



# Theoretical study on ligand exchange reaction mechanisms of iron(IV) complexes with two different group 14 element ligands, $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{EEt}_3)(\text{E}'\text{Et}_3)$ with $(\text{HEEt}_3)$ ( $\text{E}, \text{E}' = \text{Si}, \text{Ge}, \text{Sn}$ )

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## ABSTRACT

A computational study with Becke3LYP of DFT was carried out to investigate the ligand exchange reaction mechanisms of  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{EEt}_3)(\text{E}'\text{Et}_3)$  with  $(\text{HEEt}_3)$  ( $\text{E}, \text{E}' = \text{Si}, \text{Ge}, \text{Sn}$ ). The full ligand exchange reactions were computed, starting from the reductive elimination and then followed by the oxidative addition. The reductive elimination of  $\text{HEEt}_3$  from the Fe(IV) center takes place more readily in the order  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H} > \text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H} \gg \text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ . There are several reasons for the order: (i) the thermodynamic stability of the corresponding products, (ii) the order of bond binding energy:  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H} > \text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H} > \text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ , (iii) the order of the interaction of E–H:  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H} > \text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H} > \text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ .

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## 1. Introduction

Iron is known to play an active role in the catalytic cycles of many metalloenzymes and is the most prominent transition metal in biological systems [1]. So far, the most common oxidation states of iron in proteins are the +2 and +3, and higher oxidation states (+4 and +5) are often proposed for specific intermediates. Iron complexes with two group 14 element ligands are the key intermediates in the catalytic addition of E–E' bonds ( $\text{E}, \text{E}' = \text{Si}, \text{Ge}, \text{Sn}$ ) to unsaturated organic molecules [2–9], such as catalytic addition of germylstannanes to alkynes [10–14].

Iron complexes having two same group 14 element ligands, such as  $(\text{C}_5\text{R}_5)(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{ER}_3)_2$  ( $\text{E} = \text{Si}$  [15–26],  $\text{Sn}$  [27–30]), have been reported. Whereas, iron complexes having two different group 14 element ligands are little (only one  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SiPh}_3)(\text{SnPh}_3)$ ) [31], though such complexes are quite limited and have the possibility of constructing an E–E' bond. In 2009, H. Nakazawa et al. first gave a series of Fe(IV) complexes ( $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{EEt}_3)(\text{E}'\text{Et}_3)$ ) with two different group 14 element ligands in good to high yields and studied their exchange reactions with  $\text{HEEt}_3$  ( $\text{E}, \text{E}' = \text{Si}, \text{Ge}, \text{Sn}$ ) (see eqs. (1)–(5)), which involved first reductive elimination and following oxidative addition [32]. The

results show that reductive elimination of  $\text{HEEt}_3$  from the Fe(IV) center takes place more readily in the order  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H} > \text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H} \gg \text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ .

To our knowledge, a few theoretical studies on iron complexes with two group 14 element ligands have been reported [26,33–36], but studies on Fe(IV) complexes with two different group 14 element ligands ( $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{EEt}_3)(\text{E}'\text{Et}_3)$ ) have not been reported to date. In this work, our goal is to investigate the mechanisms of the exchange reactions and explore why the elimination of  $\text{HEEt}_3$  from the Fe(IV) center takes place more readily in the order  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H} > \text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H} \gg \text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ . We hope this study could provide further understanding for such kind of reactions and play a guiding role for further designing such kind of new reactions.

