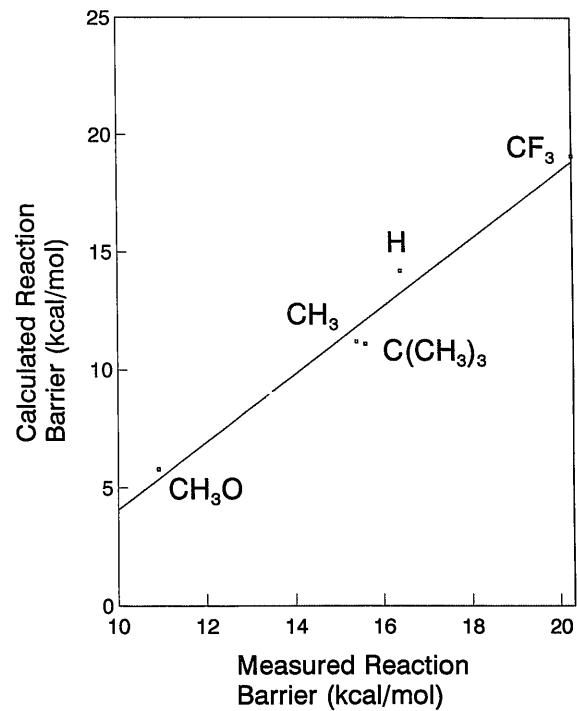
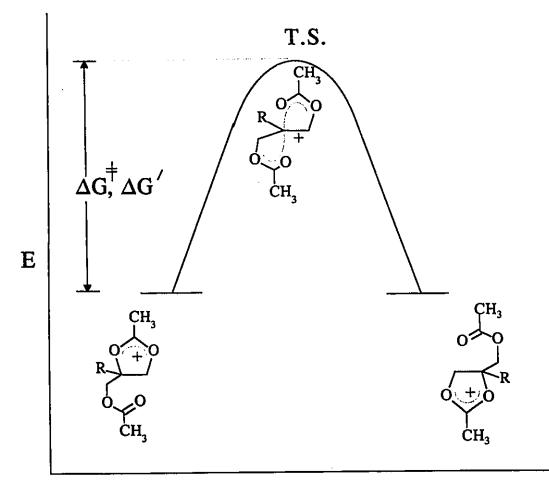


Fig. 4.9: Plot of calculated vs. experimental reaction barriers for aryl dioxolanylium ion isomerization



**Reaction Co-ordinate** 

Fig. 4.10: Reaction co-ordinate diagram for concerted isomerization.

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reaction. Only a single reaction barrier is traversed in this pathway.

The structure of the transition state was assumed to be symmetrical. That is, a trigonal bi-pyramidal arrangement about the C(4) carbon atom is adopted with the nucleophilic carbonyl oxygen and the departing carbonyl oxygen equidistant from the displacement center. The result is the symmetrical curve depicted in Figure 4.10 wherein the transition state is reached at exactly the mid-way point along the reaction co-ordinate. While it is commonplace to make this assumption for degenerate reactions such as this one,¹⁰⁵ its validity has recently been challenged on theoretical grounds.¹⁰⁶ However, no experimental evidence is available to support the existence of an asymmetrical transition state for a degenerate rearrangement.

The acceptance of a symmetrical transition state provides an important practical benefit. The transition state may be located by a partially constrained geometry optimization. Thus, as was the case for the step-wise pathway, a simple minimization is substituted for a more difficult calculation. The reaction barrier for the concerted pathway model is defined as the difference in the heat of formation of the transition state structure and that of the ground state. This quantity is labelled  $\Delta G'$  in Figure 4.10.

Using this procedure, the concerted pathway was modelled for 42 in which the *para* substituent on the aryl ring is a methoxy group. The resulting value of  $\Delta G'$  was found to be 17.7 kcal/mol (Table 4.7). This reaction barrier far exceeds the calculated barrier for the step-wise pathway (5.8 kcal/mol). This is in support of the Hammett study (Chapter 2) which demonstrated that the stepwise pathway is preferred for the aryl-

substituted dioxolanylium ion isomerization.

# 4.4 Modelling the Isomerization Barrier of the Non-aryl system

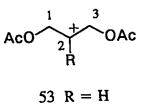
The methodology developed to model the isomerization of the aryl system was also applied to the reaction of the C(4)-hydrogen and C(4)-methyl substituted dioxolanylium ions, 36 and 37. The aim of this study was to determine whether the stepwise or concerted isomerization pathway is favoured by comparing the calculated and experimentally determined reaction barriers.

#### (a) Step-Wise Pathway

The open carbenium ion intermediates 53 and 54 were used to approximate the transition states for the step-wise isomerizations of 36 and 37 respectively. The bond angles (Table 4.8) of the carbenium ions are consistent with charge localization on an sp²-hybridized C(2) carbon atom. In 53 the carbon/oxygen skeleton is planar with one ester function adopting an s-*cis* orientation and the other s-*trans* (Fig. 4.11). A similar conformation was determined for 54.

Table 4.8:	Selected bond angles (°) for the AM1 optimized
	geometries of carbenium ions 53 and 54.

Bond Angle	53	54
$\overline{C(1)C(2)C(3)}$	121.61	118.64
C(1)C(2)R	119.08	120.25
C(3)C(2)R	119.31	121.11



54  $R = CH_3$ 

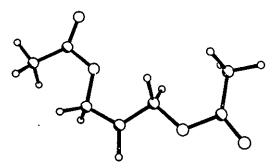


Fig. 4.11: AM1 optimized geometry of 53.

From the heats of formation of carbenium ions 53 and 54 and the corresponding dioxolanylium ions (36 and 37), the barriers for the step-wise isomerization pathways were calculated (Table 4.7). The step-wise barrier for 36 is exceptionally high (50.7 kcal/mol). The replacement of the hydrogen atom at C(4) for a methyl substituent on going from 36 to 37, lowers the step-wise barrier by about 14 kcal/mol. This value

compares well with that reported by Arnett,¹⁰⁷ who has measured the difference in the enthalpies of ionization of *t*-butyl chloride and 2-chloropropane to be 15.8  $\pm$  1.4 kcal/mol.

#### (b) Concerted Pathway

It was again useful to assume symmetrical transition state geometries, 55 and 56, for the concerted isomerizations of 36 and 37 respectively. Selected interatomic distances and bond angles for 55 and 56 obtained by partially constrained geometry optimization are presented in Table 4.9. The geometry about the C(4) carbon atom in 55 is trigonal bipyramidal (Fig. 4.12). A similar conformation was calculated for 56. A tighter transition state was observed in 55 in which the O(3)-C(4)/O(10)-C(4) distances are 1.898 Å compared to 1.946 Å in 56. Presumably, this is a result of an unfavourable steric interaction in 56, in which the presence of the methyl group at C(4) prevents a closer association of the nucleophile and the leaving group with the displacement center.

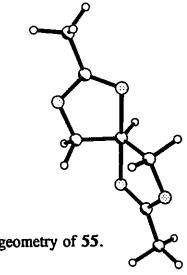
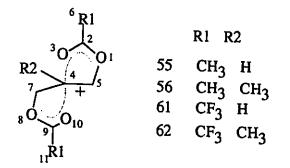


Fig. 4.12: AM1 optimized geometry of 55.

