Metal σ -Hydrocarbyls, MR $_n$. Stoichiometry, Structures, Stabilities, and Thermal Decomposition Pathways †

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I. Introduction and General Considerations

The purpose of this article is to assess metal σ -hydrocarbyls from the standpoint primarily of the range of known compounds and their stability. We shall deal with homo- and heteroleptic compounds. In this context definitions are as follows: a homoleptic metal σ -hydrocarbyl is a species of the formula $(MR_n)_x$, in which M is an element other than H, C, O, Na, K, Rb, Cs, Ca, Sr, Ba, chalcogen, halogen, or rare gas (the alkali and alkaline earth metals are excluded, because their organometallic complexes are ionic), and R is generally a monohapto hydrocarbyl group, including an alkyl, aralkyl, alkenyl, alkynyl, or aryl group, or a substituted derivative thereof; "stability" is clearly a relative term and refers to thermal robustness under vacuum or in an anhydrous, anaerobic, inert atmosphere. The adjective "homoleptic" is preferred to "binary", which is appropriate only for $(MX_n)_y$ in which X represents a single atom. [For such compounds the term "isoleptic" has been used in the same context (Inorg. Syn., 13, 73 (1970)). We prefer to reserve it to describe the relationship between two or more compounds; e.g., each of the following pairs is isoleptic: (i) SiMe4 and TiMe4 and (ii) Me₃SiCl and Me₃TiCl. Compounds i are homoleptic and ii are heteroleptic. We thank Drs. J. G. Stamper and R. A. Jackson for pointing out these distinctions.¹] The species $(MX_nX'_m)_v$ is termed heteroleptic.1

Attention will focus on neutral complexes, but reference will also be made to anions and cations, radical anions, and metal-centered free radicals, RnM. The last-named are discussed because it is illogical to consider paramagnetic transition metal alkyls such as CrR'3 and not a species such as $R'_{2}Sn \cdot [R' = (Me_{3}Si)_{2}CH]$. We shall consider homoleptic metal σ -hydrocarbyls with reference to stoichiometry, structure, and bonding; and all hydrocarbyls from the standpoint of stability and thermal decomposition pathways (section III). We aim to provide a comprehensive survey including publications up to November 1974 (and in section V, up to November 1975), but for main group element homoleptic complexes there will be a considerable element of selection and primary references discussed in a review of 19672 will not all be referred to again. Other reviews 1-7 will also be used occasionally in place of primary data; we have recently provided an account of homoleptic metal alkyls in the context of our researches in this area;1 more general surveys are also available.8-10

Progress in the chemistry of metal σ -hydrocarbyls may be considered in three phases. The first starts with Frankland's discovery¹¹ in 1849 of ZnEt₂ and continues until about 1960. In this period homoleptic metal σ -hydrocarbyls were described for most of the main group (but none of the transition) elements, albeit only in the higher oxidation states for elements such as Hg, Tl, Sn, or Pb; the present position for neutral and ionic complexes of these elements, summarized in Table I, was already largely then established.² Unsuccessful attempts to prepare simple transition metal derivatives led to the generalization that they are much less stable than their main group element analogues³ and that transition metalcarbon bonds are weak, a view supported by calculations. 12 The existence of numerous radicals such as MeHg. or Me₂P. was inferred from kinetics, e.g., thermolysis or photolysis of HgMe₂ or PMe₃.4,5

The second phase corresponds roughly to the next decade and marks significant progress in the transition metal chemistry of the σ -hydrocarbyl ligand⁶ and the characterization, particularly by ESR, of several metal-centered radicals especially of group 4 elements Si, Ge, Sn, Pb. 13 Homoleptic transition metal compounds were unusual and the known compounds were highly unstable; e.g., TiMe₄ decomposed at low temperature, 14 but numerous stable complexes having "stabilizing ligands", e.g., 15 cis-[PtMe₂(PEt₃)₂], were prepared. Many of these "stabilizing ligands" were potential π acceptors, such as CO, PR₃, or η^5 -C₅H₅. A general theory of transition metal σ -hydrocarbyl stability emphasized ground-state electronic effects. $^{6.15}$ It was proposed that the initial step in the decomposition of a metal σ -hydrocarbyl is the promotion of an electron from the highest filled orbital to a vacant

[†] Reprints not available from authors.

<code>TABLE</code> I. Representative Stable Homoleptic Main Group Element σ -Hydrocarbyls a

Group 12	Group 2 ^{2,50}	2 2,50	Group 32,37,91	19,191	Group 4 ^{2,92}	2,92	Group	Group 5 ^{2,93}
Neutral Ionic	Neutral	lonic	Neutral	Ionic	Neutral	lonic	Neutral	lonic
$(LiR)_n$ E.g., Bun, $n = 6$ But $n = 4$	$(BeR_2)_n$ Me, $n = 1$ (vapor) $n = \infty$ (solid)	$\lfloor BeEt_3 \rfloor^-$ $\lfloor BePh_3 \rfloor^-$	BR ₃	$[BAr_3] \cdot [BAr_3]^{2}$ $[BR_1]$	$M[CH(SiMe_3)_2]_2$ $M = Ge_1^{25}$ $Sn^{26} \text{ (dimeric as }$	$[MR_3]^-$ $M = Si, ^{96} Ge,$ Sn, Ph	$(MR)_n$ M = P, n = 4, 5, 6 M = Ac, n = 5 (Me)	$[MPh_4]^+$ M = P, As, Sb, Bi
(benzene soln)	$Bu^t, n = 1$ $Pri, Bu^n, Bu^i,$ $n = 2$	$[BeMe_4]^{2^-}$ $[Be(C = CPh)_4]^{2^-}$	$(AIR_3)_n$ E.g., Me, $n = 2$ Pri, Me ₃ CCH ₂ , $n = 1$	[AIR ₄]	solid ²⁵), Pb ²⁶ $(MR_2)_n$ M = Si, Ge, Sn	2 - - - -	n = 6 (Ph) $(MR_2)_2$ $M = P_1 \text{ As, Sb}$	$[M(\circ -C_{s}H_{4}C_{s}H_{4}\circ \circ)_{2}]^{+}$ $M = P_{1}$ As
	$(MgR_2)_n$	[MgPh ₃]-	$(GaR_3)_n$	$[GaMe_3]_2^{2^-}$	$n = 4, 5, 6$ $M(CH(S;M_{e}))$		a W	$[SbMe_3]^{2+}$
	n=2 Me, Et, $n=\infty$	$[ZnPh,]^-$	n = 1; but for Vi, $n = 2$	$[GaMe_4]^-$	$M = Ge_1^{23} Sn^{28}$ $R(MR_1)_n R$		M = P, As, Sb, Bi $MR.$	M = P, As, Sb
	ZnR_2	$[ZnR_3]_2^{2}$	$(InR_3)_n$ $n = 1 \cdot \text{but for Me}$	$[InR_4]^{-142}$	W. Z. and A. and		M = P, As, Sb, Bi R = Pb	$[BiPh_2]^-$
		$[ZnR_4]^{2-}$			MR_4		M = As, R = Me ^{96a}	[SbPh _e]
	CdR_{2}	$\frac{[CdPh_3]^-}{[Cd(C = CR)_4]^{2^-}}$	n = 4 (solid) $(TIR_3)_n$ n = 1; but for Me,	$[Tl(C \cong CR)_4]^-$			M - 30, K - Me	$[M(0 - \zeta_{e}H_{4} \cdot C_{e}H_{4} - 0)_{3}]$ $M = P, As$
	HgR_2	(R = H, Ph)	n = 1 (solution) n = 4 (solid)					
a R = a ky or aryl, unle	d R = alkyl or aryl, unless specified below the compound concerned; Ar = aryl; Vi = vinyl.	mpound concerned;	Ar = aryl; Vi = vinyl.					

 σ^* -antibonding orbital. Thus, stability was favored by increasing the energy difference between these orbitals, which in turn was encouraged by strong σ -donor ligands which stabilize bonding orbitals and destabilize the σ^* -orbital whereas π -acceptor ligands lower the energy of d orbitals of the metal by π -bond formation. This analysis provided satisfactory rationalization of other data: e.g., (i) that metal σ -hydrocarbyls were (then) predominantly found for complexes in which the metal was in a low oxidation state; (ii) that for an isostructural series of transition metal alkyls stability was believed to increase from left to right along a transition metal series and from top to bottom down the series, i.e., stability is maximized in a heavy late transition metal such as Pt; and (iii) that for hydrocarbyls, stability decreased in the sequence o-aryl > Ph > alkyl. (Many of the results which emerged from the third phase provide contradictory data to such propositions,1 and the role of "stabilizing" ligands such as CO, PR3, or η^5 -C₅H₅⁻ is seen as depending on their firm occupation of coordination sites.)

The third phase, much concerned with transition metal complexes, dates from the independent suggestion from two groups 16,17 that such metal-carbon bonds are not inherently weak and that complexes can be made kinetically stable by choice of suitable ligands. The β -elimination pathway is an important decomposition route (vide infra), and ligands such as $Me_3SiCH_2^-$, $Me_3CCH_2^-$, or $PhCH_2^-$, which have no β -hydrogen atoms, often lead to stable complexes. 1,8,9 Several other ligands have since been used to generate stable neutral or ionic homoleptic transition metal complexes [Tables II and III: although not comprehensive, these are intended to show representative complexes which are reasonably stable at ca. 0 °C (e.g., TiMe4 is not included), and which have been characterized, omitting minor variations on the same theme; e.g., Me₃CCH₂⁻ is listed, but not PhMe₂CCH₂⁻ or Ph₃CCH₂⁻. A complete list of "neopentyl-type" complexes, including the ligands Me₃SiCH₂⁻, (Me₃Si)₂CH⁻, Me₃CCH₂⁻, Me₃SnCH₂⁻, o-MeOC₆H₄SiMe₂CH₂⁻, Me₂PhSiCH₂⁻, MePh₂SiCH₂⁻, Me₂PhCCH₂⁻, and Ph₃CCH₂⁻, has appeared elsewhere. 1] Ligands which have been used as a source of stable homoleptic transition metal σ -hydrocarbyls may be divided into the five classes, 1-5 of Table IV (for details, see Tables II and III). The stability of the complexes is largely attributable to the high activation energy for decomposition, which is a consequence of the absence of β - or α -H on the ligand and/or steric crowding around the central metal which thus has no readily available vacant coordination site. Some of the ligands are bidentate (class 5, Table IV), and this offers chelating possibilities, in principle, of two differing types I or II; e.g.,

Me₂P
$$\stackrel{\text{CH}_2}{\leftarrow}$$
 (-)¹⁸ or o-MeOC₆H₄SiMe₂CH₂⁻¹⁹

Ligands such as $Me_3SiCH_2^-$ must not be regarded intrinsically as "stabilizing". In practice, they often provide kinetic stability for a complex, in part by virtue of steric hindrance to access to the central metal atom of the complex. However, they can in principle decrease stability by steric acceleration; for example, the compound $[(Ph_3P)_3RhCH_2SiMe_3]$ is less stable than $[(Ph_3P)_3RhMe]$, presumably because elimination leading to III is encouraged by the bulkier ligand. Similarly, many bulky phosphines cause enhanced tendency for such

TABLE II. Stable Neutral Homoleptic Transition Metal Alkyls a

Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6	Group 7	Gro	up 8	Group 1
ScR ₃ o-MeOC ₆ H ₄ SiMe ₂ CH ₂ , 19 Ph, 97 PhC==C 97 YR ₃ (Me ₃ Si) ₂ CH, 76 Ph 97 Lanthanides YbR ₃ (Me ₃ Si) ₂ CH 76b EuR ₂ R'C==C 98 Actinides ThR ₄ PhCH ₂ 99	$(TiR_2)_n$ $PhCH_2^{100} Ph^{101}$ $(TiR_3)_n$ $(Me_3Si)_2CH (n = 1),^{76}$ $(NC)_3C,^{102}$ $C(CI) = NMe^{273}$ TiR_4 $Me_3SiCH_2,^{16}$ $Me_3CCH_2,^{90}$ $norbornyI,^{75}$ $PhCH_2,^{103} Ph,^{104}$ 1 -adamantyI,^{105} $Me_3SnCH_2,^{252}$ $C(CI) = NMe^{273}$ ZrR_4 $Me_3SiCH_2,^{16}$ $Me_3CCH_2,^{90}$ $norbornyI,^{75}$ $PhCH_2,^{103}$ $Me_3SnCH_2,^{252}$ $CI = NMe_2^{273}$ HfR_4 $Me_3SiCH_2,^{16}$ $Me_3CCH_2,^{90}$ $norbornyI,^{75}$ $PhCH_2,^{103}$ $Me_3CCH_2,^{90}$ $norbornyI,^{75}$ $PhCH_2,^{106}$ $C(CI) = NMe^{273}$	(VR ₃) _n (Me ₃ Si) ₂ CH (n = 1), ⁷⁶ (NC) ₃ C ¹⁰² VR ₄ Me ₃ SiCH ₂ , ¹⁷ norbornyl, ⁷⁵ PhCH ₂ ²⁷⁴ NbR ₄ C ₆ F ₅ ¹⁰⁷ TaR ₅ Me ³⁸	CrR ₂ o-MeOC ₆ H ₄ ¹⁰⁸ Cr ₂ R ₄ Me ₂ P(CH ₂) ₂ ¹⁰⁹ CrR ₃ (Me ₃ Si) ₂ CH, ⁷⁶ trimethyl- norbornyl, ⁷⁵ Me ₂ P(CH ₂) ₂ , ⁷³ o-CH ₂ PPh ₂ C ₆ H ₄ , ⁷³ o-R ₂ NCH ₂ C ₆ H ₄ , ⁶ CrR ₄ Me ₃ SiCH ₂ , ⁷⁷ Me ₃ CCH ₂ , ⁷⁹ Bu ^t , ¹¹⁰ norbornyl ⁷⁵ Mo ₂ R ₄ Me ₂ P(CH ₂) ₂ ¹⁰⁹ , ²⁷⁵ Mo ₂ R ₆ Me ₃ SiCH ₂ ¹⁷ , ⁶¹ Me ₃ CCH ₂ ¹¹¹ W ₂ R ₆ Me ₃ SiCH ₂ ¹¹⁷ , ⁶¹ WR ₄ PhCH ₂ ¹¹² WR ₅ C ₆ F ₅ ¹⁰⁷	MnR ₂ Me ₃ SiCH ₂ , ²⁷⁷ Me ₃ CCH ₂ ²⁷⁷ MnR ₄ norbornyl ⁷⁵ 2,2,3- ReR ₆ Me ⁴⁰ , ²⁷⁶	FeR o-C ₆ H ₄ CH ₂ NMeCH ₂ - CH ₂ NMeC ₆ H ₄ -o ¹¹³ FeR ₄ norbornyl ⁷⁵ CoR ₃ o-R' ₂ NCH ₂ - C ₆ H ₄ ¹¹⁴ CoR ₄ norbornyl ⁷⁵	NiR ₂ o-Ph ₂ PC ₆ H ₄ CH ₂ , ¹¹⁵ Ph ₃ C, ¹¹⁶ 2,4,6-Me ₃ C ₆ H ₂ ²⁷⁸ Ni ₂ R ₄ Me ₂ P(CH ₂) ₂ 66a,74b,d (2 isomers) PdR ₂ o-Ph ₂ PC ₆ H ₄ CH ₂ , ¹¹⁵ o-R' ₂ NCH ₂ C ₆ H ₄ ¹¹⁷ PtR ₂ o-R' ₂ PC ₆ H ₄ - CH ₂ , ¹¹⁵ , ¹¹⁸ o-R' ₂ NCH ₂ C ₆ H ₄ , ¹¹⁷ o-allylC ₆ H ₄ , ¹¹⁹ (Pt ₂ R ₆) _n Me ⁶	$m \cdot \text{CF}_3 \text{C}_6 \text{H}_4 (n = 8),^{12}$ $o \cdot \text{R'}_2 \text{NCH}_2 \text{C}_6 \text{H}_4 (n = 4),^{123,279,280}$

 $WR_{_{\mathbf{6}}}$ Me 39,276

 $a_{R'}$, R'' = an alkyl group.