## 2. Computational details

Molecular geometries of all the complexes studied were optimized at the Becke3LYP level of density functional theory [37–40]. Frequency calculations at the same level of theory were also performed to identify all the stationary points as minima (zero imaginary frequencies) or transition states (one imaginary frequency) and to provide free energies at 333 K. The intrinsic reaction coordinate (IRC) [41,42] analysis was carried out to confirm that all stationary points are smoothly connected to each other. The lan12dz basis set [43] including a double- $\zeta$  valence basis set with the Hay

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and Wadt effective core potential (ECP) [44,45] was used for Fe, Si, Ge and Sn atoms and the 6-31G [46] basis set was used for other atoms. Polarization functions were selectively added for carbonyl C and O [ $\zeta_d = 0.8$ ] and O [ $\zeta_d = 0.8$ ], H atoms directly connected to Fe atom [ $\zeta_p = 0.11$ ], and Si, Ge, Sn atoms [Si ( $\zeta_d = 0.262$ ), Ge ( $\zeta_d = 0.246$ ) and Sn ( $\zeta_d = 0.183$ )]. All the DFT calculations were performed with Gaussian 03 packages [47].

Fig. 1 shows the key optimized structures with selected structural parameters for the species involved in the ligand exchange reactions (eqs. (1)–(5)). Computed structural parameters of **R1**, **Int2** and **P2** and the corresponding X-ray crystalline diffraction data (in parenthesis) are given. It is found that the calculated structural parameters are in well agreement with the X-ray crystalline

diffraction data. Thus it can be confirmed that the basis sets are adequate for present study.

In Fig. 2 the calculated relative free energies (kcal/mol) and electronic energies (kcal/mol, in parentheses) are presented. The free energies and electronic energies differ significantly in cases where the number of reactant and product molecules is different for one-to-two or two-to-one transformations because of the entropic contribution. In this paper, relative free energies are used to analyze the reaction mechanisms. It should be noted here that the entropic contribution to the free energies based on the gas-phase calculations is overestimated for those steps involving substrate association or dissociation. Recent discussions on the overestimation can be found in the literature [48,49].