Bond	55	56	61	62	
O(1)C(2)	1.355	1.357	1.343	1.344	
C(2)O(3)	1.263	1.259	1.252	1.248	
O(3)C(4)	1.898	1.946	1.940	1.986	
C(4)C(5)	1.518	1.516	1.514	1.516	
O(1)C(5)	1.441	1.439	1.448	1.446	
C(2)C(6)	1.476	1.477	1.566	1.565	
C(4)C(7)	1.518	1.516	1.514	1.514	
C(7)O(8)	1.441	1.440	1.447	1.446	
O(8)C(9)	1.355	1.358	1.343	1.346	
C(9)C(11)	1.476	1.477	1.566	1.565	
C(9)O(10)	1.263	1.259	1.252	1.248	
C(4)O(10)	1.898	1.946	1.940	1.986	
C(4)R2	1.110	1.497	1.111	1.490	

1

Table 4.9:Selected AM1 optimized bond lengths (Å) for the concerted transition<br/>state structures 55, 56, 61 and 62.



From the heats of formation of transition states 55 and 56 and the corresponding ground states (36 and 37), the reaction barriers for the concerted isomerizations of 36 and 37 were calculated (Table 4.7). Replacement of the hydrogen atom at the C(4) carbon atom for a methyl group raised the reaction barrier by 1.3 kcal/mol. This is

attributed once again to the increased steric requirements for nucleophilic displacement occurring at the 3° C(4) carbon atom in 37.

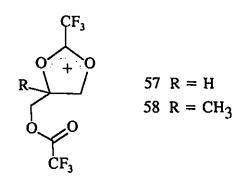
The barriers to isomerization of 36 and 37 in the concerted pathway are substantially lower in energy than those encountered in the step-wise pathway (Table 4.7). Thus, the concerted mechanism should be the preferred mode of reaction for these systems. In addition, there is a good correspondence between the calculated concerted barriers and the experimentally determined values of  $\Delta G^+$ . On the basis of these observations, it can be concluded that the isomerizations of 36 and 37 occur via the concerted pathway.

#### 4.5 Effect of the Trifluoroacetate Group

The discussion to this point regarding the reduction of the dioxolanylium ion isomerization barrier, has focused on the stabilization of the transition state by introducing electron donating substituents at C(4). Charge releasing substituents at C(4) stabilize the step-wise transition state and carbenium ion intermediate. For the concerted transition state, however, the stabilization achieved by the introduction of a charge releasing substituent at C(4) is balanced against increased steric crowding at the displacement site.

An alternative approach to reducing the reaction barrier is the destabilization of the ground state. The most direct approach to destabilizing the dioxolanylium ion system is to introduce a charge withdrawing substituent at C(2). The trifluoromethyl group was chosen for this study since it is one of the most powerful electron withdrawing

substituents known. Using 57 and 58 as model compounds, the feasibility of this approach to lowering the reaction barrier was tested. Both the acetate and acetoxonium methyl groups were replaced with  $CF_3$  groups to retain the degeneracy of the isomerization. The effect of  $CF_3$  substituents was probed both in the ground state structures and in the isomerization reactions.



#### (a) Ground State Structure

The effect of the CF₃ groups and the C(4) substituent on the ground state structure of the dioxolanylium ion is readily observable. Calculated bond lengths in the optimized geometries for 36, 37, 57, and 58 are compared in Table 4.10. Similar to the trend observed for the C(4)-aryl substituted series, replacement of the hydrogen atom for a methyl group at C(4) resulted in consistent changes in various bond lengths within the dioxolanylium ring system. An elongation of the O(3)-C(4) bond and contraction of the C(2)-O(3) bond was noted on going from 36 to 37 and from 57 to 58. Once again, this is attributed to the increased importance of an ionic resonance contributor (Scheme 4.4), due to the inductive stabilization provided by the methyl group.

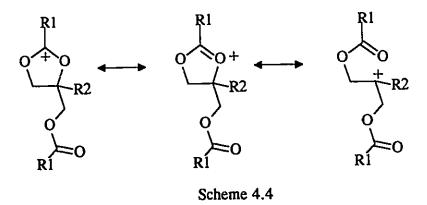
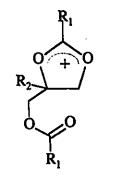


Table 4.10 Selected AM1 optimized bond lengths (Å) for 36, 37, 57 and 58.

Bond	36	37	57	58
0(1)(2)	1.332	1.333	1.314	1.317
O(1)C(2) C(2)O(3)	1.325	1.333	1.314	1.308
O(3)C(4)	1.482	1.496	1.500	1.528
C(4)C(5)	1.534	1.542	1.536	1.539
O(1)C(5)	1.473	1.468	1.484	1.480
C(2)C(6)	1.467	1.469	1.581	1.579
C(4)C(7)	1.528	1.533	1.523	1.536
C(7)O(8)	1.418	1.418	1.425	1.423
O(8)C(9)	1.384	1.383	1.368	1.373
C(9)C(11)	1.483	1.484	1.562	1.559
C(9)O(10)	1.235	1.232	1.225	1.220

.



	R1	R2
36	CH ₃	Н
37	CH ₃	CH ₃
57	CF ₃	H
58	CF3	CH ₃

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The effect of the CF₃ group can be assessed by the comparison of the structures of 36 to 57, as well as, 37 to 58. For each pair of dioxolanylium ions, the presence of the trifluoromethyl substituent produces an elongation of the O(3)-C(4) bond relative to the acetate derivative. The more open-like structure for the trifluoromethyl derivatives is a direct result of the destabilization of the positive charge at C(2).

- (b) Modelling the Isomerization Barriers for Trifluoroacetate Derivatives
- (i) Step-wise pathway

The open carbenium ions 59 and 60 were used to approximate the transition states for the step-wise isomerization of dioxolanylium ions 57 and 58 respectively. The optimized structures of these ions are similar to those obtained for the methyl analogues 53 and 54 discussed earlier. The bond angles are consistent with a trigonal planar carbenium ion (Table 4.11).

Bond Angle	59	60	OOOOOOO
C(1)C(2)C(3)	122.10	118.79	$ F_{3C} + 0 + 0$
C(1)C(2)R	119.34	121.45	- 3 - 2   R
C(3)C(2)R	118.56	119.76	i t
			- 59 R = H
			60 R = CH ₃

Table 4.11:Selected bond angles (°) for the AM1 optimized<br/>geometries of carbenium ions 59 and 60.

The reaction barriers for the isomerization of 57 and 58 via the step-wise pathway were calculated using the method previously described. The step-wise isomerization barriers,  $\Delta G'$ , are substantially lower than those of the methyl-substituted analogues 36 and 37 (Table 4.7). The presence of the CF₃ groups lowered the barriers by 16-18 kcal/mol. This difference compares well with that reported for the relative proton affinities of acetic acid and trifluoroacetic acid (15.4 kcal/mol),¹⁰⁴ where proton affinity is defined as the heat of reaction of Eqn 4.3:

Eqn. 4.3 
$$AH^+ \neq A + H^+$$

-

$$(A = CH_3COOH, CF_3COOH)$$

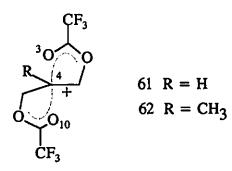
Dissociation of AH⁺ is analogous to unassisted C-O bond cleavage of the dioxolanylium ions.