TABLE III. Stable Ionic Homoleptic Transition Metal Alkyls^a

Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6		Gror.	Group 8	Group 1
Lanthanides $[LaR_4]^-$ Ph 97	[TiR ₂] - o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷	[VR ₃] ³⁻ 7 o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷		[CrR ₅] ²⁻ Ph ¹⁴¹	[MnR ₂] ²⁻ o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷	[FeR ₂] ²⁻ o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷	$[CuR_2]^-$ $o-R_2'NCH_2C_6H_4^{149}m-MeC_6H_4^{120}$ $MeC = C_1^{150}PhC = C_1^{150}$
$[PrR_4]^-$ Ph 97 $[LuR_4]^-$	$[TiR_5]^-$ Me ¹³⁷	$[VR_6]^{4-}$ Ph 6	$[CrR_3]^{3-}$ - (CH_2) - $_{40\Gamma_5}^6$	$[CrR_6]^{3-}$ Me, 6,70 Ph^6	$[MnR_2]^-$ o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷	$[FeR_4]^{2-}$ Me 146	$[CuR_3]^{2-}$ HC=C, ¹⁵⁰ MeC=C, ¹⁵⁰
2,6-Me ₂ C ₆ H ₃ ¹³⁶	$[ZrR_{_{m{6}}}]^{2^{-}}$ Me $^{_{41}}$	$[NbR_6]^{4-}$ Ph 318	$[CrR_3]^{37}$ $o-C_6H_4OC_6H_4-o^{317}$	$[{Mo}_2{R}_8]^{4-}$ Me 72	[<i>MnR</i> ₃] - Me ¹⁴⁴	$[FeR_6]^{2-}$ HC=C, ¹⁴⁷ MeC=C, ¹⁴⁷	PhC==C ¹⁵⁰
Actinides $[UR_6]^{2-}$ Me ₃ SiCH ₂ , ²⁷⁷ o-Me ₂ NCH ₂ C ₆ H ₄ ²⁷⁷	7	[<i>NbR</i> ₇] ³⁻ Ph ¹³⁸	$[CrR_3]^{2-}$ - (CH_2) - $_5^6$	$[MoR_6]^{3-}$ Ph 143	$[MnR_4]^{2-}$ HC==C; ¹⁴⁵ MeC==C; ¹⁴⁵ PhC==C ¹⁴⁵	PhC \equiv C ¹⁴⁷ $[CoR_2]^{2-}$ o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷	$[CuR_2]^+$ Me_3PCH_2 , $^{74C}Me_3P(Me_3Si)CH$, 74 $Ph_3PCHR'(R' = H, Me, or Pr^i)^{28}$
		$[TaR_6]^-$ Ph 282	$[Cr_2R_6]^{2-}$ Ph 6 $[CrR_4]^{2-}$	$[WR_{5}]^{-}$ $C_{6}F_{5}^{107}$ $[WR_{6}]^{2-}$	Me ^{2 76}	[CoR ₃] ³⁻ o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷	$[AgR_2]^-$ $o-R'_2NCH_2C_6H_4$, $^{151}C_6F_5$, 152 $HC = C$, $^{153}MeC = C$, 153 $PhC = C^{153}$
			Ph ¹³⁹ , Me ⁶	Ph ⁶		$[CoR_4]^{2^-}$ Me, 276	$[AgR_2]^+$
			$[CrR_4]^-$ Me ₃ SiCH ₂ , ¹⁷ Me ₃ CCH ₂ ⁷⁹ Ph ³²⁰	$[WR_{_8}]^{\frac{1}{2}-}$ Me $^{^{276}}$		$Me_3SiCH_2^{276}$ $[CoR_6]^{4-}$	$Ph_3PCHR'(R' = H, Me, or Pr^i)^2$
			$[Cr_2R_8]^{4-}$			HC=C,148 MeC=C148	$[AuR_2]^-$ HC==C, ¹⁵⁴ PhC==C, ¹⁵⁴ o-Me,NCH,C ₆ H ₄ , ²⁸⁵
			Me ¹⁴⁰			[NiR ₂] ²⁻ o-C ₆ H ₄ OC ₆ H ₄ -o ³¹⁷	$[AuR_4]^-$
						[<i>NiR</i> ₄] ²⁻ Ph, ²⁸³ Me ²⁸³	Me^{286} $[AuR_2]^+$ $Me_3P(Me_3Si)CH,^{18}$
						$[PtR_{6}]^{2-}$ Me 321	Me ₃ PCH ₂ ^{18,287,288}

 $^{^{}a}$ R' = an alkyl group. The entries in this table are not intended to infer the presence of discrete [MR $_{x}$] $^{n-}$ ions. It is likely that many involve alkyl bridging between the transition metal and the metal "cation"; cf. Li $_{3}$ CrMe $_{6}$ '3dioxane.

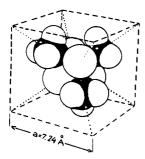


Figure 1. The crystal and molecular structure of (LiMe)4: 158 Li ... Li, 2.56 Å; Li-C, 2.27 Å; Me ··· Me, 3.68 Å.

ortho metalation.21 [Other factors which have influenced our choice of ligands such as Me₃SiCH₂⁻, Me₃CCH₂⁻, or (Me₃-Si)₂CH⁻ include good hydrocarbon solubility, simple ¹H NMR or ESR spectra, and analogy with (Me₃Si)₂N⁻¹ (a review on these and related ligands is available 306) which is isoelectronic with (Me₃Si)₂CH⁻ and often yields stable metal amides of low coordination number (especially 3).22-24 In this connection, stable amidometal-centered radicals [(Me₃Si)₂N]₃M· (s1 complexes)23 and the s2 complexes [(Me₃Si)₂N]₂M' 24 have been prepared (M = Ge or Sn; M' = M or Pb).

The same concepts must be valid for main group element derivatives: a contribution has been the isolation of the stable yellow germanium(II),25 red tin(II),26 and purple lead(II),26 dialkyls MR'_2 [R' = $(Me_3Si)_2CH$] which are monomeric in solution (C₆H₆ or c-C₆H₁₂) although SnR'₂ is dimeric in the solid (section II); by contrast, attempts to prepare the less bulky MR_2 (R = Me_3CCH_2) yield M_2R_{6} . 27

As kinetic stability is proposed as the underlying factor, it is appropriate to identify decomposition pathways (see section III). We hope to show that main group and transition element homoleptic σ -hydrocarbyls are qualitatively similar, with quantitative differences relating to the greater readiness of transition metals to (i) expand their coordination sphere and/or (ii) afford lower energy d-orbital participation in transition states.

This third phase has also been marked by the identification of relatively stable metal-centered radicals RnM·, especially of Si, Ge, and Sn. 23,28 Notable among these is R'3Sn,28 which shows no sign of decomposition after 750 h in benzene at 20 °C in the dark. This, like related group 4 radicals (Me₃Si)₃C· and (Me₃C)₃C·, which decay by first-order processes,29 is kinetically stable; it is too sterically crowded to dimerize, and the low Sn-H bond strength provides no inducement for H-abstraction from solvent. R'3Ge+ is similarly stable at 20°.23 Early ideas of radical stability concentrated on ground-state thermodynamic, rather than kinetic, effects. This picture is changing: for example, for Ph₃C+ there is now less emphasis on electron delocalization than on difficulty of dimerization, first highlighted by the proof³⁰ that the dimer is IV and not hexaphenylethane.

$$Ph_3C$$
 Ph_2 Ph_2

The continuing study of metal σ -hydrocarbyls is relevant to various fields of endeavour. Such complexes feature as synthetic reagents (e.g., Grignard reagents or LiR), raw materials (e.g., Me₂SiCl₂ in silicones, or PbEt₄ in the petroleum industry), catalytic intermediates (e.g., alkyls of Ti in Ziegler-Natta polymerization), or in one case (vitamin B₁₂ coenzyme) of an essential biological material. A knowledge of their chemistry and especially of their structure, stability, and the making and breaking of M-C bonds is vital. New bonding situations are being discovered, e.g., single alkyl bridges in (Cu-

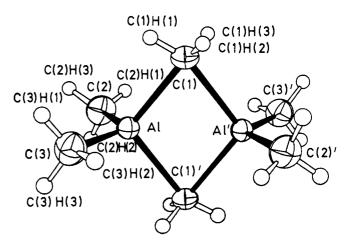


Figure 2. The crystal and molecular structure of (AlMe₃)₂:⁴² Al ··· Al, 2.606 Å; AI–C(1), 2.125 Å; AI–C(2), 1.956 Å; ∠C(2)–AI–C(3), 123.2°; ∠AI–C(1)–AI′, 75.7°.

CH₂SiMe₃)₄,³¹ and new areas of chemistry opened up, e.g., the polymerization of α -olefins by Al₂O₃- or SiO₂-supported zirconium(IV) alkyls32 or the coordination chemistry of heavy atom group IV donors such as $Sn[CH(SiMe_3)_2]_2$. 26,33,307

II. Structure, Bonding, and Some Ground-State **Properties**

From Tables I-III it is evident that homoleptic σ -hydrocarbylmetal complexes may be neutral or ionic. Cationic complexes are rare (except, possibly in mass spectrometry, and for Cul or Aul, see Table III); for example, siliconium ions, the analogues of carbonium ions, are unknown (but see ref 308), although solvated species such as [R₃Si(bpy)] + 34 or [R₂B(py)₂] + 35 are accessible. For coordinatively unsaturated anions, electron delocalization may be important; e.g., Ar₃Si⁻ but not R₃Si⁻ ions are readily obtained;³⁶ this may also be relevant for the radical anions $[Ar_3B] \cdot ^{-37}$ The instability of cationic species may be due to a facile irreversible decomposition pathway via a carbonium ion and/or to a bimolecular mechanism of decomposition which requires nucleophilic attack at the metal center. (On the other hand, hydrocarbyl metal groups exert a powerful stabilizing influence on neighboring carbenium ions, which has been discussed in terms of $\sigma - \pi$ conjugation. 309) Conversely, anionic complexes are often stable. The stoichiometry of stable homoleptic complexes varies from (MR) $_m$ (Li, Cu) to MR $_6$; TaMe $_5$, 38 WMe $_6$, 39 ReMe $_6$, 40 ZrMe $_6$ 2 $^{-41}$ and CrMe $_6$ 3 $^{-6}$ are noteworthy (class 3, Table IV) and illustrate the principle that even with small ligands the occupancy of a large number of coordination sites (coordination saturation) enhances stability.

The σ -hydrocarbyl group (e.g., R) is usually a terminal ligand (V), bonding to the metal via a two-electron-two-center bond. However, it may be bridging, as in the electron-deficient main group element compounds. For the lithium derivatives, an alkyl group bridges three metal atoms (VI), as in (LiMe)₄ (Figure 1),² and the bonding may be described in terms of two-electron-four-center orbitals. For Be, Mg, and All derivatives, two σ -hydrocarbyl groups bridge a pair of metal atoms (VII) (cf. Figures 2⁴² and 3⁴³). The phenyl bridge in (AIPh₃)₂ (Figure 3) or (AIMe₂Ph)₂⁴³ has a structure similar to that of a Wheland intermediate in electrophilic aromatic substitution; for an Os₃ cluster, bridging of two Os atoms by a single Ph group has been established.44 The recently discovered⁴⁵ (CuCH₂SiMe₃)₄ has a single alkyl bridge (VIII) for each pair of metal atoms (Figure 4),31 and it is to be expected that other examples of bridged σ-hydrocarbyls will be found elsewhere in transition metal chemistry [2 R groups (e.g., R = Me or Et) have been found to bridge a pair of group 3B metal

TABLE IV. Classification of Ligands Found in Stable Homoleptic Transition Metal σ -Hydrocarbyls^a

Characteristic features	Ligand type	Examples
1. A bulky alkyl ligand free from β -hydrogen atoms	(a) "NeopentyI-type" (R ₃ M') _m CH _{3-m} (m = 1, 2, or 3)	 (a) Generally favoring metal 4-coordination: Me₃SiCH₂⁻, Me₃CCH́₂⁻, Me₃SnCH₂⁻, Me₂PhSiCH₂⁻, MePh₂SiCH₂⁻, Me₂PhCCH₂⁻ Ph₃CCH₂⁻, [Me₃PCH₂, Me₃PC(SiMe₃)H] (b) Generally favoring metal 3-coordination: (Me₃Si)₂CH⁻
	(b) Another substituted alkyl	PhCH,- NCCH,-
 A bulky ligand free from α-hydrogen atoms 	(a) A bridge-head cycloalkyl	(a) Generally favoring metal 4-coordination: (1-norbornyl)
		(1-adamantyl) ⁻
		(b) Favoring metal 3-coordination: (2,2,3-trimethyl- Me
3. A simple alkyl ligand (a) Metal in high co- ordinate environ- ment	(b) A t-alkyl	Bu ^t - Me ⁻
(b) Miscellaneous ^c		$(NC)_3C^-$ $C_nF_{2n+1}^-b$
 An aryl, alkenyl, or alkynyl^d ligand 		$n \cdot C_6 H_{1,3} - c$ Ph^- , $C_6 F_5^-$, $R'N = \dot{C}(OR')^-$, $CF_3 CF = C(CF_3)^-$, $PhCH = CH^-$, $HC = C^-$, $PhC = C^-$
 A chelating σ-hydro- carbyl ligand 		o-MeOC ₆ H ₄ SiMe ₂ CH ₂ ⁻ RR'P(CH ₂) ₂ ⁻ (RR' = Me ₂ , Ph ₂ , or MePh) o-Ph ₂ PC ₆ H ₄ CH ₂ ⁻ (CH ₂) _{4 Or 5} ²⁻ o-R ₂ NCH ₂ C ₆ H ₄ ⁻
		(-) (-) (-) PPh ₂ CH ₂

 a For details of complexes, see Tables II and III. b These are incompletely characterized, in the context of Cu $^{\rm I}$. 155 c There is a claim for an incompletely characterized di- n -hexyldimercury(I). 156 d These are often explosive.

atoms in $\{(\eta - C_5H_5)_2MR\}_2$ (M = Y, Yb, Er, Ho, or Dy)³¹⁵ and in $(\eta - C_5H_5)_2MR_2AIR_2$ (M = Sc, Y, Yb, Er, Ho, Dy, Gd, or Ti)³¹⁰]. It is surprising that in this formally d¹⁰ Cu complex the four metal atoms are coplanar; bonding may involve linear (CCuC) coordination at Cu with metal–metal bonding relatively unimportant. In the solid state, InMe₃⁴⁶ and TIMe₃⁴⁷ are effectively tetrameric with a bridging situation as in VIII but unsymmetrical, M–C—M (cf.⁴⁷ Figure 5). A multicenter molecular orbital scheme may be used to describe the bonding in all these electron-deficient compounds (e.g., ref 48).