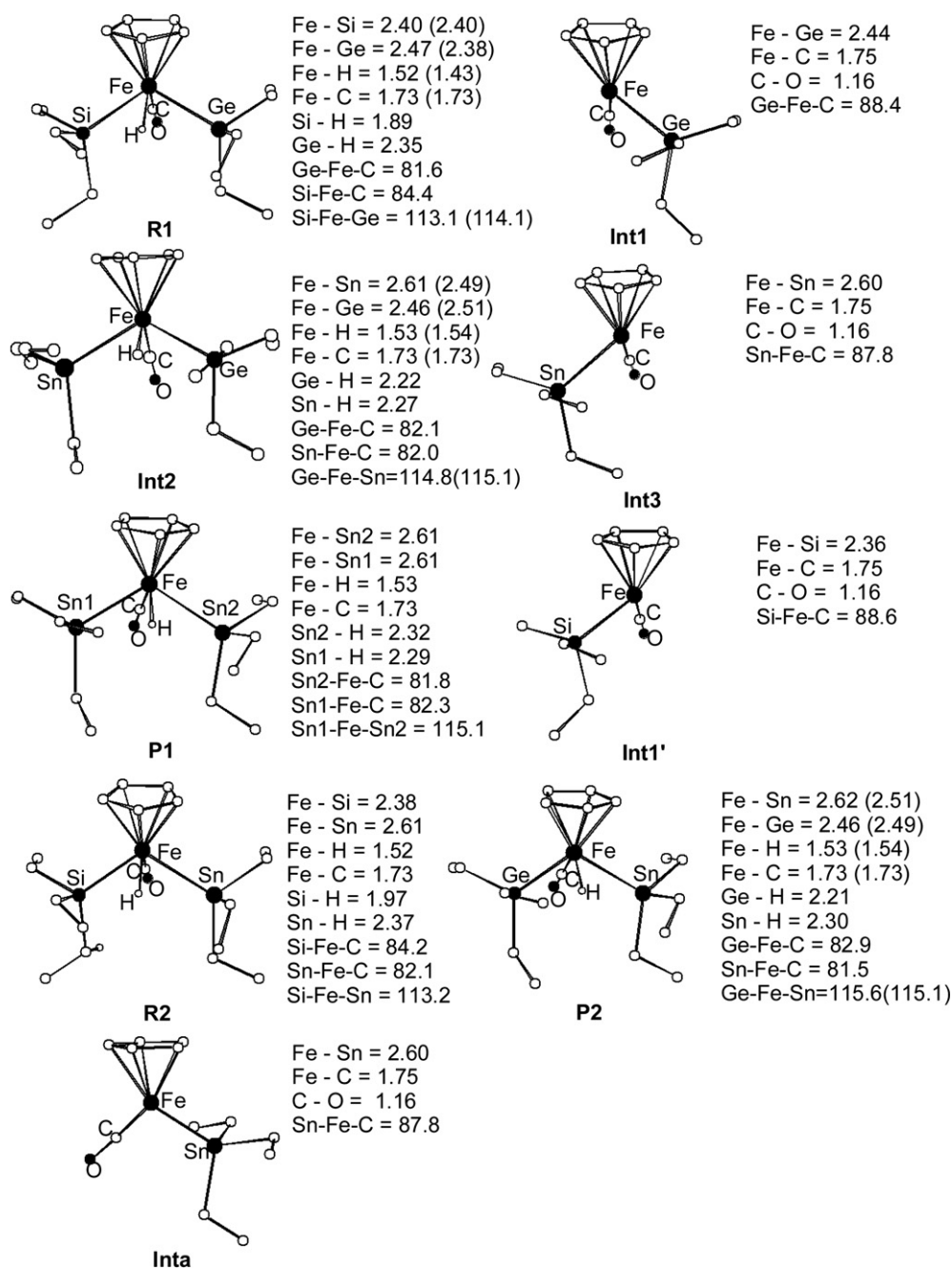


Fig. 1. Selected B3LYP optimized structures involved in the ligand exchange reaction together with selected bond distances and bond angles. The bond distances are given in Å. In **R1**, **Int2** and **P2**, the X-ray crystalline diffraction data of the original compound are given in parenthesis.

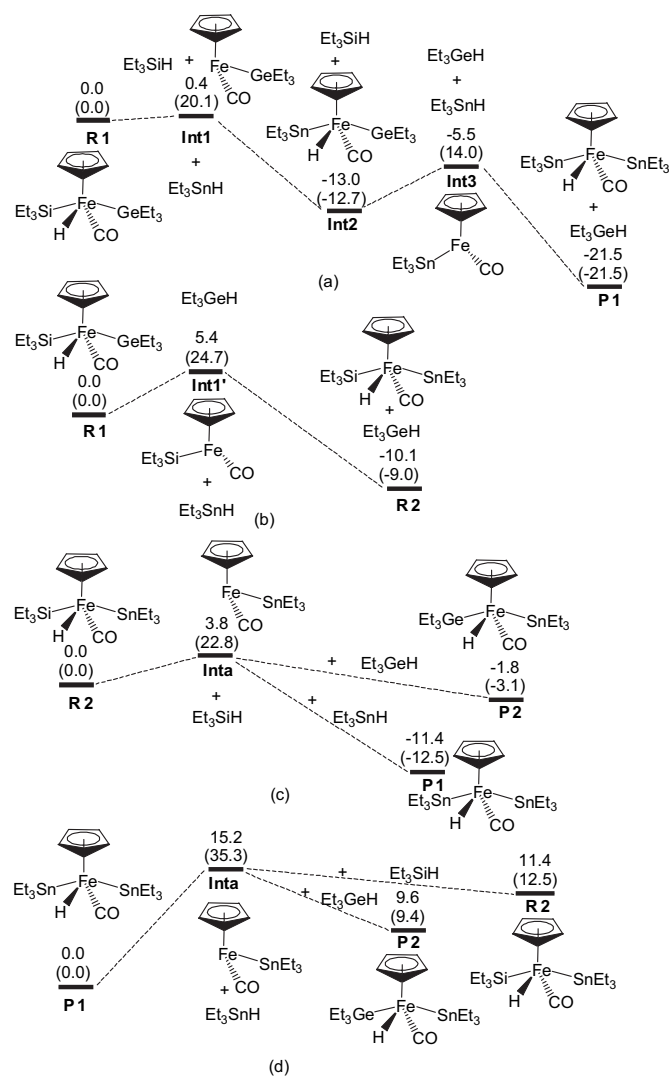
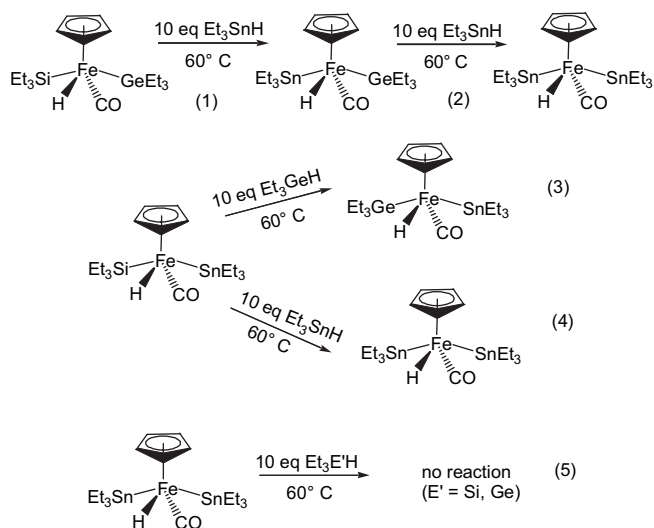