The observation of the above substituent effect is indicative of the destabilization brought about by placing a CF₃ group adjacent to a positive charge.¹⁰⁹ However, neither the values for proton affinities nor  $\Delta G'$  should be confused for absolute measurements of the destabilization brought about by the CF₃ group. Both these quantities reflect a substituent effect in a "reactant" relative to a "product". An absolute value for the destabilization of cationic center brought about by an adjacent CF₃ group has been arrived at by *ab initio* calculations of isodesmic reactions. Carbenium ions and hydroxycarbenium ions are destabilized by  $\alpha$ -CF₃ groups by 37 kcal/mol and 36 kcal/mol respectively.¹¹⁰ The fact that the value of  $\Delta G'$  is lowered by only 16-18 kcal/mol for the trifluoroacetate derivatives suggests that the transition states are destabilized as well. The net effect, however, is a lowering of the reaction barrier.

The lower barrier for the isomerization of 58 relative to that of 57 can again be attributed to the greater stability of the tertiary carbenium ion intermediate (and of the transition state) encountered in the isomerization of the former compound. It is not surprising therefore, that the difference between  $\Delta G'$  of 36 and 37 is similar in magnitude to the difference between that of 57 and 58.

#### (ii) Concerted Pathway

The transition states for the concerted isomerizations of 57 and 58 are represented by 61 and 62 respectively, and were obtained by partially constrained geometry optimizations as previously described. The trigonal bi-pyramidal structure of 61 exhibits shorter O(3)-C(4)/O(10)-C(4) bond distances than does 62 (Table 4.9). As was the case for the acetate analogues 55 and 56, the tighter transition state for 61 is attributed to less steric crowding at the displacement center than is encountered in 62.



A further comparison may be made between the transition state structures of the acetate and the trifluoroacetate systems. The O(3)-C(4)/O(10)-C(4)) bond distances in **61** (1.940 Å) are longer than in **55** (1.898 Å). Similarly, these C-O bonds are longer in **62** than in **56**. Thus, looser transition states were found for the trifluoroacetate derivatives which minimize inductive destabilization of the charge at the C(2) and C(9) carbon atoms.

The effect of replacing the hydrogen atom at C(4) in 57 with a methyl group (58) results in a small increase in the concerted reaction barrier. This effect was also observed in the acetate systems 36 and 37. The barriers to concerted isomerization of 57 and 58 are lower than the corresponding values of  $\Delta G'$  for 36 and 37 (Table 4.7). However, the effect of the CF₃ groups on the concerted barrier is not nearly as pronounced as it is in the step-wise pathway. The destabilizing effect of the CF₃ group in the ground state is offset by substantial destabilization of the transition state. The net effect is only a relatively small reduction in the concerted barrier.

The use of trifluoroacetate derivatives yields a reduction in the barrier to the dioxolanylium isomerization. In theory, this approach provides a means of obtaining a system whose ground state structure resembles a classical  $S_N 2$  transition state. In practice, however, this cannot be considered an effective means of doing so. Decreasing the stability of the dioxolanylium ion increases the difficulty of its isolation. Despite the synthetic challenges, the use of electron releasing substituents attached to the C(4) carbon atom (the transition state stabilization approach) remains as the only viable option.

#### 4.6 Comparison of X-ray Crystal Structures with AM1-Optimized Geometries

In Chapter 3, the results of the x-ray crystallographic study of dioxolanylium ions 36 and 39 (in which the C(4) substituent is hydrogen and phenyl respectively) were presented. There are substantial differences between the bond lengths determined experimentally with those calculated at the AM1 level. However, the use of semiempirical calculations has provided useful insight into the nature of dioxolanylium ions. While there exists some discrepancy between the optimized structures obtained at this level of theory and those obtained by experimental methods, the value of this approach was demonstrated by examining a given trend across a series of ions. In so doing, systematic errors arising from various approximations effectively cancelled out. Thus while the structure of a particular dioxolanylium ion may not be reproduced satisfactorily, the response of that ion to substitution was successfully modelled. This is particularly true for the modelling of the isomerization barriers which were in good agreement with the experimentally determined values.

#### 4.7 Summary

The isomerization mechanisms proposed for the aryl and non-aryl substituted dioxolanylium ions on the basis of the dynamic NMR studies, were confirmed by modelling these reactions at the AM1 level. Systematic structural variations within the aryl series of dioxolanylium ions were correlated with Hammett substituent constants. These structural variations provided further support for the inclusion of an ionic resonance contributor to the ground state description of this system. Introducing better electron donating substituents at C(4) systematically increased the weight given to this ionic resonance contributor.

#### **General Summary**

The role played by substituents in determining the structure and reactivity of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system has been presented in this thesis. Using a variety of complementary techniques, it was shown that an ionic resonance contributor should be included in the ground state description of the system. The weight given to this ionic resonance contributor is dependent upon the electron-donating power of the C(4)-substituent. The C(4)-substituent also plays an important role in determining the mechanism and ease of nucleophilic attack on the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion.

It has been demonstrated that the use of aryl substituents at C(4) represents one strategy by which an  $S_N 2$  transition state-like structure might be obtained. In addition, the Lewis acid complexes described in this thesis show particular promise in achieving such a structure. It is suggested that future investigations explore the use of other hetero atoms (such as sulfur or nitrogen), by incorporating functionality which places these charge stabilizing groups adjacent to the C(4) carbon atom.

The use of AM1 calculations proved to be an effective tool in determining the effect of substituents on the structure and reactivity of the 1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium ion system. To date, no *ab initio* studies have been carried out on this system. It would be of interest to investigate the system further at a higher level of theory. It is hoped that the calculated and experimentally determined structures might show a closer correspondence than can be achieved using semi-empirical methods.

# Chapter 5

#### Experimental

### 5.1 Materials

Diethyl ether was refluxed over LiAlH₄ and distilled under a dry nitrogen atmosphere. Similarly, dioxane and benzene were distilled from sodium,  $CH_2Cl_2$  and  $CCl_4$  from P₂O₅. Toluene was washed with concentrated H₂SO₄ and distilled. When not used immediately, dry solvents were stored in a glove bag which was continuously purged with nitrogen in the presence of P₂O₅. Deuterated solvents for use in NMR experiments were used without further purification. The Lewis acids SnCl₄ and SbCl₅ were distilled prior to use while 1.0 M SbCl₅ in CH₂Cl₂ (Aldrich) was used without further purification.

# 5.2 Instrumentation

#### (a) NMR Spectroscopy

¹H NMR spectra were collected using a Varian EM390 (90 MHz), Bruker AM200 (200 MHz), Bruker WM250 (250 MHz), Bruker AM300 (300 MHz), or Bruker AM500 (500 MHz) spectrometers. Spectra collected in deuterated solvents were referenced using the residual proton signals. Tetramethylsilane (TMS) was used as an internal reference for spectra collected in CCl₄. Solution ¹³C NMR spectra were collected on a Bruker AM500 (125.7 MHz), Bruker AM300 (75.1 MHz), or Bruker AM200 (50.3 MHz)

spectromters. Solid state ¹³C NMR spectra were obtained by the cross polarization magic angle spinning (CPMAS) technique on a Bruker MSL100 (25.1 MHz) spectrometer at room temperature. Samples were mixed with KBr and packed in alumina rotors under a dry nitrogen atmosphere. Adamantane was used as an external reference.