Steric effects often influence the state of molecular aggregation. This has been examined in some detail for alkyllithiums in C_6H_6 or C_6H_{12} by cryoscopy;⁴⁹ the compounds are

hexameric unless branching occurs at α or β carbon when a tetramer (but no smaller aggregate) is favored. Dimethylberyllium is a polymer with Be atoms in a tetrahedral environment, but the hot vapor is largely monomeric;50 the diethyl homologue is dimeric in C₆H₆ or C₆H₁₂ by cryoscopy; BeBu^t₂ is a monomer at ambient temperature in the vapor, and many diarylberylliums are dimeric in C₆H₆.51 Dimethylmagnesium has a polymeric structure similar to the Be analogue in the crystal,52 and the more hindered MgPr12 is a dimer in the vapor. Tris(trimethylsilylmethyl)alane is a mixture of monomer and dimer in benzene, by cryoscopy.53 The possibility of chelation (II) by an ω -alkenyl ligand in the corresponding alane is strongly indicated by ¹H NMR and cryoscopic molecweight measurements;54 thus, whereas [(CH₂)₃CH₃]₃}₂ is a dimer, the unsaturated analogue AI-[(CH₂)₂CH=CH₂]₃ is monomeric and probably has structure IX. Compounds TI(Hal)R2 are polymers, unless R is a bulky group such as Me₃SiCH₂, when they exist as dimers in solution with di- μ -halide bridges. ⁵⁵ Electron diffraction ⁵⁶ and vibrational spectroscopy⁵⁷ have shown that the group 3 tri-

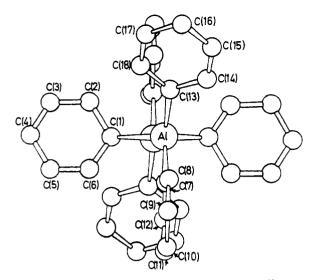


Figure 3. The crystal and molecular structure of (AIPh₃)₂:⁴³ AI ··· AI, 2.702 Å; AI-C(1), 2.184 Å; AI-C(7), 1.960 Å; \angle C(1)-AI-C(1'), 103.5°; \angle C(1)-AI-C(7), 108.4°; \angle C(1)-AI-C(13), 111.5°; AI-C(1)-Al', 76.5°

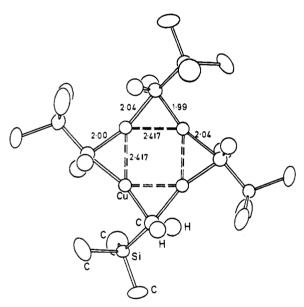


Figure 4. The crystal and molecular structure of (CuCH₂SiMe₃)₄:31 Cu-Cu, 2.417 Å; Cu-C (mean), 2.02 Å; ∠C-Cu-C, 164°; Cu₄C₄Si₂ coplanar; centrosymmetric.

methyls, other than the dimeric Al₂Me₆ (a monomer of D_{3h} symmetry also exists⁵⁸), are monomeric (D_{3h}) in the vapor phase. He(I) photoelectron spectroscopy shows that the (AIMe₃)₂ dimeric vapor dissociates into the monomer upon heating, with orbital ionization potentials (and hence structures) similar to those of the other monomers MMe3;59 cryoscopic measurements⁶⁰ and vibrational data⁵⁷ suggest that TIMe₃ is monomeric also in solution in benzene. The new dialkyls of $Ge^{II,25}$ $Sn^{II,26}$ and $Pb^{II 26}$ MR'_2 [R' = $(Me_3Si)_2CH$] are also monomeric by cryoscopy in benzene or cyclohexane. However, in the crystalline state the tin compound is a dimer R'2Sn-SnR'2 (Figure 625), with bond angles at Sn intermediate between sp2 and sp3 hybridization at the metal and a Sn-Sn bond length similar to that found in (SnPh₃)₂ and

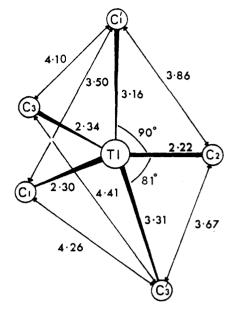


Figure 5. The crystal and molecular structure of (TiMe₃)₄:⁴⁷ Ti–C(1), 2.30 Å; Ti–C(1), 3.16 Å; Ti–C(2), 2.22 Å; Ti ···· Ti, 5.46 Å; ∠Ti(1)–C(1)–Ti(2), 180°; ∠Ti(1)–C(3)–Ti(3), 170°; ∠C(1)–Ti–C(2), 131°; ∠C(2)–Ti–C(3), 110°; ∠C(1)–Ti–C(3), 118°.

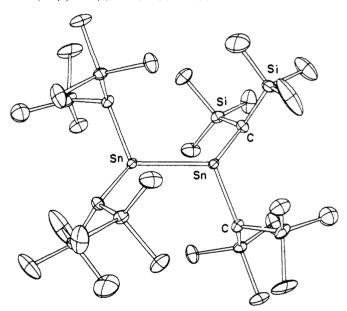


Figure 6. The crystal and molecular structure of $Sn[CH(SiMe_3)_2]_2$ (ref. 25): Sn-Sn, 2.76 Å; Sn-C, 2.17 Å; Zn-Sn-C (mean), 115°; ∠C-Sn-C, 112°.

slightly shorter than in tetrahedral metallic tin. The compound is diamagnetic in the solid, and the Sn-Sn bond may therefore have double bond character, possibly by $\mathrm{d}_\pi\mathrm{-d}_\pi$ rather than p_{π} - p_{π} overlap to be consistent with the long bond. That the Sn-Sn bond is weak is shown also by chemical behavior; e.g., SnR'2 reacts readily with [Cr(CO)6] to afford [R'2Sn-Cr(CO)₅], ²⁶ in which x-ray analysis shows the tin to be trigonal with C2SnCr coplanar and bond angles at Sn corresponding to sp² hybridization at tin.³³ However, this is a solution experiment, and SnR'2 is a monomer in solution.

For the neutral complexes listed in Table II, the only others for which x-ray structural parameters are available are shown in Figures 7,61 8,62 9,63 10,64 11,65 12,66 and 13,66a a closely related Nb compound (Figure 14)67 is not strictly within our terms of reference (but is relevant to section III), having a bridging carbene ligand,68 neither are the formally anionic chromium complexes which have alkyl bridges (VII) between Li and Cr (e.g., Figure 1569 and ref 70); cf., LiBMe4.71 The

Figure 7. The crystal and molecular structure of $[Mo(CH_2SiMe_3)_3]_2$ (ref. 61): Mo-Mo, 2.167 Å; Mo-CH₂, 2.131 Å; \angle Mo-Mo-CH₂, 100.6°; \angle Mo-CH₂-Si, 121.1°.

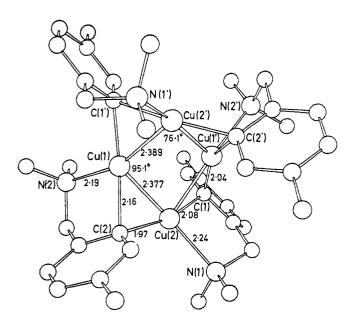


Figure 8. The crystal and molecular structure of (CuC₆H₄CH₂NMe₂-o)₄:⁶² Cu−Cu, 2.38 Å; Cu−C (mean), 2.1 Å; Cu−N, 2.19 Å; ∠Cu(2)–Cu(1)–Cu(2'), 95.1°; ∠Cu(1)–Cu(2')–Cu(1'), 76.1°.

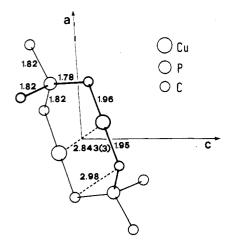


Figure 9. The crystal and molecular structure of $[Cu(CH_2)_2PMe_2]_2$:⁶³ Cu−C, 1.96 Å; P−CH₂, 1.78 Å; P−CH₃, 1.82 Å; Cu−Cu, 2.843 Å; ∠C−Cu−C, 175.8°; ∠CH₃−P−CH₃, 103.0°; ∠CH₂−P−CH₂, 112.1°; ∠Cu−C−P (mean), 108.4°.

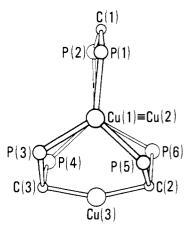


Figure 10. The crystal and molecular structure of $(CuPh_2PCHPPh_2)_3$. ⁶⁴

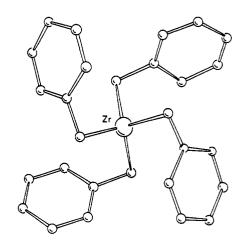


Figure 11. The crystal and molecular structure of $Zr(CH_2Ph)_4$:65 Zr-C (mean), 2.27 Å; $\angle C-Zr-C$ (mean), 95°.

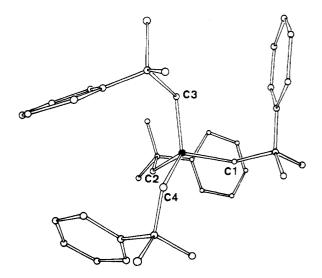


Figure 12. The crystal and molecular structure of $Cr(CH_2CMe_2Ph)_4$ (ref. 66): Cr-C, 2.05 Å; $\angle Cr-C-C$ (mean), 123.5°.

very short Mo–Mo distances in Mo₂(CH₂SiMe₃)₆ (Figure 7)⁶¹ and Li₄[Mo₂Me₈]·4C₄H₈O (Figure 16)⁷² have been attributed to a quadruple bond, and the large SiCH₂Mo angle in the former is probably caused by steric repulsion. Zr(CH₂Ph)₄ and Hf(CH₂Ph)₄ have a distorted tetrahedral structure in the crystal (Figure 11), with MCPh angles of ca. 90°.65 Ti(CH₂Ph)₄ is similar but \angle TiCPh averages 103°, whereas Sn(CH₂Ph)₄ is perfectly tetrahedral.65 It is possible that in the d° systems there is interaction between the metal and the π electrons.

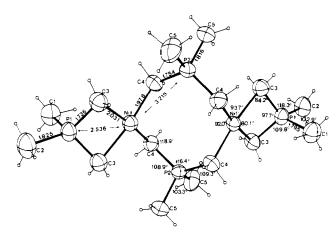


Figure 13. The crystal and molecular structure of Ni $_2$ [(CH $_2$) $_2$ PMe $_2$] $_4$ (ref. 66a): Ni(1)–C(3'), 2.031 Å; Ni(1)–C(4'), 1.978 Å; C(3')–P(1), 1.736 Å; P(1)–C(2), 1.825 Å; C(4')–P(2'), 1.754 Å; P(2')–C(5'''), 1.816 Å; bonds at nickel essentially square planar.

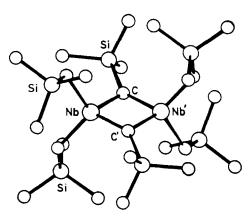


Figure 14. The crystal and molecular structure of (Me₃Si- $\label{eq:ch2} CH_2)_2 NbCSiMe_3 Nb(CH_2SiMe_3)_2 CSiMe_3 : ^{67} Nb-C \ (mean), \quad 1.974 \quad A;$ Nb-CH₂ (mean), 2.160 Å; ∠C-Nb-C, 85.6°; ∠Nb-C-Nb, 94.4°; Nb ... Nb. 2.897 Å; ∠Nb-C-Si, 119.8°; ∠Nb'-C-Si, 142.4°.

The coinage metal complexes with a phosphonium ylide ligand have been formulated as X (M = Cu, Ag, or Au); the

$$Me_2P$$
 CH_2
 M
 CH_2
 CH_2

same bidentate ligand R⁻ has been found in CrR₃⁷³ and Ni₂- $R_4^{66a, 74b, 74d}$ $[M(CH_2PMe_3)_2]^+CI^-$ and $\{Au[CH(SiMe_3)P-Me_3]_2\}^+CI^ (M = Cu,^{74a,c} Ag,^{74a,c} or Au^{18})$ (see also Figure 9), and complexes related to X {M₂[(CH₂)₂PMePh]₂} and {M₂[(CH₂)₂PPh₂]₂} have been prepared. Ni₂R₄ has been obtained in two isomeric forms;74d one of these is believed to have four equivalent -CH2-PMe2-CH2- bridges, and the other is shown in Figure 13.66a In Cr(CH2CMe2Ph)4, the CrCC angles (Figure 12) are significantly greater than the tetrahedral angle, with consequential dense packing of alkyl and aryl groups. 66 The only lanthanide homoleptic hydrocarbyl for which structural data are available is shown in Figure 17.136

From Tables I-III it is noted that the coordination number 4 is common, and coordination numbers greater than 5 are rare. Because of the bulk of "neopentyl-type" and some other σ -hydrocarbyl ligands, it is not surprising that metal coordination number in these cases is affected primarily by the nature of the ligand rather than oxidation state or electronic configuration of the metal, 1 e.g., MNor₄ (M = Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Zr, Hf; Nor = 1-norbornyl)⁷⁵ and M(CH₂SiMe₃)₄ (M = Ge, Sn, Pb, Ti, Zr, Hf, V, Cr, or Cr⁻), but variations on

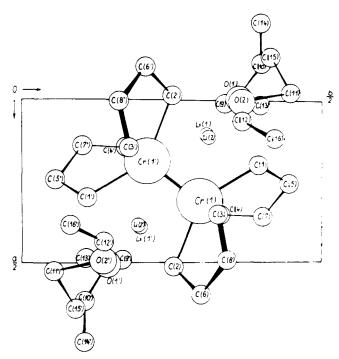


Figure 15. The crystal and molecular structure of $\text{Li}_4\text{Cr}_2(\text{C}_4\text{H}_8)_4$ 2THF:⁵⁹ Cr-Cr, 1.975 Å; Li-Cr, 2.54 Å; Li-CH₂ (mean), 2.47 Å; Li-O, 1.98 Å; $\angle \text{Cr}(1')$ -Cr(1)-C(1), 111.2°; Cr(1')-Cr(1)-C(2), 109.1°; $\angle Cr(1') - Cr(1) - C(3)$, 107.3°; Cr(1') - Cr(1) - C(4), 108.7°

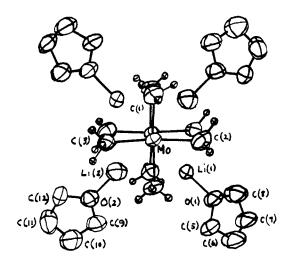


Figure 16. The crystal and molecular structure of Li₄(Mo₂Me₈)·4THF:⁷² Mo-Mo, 2.148 Å; Mo-C (mean), 2.29 Å; ∠Mo-Mo-C (mean), 105.8°. (The corresponding Cr computed as short Li ··· Cr contacts, and has been described as having a CrCr quadruple bond. (140)

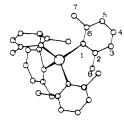


Figure 17. The crystal and molecular structure of Lu(C₆H₃Me₂)₄-: 136 Lu-C (mean), 2.45 Å; ∠C-Lu-C (mean), 110°.

these themes lead to lower coordination number or oxidation state, e.g., $[M(CH_2SiMe_3)_3]_2$ (M = Mo or W), 1 CrNor $'_3$ (Nor' = 2,2,3-trimethyl-1-norbornyl), 75 MR $^{\prime}_{3}$ [M = Si, 23 Ge, 23 Sn, 28 Y. 76 Yb, 76b Ti, 76 V, 76 or Cr; 76 R $^{\prime}$ = (Me $_{3}$ Si) $_{2}$ CH], 1 or MR $^{\prime}_{2}$ (M = Ge, Sn, or Pb). 1.25 It is interesting that the skeletal geome-

Bond	Ref compound	Bond energy term $(\overline{E}, \text{kcal mol}^{-1})^a$	Ref
Ge-C	GeMe₄	59	85
Ge-C	GeEt₄	57	85
Ge-N	Me ₃ Ge-NMe ₂	55	157
Ge-O	Me ₃ Ge-OEt	79	157
Ge-Cl	Me ₃ Ge-CI	81	85
Sn-C	SnMe₄	52	85
Sn-C	SnEt₄	46	85
Sn-N	$Me_3Sn-NMe_2$	41	157
Sn-O	Me₃Sn-OEt	66	157
Sn-Cl	Me₃Sn—CI	75	85
Ti-C	$Ti(CH_2CMe_3)_4$	44	86
Tì–C	Ti(CH ₂ SiMe ₃) ₄	64	86
Ti-C	Ti(CH ₂ Ph) ₄	63	86
Ti-N	Ti(NMe ₂) ₄	79	86
Ti-O	Ti(OPri) ₄	112	86
Ti-Cl	TiCl₄	103	85
Zr-C	$Zr(CH_2CMe_3)_4$	54	86
Zr-C	Zr(CH ₂ SiMe ₃) ₄	75	86
Zr–C	Zr(CH₂Ph)₄	74	86
Zr–N	$Zr(NMe_2)_4$	91	86
Zr–O	$Zr(OPr^i)_4$	136	86
Zr–Cl	ZrCl₄	117	85
Hf-C	$Hf(CH_2CMe_3)_4$	58	86
Hf-N	$Hf(NEt_2)_4$	95	86
Hf-O	$Hf(OPr^i)_4$	137	86
Hf–Cl	HfCl₄	119	85

 a An alternative way of describing bond strengths is in terms of the mean bond dissociation energy \overline{D} (M–X) when, e.g., \overline{D} (Ti–Cneopentyl) = 50 and \overline{D} (Ti–Cbenzyl) = 54 kcal mol⁻¹; the difference between the neopentyl and benzyl systems is disguised in the \overline{D} procedure by the considerably greater stability of PhCH₂ compared with Me₃CCH₂.

try for the MR₅ species approximates to D_{3h} for M = P or As, but $C_{4\nu}$ for M = Sb;² for MR₆ or MR₄ it is octahedral or tetrahedral, respectively. Coordination number 3 is associated with a skeletal D_{3h} arrangement (e.g., in BMe₃ and probably CrR'₃) or $C_{3\nu}$ (e.g., in PMe₃). Two-coordination leads to a linear (e.g., HgMe₂) or bent ($C_{2\nu}$) configuration. The latter may be present in SnR'₂ in solution or vapor; it appears from its diamagnetism in solution at ambient temperature to exist there as a singlet rather than triplet. ²⁶ SbMe₅ has long been known,² but AsMe₅ has only recently been prepared. ^{96a} Attempts to obtain PMe₅ have provided the reactive ylide Me₃PCH₂, the transition metal chemistry of which has been exploited. ^{18,74} There has been some discussion of short formally nonbonding H···M contacts, as in M'-C-H···M, exemplified for cyclohexyllithium^{76a} and LiBeMe₄. ⁷¹

The very high values for metal (29 Si, 73 Ge, 117 Sn, and 119 Sn) hyperfine coupling constants (ESR) indicate that the group 4 metal-centered radicals R' $_3$ M· [R' = (Me $_3$ Si) $_2$ CH] are pyramidal. $^{23.28}$ For a metal-centered three-coordinate radical A $_3$ M· there is a trend toward planarity which is a function of electronegativity difference between M and A and thus alkyl radicals are flat; in the isoelectronic series Me $_3$ Al·-, Me $_3$ Si·, and Me $_3$ P·+ radicals become flatter across the periodic table, 77 and in the series (Me $_3$ Si) $_3$ - $_n$ Me $_n$ Si· as the Me groups are replaced by the less electronegative Me $_3$ Si there is a trend towards planarity. 78

The isolation of paramagnetic homoleptic transition metal compounds (Table II) is noteworthy, because such species were until recently essentially unknown even with "stabilizing" ligands. Magnetic and ESR data are available, especially for the Cr^{IV} complexes. 17,79,80 Electronic configurations of stable neutral homoleptic σ -hydrocarbyls now range from a rare gas core (YIII, YbIII, TiIV, ZrIV, HfIV, TaV, WVI, and

light main group element ions), to s¹ (Si^{III}, Ge^{III}, Sn^{III}), s² (Ge^{II}, Sn^{III}), d¹ (Ti^{III}, V^{IV}, Re^{VI}), d² (Ti^{II}, V^{III}, Cr^{IV}, and W^{IV}), d³ (Cr^{III}, Mo^{III}, W^{III}, Mn^{IV}), d⁴ (Cr^{II}, Fe^{IV}), d⁵ (Co^{IV}), d⁶ (Fe^{II}, Co^{III}), d⁶ (Ni^{II}, Pd^{II}, Pt^{II}), and d¹⁰ (Cu^I, Ag^I, Au^I, and heavy main group metal ions) (see Tables I–III). The stabilization of high and unusual metal oxidation states by σ -hydrocarbyl ligands is noted; FeNor₄ is the first example not only of a stable homoleptic Fe σ -hydrocarbyl, but also of a low-spin Fe^{IV} complex. T⁵ Of the three-coordinate complexes, the d³ situation seems especially favorable. Symmetry arguments have been discussed for hypothetical MMe₆ complexes to explain that whereas $(t_{2g})^3$ and $(t_{2g})^6$ complexes are inert to substitution and dissociation, $(t_{2g})^1$ complexes are substitution labile, but dissociatively inert. This treatment, in terms of configuration interaction among dn states along the reaction coordinates for homolysis, has been critically analyzed.

The He(I) photoelectron spectra of several compounds of formula MR4 (M = Si, Ge, Sn, Ti, Zr, Hf, or Cr; R = Me3SiCH2 or Me₃CCH₂) have been measured;⁸³ the spectra have been assigned in terms of a localized bond model assuming a tetrahedral MC₄ framework. The highest occupied molecular orbital lies in the range 8-9 eV (except for the d electrons of Cr which are at 7.25 eV) and is assigned to $\sigma(M-C)$. For transition metal group 4 alkyls this orbital is insensitive to the nature of the central metal, but for the main group 4 alkyls there is a monotonic decrease in first ionization potential due to decrease in electronegativity as the atomic number increases. Small inductive effects of the ligands account for the different ionization potentials of Me₃SiCH₂ compounds compared with Me₃CCH₂ analogues. Broadening is observed for the first band of Zr and Hf neopentyls which may be due to a distortion of the MC_4 framework to D_{2d} . In summary, occupied σ -M-C molecular orbitals for the d⁰ and d¹⁰ complexes show only minor differences in energy levels. In keeping with the good donor properties of the compounds $M[CH(SiMe_3)_2]_2$ (M = Ge, Sn, or Pb), 33,307 the first ionization potentials are low (7.75, 7.42, or 7.25 eV, respectively), and comparable to the energy of the metal np orbitals, and were attributed to electrons in metal lone-pair orbitals.311

In the series trans-[Pt(R)Cl(PMe₂Ph)₂] x-ray and spectroscopic results show that the trans influence of R⁻ has little sensitivity to substituent or hybridization effects (R = Me₃-SiCH₂, CH₂=CH, or PhC=C, compared with R = Me).⁸⁴

From much data on standard heats of formation of homoleptic compounds of the main group elements, 85 it is clear that M-C bond strengths are not especially low and comparable often with, for example, M-N or M-O bond strengths (Table V). General trends are that M-C mean thermochemical bond energy terms, \bar{E} , within a group fall with increasing mass of M, and for a given M in the order Ph > Me > Et. Hence conjugative and hyperconjugative effects may have a small role, as has been most extensively discussed for B.37 Similar comparative data are now becoming available for transition metal σ -hydrocarbyls and reveal basically the same pattern, 86 except that \bar{E} increases with increasing mass of M within a group.86 It is surprising that the M-C(CH2CMe3) bond is considerably weaker than the M-C(CH2SiMe3), and this must be due to a substantial steric effect; it will be interesting to know whether this effect is paralleled by M-C bond lengths. Calorimetric data are more meaningful for homoleptic than heteroleptic complexes because of the need for minimal subsidiary thermochemical parameters for the former case. Thus, it has been shown that alcoholysis with excess of i-C₃H₇OH of MCI_4 , $M(NMe_2)_4$, or MR_4 (R = Me_3SiCH_2 , Me_3CCH_2 , or PhCH₂; M = Ti, Zr, or Hf) to yield M(OC₃H₇-I)₄ is rapid and quantitative, and hence suitable for use in calorimetry.86 In this way standard heats of formation have been obtained and bond energy terms derived. Data in Table V therefore provide a comparison of M-X bond strengths for corresponding elements of an A with a B subgroup. Results are also available for a small number of heteroleptic metal alkyls; for example. D(Me-Mn) in $MnMe(CO)_5 = 27.9$ or 30.9 kcal $mol^{-1} =$ $1\!\!/_{\!\!2} D (\rm Mn-Mn)$ in $\rm Mn_2(CO)_{10} + 18.5~kcal~mol^{-1}$, and $D (\rm Me-Re)$ in ReMe(CO)₅ = 53.2 \pm 2.5 kcal mol⁻¹ = $\frac{1}{2}D(Re-Re)$ in $Re_2(CO)_{10} + 30.8 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1};^{87} \text{ and } E(Pt-C) = \sim 27.6 \text{ kcal}$ mol⁻¹ in [Pt^{IV}(CH₂)₃Cl₂].⁸⁸

Thermochemical data are also available for the radicals Me₃M·, mainly by using appearance potential (mass spectra) results. 89 There is no significant gain in delocalization energy for Me₃M⋅ relative to Me₄M, in contrast to Me₃C⋅ relative to Me₄C.^{89a} Ph₃Si• is destabilized with respect to Me₃Si• by ca. 14.1 kcal mol⁻¹ (contrast Ph₃C• vis-á-vis Me₃C•). 89b

Infrared and Raman spectra for MR₄ (M = Sn, Ti, Zr, Hf, V, or Cr; R = Me₃SiCH₂)^{1,90} show that the MC₄ asymmetric stretching mode falls in the range 470-530 cm⁻¹, which suggests that the MC4 asymmetric stretching force constant, and hence MC bond strength, is largely independent of the electronic structure.

III. Decomposition Pathways of Metal σ-Hydrocarbyls

A. Introduction

Thermal decomposition of metal σ -hydrocarbyls often affords a complex mixture of products. Although it is not always possible to ascertain all the product-forming reactions, it is important, for an analysis of the comparative stability of these complexes, to establish rate-determining decomposition pathways and to assess their relative importance within various combinations of metal and ligand. Our first objective is to identify these pathways. We are concerned with pathways in thermal decomposition and not with stability towards oxidation, hydrolysis, etc. Because there are limited data on homoleptic complexes, we make reference to heteroleptic complexes also and reject inferences on stability that have in the past, often wrongly, been made from the inability to prepare a particular complex within a series. Available results are sometimes contradictory, the effect of impurities in determining the contributions of the various pathways possibly being overlooked (cf. ref 159 and 160). Much early information derives from random observations made in the context of describing the chemistry of a series of complexes, and it is only recently that efforts have been made to study the problem of decomposition systematically. This is largely due to the realization that transition metal-carbon bonds are not inherently weak (e.g., data of Table V) and that it is necessary to explain the relative lability of certain transition metal complexes rather than the relative stability of others.

Metal-carbon bond-breaking may formally be uni- or bimolecular. A unimolecular process involves either (a) migration of a substituent from the σ -hydrocarbyl group to the metal (α -, β -, γ -elimination) or (b) M–C homolysis. The pathways of higher molecularity result in disproportionation or formation of clusters (referred to below as bimolecular eliminations), or may require the participation of a reactive donor site (attack at a coordinated ligand).

Decomposition pathways for metal-centered radicals will not be discussed further; the principles are qualitatively those applicable to organic radicals, but disproportionation routes to metalloolefins are unfavorable, and atom-abstraction reactions (e.g., of H or Hal) are influenced by bond strengths (of M-H or M-Hal).

Some of the discussion on mechanism that follows is conjectural, often being based on qualitative rather than quantitative information. Clearly, more extensive kinetic studies are required. We identify the following eight pathways (sections III.B to III.I) as contributing to the decomposition of metal σ -hydrocarbyls.

B. β -Elimination

Many authors, when discussing the stability of transition metal alkyls, have laid great stress on the β -elimination pathway in decomposition and by so doing have, possibly erroneously, given the impression that this predominates. In fact, it is but one of a number of pathways, generally being preferred for complexes with simple alkyls containing a β -hydrogen (e.g., Et, Prⁿ, Prⁱ, or Bu^t). The impression is founded on the contrast between the main group metals for which such simple homoleptic alkyls are well known, whereas in the transition series stable complexes are very often only obtained by the use of a more restricted series of hydrocarbyl groups (Table IV).