#### (b) X-ray Crystallography

#### (i) Data Collection and Reduction

Crystals of 36 and 39 were obtained by vapour diffusion of diethyl ether into CH₂Cl₂ solutions of the respective compounds at -20 °C. Suitable crystals were selected and sealed in Lindemann capillaries under a nitrogen atmosphere. Diffraction experiments were performed at low temperature on a Siemens R3m/V diffractometer for 36 (173 K) using AgK $\alpha$  ( $\lambda = 0.56086$  Å) and a Nicolet P3 diffractometer for 39 (173 K) using MoK $\alpha$  ( $\lambda = 0.71069$  Å). The initial orientation matrices were obtained from 25 machine centred reflections for 36 (17.3° <20 <37.6°) and 15 machine centred reflections for 36 (17.3° <20 <37.6°) and 15 machine centred reflections for 39 (20.61° <20 <26.77°). For 36, c-centred h,k, ±1 data (20 ≤50°) were collected, while h,k,±1 data (20 ≤45°) were collected for 39. In each case, standard reflections were monitored and showed no statistically significant change during data collection. For 36, data were collected with a scan range of 0.6° below K $\alpha_1$  and 0.6° above K $\alpha_2$ . For 39, data were collected with a scan range of 1.0° below K $\alpha_1$  and 1.0°

**39.** Corrections were made for Lorentz-polarization factors for all data. Semi-empirical absorption corrections were applied to the data for **39** and DIFABS¹¹¹ for **36**.

#### (ii) Structure Solution and Refinement

The observed extinctions were consistent with the monoclinic space group C2/m for 36 and the orthorhombic space group  $P2_12_12_1$  for 39. The coordinates of the antimony atoms were found from three dimensional Patterson syntheses for 36 and 39. Full-matrix least-squares refinements of these coordinates, followed by a three dimensional electron density synthesis, in each case, revealed the positional parameters of all the non-hydrogen atoms and confirmed those of the heavy atoms.

A packing disorder was observed for 36. It was later determined that the proper space group for 36 was P2₁/a, using the same cell. This gave a completely ordered, well-behaved refinement. Since the original crystal had decayed with time, and another non-twinned crystal could not be found, the refinement was completed using only the h+k = 2n data. The only problem that resulted from the absence of the weak h+k = 2n+1 data was that the two antimony atoms in the model could not be refined anisotropically. This would result in a divergence of the least-squares refinement. The results obtained from the partial data set were suitable for the purposes of the present investigation.

The refinements were carried out using full-matrix least-squares. The temperature factors of the non-hydrogen atoms, which were previously isotropic, were made

anisotropic, and further cycles of refinement revealed the positional parameters of the hydrogen atoms. The hydrogen atoms were included in the final cycles using a riding model and calculated positions. For 39, the phenyl protons were constrained with respect to the carbons to which they were bonded with U values fixed at 0.08. The methyl protons were fixed as rigid groups with U values of 0.108. For 36, the hydrogen U values were fixed at 1.2 or 1.5 times the  $U_{\infty}$  of the attached carbon atom. Throughout the refinement, anomalous dispersion corrections were applied to the scattering curves for antimony, chlorine, and oxygen. Programs used for 39 included XTAL¹¹² for data reduction and SHELXTL PLUS¹¹³ for structure solution and refinement. For 36, the software used included Siemens P3, Siemens SHELXTL PLUS and SHELX 93. All thermal ellipsoid plots were created using SHELXTL PLUS. Information pertinent to the data collection and final structure solutions of 36 and 39 is presented in Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 respectively. Tabulated in the Appendix section (Tables A1 to A8) are: atomic co-ordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement coefficients for non-hydrogen atoms; anisotropic displacement coefficients for non-hydrogen atoms; atomic co-ordinates and isotropic displacement coefficients for all hydrogen atoms; and F_oF_o values for both 36 and 39.

Crystal Data	
Empirical formula	C7 H11 Cl6 O4 Sb
Colour; Habit	colourless prism
Crystal size (mm)	0.3 x 0.2 x 0.2
Crystal system	monoclinic
Space group	P21/a
Unit cell dimensions	a = 16.387(2)  Å b = 13.390(2)  Å c = 7.8350(10)  Å
	ß = 105.770(10) °
Volume	1654.5(4) Å ³
Z	4
Z Formula weight	4 493.61
Formula weight	493.61
Formula weight Density (calculated)	493.61 1.982 Mg/m ³
Formula weight Density (calculated) Absorption coefficient	493.61 1.982 Mg/m ³ 1.373 mm ⁻¹
Formula weight Density (calculated) Absorption coefficient F(000)	493.61 1.982 Mg/m ³ 1.373 mm ⁻¹
Formula weight Density (calculated) Absorption coefficient F(000) Data Collection	493.61 1.982 Mg/m ³ 1.373 mm ⁻¹ 952
Formula weight Density (calculated) Absorption coefficient F(000) Data Collection Diffractometer Used	493.61 1.982 Mg/m ³ 1.373 mm ⁻¹ 952 Siemens R3m/V

•

20 Range	2.04 to 25.07 °
Scan Type	020
Scan Speed	variable; 2.00° to 29.30 °/min in w
Scan Range ( $\omega 2\theta$ )	± 0.6 °
Background Measurement	Stationary crystal and stationary counter at beginning and end of scan, each for 25 % of total scan time
Standard Reflections	3 measure every 100 reflections
Index Ranges	$0 \le h \le 24, 0 \le k \le 20,$ -11 \le 1 \le 11
Reflections Collected	3207
Independent Reflections	3107 ( $R_{int} = 2.01\%$ )
Observed Reflections	$3100 (F^2 > -3\sigma(F^2))$
Absorption Correction	DIFABS
Solution and Refinement	
System Used	Siemens SHELXTL
Solution	Patterson
Refinement method	Full-Matrix Least-Squares on F ²
Quantity Minimized	$\Sigma w (F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2$
Absolute Structure	N/A

•

Table 5.1 (cont.)

Extinction Correction	0.000597
Hydrogen Atoms	Riding model; for H(4), H(5a/b), and H(7a/b) U is greater than 20 % of $U_{eq}$ of attached carbon atom; for all other protons, U is greater than 50 % of $U_{eq}$ of attached carbon atom.
Weighting Scheme	$w^{-1} = \sigma^2(F_o^2) + (0.0001P)^2 + 9.88P$ where $P = [max(F_o^2, 0) + 2 F_c^2] \div 3$
Number of Parameters Refined	157
Final R indices $(1>2\sigma(I))$	R1 = 3.94 %, $wR2 = 6.85$ %
R indices (all data)	R1 = 6.89 %, w $R2 = 8.25 %$
Goodness-of-fit on F ²	1.106
Largest and Mean $\Delta/\sigma$	0.003, < 0.001
Data-to-Parameter Ratio	19.7:1
Largest Difference Peak	2.053 eÅ ^{.3}
Largest Difference Hole	-2.623 eÅ ⁻³
Extinction coefficient	0.00060(13)