 β -Elimination may be represented by the general eq 1. For

$$LM \longrightarrow X \longrightarrow Y \longrightarrow LMZ + X \longrightarrow Y$$
 (1)

simple alkyls (X = Y = a saturated C atom; Z = H) this requires migration of a β -hydrogen from carbon to the metal (M) probably in a concerted manner (XI), with formation of an

alkene. In the transition series the olefin may remain within the coordination sphere of the metal, as in the ethylnickel complex in eq 2.161

Other general examples of β -elimination are in eq 3.162 4.163 and 5.164

$$[PtBu_{2}(PPh_{3})_{2}] \xrightarrow{-PPh_{3}} [Pt(H)Bu(C_{4}H_{8})PPh_{3}] \longrightarrow n-C_{4}H_{8} + n-C_{4}H_{10} + [Pt(PPh_{3})_{2}]$$
 (3)

[CuCH₂CD₂C₂H₅(PBu₃)]

$$CuD(PBu_3) + CH_2 = CDCH_2CH_3$$
 (4)

LiEt
$$\longrightarrow$$
 C₂H₄ + LiH (5)

β-Elimination is reversible, and indeed both metal-carbon bond-making and bond-breaking by this route are important in syntheses; e.g., bond-making in olefin or acetylene hydrogenation, hydroformylation, hydroboration, hydrosilylation, or isomerization; and bond-breaking in isomerization or as a chain termination pathway in olefin polymerization or oligomerization.⁶ This reversibility is elegantly demonstrated by the example of eq 2, a feature being the isolation of the intermediates XIIa and XIIb. Isomerization of the alkyl group of a metal alkyl by this route is illustrated in eq 691 and 7165 and

$$= AICHMeCH2CH3 \longrightarrow = AIH + CH2=CHCH2CH3 \longrightarrow = AICH2CH2CH2CH3 (6)$$

$$AuMe2Bu'(PPh3) \longrightarrow AuMe2Bu'(PPh3). (7)$$

in the attempts to prepare BBu¹3 which gave either BBu¹Bu¹2, or, on heating, BBu13.37 Similar steric control to give on heating the least hindered borane is the basis for internal to terminal olefin conversion via hydroboration (for Zr, see also ref 322).

Deuterium labeling has been used effectively to assign the steric course of the reaction, i.e., that it is the β -hydrogen that is transferred. Examples are in the systems of eq 3 and 4 and with a number of alkylchromiums 166 prepared in situ and several alkylnickel species. 161,167 In some cases an interpretation of the results may be complicated by the ready reversibility of the reaction, where a series of elimination and readdition sequences (i.e., isomerization) effectively leads to scrambling of the label between the α and β positions. An illustration is in the decomposition of the ethylplatinum complex in eq $8.^{168}$

$$trans$$
-[Pt(CD₂CH₃)Br(PEt₃)₂] \longrightarrow

$$trans-[Pt(H)Br(PEt_3)_2] + trans-[Pt(D)Br(PEt_3)_2]$$
 (8)

The kinetic isotope effect for β -hydrogen elimination from the alkyliridium(I) complexes Ir(CH₂CHXC₆H₁₃-n)CO(PPh₃)₂ (X = H or D) has been found to be $k_{\rm H}/k_{\rm D} = 2.28 \pm 0.20;^{169}$ where β -H elimination is rate determining, and there are no complications of H/D scrambling. This has been interpreted in terms of a transition state in which C–Ir and H–Ir bond formation are both important. Comparison may be made with a value of $k_{\rm H}/k_{\rm D} = 3.7$ (at 25 °C) for the decomposition of AI(CH₂CDMe₂)₃, ¹⁷⁰ interpreted in terms of the transition state XI.

In the general eq 1, Z is not restricted to H; e.g., in eq 9^{91} Z = alkyl and in eq 10^{171} Z = halogen, while β -elimination

$$=$$
 AICH₂CMe₃ $=$ AIMe + CH₂=CMe₂ (9)

$$\equiv$$
SiCH₂CH₂CI \longrightarrow \equiv SiCI + CH₂ \equiv CH₂ (10)

also provides a pathway for the decomposition of metal alkoxides to metal hydrides (X = O, Z = H), ¹⁷² and is postulated to play a role in the homogeneous oxidation of amines by Mo complexes. ¹⁷³ For the transition metals there are as yet no substantiated examples of alkyl migration as in eq 9.

 β -Elimination is favored when LMZ and X=Y are stable species. Thus, it is not particularly important for Ag, 159 for which there are no reported hydrides, or with ligands containing β -group 4 metals (e.g., as in CH_2SiMe_3). 90 In the latter case metalloolefin would be produced. This has been advanced as an argument to account for the relative stability of silylmethyl complexes, but may not in fact be relevant. Thus neopentyl derivatives are of similar stability, and reluctance to undergo alkyl migration may therefore be an important factor. Pyrolysis studies show that Ti, Zr, or Hf alkyls MR4 (R = Me₃SiCH₂, Me₃CH₂, or Me₃SnCH₂) do not decompose by this route, bimolecular or reductive elimination being preferred (see below). A further argument would be to compare the stability of Bu¹ and CH₂SiMe₂H complexes; detailed studies have not been undertaken, but the formation of RhH(PPh₃)₄ from RhCl(PPh₃)₃ and HMe₂SiCH₂MgCl²⁰ and of Fe(η^5 -C₅H₅)SiMe₃(CO)₂ from Fe(η^5 -C₅H₅)(CO)₂ and HMe₂Si- $\mathrm{CH_2Cl^{174}}$ indicates that β -elimination may well have a role even with alkyls having a β -silicon atom. In the same context, we draw attention to the isomerization of Fe(η^5 - $C_5H_5)(SiR_2CH_2CI)(CO)_2$ to $Fe(\eta^5-C_5H_5)(CH_2SiR_2CI)(CO)_2$. 175

Certain constraints within the transition state must be recognized which determine the relative rates of reaction and the products therefrom. It has been observed that migration of H is preferred to alkyl and it is generally true that formation of 1-alkene rather than 2-alkene predominates, although subsequent isomerization of 1- to 2-alkene may complicate the analysis. In the decomposition of (supposedly) monomeric complexes, some alkyls of Cr^{III}, conformational preferences favor elimination of *trans*- rather than *cis*-2-alkene, ¹⁶⁶ whereas, within a metal cluster, the tetramer of *sec*-butyllithium, steric constraints favor the formation of the less stable *cis*-but-2-ene. ¹⁶⁴ In the decomposition of a series of vinyliridium(I) complexes, Ir(CR¹==CR²R³)CO(PPh₃)₂ (R¹, R², R³ = H

or Me) there are contributions to the elimination of both *cis*- β -vinyl-H (i) and β -allyl-H (ii), the former predominating, but none from elimination of *trans-\beta*-vinyl-H (iii), or γ -allyl-H (iv);

both pathways precluded for a concerted elimination mechanism. The preferred elimination of $cis-\beta$ -vinyl- over β -allyl-H may reflect relative product stabilities (hydridoacetylene over hydridoallene). 176 A vacant coordination site is required at the metal center and is often more accessible for transition metal complexes, for which the process is accordingly of lower activation energy (note, for example, the considerable differences in stability of main group and transition metal ethyls, and the dominance of higher valence state main group metal alkyls; ease of catenation is another relevant factor and may account for the low kinetic stability of lower valent main group metal hydrocarbyls). Some idea of these differences in activation energy has been obtained from a study of ethylene oligomerization by soluble titanium-based Ziegler catalysts which gave an activation energy for chain transfer of 6.7 kcal mol-1 (note, however, that this low value and the very low A factor lead the authors to propose a six-center transition state involving a molecule of coordinated ethylene). This is considerably less than the typical values for aluminum alkyls of 20-30 kcal mol-1.177 In this context it is important to realize that if the metal is effectively coordinatively saturated, ligand dissociation may be required for reaction. For example, isomerization of AuBu^tMe₂(PPh₃)¹⁶⁵ and elimination from PtBu₂(PPh₃)₂ 162 take place only after initial loss of a coordinated PPh3. A suitable transition state geometry is required; i.e., the dihedral angle of the M-C-C-H moiety should approach zero. Thus, it is possible to inhibit thermal decomposition by the use of (a) bulky hydrocarbyl and/or supporting ligands; (b) chelating alkyls, when the dihedral angle is ≥90°; or (c) chelating supporting ligands, when ligand loss and rearrangement within the coordination sphere are hindered. Examples are to be found (a) in CrBu^t₄ where the "cog-wheel" effect of the But groups effectively prevents close approach of Cr and β -H; ¹¹⁰ (b) the complexes

Pt
$$(CH_2)_n(PPh_3)_2$$
 (n = 2 or 3)

which are considerably more stable than PtBu₂(PPh₃)₂, ¹⁷⁸ although surprisingly the α -methyl homologue 1 is of similar stability to 2 and (c) 3 which is more stable than PtBu₂(PPh₃)₂, ¹⁷⁸ and the chelated 4, which is considerably more stable than the analogue TiC₆H₄Me-o-(η ⁵-C₅H₅)₂, whereas the unchelated VC₆H₄CH₂NMe₂-o-(η ⁵-C₅H₅)₂ is of similar stability to VC₆H₄Me-o-(η ⁵-C₅H₅)₂. ¹⁷⁹ A further good example of (a) is the comparison between the thermally stable Zr(η ⁵-C₅H₅)₂[CH(SiMe₃)₂]Buⁿ and the labile Zr(η ⁵-C₅H₅)₂Buⁿ₂. ^{76b}

There are conflicting reports on the influence of the electron demand of the metal center on the reaction in relation to oxidation state and/or electronic influence of other ligands, the reaction being related in some respects to a nucleophilic attack at the metal. Thus, from polymerization studies with titanium-based Ziegler catalysts it was concluded that the increased electron demand by the metal favored β -elimination, ¹⁸⁰ whereas with the nickel complexes Ni(η^3 -allyl)(Et)L

Homoleptic Metal
$$\sigma$$
-Hydrocarbyls

marked acceptor character in the ligand L inhibited reaction. 161 For the complexes

$$Pt(CH_2)_3X_2L_2$$
 (X = Cl or Br. L = e.g., py)

 β -elimination leading to propene is favored by ligands L of low trans influence, whereas the reverse holds for the competing process of reductive elimination leading to cyclopropane (section III.E).88 Increase in oxidation state appears to favor reaction; cf. Ptl(Me)Et₂(PMe₂Ph)₂ which decomposes at ca. 30°, whereas cis-PtEt₂(PMe₂Ph)₂ is stable at 100°. 181

The above discussion has centered on alkyls. β -Elimination has also been proposed for the decomposition of metal aryls,10 where evidence for formation of a coordinated benzyne was provided, ¹⁸² e.g., eq 11, and confirmed by deuterium-labeling experiments. ¹⁸³

$$TiPh_{2}(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2} \longrightarrow PhH + \left[Ti\left[\left(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5}\right)_{2}\right] (11)$$

Finally, we mention here reactions of the type shown in eq 12,184 which may be regarded as an intramolecular β -elimination.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
O & OSiR_3 \\
\parallel & & | \\
R_3SiCH_2C \longrightarrow R' \longrightarrow CH_2 \Longrightarrow CR'
\end{array}$$
(12)

C. γ - and Higher Elimination

In principle this is similar to β -elimination; examples are in eq 1391 and 14.92a

Et₂MeSi(CH₂)₃CI → Et₂MeSiCI + CH₂CH₂CH₂ (14)

D. α -Elimination

This process is represented by eq 15 and involves migration of a substituent from the α carbon to the metal with formation of a carbenic fragment which may remain coordinated to the metal. It is well established for main group metals

where it is of synthetic utility; compounds of e.g., Li, Sn, Zn, or Hg with R = alkoxy or halogen, can act as carbene transfer reagents, although in most cases free carbenes are not involved. 185 An example is shown in eq 16.186

 α -Elimination is generally less well established than β elimination throughout the periodic table, but may be favored in certain competitive situations, e.g., eq 17.187 In these cases, the relative contributions from α - and β -elimination are sensitive to changes in substituents; for example, from recent studies in the series RCH(OSiMe₃)CCl₂Li it appears that the contribution from β -elimination is clearly related to the ease of access to suitable conformers for concerted LiOSiMe3 elimination. Where these are relatively inaccessible, α -elimination predominates. 188

CI₃SiCF₂CFCI₂
$$\xrightarrow{\text{heat}}$$
CI₃SiF + CF₂==CCI₂ (7%) + CFCI==CFCI (80%) (17)
 β -elimination α -elimination

Such decompositions are less well documented for transition metal σ -hydrocarbyls, being best substantiated for methyls. Examples come from decomposition of methylchromium(III) species prepared in situ, where deuterium labeling has helped establish the pathway; 166,189,190 the decomposition of FeMe₂(Ph₂PCH₂CH₂PPh₂); 191 and in the fragmentation of a nickel alkyl, Ni(Br)CH₂COOEt(PPh₃)₂, as a minor pathway. 192

More recently, evidence comes from the reactions of $W(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2Me(C_2H_4)^+$ or $W(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2CD_3(C_2H_4)^+$ with PMe₂Ph to give respectively inter alia $W(\eta^5$ $C_5H_5)_2H(CH_2PMe_2Ph)^+$ and $W(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2D(CD_2PMe_2Ph)^+$. 193 Results were rationalized by proposing an equilibrium between a 16-electron methyl complex and an 18-electron hydridomethylene species, formed via α -elimination after loss of coordinated C2H4, which were trapped by the added PMe₂Ph (Scheme I). This example illustrates an important

SCHEME I

(13)

$$W(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}Me(C_{2}H_{4})^{+} \xrightarrow{PMe_{2}Ph} W(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}Me^{-} \\ -C_{2}H_{4} W W(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}Me^{+} W(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}H(CH_{2})^{+} \\ PMe_{2}Ph W(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}Me(PMe_{2}Ph)^{+} W(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}H(CH_{2}PMe_{2}Ph)^{+} \\ W(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}H(CH_{2}PMe_{2}Ph)^{+} W(\eta^{5}-$$

point. In this article we are concerned with thermal decomposition and not with reactions of metal hydrocarbyls with added reagents and have generally excluded examples of the latter. We include this example since the authors propose reasonably that the phosphine acts to trap the methyl and hydridomethylene species and does not act to initiate their formation. On the other hand, we have excluded from consideration under β -elimination (section III.B) reactions of, e.g., B(CH₂SiMe₂OSiMe₃)₃ which under suitable conditions yields the elusive Me₂Si=CH₂ (trapped as Me₃SiOEt via reaction with EtOH); suitable conditions require the presence of a nucleophile, EtO-, proceeding via

the complex being stable thermally to ca. 100°. 194

lpha-Elimination has been proposed in decompositions of a number of higher alkyls of Crill prepared in situ, 166 but here evidence is less compelling since in the product olefin, eq 18, deuterium transfer may also arise via a β -eliminationreaddition sequence as outlined earlier (section III.B) (cf. ref 162). The formation of Ta(CH₂CMe₃)₃(CHCMe₃) from TaCl₅-

$$CrCH_2CD_2 - R(L) \longrightarrow$$

 $CrH(L) + [:CHCD_2 - R] \longrightarrow DHC = CD - R (18)$

LiCH $_2$ CMe $_3$ has been interpreted as an α -elimination from Ta(CH $_2$ CMe $_3$) $_5$ (see section III.H). ¹⁹⁵ Differential thermal analysis results on AsMe $_5$ thermolysis at 100–122 °C have been interpreted as involving two decomposition pathways (Table VII), one of which involves formation of AsMe $_3$ (CH $_2$) + CH $_4$. ^{96a}

It may also have a role in (i) reactions of phosphorus ylides with transition metal species, e.g., eq 19; 196 (ii) in the three-

$$Ni(COD)_2 + Me_3PCH_2 \longrightarrow Ni(PMe_3)_4 + (CH_2)_n + (COD)$$
 (19)

fragment oxidative addition reaction, e.g., eq 20; 197a and (iii) in the decompositions of the α -halohydrocarbyl complexes

$$\begin{split} [\text{RhCl}(\text{CO})_2]_2 \ + \ & \{\text{Me}_2\text{NCHCl})\text{Cl} \longrightarrow \big\{\text{Rh}[\text{CH}(\text{Cl})\text{NMe}_2]\text{Cl}_2(\text{CO})_2\big\} \\ & \qquad \qquad \big\{\text{CO}\}_2\text{CHNMe}_2 \end{split}$$

 $Fe(\eta^5-C_5H_5)CH_2CI(CO)_2$, ¹⁹⁸ $IrCH_2CI(CO)(PPh_3)_2$ ¹⁹⁹ (to give the corresponding M–CI compound, and a transfer of CH_2 to another substrate or production of a mixture of hydrocarbons), and a halovinylsilver complex²⁰⁰

$$\left[Ph_2C - C \stackrel{Ag}{\leftarrow} C \right]$$

(to give Ph₂C=C=CPh₂ in ca. 40% yield); and (iv) in reactions of 1-chloro-2,2-dicyanovinyl complexes, e.g., $W(\eta^5-C_5H_5)C(CI)=C(CN)_2(CO)_2$.