# Crystal Data

•

Empirical Formula	C ₁₃ H ₁₅ Cl ₆ O ₄ Sb·(CH ₂ Cl ₂ )
Colour; Habit	colourless prism
Crystal size (mm)	0.3 x 0.2 x 0.2
Crystal System	Orthorhombic
Space Group	P2,2,2,
Unit Cell Dimension	a = 10.410(4)  Å
	b = 16.901(5)  Å
	c = 14.109(5) Å
Volume	2482.3(12) Å ³
Z	4
Z Formula weight	4 652.1
Formula weight	652.1
Formula weight Density(calc.)	652.1 1.745 Mg/m ³
Formula weight Density(calc.) Absorption Coefficient	652.1 1.745 Mg/m ³ 1.983 mm ⁻¹
Formula weight Density(calc.) Absorption Coefficient F(000)	652.1 1.745 Mg/m ³ 1.983 mm ⁻¹
Formula weight Density(calc.) Absorption Coefficient F(000) Data Collection	652.1 1.745 Mg/m ³ 1.983 mm ⁻¹ 1274.96

Monochromator	Highly oriented graphite crystal
20 Range	7.0 to 45.0°
Scan Type	ω
Scan Speed	Variable; 2.00 to 29.30°/min. in $\omega$
Scan Range (ω)	± 1.0°
Background Measurement	Stationary crystal and stationary counter at beginning and end of scan, each for 25 % of total scan time
Standard Reflections	3 measured every 100 reflections
Index Ranges	$0 \le h \le 11, 0 \le k \le 18$ -15 $\le 1 \le 15$ , or Fridel mate
Reflections Collected	3718
Independent Reflections	3205 ( $R_{int} = 1.35\%$ )
Observed Reflections	3205 (F ≥ 0)
Absorption Correction	ψ Scan
Solution and Refinement	
System Used	Siemens SHELXTL PLUS (PC Version)
Solution	Patterson
Refinement Method	Full-Matrix Least-Squares on F
Quantity Minimized	Σw(F _o -F _c ) ²

.

Table 5.2 (cont.)

Absolute Structure	N/A
Extinction Correction	N/A
Hydrogen Atoms	Riding model, fixed isotropic U
Weighting Scheme	$w^{-1} = \sigma^2(F) + 0.0028F^2$
Number of Parameters Refined	208
Final R Indices (obs. data)	R = 4.80 %, w $R = 6.19 %$
R Indices (all data)	R = 4.80 %, $wR = 6.19$ %
R Indices (all data) Goodness-of-Fit	R = 4.80 %, w $R = 6.19 %$
Goodness-of-Fit	1.05
Goodness-of-Fit Largest and Mean $\Delta/\sigma$	1.05 both less than 0.001

- '

#### (c) Infrared Spectroscopy

Samples were mixed with KBr and pressed into thin disks under a dry nitrogen atmosphere. Infrared spectra were collected on a Biorad FTIR spectrometer.

#### 5.3 Syntheses

2-phenyl-2-hydroxydiethylmalonate (29): Following the method of Riebsomer,⁵¹ dry benzene (II g, 141 mmol) was mixed with diethyl ketomalonate (5.0 g, 28.7 mmol) in a 3-necked flask under a dry nitrogen atmosphere. With vigourous stirring, anhydrous SnCl₄ (5.75 mL) was added dropwise over 30 minutes at 0 °C. Stirring was continued for 2 hours at room temperature. The reaction mixture was poured into 300g of crushed ice containing 1 mL of concentrated HCl. After standing until most of the ice had melted, the mixture was extracted into ether. The ether layer was washed with water until free from chlorides. The ether layer was dried over Na₂SO₄, filtered, and the solvent removed on a rotary evaporator. The residue was distilled at 160 °C / 5 mm Hg. Yield: 2.85 g (40 %) of a colourless oil. ¹H NMR (CCl₄, 90 MHz):  $\delta$  7.25-7.77 ppm (m, Ar, 5H); 4.35 ppm (s, OH, 1H); 4.25 ppm (q, J = 7.5 Hz, CH₂, 4H); 1.23 ppm (t, J = 7.5 Hz, CH₃, 6H).

2-phenyl-1,2,3-propanetriol (30): To a 3-necked flask fitted with a condenser, dropping funnel, and a nitrogen bubbler was added 1.08 g (28.4 mmol) of lithium aluminum hydride in dry ether. The diester 29 (2.7 g, 10.7 mmol) was added slowly with stirring

and cooling. After the initial reaction subsided, the mixture was heated at reflux for 24 hours. After the reaction was complete, excess LAH was decomposed by the addition of 10 mL of ethyl acetate, followed by approximately 80 mL of 6N HCl. The aqueous layer was separated and made basic by the addition of approximately 120 mL of 6N NaOH. This solution was extracted several times with ether, and the combined extracts were dried over  $K_2CO_3$ . The solvent was removed on a rotary evaporator and the residue was taken up in CCl₄. A white precipitate was collected. Yield: 0.80 g (44 %). The compound was used immediately in the next step without further purification.

2-phenyl-1,2,3-propanetrioltriacetate (31): The triol 30 (0.80 g, 4.76 mmol) was dissolved in 3 mL of acetic anhydride and 0.5 mL of pyridine. The solution was stirred overnight. The reaction mixture was poured into a 5% NaHCO₃ solution and extracted with ether. The ether layer was washed with dilute HCl and then water until the aqueous extracts were neutral. The organic layer was dried over Na₂SO₄, followed by removal of the solvent on a rotary evaporator. Yield: 0.50 g (36 %). ¹H NMR (CCl₄, 90 MHz):  $\delta$  7.30 ppm (s br., Ar, 5H); 4.60 ppm (s, CH₂, 4H); 2.03 ppm (s, CH₃, 3H); 1.95 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H).

2-(4-methoxyphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetriol-1,3-diacetate (33d): 8.95 g (47.9 mmol) of pbromoanisole was reacted with 1.74 g (71.6 mmol) of magnesium turnings in 125 mL of dry THF for 24 hours. The Grignard reagent was added dropwise with stirring to 10.0 g (57.5 mmol) of 1,3-dihydroxypropan-2-one-1,3-diacetate⁵² dissolved in 500 ml of THF and 300 mL of toluene at -65 °C. The addition was conducted over 2 hours followed by 1 hour of additional stirring. The reaction mixture was brought up to 0°C and quenched with 10 mL of 25% H₂SO₄ and 30 mL of water. The solution was extracted into ether and the organic layer was washed with 5% NaHCO₃ and water until neutral. Drying over NaSO₄ and removal of the solvent gave an oil which was taken up in ether/hexanes. Upon standing at 5 °C, 4.72 g (29 %) of a white precipitate (m.pt. 67°C, uncorrected) was collected. ¹H NMR (CCl₄, 90 MHz):  $\delta$  7.35 ppm (d, J = 9.0 Hz, Ar, 2H); 6.80 ppm (d, J = 9.0 Hz, Ar, 2H); 4.20 ppm (s, CH₂, 4H); 3.75 ppm (s, OCH₃, 3H); 2.85 ppm (s, OH, 1H); 2.00 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H). MS (relative intensity, %): m/z 282 (2) M⁺; 209 (45); 167 (100); 149 (27); 121 (52); 77 (18). Calculated mass for C₁₄H₁₈O₆: 282.11034. Observed mass: 282.11030.

The following diesters were prepared using analogous procedures.

2-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetriol-1,3-diacetate (33a) was prepared from pbromotrifluorotoluene. Recrystallized from ether/hexanes to give a white solid. Yield: 7.5 g (53 %). ¹H NMR (200 MHz, CDCl3): δ 7.51 - 7.70 ppm (m, Ar, 4H), 4.29 -4.42 ppm (m, CH₂, 4H); 3.10 ppm (s br., OH, 1H); 2.03 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H).