Finally, it should be pointed out that decomposition of metal acyls, as in eq 21, is formally an α -elimination. It has been suggested that the stability of Ni(COPh)CI-[P(O-bornan-2-yI)₃]₂ is due to steric inhibition of the process of eq 21.²⁰²

$$\begin{array}{c}
O \\
\parallel \\
LMC \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow LM
\end{array}$$
(21)

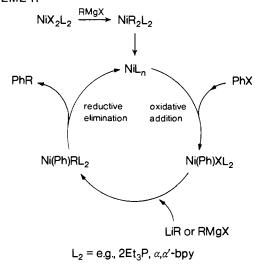
E. Reductive Elimination

This pathway, the reverse of oxidative addition, provides a route for the cleavage of M-C bonds and is especially important for the late transition metals. It is naturally confined to those metals having stable oxidation states differing by two. The process is shown schematically in eq 22; both the coordination number and the oxidation state of the metal are reduced by two.

$$LM \stackrel{X}{\longrightarrow} LM + X \stackrel{Y}{\longrightarrow} (22)$$

Eliminations, generally cis, of C–C or C–H combinations provide the main examples, but fragmentations of other combinations are possible. It plays a role in several organic syntheses where transition metal species are involved in the formation of C–C bonds, e.g., using complexes of Rh^{203} or Ni^{204} (see Scheme II). [The opposite reaction, the activation of saturated hydrocarbons, is of considerable importance. Examples, apart from enzyme-controlled systems, are mainly confined to the labile $\left[W(C_5H_5)_2\right]^{205}$ or H/D exchange reactions with $Nb(\eta^5\text{-}C_5H_5)_2H^{.206}$ In this context the preparation of $Ni(CPh_3)_2$ from the triphenylmethyl dimer is noteworthy. 116 Some examples of reductive elimination are given in eq 23, 24 , 101,207,208 25, 209 and 26. 210 Equation 22 reveals nothing of the details of the pathway. Two alternative mechanisms for reductive elimination have been put forward: (i) concerted

SCHEME II



intramolecular cis elimination, or (ii) initial M-C homolysis. Illustrations are to be found respectively in (i) the process of eq 26, and with D-labeled analogues, ²¹⁰ and (ii) the detection

$$SbPh_5 \longrightarrow SbPh_3 + Ph_2$$
 (23)

$$MPh_4 \longrightarrow [MPh_2(OEt_2)_n]_m + Ph_2$$

$$(M = Ti, Zr, or V)$$
(24)

$$AuMe_3(PPh_3) \longrightarrow AuMe(PPh_3) + C_2H_6$$
 (25)

$$PtMe_3I(PPhMe_2)_2 \longrightarrow PtMeI(PPhMe_2)_2 + C_2H_6$$
 (26)

of the radical RCH(COOEt)CH(COOEt)N(O)Bu^t in the reaction of PtR₂L₂ (L = α , α' -bpy or 1,10-phen) with diethyl fumarate in the presence of Bu^tNO.²¹¹ In the related nickel system the intermediate olefin complex may be isolated in a number of cases, as in eq 27,²¹² and it is reasonable to assume that homolysis takes place subsequently.

$$NiR_2L_2 + olefin \longrightarrow NiR_2(olefin)L_2 \longrightarrow Ni(olefin)L_2 + R_2$$

 $(L_2 = \alpha, \alpha - bpy)$ (27)

Where the stereochemistry at the α carbon is maintained throughout the elimination, the homolytic pathway may be ruled out. For example, the process of eq 28 proceeds with retention of stereochemistry at the double bond.²¹³ Here, as

$$C_{2}H_{6} + C = C$$

$$CF_{3}$$

$$Au (PPh_{3}) \quad AuMe_{2}(PPh_{3})$$

$$C = C$$

$$CF_{3}$$

$$Au (PPh_{3}) \quad AuMe_{2}(PPh_{3})$$

$$C = C$$

$$CF_{3}$$

$$Au (PPh_{3}) \quad Me$$

$$AuMe(PPh_{3}) + C = C$$

$$CF_{3}$$

elsewhere, where competing pathways are available, the relative importance of each is influenced by changing the ligands at the metal.

In contrast to α - and β -elimination, a vacant coordination position is not a prerequisite for reaction, although there is evidence that in some six-coordinate Pt^{IV} ¹⁸¹ and square-pla-

nar Au^{III 165} complexes neutral ligand predissociation takes place prior to reductive elimination and is rate determining. Thus, in cis- or trans-AuMe₂R(PPh₃) a common trigonal intermediate formed via loss of PPh3 is proposed in the processes of reductive elimination and hydrocarbyl group (R) isomerization. Loss of neutral ligand may in fact be a more general feature of the decomposition pathways of complexes of this type than has been supposed; cf. the decomposition of PtBu₂(PPh₃)₂ where β -elimination takes place only after loss of one PPh₃. 162 This proposition offers a contributory explanation of the increased stability of complexes containing chelating neutral ligands.

Reductive elimination is facilitated by increasing occupation of the coordination sphere, increasing orbital occupation (the two preceding points may be related), and the formation of cationic species. Thus bulky hydrocarbyl groups or supporting ligands may act either (a) directly, by accelerating loss of cis hydrocarbyls, or (b) indirectly, by facilitating loss of a neutral ligand and/or by promoting metalation of a coordinated ligand to give a hydrido hydrocarbyl from which reductive elimination is rapid. Examples are in (a) the decompositions of AuMe₃(PR₃)²¹⁴ and AuMe₂(PR₃)₂+215 where increasing the size of R leads to more ready elimination of C_2H_6 and (b) the decompositions of RhR(PPh₃)₃ (R = Me. Me₃CCH₂, or Me₃SiCH₂) where increasing the size of R facilitates metalation with subsequent alkane (RH) loss to give RhPPh₂C₆H₄-o-(PPh₃)₂²⁰ (III) (see section I).

Reductive elimination involves a lowering of the orbital occupation at the metal by two units; thus if the occupation is higher than "normal", elimination will be favored (cf. ref 10b). This "normal" value varies across the transition series; for the late transition metals, it is 18 for the Fe, Ru, Os triad, whereas it decreases to 14 on reaching Cu, Ag, Au. This is illustrated by the decomposition of NiEt2bpy (eq 27); the activation energy for decomposition is 65.5 kcal mol-1 which reduces to ca. 15.5 kcal mol-1 upon complexation of an olefin.212 A good example of these effects is to be found in the use of the so-called "accelerator" ligands (CO or PR3) which favor reductive elimination over β -elimination in oligomerizations involving organonickel species.216

Cationic species are not particularly well known and have been extensively studied only for PtIV, where they appear less stable to reductive elimination than their neutral counterparts, and generally are more labile in other ways, e.g., to isomerization.217

Other ligands attached to the metal can exert an electronic influence on reductive elimination which will be particularly important where competing eliminations are possible (cf. eq 28). For PtMe₃l(PPhMe₂)₂ and D-labeled analogues (cf. eg 26) methyl groups trans to PR3 are eliminated more readily than those trans to I⁻,²¹⁰ while in the series fac-PtMe₃L₃⁺ elimination is especially favored when the two groups to be eliminated are trans to ligands of high trans-influence and where they are chemically nonequivalent. 217 For the complexes Pt(CH₂)₃X₂L₂, ligands L of high trans influence favor reductive elimination to afford cyclopropane (section III.B).88

An elimination of a different kind that we prefer to include in this category is shown in eq 29.218 Here, orbital occupa-

$$(\eta^{5}\text{-}C_{5}\text{H}_{5})_{2}\text{Ti} \xrightarrow{\text{CH}_{2}} \text{CH}_{2} \xrightarrow{\text{CH}_{2}} [\text{Ti}(\eta^{5}\text{-}C_{5}\text{H}_{5})_{2}] + 2\text{CH}_{2} = \text{CH}_{2}}$$

$$(29)$$

tion and the number of coordinated ligands are both reduced by two; the process does not involve β -elimination (cf. decomposition of Pt(CH₂)₄(PPh₃)₂ to [Pt(PPh₃)₂] and butene¹⁷⁸ or other recognized pathways. The reaction may be relevant to metathesis of olefins; earlier results with a similar system, the in situ reaction between WCI6 and Li(CH2)4Li and D-substituted compounds, had shown that (i) elimination proceeds as shown in eq 29 from the proposed metalo cyclic intermediate [W(CH₂)₄Cl₄], and also (ii) there is some concomitant isomerization of the carbon skeleton.219

F. Homolysis

Among the clearest examples of homoleptic σ -hydrocarbyls which undergo thermal decomposition by a pathway requiring homolysis of the M-C bond are Hg^{II} complexes.⁷ Two classes of decomposition are recognized: stepwise (class I, eq 30) or concerted (class II, eq 31).

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{HgR}_2 & \xrightarrow{\text{slow}} & \text{RHg} \cdot + & \text{R} \cdot \\
\text{RHg} \cdot & \xrightarrow{\text{fast}} & \text{R} \cdot + & \text{Hg}
\end{array}$$
(30)

$$HaR_2 \longrightarrow 2R^2 + Ha$$
 (31)

Decomposition often gives a complex mixture of products. the composition of which is dependent on reaction conditions. In the absence of solvent, secondary reactions of the radicals with the metal alkyl probably occur; e.g., HgMe2 with Me• gives MeHgCH₂•, which can enter into further reactions. For mechanistic purposes, studies may be simplified by use of a gas-phase flow system using an excess of a radical scavenger (e.g., toluene or cyclopentane) and a low partial pressure of the alkyl. Homolysis also occurs in the decomposition of the homoleptic alkyls of Zn, Cd, Si, Ge, Sn, and Pb, and methyls of Ga, In, TI, As, Sb, and Bi.7 Although for the higher alkyls of B and Al β -elimination is implicated, for methyls both radical (unimolecular)7 and nonradical (bimolecular)91,220 pathways have been described. It is to be expected that the former will predominate in the gas phase at low partial pressure, while the latter will predominate in the pure condensed phase and especially under pressure.

In the transition series, homolysis is uncommon; i.e., it is usually a route of higher activation energy than alternative processes. Homolysis has been proposed in much speculative discussion of decomposition pathways, but where more detailed studies have been made it has often been shown to be of relatively little importance.

Evidence implicating this pathway as a major contributor in the decomposition of transition metal σ -hydrocarbyls comes from studies of MnCH₂Ph(CO)₅, ²²¹ Pt(η^5 -C₅H₅)Me₃, ²²² Ni(η^5 -C₅H₅)(Me)PR₃,²²³ Pt(I)Me₃(α , α' -bpy),²¹⁰ $Pt(\eta^3-allyl)Me_2-$ Br(PMe₂Ph)₂, ¹⁸¹ CuCH₂CMe₂Ph(PBu₃), ²²⁴ (CuCH₂SiMe₃)₄, ⁴⁵ and (AgCH₂SiMe₃)_n.²²⁵ It has been postulated to play a minor role in organotitanium decompositions (a bimolecular process predominating),226 and for Zr(CH2Ph)4 both radical227 and nonradical 103,228 mechanisms have been suggested. Typically, pointers to the absence of this pathway fall into six categories: (i) where stereochemistry is maintained at the α carbon of the hydrocarbyl ligand in the organic product, cisand trans-alkenyls being the most studied:213,229a,230 (ii) where methylcyclopentane is not found as a product in decomposition of 5-hexenyl compounds, cyclization of 5-hexenyl radical being more rapid than H-abstraction from donor solvents; 163,231 (iii) where disproportionation:combination ratios differ markedly from the norm for radical reactions; 159,232 (iv) where reaction is unchanged on addition of an effective radical transfer agent (e.g., cumene, decalin) or inhibitor; 159,232-234 (v) where either a label (D) is not incorporated into the products in decompositions in the presence of a labeled transfer agent, usually the solvent, or where similarly H is not incorporated into the products from labeled hydrocarbyl groups using unlabeled solvents (cf. ref 183, 226, 235, and 236); (vi) where CIDNP effects are not observed in the NMR spectra of solutions during decomposition (see also ref 323).230

The pathway has been discussed for alkyls of the transition metals: surprisingly, it was predicted to be relatively unimportant at the end of the series, but more significant for early metal derivatives. 10c This view was based on the expectation that d-orbital involvement in transition metal systems ($\sigma \rightarrow d$ or d $\rightarrow \sigma^*$ promotion) would lead to a lower activation energy for homolysis than in the corresponding main group systems. Another paper relegates homolysis to minor significance even for the early transition metal σ -hydrocarbyls.²³⁵ On the other hand, photochemical reactions are expected to give radical products; cf. ref 10b and the photolyses of $MMe_2(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2$ (M = Ti, Zr, or Hf^{237a}) or some organo Co complexes. 237b Irradiation of MnCH2Ph(CO)5 in presence of the spin-trap nitrosodurene has led to the ESR identification of the nitroxides derived from both PhCH2. and Mn(CO)5;238 coenzyme B₁₂ or ethylcobalamin upon photolysis in an aqueous medium in presence of ButNO gave R(But)NO (R = 5'deoxyadenosyl or Et).312 M-C homolysis has been reviewed in the context of free-radical organometallic chemistry.313

M–C homolysis for transition metals formally involves oxidation of the ligand (R⁻ \rightarrow R·) with corresponding decrease in the oxidation state of the metal. Hence, additional ligands will inhibit homolysis by their σ -donor rather than by their π -acceptor capacity, because the tendency for metal reduction is inhibited by increase of electron density at the metal. The norbornyl group, in common with other strained bridgehead systems, forms a relatively stable anion but a less stable radical (or cation),²³⁹ and this may contribute to the remarkable stability of the tetranorbornyls⁷⁵ and tetra(1-adamantyl)titanium. ¹⁰⁵ We draw attention here to the ferrocenylmethyl ligand (η^5 -C₅H₅Fe- η^5 -C₅H₄CH₂-) which differs from the above ligands in forming a very stable cation. ²⁴⁰ The stability of complexes with this ligand does not yet appear to have been investigated. ²⁴¹

Several authors, while excluding a free radical process, have suggested a bound-radical mechanism, in which the formed radical remains within the coordination sphere of the metal or cluster, or within the solvent cage, and there undergoes reaction (e.g., dimerization or hydrogen abstraction) (see e.g., ref 166 and 242). As mentioned below (see section IV.I) distinctions between this and other concerted pathways may become semantic, and in the limit they are indistinguishable.