2-(4-methylphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetriol-1,3-diacetate (33b) was prepared from p-

bromotoluene. The product was distilled at 140 °C / 1mm Hg to give 5.0 g (27 %) of a colourless oil. ¹H NMR (90 MHz, CCl₄):  $\delta$  7.35 ppm (d, J = 9.0 Hz, Ar, 2H); 7.10 ppm (d, J = 9.0 Hz, Ar, 2H); 4.25 ppm (s br., CH₂, 4H); 3.15 ppm (s br., OH, 1H); 2.35 ppm (s, CH₃, 3H); 1.95 (s, CH₃, 6H).

2-(4-t-butylphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetriol-1,3-diacetate (33c) was prepared from p-bromo-tbutylbenzene. Yield: 2.5 g (43 %) of a yellow oil. ¹H NMR (90 MHz, CDCl₃):  $\delta$  7.30 - 7.55 ppm (m, Ar, 4H); 4.31 ppm (s, CH₂, 4H); 2.95 ppm (s br., OH, 1H); 2.00 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H); 1.25 ppm (s, CH₃, 9H).

2-(4-N,N-dimethylaminophenyl)-1,2,3-propanetriol-1,3-diacetate(33e) wasprepared from p-bromodimethylaniline. The product "Ts purified on a silica column eluted with ether/hexanes. Yield: 1.5 g (12 %) of a pale green oil. ¹H NMR (500 MHz, CD₂Cl₂):  $\delta$  7.29 ppm (d, J = 8.9 Hz, Ar, 2H); 6.71 ppm (d, J = 8.9 Hz, Ar, 2H); 4.29 ppm (d, J = 11.5Hz, CH(H), 2H); 4.25 ppm (d, J = 11.5Hz, CH(H), 2H); 2.92 ppm (s, N-CH₃, 6H); 2.00 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H). A signal for OH was not detected. MS (relative intensity, %): 295 (27) M⁺; 222 (64); 180 (100); 134 (71). Calculated mass for C₁₅H₂₁NO₅: 295.14197. Observed mass: 295.14400.

The following triesters were prepared from the corresponding diesters, using a procedure similar to that already described for the acetylation of 2-phenyl-1,2,3-propantriol (30).

2-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetrioltriacetate (34a): Yield: 4.0 g (71 %) of oil. No further purification was necessary. 'H NMR (90 MHz,  $CDCl_3$ ):  $\delta$  7.35 - 7.70 ppm (m, Ar, 4H); 4.55 ppm (s,  $CH_2$ , 4H); 2.00 ppm (s,  $CH_3$ , 3H); 1.90 ppm (s,  $CH_3$ , 6H).

2-(4-methylphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetrioltriacetate (**34b**): Yield: 3.5g (60%) of a pale yellow oil. No further purification was necessary. ¹H NMR (90 MHz, CCL):  $\delta$  7.00-7.31 ppm (m, Ar, 4H); 4.55 ppm (s, CH₂, 4H); 2.35 ppm (s, C_{Ar}-CH₃, 3H); 2.02 ppm (s, CH₃, 3H); 1.97 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H). MS (relative intensity, %): m/z 308 (3) M⁺; 249 (100); 193 (71); 151 (100). Calculated mass for C₁₆H₂₀O₆: 308.12599. Observed mass: 308.12530.

2-(4-t-butylphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetrioltriacetate (34c): Yield: 2.5 g (88 %) of a pale yellow oil. No further purification was necessary. ¹H NMR (200 MHz, CDCl3):  $\delta$  7.40 ppm (s, Ar, 4H); 4.37 ppm (s, CH₂, 4H); 2.06 ppm (s, CH₃, 9H); 1.33 ppm (s, CH₃, 9H). MS (relative intensity, %): m/z 350 (32) M⁺⁻; 335 (15); 295 (57); 277 (55). Calculated mass for C₁₉H₂₀O₆: 350.17294. Observed mass: 350.17380.

2-(4-methoxyphenyl)-1,2,3-propanetrioltriacetate (34d): Recrystallized from ether/hexanes. Yield: 1.5 g (22 %). ¹H NMR (200 MHz, CCl₄):  $\delta$  7.20 ppm (d, J = 8.7 Hz, Ar, 2H); 6.79ppm (d, J = 8.7 Hz, Ar, 2H) 4.54 - 4.64 ppm (m, CH₂, 4H);

3.76 ppm (s, OCH₃, 3H); 2.02 ppm (s, CH₃, 3H); 1.98 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H). MS (relative intensity, %): m/z 324 (5) M⁺⁻; 209 (73); 167 (100). Calculated mass for C₁₆H₂₀O₇: 324.12090. Observed mass: 324.12080.

2-(4-N,N-dimethylaminophenyl)-1,2,3-propanetrioltriacetate (34e): Yield: 0.85g (74 %) of oil. No further purification was necessary. ¹H NMR (200 MHz, CDCl₃):  $\delta$  7.33 ppm (d, J = 8.6 Hz, Ar, 2H);  $\delta$  7.2 ppm (d, J = 8.6 Hz, Ar, 2H); 4.35 ppm (s, CH₂, 4H); 2.96 ppm (s, N-CH₃, 6H); 2.07 ppm (s, CH₃, 9H).

*?-methyl-1,2,3-propanetrioltriacetate* (35): Following the method of Saegebarth,³⁴ 100 mg of tungstic acid was added to 10 mL of 30% H₂O₂ with stirring until the catalyst dissolved. The solution was diluted with 20 mL of water and 5 g (69.4 mmol) of 2-methyl-2-propene-1-ol (Aldrich) was added dropwise with stirring at 0 °C. Stirring was continued for 2 hours after the addition. The solvent was removed on a rotary evaporator to give a colourless oil. The residue was not characterized but was immediately used in the following step. The oil was dissolved in 50 mL of acetic anhydride and 1 drop of conc. H₂SO₄ was added to produce a highly exothermic reaction. The solution was left to stand at room temperature for 3 hours. A small amount of Na₂CO₃ was added to neutralize the mixture which was then filtered and concentrated on a rotary evaporator. The residue was dissolved in 100 mL of water and extracted with 3 x 100 mL of ether. The combined extracts were washed with 50 mL of 10% NaHCO₃, 100 mL of water, and

then dried over Na₂SO₄. Filtration and removal of the solvent gave 9.07 g (56 % from 2-methyl-2-propene-1-ol) of a pale yellow oil. No further purification was necessary. ¹H NMR (200 MHz, CDCl₃):  $\delta$  4.30 ppm (d, J = 11.5 Hz, CH(H), 2H); 4.17 ppm (d, J = 11.5 Hz, CH(H), 2H); 1.99 ppm (s, CH₃, 6H); 1.93 ppm (s, CH₃, 3H); 1.42 ppm (s, CH₃, 3H).

2-methyl-4-phenyl-4-acetoxymethyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium hexachloroantimonate (39): Following the method of Paulsen,²² 0.470 g of the triacetate 31 in 2 mL of dry  $CH_2Cl_2$ was cooled to -30 °C and 0.36 ml of SbCl₅ in 5 mL of  $CH_2Cl_2$  was added dropwise with stirring under a dry nitrogen atmosphere. The solution was slowly brought to room temperature to give a white precipitate. The solid was collected, washed with dry ether, and recrystallized from  $CH_2Cl_2$ /ether. IR (KBr disc):  $\upsilon$  1742 cm⁻¹ (C=O); 1548 cm⁻¹; 1513 cm⁻¹. ¹H NMR data is presented in Table 2.2. ¹³C NMR data is presented in Table 2.3. The assigned structure was confirmed by xray crystallography.

The following dioxolanylium ions salts were prepared by ionization of the corresponding triacetates using similar procedures.

2-methyl-4-acetoxymethyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium hexachloroantimonate (36): 'H and ¹³C NMR data are presented in Table 2.1. Assigned structure was confirmed by xray crystallography.

2,4-dimethyl-4-acetoxymethyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium hexachloroantimonate (37): 'H and ¹³C NMR data are presented in Table 2.1.

2-methyl-4-(4-trifluoromethylphenyl)-4-acetoxymethyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium hexachloroantimonate (38): IR (KBr disc): v 1742 cm⁻¹ (C=O), 1544 cm⁻¹, 1505 cm⁻¹. ¹H NMR data is presented in Table 2.2. ¹³C NMR data is presented in Table 2.3.

2-methyl-4-(4-methylphenyl)-4-acetoxymethyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-yliumhexachloroantimonate (40): ¹H NMR data is presented in Table 2.2. ¹³C NMR data is presented in Table 2.3.

2-methyl-4-(4-t-butylphenyl)-4-acetoxymethyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-yliunhexachloroantimonate (41): IR (KBr disc): v 1750 cm⁻¹ (C=O); 1542 cm⁻¹; 1509 cm⁻¹. ¹H NMR data is presented in Table 2.2. ¹³C NMR data is presented in Table 2.3.

2-methyl-4-(4-methoxyphenyl)-4-acetoxymethyl-1,3-dioxolan-2-ylium hexachloroantimonate (42): IR (KBr disc): v 1739 cm⁻¹ (C=O); 1611 cm⁻¹; 1584 cm⁻¹; 1543 cm⁻¹; 1515 cm⁻¹. ¹H NMR data is presented in Table 2.2. ¹³C NMR data is presented in Table 2.3.

The following complexes are for the Lewis acid adducts of 1,3-dihydroxypropan-2-one-1,3-diacetate (32): SbCl₃ complex, 43: To a cooled (-78° C) NMR tube containing a solution of 32 (20 mg) in  $CD_2Cl_2$ , was added 1.5 equivalents of SbCl₅ dissolved in a small amount of  $CD_2Cl_2$ . The addition was carried out slowly, under an atmosphere of dry nitrogen, with occasional agitation to allow the contents of the NMR tube to mix thoroughly. The resulting dark coloured complex was analyzed in situ by ¹H NMR (Table 2.4).

SnCl₄ complex, 44: To 0.87 g of 32 in 2 mL of dry  $CH_2Cl_2$  was added 1.32 g of SnCl₄ in 3 mL of  $CH_2Cl_2$  at -30 °C and under a dry nitrogen atmosphere. Upon standing overnight at -10 °C colourless white crystals of the complex were collected and washed with  $CCl_4$ . ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR (solution) and CPMAS data are presented in Table 2.4.

## 5.4 AM1 Calculations

The fractional co-ordinates corresponding to the cation in the crystal structure of **39** were converted to cartesian co-ordinates within SHELXTL PLUS¹¹³ and exported to PCMODEL.⁹⁷ The latter program was used to modify the structure to add the *para* substituents to the phenyl ring and thus generate the co-ordinates for the remaining aryl-substituted dioxolanylium ions. An input file was created for use in AMPAC⁹⁸ by assigning an overall charge of +1 to the cations.

Similarly, the co-ordinates of the cation in the crystal structure of 36 were used to create an AMPAC input file. The starting geometry of 37 was obtained by replacement of the hydrogen atom at C(4) in 36 with a methyl group within PCMODEL. The cartesian co-ordinates so obtained were exported to AMPAC. The starting geometries of all neutral species, intermediates and transition state structures described in Chapter 4 were created in PCMODEL.

Full AM1 geometry optimization was carried out for the neutral species, dioxolanylium ions and carbenium ion intermediates, while partially constrained optimizations were carried out for the concerted transition states as previously described. All AM1 calculations were performed on an IBM RISC System/6000 computer.

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## Appendix

Atom	x	у	2	U(eq)
Sb(1)	0	0	0	24(1)
Sb(2)	0	5000	5000	30(1)
<b>Cl(1)</b>	-20(12)	1752(1)	207(17)	52(1)
Cl(2)	1505(1)	-79(49)	820(2)	45(5)
Cl(3)	32(1)	-145(5)	3014(2)	39(1)
Cl(4)	-36(12)	6177(14)	2763(26)	40(2)
Cl(4A)	-100(12)	3687(14)	2899(25)	44(2)
Cl(5)	1502(1)	4936(66)	5684(3)	43(5)
<b>O</b> (1)	7778(4)	3240(5)	9229(7)	41(1)
O(3)	7104(3)	4235(4)	7118(7)	36(1)
O(8)	7517(11)	2589(13)	5254(12)	33(2)
O(10)	7153(4)	2138(5)	2379(8)	4(2)
C(2)	7740(5)	4092(6)	8473(9)	33(2)
C(4)	6591(6)	3296(7)	6730(11)	38(2)
C(5)	7007(5)	2669(7)	8334(11)	44(2)
C(6)	8382(5)	4883(37)	9107(10)	49(7)
C(7)	651(5)	2931(7)	4985(11)	40(2)
C(9)	7676(6)	2204(6)	3773(12)	39(2)
C(11)	8571(7)	1838(9)	4174(17)	58(3)

Table A1:Atomic coordinates  $(x \ 10^4)$  and equivalent isotropic<br/>displacement parameters  $(Å^2 x \ 10^3)$  for 36.

Equivalent isotropic U defined as one third of the trace of the orthogonalized  $U_{ij}$  tensor.

Atom	Uu	Un	U ₃₃	U ₁₂	Uu	U ₂₃
Cl(1)	76(2)	29(1)	67(5)	-5(1)	47(4)	-3(2)
Cl(2)	26(1)	65(15)	43(1)	-2(3)	11(1)	4(4)
Cl(3)	48(1)	50(4)	24(1)	1(1)	17(1)	4(1)
Cl(4)	47(3)	35(4)	35(2)	1(2)	7(2)	-6(3)
Cl(4A)	53(3)	33(4)	42(5)	-12(3)	7(2)	-2(2)
CI(5)	28(1)	50(17)	47(1)	0(2)	5(1)	4(5)
<b>O(1)</b>	43(3)	41(3)	39(3)	10(3)	10(2)	2(3)
O(3)	38(3)	38(3)	33(2)	0(2)	10(2)	3(2)
O(8)	29(2)	48(6)	20(6)	-6(4)	5(5)	4(4)
O(10)	65(4)	58(4)	38(3)	-7(3)	13(3)	5(3)
C(2)	35(4)	38(4)	27(3)	0(3)	14(3)	6(3)
C(4)	33(4)	43(5)	37(4)	-4(4)	10(4)	-4(4)
C(5)	44(5)	46(5)	45(4)	0(4)	18(4)	-9(4)
C(6)	43(4)	60(20)	42(3)	3(6)	9(3)	-7(7)
C(7)	33(4)	49(5)	36(4)	-3(4)	5(3)	4(4)
C(9)	49(5)	27(4)	45(4)	-3(3)	20(4)	-7(3)
C(11)	45(6)	57(6)	79(8)	-21(7)	28(6)	0(5)

Table A2: Anisotropic displacement parameters  $(Å^2 x 10^3)$  for 36.