G. Binuclear Elimination (with Concomitant Change in Metal Oxidation State)

This has been suggested as a pathway in the decomposition of a number of transition metal σ -hydrocarbyls where reduction of the metal takes place and where significant participation by free radical intermediates has been ruled out. Complexes involved include the alkyls of Ti^{IV}, ²³⁵ Cr^{III}, ¹⁶⁶ Mn^{II}, ²³¹ Fe^{III}, ²⁴³ Cu^I, ^{229,233} Ag^I, ^{159,244,245} and Au^I, ²³² The alkyl group can be eliminated as its dimer or disproportionation products (if the group contains a β -hydrogen). Alternatively, a mixture is obtained, the relative proportions of which depend on the alkyl group, the metal, and, to some extent, on the solvent. ²⁴⁶ For example, dimers are formed almost exclusively with Ag^I whereas only disproportionation products arise from Mn^{II} complexes; for Au^I species, there is a transition from dimerization to disproportionation on passing from *n*- to *sec*- and *tert*-alkyl groups.

Requirements are that the cleavage of M–C bonds and the formation of C–C or C–H bonds are synchronous and take place within a dimer or higher aggregate without participation of radical intermediates or transfer of H to the metal. Where dimers are produced and with complexes $(MR)_n$ (e.g., M = Ag) the pathway is established, but where disproportionation products arise there is some dispute as to the relative contri-

butions of bimolecular and β -elimination. The alternative mechanism involves β -elimination, eq 32, followed by protonolysis, eq 33, where both steps are important in determining the overall product distribution (see ref 233 for a discussion of this point). These steps have been independently demonstrated for Cul, ^{163,232} and are implicated in the decomposition of Ir(CO)C₈H₁₇-n-(PPh₃)₂. ^{169,247}

$$MCH_2CH_2R \longrightarrow RCH = CH_2 + MH$$
 (32)

$$MH + MCH2CH2R \longrightarrow RH + 2M$$
 (33)

Further data on this pathway come from studies of the decomposition of AuMe(PPh₃), ²³² (CuC₆H₄CF₃-*m*)₈, ¹²² Cu₆R₂(C₆H₄CH₂NMe₂-*o*)₄, ²⁴⁵ and AgBu(PBu₃). ¹⁵⁹ For AuMe(PPh₃), loss of PPh₃ is rate limiting, suggesting the pathway of eq 34 involving the reactive fragment AuMe combining with further AuMe(PPh₃) to give a dimeric species, possibly the solvated aurate [AuPPh₃]⁺[AuMe₂]⁻. Such rate-limiting loss of coordinated ligand to give a reactive fragment which may combine with other species for elimination is also in accord with observations on complexes prepared in situ:

AuMe + AuMe(PPh₃)
$$\longrightarrow$$
 [Au₂Me₂(PPh₃)] \longrightarrow C₂H₆ + 2Au + PPh₃ (34)

Their decomposition is retarded by more strongly coordinating solvents. 229c,233 Higher aggregates may also be involved. For Cu, homoleptic clusters have been isolated (cf. ref 45 and 122), and for $(CuC_6H_4CF_3-m)_8$ elimination of biaryl with production of a new Cu₈ cluster has been observed.

$$(CuC_6H_4CF_3-m)_8 \longrightarrow (m-C_6H_4CF_3)_2 + Cu_8(C_6H_4CF_3-m)_6 (35)$$

Similar elimination takes place in decompositions of the related heteroleptic complexes $Cu_6R_2(C_6H_4CH_2NMe_2-o)_4$ (R = C=CPh or C=CC₆H₄Me-p); the production of o-Me₂NCH₂C₆H₄R as the sole organic product indicates the intramolecularity of the reaction.

Decomposition of AgBu(PBu₃) is unaffected by the presence of radical species, e.g., Bu^t₂NO over a range of concentrations, thus eliminating significant contributions from radical pathways.¹⁵⁹

Recent results show too that intermolecular alkyl transfer reactions between, e.g., alkylchromium cations, proceed via a bimolecular, rather than by a homolytic pathway, as had previously been assumed.²⁴⁸

Another type of disproportionation, involving changes in oxidation state of the metal rather than changes in the ligand, has recently been observed for a photolytic decomposition of a main group metal(II) alkyl, which may prove applicable for the preparation of other metal-centered radicals, eq 36 [R = $(Me_3Si)_2CH];^{28}$ similar reactions have been demonstrated for $GeR_2,^{25}$ and $R_3Ge\cdot$ and $R_3Si\cdot$ have been prepared by related photochemical procedures. 23

$$2SnR_2 \longrightarrow R_3Sn^2 + [RSn]$$
 (36)

H. Binuclear Elimination (without Concomitant Change in Metal Oxidation State)

Reactions of this type, which do not involve free radicals, are characterized primarily by the nature of the decomposition products: alkane (from metal alkyls) and a solid containing linkages of the types (LM) $_2$ C==, (LM) $_3$ C-, or (LM) $_4$ C. They are best documented for the methyls of metals at the left of the transition series (especially Ti) and those of a number of main group metals, e.g., eq 37 2 and 38. 220

In the transition series tetramethyltitanium has been studied in most detail. Decomposition affords methane (approxi-

$$BeMe_2 \xrightarrow{-CH_4} (CH_2Be)_n \longrightarrow (Be_2C)_n$$
 (37)

$$BMe_3 \xrightarrow{-CH_4} (MeB)_6(CH)_4$$
 (38)

mately 3 mol/mol of TiMe4) and a black diamagnetic solid, which upon hydrolysis gives mainly methane with traces of higher hydrocarbons. 226,249 Labeling studies (D and 13C) have shown that the hydrogens of the methane and the carbon in the black solid are derived from the tetramethyltitanium and that the solid contains linkages of the types TiMe, Ti₂CH₂, Ti₃CH, and Ti₄C.^{226,250,251} The reaction is autocatalytic, and catalysis by reduced transition metal species has been demonstrated.249

Decomposition of the tetrabenzyls, 103 -neopentyls, 90 and -silylmethyls 16,90 of Ti and Zr gives similar products, the most striking difference being in the thermal stabilities; TiMe4 decomposes below 0°, whereas the others decompose in the range 60-130 °C. We propose that a possible transition state for the decomposition is as in eq 39, which accounts for the observed differences in thermal stability: R = Ph, Me₃C,

Me₃Si >> H. Others have argued that reaction proceeds via the 1,2-elimination of eq 40.226 Further studies in systems where complicating autocatalysis does not occur, are needed to establish the details of the pathway.

$$TiMe_4 \longrightarrow [Me_2Ti = CH_2] + CH_4$$
 (40)

Surprisingly, the complexes M(CH₂SnMe₃)₄ (M = Ti, Zr, or Hf) are less stable than their Me₃SiCH₂ or Me₃CCH₂ analogues, and appear to decompose by reductive elimination, (Me₃SnCH₂)₂ being isolated in good yield. 1,252

We note that the complex (Me₃SiCH₂)₂NbCSiMe₃Nb-(CH₂SiMe₃)₂CSiMe₃, obtained from NbCl₅ and Me₃-SiCH₂MgCI,¹¹¹ may be regarded as an intermediate in the decomposition of the hypothetical Nb(CH₂SiMe₃)₅ by loss of 4 mol of Me₄Si. Similarly, AsMe₃(CH₂)^{96a} and Ta(CH₂C-Me₃)₃(CHCMe₃) (XIII) (obtained from TaCl₅ and LiCH₂CMe₃)¹⁹⁵ may be regarded as the decomposition products of AsMe₅ and the hypothetical Ta(CH2CMe3)5, respectively (section IV.D). Deuterium labeling studies lead to the following reaction sequence being proposed (Scheme III). 195

SCHEME III

$$Ta(CH_2CMe_3)_3Cl_2 \xrightarrow{k_1} an intermediate \xrightarrow{k_2}$$

$$Ta(CH_2CMe_3)_5 \xrightarrow{k_3} Ta(CH_2CMe_3)_3(CHCMe_3)$$

$$(k_3 \ge k_2 > k_1)$$

$$XIII$$

However, it seems to us that an alternative mechanism might involve Ta(CH2CMe3)4CI which with LiR provides metalation of an α -H to afford [Ta(CH₂CMe₃)₃(CHCMe₃)CI]Li⁺ which loses LiCl to give the product. Metalation of an alkyl group rather than chloride abstraction might well be favored for steric reasons. Evidence for this view comes from a related example of γ -metalation. Thus $Ti(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2Cl_2$ and LiN-(SiMe₃)₂ yield XIV ²⁵⁴ Further examples of a similar reaction

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \operatorname{SiMe_3} \\ \\ \\ (\eta^5 - \operatorname{C_5H_5})_2\operatorname{Ti} \\ \\ \operatorname{CH_2} \\ \\ \operatorname{XIV} \end{array}$$

pathway as that shown for compound XIII have led to analogs of which the stable Ta(η⁵-C₅H₅)₂ (Me)(CH₂) is the most interesting;²⁵³ its structure has been confirmed by x-ray analysis.314

This bimolecular pathway will apply only to those metals which form stable carbides (methanides rather than acetylides) (but clearly relative thermodynamic stabilities are significant, e.g., carbide vs. a carbosilane). A particularly striking comparison may be made between the main group and transition metal methyls SiMe4 and TiMe4 in the similarity of the decomposition products and the dissimilarity of their thermal stabilities. SiMe4 gives a range of stable carbosilanes in which the linkage Si-C-Si is the dominant feature; 92a,255,256 whereas SiMe₄ is stable to ca. 500°, TiMe₄ decomposes below 0°. While the detailed decomposition pathways may differ (decomposition of SiMe4 may occur via Si-C and C-H homolysis), this may reflect the ease with which the transition metal is able to expand its coordination sphere and utilize energetically accessible d orbitals.

Binuclear elimination is also probably implicated in the decomposition of Al₂Ph₆,91 but the transition metal phenyls MPh₄ (M = Ti, Zr, or V) afford isolable metal(II) species presumably by a reductive process. 101,207,208

I. Attack at Coordinated Ligands

We include here reactions, both inter- and intramolecular, involving bond-making and bond-breaking occurring at a coordinated ligand as well as at the metal center, along with a number of reactions that do not readily fit into the previously discussed pathways.

Decompositions, involving attack at a coordinated neutral ligand, generally the solvent, are important for both the main group and transition metals. A vacant coordination position is required and so, for the former, examples come from derivatives of group 1 to 3 metals. There is less restriction in transition metals where the coordination sphere is readily expanded. With ethers, reaction of the ethereal β -hydrogen is implicated, a good example of this pathway being provided by the detailed study, using D labeling, of the reactions of organolithium reagents with diethyl ether, eq 41.257

In the transition series it is generally a pathway of relatively high activation energy, occurring when other reactions are suppressed. Examples are found in the decompositions of alkyls of Ti,235 Mn,231 Fe,243 Cr,166 and U,230 Reaction may be precluded by use of ethers without β -hydrogens, e.g., Ph₂O.²³⁵ Other reactions that fall in this category are shown in eq 42,258 43,234 44,103 45,91 and 46.259 These involve attack at a coordinated anionic ligand, which may be a hydrocarbyl group.

Two recently established pathways for complexes contain-

ing cyclopentadienyl and σ -hydrocarbyl groups (R) are (i) intramolecular transfer of R to the C_5 ring with formation of a coordinated pentadiene, a reaction which has analogies with reductive eliminations; and (ii) elimination of RH, the hydrogen deriving from the cyclopentadienyl group. Examples of (i) are shown in eq 47²⁶⁰ and eq 48.²⁶¹

$$V(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}Ph \xrightarrow{CO} CO \xrightarrow{-H_{2}} CO \xrightarrow{-H_{2}} CO \xrightarrow{-H_{2}} CO \xrightarrow{V(\eta^{5}-PhC_{5}H_{4})(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})CO} (47)$$

$$V(\eta^{5}-PhC_{5}H_{4})(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})CO (47)$$

$$H \xrightarrow{Et} PR_{3} (48)$$

$$CI$$

Decompositions of $M(\eta^5-C_5H_5)CH_2Ph(CO)_n$ (M=Mo, n=3; M=Fe, n=2) to give inter alia $M(\eta^5-C_5H_5)(CO)_nM(\eta^5-C_5H_4CH_2Ph)(CO)_n$ possibly also involve this pathway (cf. eq 47). 262 Process ii is illustrated by the decompositions of $Ti(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2R_2$ (R=e.g., Ph or $C_6H_4Me)$, 183 $Ti(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2R$ (R=e.g., Ph or $C_6H_4Me-p)$, 236 and $U(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_3R$ ($R=e.g., Me, Bu, cis-CMe=CHMe, or <math>CH_2CMe_3$), 263 studied in some detail using D labeling. Primary decomposition pathways were identified as follows: for $Ti(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2R_2$ there are contributions from intramolecular H abstraction from both a cyclopentadienyl group and an aryl group (cf. section III.B), Scheme IV.

$$\begin{array}{c} [\text{Ti}(\eta^5\text{-}\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2\text{C}_6\text{D}_4] \ + \ \text{C}_6\text{D}_6 \\ \\ \text{contribution} \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ \text{Ti}(\eta^5\text{-}\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2(\text{C}_6\text{D}_5)_2 \\ \\ \text{contribution} \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ \text{[C}_{10}\text{H}_8\text{Ti}] \ + \ \text{C}_6\text{D}_5\text{H} \\ \\ \text{[C}_{10}\text{H}_8\text{Ti}] \ + \ \text{C}_6\text{D}_5\text{H} \\ \end{array}$$

For $Ti(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2R$, RH arises primarily via intermolecular H abstraction from a cyclopentadienyl, possibly proceeding as shown in eq 49, while, for $U(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_3R$, RH arises intramolecularly, possibly as shown in eq 50. A radical reaction within the coordination sphere without inversion of configuration of R· (there is retention of configuration at the α -carbon of R

in the product RH) would, as mentioned previously, also be a possibility, but it would be difficult to distinguish this from eq 50

$$(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}Ti \longrightarrow H$$

$$\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}Ti \longrightarrow H$$

$$[(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}TiC_{5}H_{4}Ti(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})R] + RH \quad (49)$$

$$\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}U \longrightarrow [U(\eta^{5}-C_{5}H_{5})_{2}(C_{5}H_{4})] + RH \quad (50)$$

IV. General Relationships Affecting Stability

Although broad rationalizations relating stability to the nature of the metal, the alkyl, or supporting ligands or solvents are rarely generally valid, the following points are identified. Table VI provides comprehensive coverage for well-characterized transition metal complexes, and *representative* data for thermolysis of homoleptic main group compounds are in Table VII.

A. Effect of Changes in the Ligand R⁻

An invariant order of stability cannot be drawn up because the various factors are a function of reaction mechanism which, as has been noted, can vary widely. The hydrocarbyl groups show differing trends within the various pathways. However, the following sequences of decreasing stability appear to be the most generally applicable: (i) 1-norbornyl > $PhCH_2 > Me_3SiCH_2 \sim Me_3CCH_2 > Ph > Me \gg Et > sec$ - or tert-alkyls; 6,16,75,90,103 (ii) $R_F > R_H$; 6 (iii) $C_6F_5 > C_6H_5$; 6 and (iv) chelating > nonchelating hydrocarbyls. 18,74, 178,179,271 The abrupt change in stability on passing from Me to higher alkyl (other than a neopentyl type) is the main feature and generally reflects a change in decomposition pathway. That even subtle changes in R can influence the pathway is shown by the complexes $M(CH_2SiMe_3)_4$ and $M(CH_2SnMe_3)_4$ (M = Ti, Zr, or Hf). The former give SiMe₄, ^{16b} whereas the latter give (Me₃SnCH₂)₂ as the organic product.²⁵²

Distinctions are only useful when referring to complexes of the same coordination number; for example, it is not valid to discuss the relative stabilities of complexes having Me₃-SiCH₂ (R) or (Me₃Si)₂CH (R') ligands by reference to CrR₄ and CrR'₃. The role of the ligand in determining coordination number has already been observed (cf. Tables I–IV).

B. Effect of Changes of Metal and Its Oxidation State

Comparisons can only usefully be made within an isostructural series. Suitable examples in the transition series are MR₄ (R = Me₃SiCH₂, ^{1,8} Me₃CCH₂, ^{79,90,111} or PhCH₂; ^{103,106} and M = Ti, Zr, Hf, \vee , or Cr), M(1-norbornyl)₄ (M = Ti, Zr, Hf, \vee , Cr, Mn, Fe, or Co), ⁷⁵ and MR₃ [R = (Me₃Si)₂CH; M = Sc, \vee , Ti, \vee , Cr, ⁷⁶ or \vee brown or Stability increases on descending a triad (group 4B)⁹⁰ in contrast to the situation in the main group (e.g., 4A) where M–C bond strengths significantly decrease. Trends across the transition series are as yet unclear. Electronic configuration, in the context of kinetically labile or inert complexes, may play a role. Some stable (substitution-inert) octahedral d³ or d⁶ (low spin) alkyls of Cr^{III}, Co^{III}, and Rh^{III} with aquo or ammine ligands are known; and we draw attention to the remarkably stable Cr^{III} complexes

TABLE VI. Thermal Decomposition of Homoleptic Transition Metal Alkylsa

Compound	Decomposition conditions	Products and comments	Ref
TiMe₄	Ether or hydro-	CH ₄ + black solid (contains C, H, Ti), hy-	226,
	carbon, 10—20°	drogen in CH₄ not derived from solvent	249
TiPh ₂	200–250°	Ph ₂ + Ti	101
TiPh₄	Benzene, -10°	Ph ₂ + Ph ₂ Ti	101
Ti(CH ₂ CMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 60°	Me₄C + black so∣id, hydrogen in Me₄C not	90
	$t_{1/2} \sim 14.5 \text{ h}$	derived from solvent	
Ti(CH ₂ SiMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 80° $t_{1/2} \sim 125 \text{ h}$	SiMe₄ + black solid, hydrogen in SiMe₄ not derived from solvent	16, 90
Ti(CH ₂ SnMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 80° $t_{1/2}\sim 30$ min	$(SnMe_3CH_2)_2$ + black solid + $SnMe_4$	252
Ti(CH₂Ph)₄	Toluene,	PhMe + solid containing Ti ^{III} . No D in-	103
7rDh	hydrocarbon	corporation from deuterated solvents	207
ZrPh ₄	Et ₂ O, 0°	[ZrPh ₂ ·Et ₂ O] ₂ , Ph ₂ , PhH	207
Zr(CH ₂ CMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 80° $t_{1/2}\sim 80$ h	Me₄C + black solid, hydrogen in Me₄C not deríved from solvent	90
Zr(CH₂SiMe₃)₄	Benzene, 80°	SiMe₄ + black so∣id, hydrogen in SiMe₄ not	16, 90
	$t_{1/2} \sim 150 \text{ h}$	derived from solvent	
Zr(CH ₂ SnMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 80° $t_{1/2} \sim 30$ min	$(SnMe_3CH_2)_2$ + black solid + $SnMe_4$	252
Zr(CH₂Ph)₄	~130°	C_6H_6 + PhMe + $(PhCH_2)_2$ + Ph_2CH_2 + black	227
· •		solid (but see ref 103 and 228)	
Hf(CH ₂ CMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 90°	Me₄C + black solid, hydrogen in Me₄C not	90
	$t_{1/2} \sim 900 \text{ h}$	derived from solvent	- -
Hf(CH ₂ SiMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 90°	SiMe ₄ + black solid, hydrogen in SiMe ₄ not	16, 90
(223,4	$t_{1/2} \sim 350 \text{ h}$	derived from solvent	10, 50
Hf(CH ₂ SnMe ₃) ₄	Benzene, 80°	$(SnMe_3CH_2)_2$ + black solid + $SnMe_4$	252
111 (011 25111110 3/4	$t_{1/2} \sim 30 \text{ min}$	(Strivie3Cl12/2 + black solid + Strivie4	232
VPh₄		\/Db\F\$ O \ Db	000
V(CH₂Ph)₄	Et ₂ O, -50°	VPh ₂ ·nEt ₂ O + Ph ₂	208
	Et ₂ O, 90°	PhMe (3.3–3.7 mol) + black solid	274
TaMe₅ CaBart	~25°, neat	CH ₄ + Ta + black solid	38
CrBu [‡] ₄	Heptane, 70°	Principally $Me_3CH + Me_2C = CH_2 + Cr$ (with 5% C) $[Cr(CH_2CMe_3)_4]$ stable under these conditions]	110
WMe ₆	Neat, 25°	CH ₄ + C ₂ H ₆ (trace) + black solid	39
v		(contains C, H, W)	
$MnR_2(R = e.g.,$		RH + R(-H); proportions and extent	231
Me, Et, Pri,		of decomposition depend on R	
Bu ^t , PhCH ₂)		,	
(CuMe) _n	Neat, 0°	C ₂ H ₆	264
$(CuR)_n(R = e.g.,$	THF, ~ 25°	R-R+RH+R(-H); proportions and extent of	233
Me, Et, Pr ⁱ , Ph, PhCH ₂)	7711, 23	decomposition depend on R	233
$(CuAr)_n$ (Ar =	~100	Ar ₂	120
o, m, p-		. " 2	120
MeC_6H_4 , or $o-MeOC_6H_4$)			
(CuC ₆ F ₅) ₄	21 0-2 20°	$(C_6F_5)_2 + Cu$	121
$(CuC_6H_4CF_3-m)_8$	Benzene, heat	$(m-C_6H_4CF_3)_2 + Cu_8(C_6H_4CF_3-m)_6$	122
(CuCH2SiMe3)4	Toluene, 80°	$(m^2 - 6_6)^4 + (C^3)^2 + Cu^2 + (C_6)^4 + (C^3)^4 + ($	45
$(AgC_6F_5)_n$	150°	$(C_6F_5)_2$	265
$[Au(C_6F_5)_3]_n$	Heat	$(C_6F_5)_2$ + Au	265
$(AuC_5H_4N-o)_n$	120–150°		266
$Th(CH_2Ph)_4$	85°	α, α -bpy + Au (PhCH ₂) ₂ + PhMe + C ₆ H ₆ + C ₂ H ₆ + black solid	135
(3,2)4	55	$1.110^{11}2/2$ · Finale · $0_6\Pi_6$ + $0_2\Pi_6$ + Diack Solid	99

^a Studies on the decomposition of other species, generally less well characterized and prepared in situ, are to be found in ref 110, 166, 230, 246, 267, 268, and 269.

 CrR_3 [R = $Me_2P(CH_2)_2$ or $o-CH_2PPh_2C_6H_4$, 73 or ($Me_3-C_6H_4$) Si)₂CH].⁷⁶ However, it appears that, for the early transition metals at least, the electronic configuration of the metal is relatively unimportant.

C. Effect of Charge

The formation of complex anions generally leads to an increase in stability, as has already been noted. However, the degree to which this reflects the effect of charge rather than the blocking of vacant coordination positions (e.g., in Li-TiMe₅)¹³⁷ or the formation of metal-metal bonds or clusters (e.g., in $\mathrm{Li_4Cr_2Me_8}^{140}$ or $\mathrm{LiCuMe_2}^{149}$) is uncertain. Cationic species have been little studied and appear to be of relatively low stability (cf. ref 217).

D. Effect of Additional Neutral Ligands

If a vacant coordination position is a necessary requirement for a particular decomposition pathway (e.g. α -, β -, or

TABLE VII. Thermal Decomposition of Representative Homoleptic Main Group Element σ -Hydrocarbyls

Compound	Decomposition conditions	Products and comments	Ref
Group 1	_		
$(LiEt)_n$	98–130°	>98% CH ₂ =CH ₂	164
(LiBu ^s) _n	78–104°	1-Butene (29—34%), cis-2-butene (51—54%), trans-2-butene (15—17%)	164
Group 2			
$(BeMe_2)_n$	20 0°	$CH_a + (BeCH_2)_n \rightarrow (Be_2C)_n$	2
$(BeEt_2)_n$	190°	C_2H_6 , C_2H_4 , C_4H_8 (in ratio 2:1:1.5)	2
BeBu <i>t</i> ,	Room temp	BeBu i , $\overset{80^{\circ}}{\rightarrow}$ Me,C=CH, + BeH,	2, 50
$(MgMe_2)_n$	25 0 °	CH_4 , $(MgCH_2)_n$	2
$(MgEt_2)_n$	175-200°	CH ₂ =CH ₂ , MgH ₂	2
$(MgPh_2)_n$	280°	Ph ₂ , Mg	2
MR_2 (M = Zn, Cd, or Hg)		M + mixture of products from R	7
Group 3			
BMe ₃	450°, 1—2 h sealed tube	(MeB) ₆ (CH) ₄	2 2 0
BBu ^s ₃	"reflux"	BBu ⁿ ₃	270
BBu ⁿ ₃	200–300°	Bu^0B , Bu^8B , C_4H_8 , H_2	37
AIEt ₃	162–19 2 °	C_2H_4 + AIEt ₂ H \rightarrow C_2H_6 (+ other hydrocarbons) + AIH ₃ \rightarrow AI + H ₂	91
AI(CH,CMe ₃),	~ 200°	Me ₂ C=CH ₂ , AIMe ₃	91
(AIPh ₃) ₂	>200°	C_6H_6 + residue which with D_2O gives C_6H_5D , $C_6H_4D_2$, and $C_6H_3D_3$	91
Group 4			
SiMe₄	~700°	Mixture of products mainly containing Si—C—Si linkages	2 55, 256
Pb Me ₄	400–700°	Me ₃ Pb· + Me' (rate-controlling step)	7
PbEt ₄	233–267°	Pb, n-C ₄ H ₁₀ , C ₂ H ₄ , C ₂ H ₆ , H ₂	7
Group 5			
AsMe _s	100–122°	$(AsMe_3 + C_2H_6) + (Me_3AsCH_2 + CH_4)$ $\rightarrow AsMe_3 + C_2H_4 + (CH_4)_B$	96a
SbMe ₃	475–603°	Sb + products from Me-	7
SbPh。		SbPh, + Ph,	2

bimolecular elimination), coordinating ligands, which may be the solvent, lead to an enhancement of stability. For example, Lewis base complexes of TiMe4 are more stable than TiMe₄, of which TiMe₄(PMe₃)₂ is less stable than TiMe₄-(Me₂PCH₂CH₂PMe₂);²⁷² and TaMe₅(Me₂PCH₂CH₂PMe₂) is stable to 110° whereas free TaMe₅ decomposes at or below 25°C.38

V. Appendix (Added December 1975)

This section, added in proof, provides information on additional literature²⁷³⁻³⁰⁵ (see also ref 76b, 86, 253, 306-315, 322, and 323 incorporated in the text, and to ref 25, 59, 62, 71, 76a, 112, 137, 171, 172, 187, 203, 210, 214, and 220) (to December 1975) that has come to our attention since the submission of the manuscript. Data on new complexes have been added to Tables II and III while publications relating to stability and decomposition pathways (in ref 274, 276-278, 283, 287, 289-305, and 324-329) are briefly mentioned below.

A cautionary note to the handling of some simple metal alkyls comes from reports on WMe₆,²⁷⁶ ReMe₆,²⁹³ and TaMe₅²⁹³ which, like (CuMe)_x, can decompose explosively when isolated in a reasonably pure state. Olefin metathesis catalysts are now better understood: recent reports show the active species to be metal carbene complexes LMCX2, produced via lpha-elimination from metal alkyl precursors, 304 as had been proved for electron-rich olefin dismutation, with metallocycles LMCX₂CY₂CY₂ as postulated intermediates.³⁰⁵ Reductive elimination from $PtAr_2L_2$ (Ar = Ph or p-MeC₆H₄; L₂ = e.g., (PPh₃)₂ or Ph₂PCH₂CH₂PPh₂) is enhanced by addition of excess ligand L (steric acceleration to elimination from a postulated five-coordinate intermediate), in marked contrast to earlier reports (section III.E) on related systems in which ligand dissociation is rate determining. 294 The thermal decomposition product of $Th(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_3Bu$ (cf. the related U complexes, section III.I) has been characterized as the novel C_5H_4 bridged $[Th(\eta^1, \eta^5-C_5H_4)(\eta^5-C_5H_5)_2]_2$. ²⁹⁶

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