The anisotropic displacement exponent takes the form:  $-2\pi^2(h^2a^{*2}U_{11} + ... + 2hka^*b^*U_{12})$ 

Atom	x	У	Z	U(eq)
H(4)	5987(6)	3435(7)	6691(11)	45
H(5A)	6629(5)	2591(7)	9119(11)	53
H(5B)	7156(5)	1999(7)	7976(11)	53
H(6A)	8233(5)	5472(37)	8342(10)	73
H(6B)	8940(5)	4636(37)	9071(10)	73
H(6C)	8399(5)	5065(37)	10328(10)	73
H(7A)	6248(5)	2376(7)	4564(11)	48
H(7B)	6521(5)	3475(7)	4096(11)	48
H(11A)	8865(7)	1985(9)	5414(17)	88
H(11B)	8861(7)	2174(9)	3395(17)	88
H(IIĆ)	8572(7)	1115(9)	3976(17)	88

Table A3: Hydrogen coordinates  $(x10^4)$  and isotropic displacement parameters  $(\mathring{A}^2x10^3)$  for 36.

Atom	X	У	z	U(eq)
Sb	3165(1)	4544(1)	2049(1)	33(1)
Cl(1)	1827(3)	3482(1)	1608(2)	74(1)
Cl(2)	3405(2)	4007(1)	3579(1)	55(1)
Cl(3)	2944(2)	5089(1)	508(1)	44(1)
Cl(4)	4459(2)	5642(1)	2476(2)	54(1)
Cl(5)	5009(2)	3850(1)	1546(2)	55(1)
Cl(6)	1311(2)	5262(2)	2522(2)	71(1)
Cl(1')	6996(4)	2488(2)	931(3)	114(2)
Cl(2')	9682(3)	2059(2)	1213(3)	90(1)
O(1)	2266(5)	10674(3)	174(4)	38(2)
O(3)	3389(5)	9738(3)	855(3)	32(2)
O(8)	2262(5)	10616(3)	2264(3)	36(2)
O(10)	2110(7)	10537(4)	3833(4)	54(2)
C(2)	3397(8)	10365(5)	351(5)	36(2)
C(4)	2031(7)	9554(4)	1170(5)	32(2)
C(5)	1278(8)	10136(5)	521(6)	38(3)
C(6)	4561(9)	10724(5)	20(6)	51(3)
C(7)	2000(8)	9779(4)	2200(5)	34(2)
C(9)	2313(8)	10923(5)	3146(6)	39(3)
C(11)	2631(10)	11790(5)	3137(6)	53(3)
C(12)	8135(12)	1784(7)	878(11)	89(5)
C(1')	1750(7)	8694(4)	1021(5)	34(2)
C(2')	535(9)	8446(5)	742(6)	50(3)
C(3')	298(10)	7646(6)	632(7)	62(4)
C(4')	1203(12)	7081(6)	816(7)	63(4)
C(5')	2423(10)	7330(5)	1127(7)	55(3)
C(6')	2683(9)	8134(4)	1225(6)	46(3

Table A4:Atomic coordinates  $(x10^4)$  and equivalent isotropic displacement<br/>coefficients  $(Å^2x10^3)$  for 39.

Equivalent isotropic U defined as one third of the trace of the orthogonalized  $\mathbf{U}_{ij}$  tensor

Atom	Un	U ₂₂	U ₃₃	U ₁₂	U ₁₃	U ₂₃
Sb	25(1)	37(1)	35(1)	-2(1)	-2(1)	1(1)
Cl(1)	83(2)	55(1)	85(2)	-36(1)	-49(2)	28(1)
Cl(2)	59(1)	69(1)	36(1)	-5(1)	-2(1)	8(1)
Cl(3)	46(1)	46(1)	41(1)	-1(1)	-10(1)	9(1)
CI(4)	47(1)	47(1)	66(1)	-11(1)	-17(1)	-5(1)
Cl(5)	55(1)	64(1)	47(1)	28(1)	2(1)	-1(1)
CI(6)	37(1)	93(2)	84(2)	19(1)	20(1)	6(1)
CI(1')	108(3)	87(2)	146(3)	59(2)	-14(3)	-11(2)
Cl(2')	62(2)	66(2)	141(3)	-24(1)	-4(2)	4(2)
O(Ì)	36(3)	38(3)	40(3)	-2(2)	-3(2)	7(2)
O(3)	24(3)	40(3)	32(3)	2(2)	-1(2)	8(2)
O(8)	49(3)	33(3)	27(3)	5(2)	-1(2)	1(2)
O(10)	70(4)	63(4)	29(3)	2(3)	4(3)	0(3)
C(2)	39(5)	43(4)	28(4)	-3(4)	-6(3)	0(3)
C(4)	23(4)	38(4)	34(4)	3(3)	1(3)	8(3)
C(5)	34(5)	43(4)	38(4)	4(4)	3(4)	4(4)
C(6)	47(5)	63(6)	42(5)	-18(5)	1(4)	12(4)
C(7)	38(4)	31(4)	34(4)	2(3)	2(4)	6(3)
C(9)	38(4)	42(4)	39(5)	13(4)	-1(3)	5(4)
C(11)	65(6)	42(4)	52(5)	7(4)	-5(5)	-8(4)
C(12)	56(7)	57(6)	156(13)	0(6)	-9(9)	-8(7)
C(1')	30(4)	39(4)	33(4)	0(4)	3(3)	5(3)
C(2')	42(5)	47(5)	59(5)	-6(4)	-5(4)	5(4)
C(3')	60(6)	61(6)	63(6)	-24(5)	-13(5)	7(5)
C(4′)	86(8)	46(5)	55(6)	-9(5)	17(5)	7(5)
C(5')	53(6)	40(5)	71(6)	0(4)	-2(5)	-1(4)
C(6')	46(5)	38(5)	53(5)	2(4)	-2(4)	0(4)

Table A5: Anisotropic displacement coefficients ( $Å^2x10^3$ ) for 39.

The anisotropic displacement exponent takes the form:  $-2\pi^2(h^2a^{*2}U_{11} + ... + 2hka^{*}b^{*}U_{12})$ 

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Atom	x	У	Z	U
H(5A)	952	9845	-126	70
H(5B)	754	10322	713	70
H(6A)	4373	11065	-506	108
H(6B)	5235	10364	-153	108
H(6C)	4831	11036	552	108
H(7A)	2642	9487	2541	52
H(7B)	1169	9666	2462	52
H(11A)	2813	11935	3781	108
H(11B)	1922	12098	2907	108
H(11C)	3374	11889	2752	108
H(12A)	7872	1356	1281	300
H(12B)	8177	1603	234	300
H(2'A)	-131	8827	627	80
H(3'A)	-533	7482	412	80
H(4'A)	1007	6529	741	80
H(5'A)	3078	6947	1267	80
H(6'A)	3514	8306	1438	80

Table A6:H-Atom coordinates  $(x10^4)$  and isotropic displacement<br/>coefficients  $(Å^2x10^3)$  for 39.

Table A7: Observed and calculated structure factors for 36.

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