Fig. 2. Energy profile calculated for the eqs. (1)–(5). The relative free energies and electronic energies (in parentheses) are given in kcal/mol.

### 3. Results and discussions



Very recently, H. Nakazawa and co-workers studied a series of the ligand exchange reactions of Cp(CO)FeH(EEt<sub>3</sub>)(E'Et<sub>3</sub>) with HEt<sub>3</sub> (E, E' = Si, Ge, Sn) as shown in eqs. (1)–(5). The ligand exchange reaction consists of the reductive elimination and the following oxidative addition of HEt<sub>3</sub>. The reductive elimination of HEt<sub>3</sub> from the Fe(IV) center takes place more readily in the order Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H > Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H >> Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H. H. Nakazawa et al. predicted that the reasons for the order were the bond energies of the both Fe–E and H–E, and the activation energies for the reductive elimination of HEt<sub>3</sub> from the Fe(IV) center. But the related data and further theoretical investigations for the order have not been reported to date.

Another important issue needed to be addressed is that the reactions of Cp(CO)FeH(SnEt<sub>3</sub>)(SnEt<sub>3</sub>) with Et<sub>3</sub>E'H (E = Si, Ge) cannot be observed. In this work, we attempt to investigate the mechanisms of the ligand exchange reactions in detail and address the two important issues mentioned above.

#### 3.1. Reaction mechanisms of Cp(CO)FeH(SiEt<sub>3</sub>)(GeEt<sub>3</sub>) with Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H (eqs. (1) and (2))

The ligand exchange reactions of Cp(CO)FeH(SiEt<sub>3</sub>)(GeEt<sub>3</sub>) (R1) with Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H (eqs. (1) and (2)) are proposed to undergo two processes (Fig. 2(a)). The first process is the exchange of SiEt<sub>3</sub> for SnEt<sub>3</sub> to give a 18e Cp(CO)FeH(SnEt<sub>3</sub>)(GeEt<sub>3</sub>) (Int2), which has been isolated experimentally by H. Nakazawa and co-workers [32]. Two steps are involved in the process. The first step is reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H from R1, leading to bond cleavage of Fe–Si and Fe–H, and bond formation of Si–H. Instead, the reaction cannot be carried out through the reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H from R1, leading to bond cleavage of Fe–Ge and Fe–H and bond formation of Ge–H. The reductive elimination from R1 could occur at either Fe–Si and Fe–H or Fe–Ge and Fe–H. We first calculated the bond dissociation energies of Fe–Si and Fe–Ge (Fig. 3(a)) and the binding energies of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H and Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H. The results show the Fe–Si bond (dissociation energy: 35.5 kcal/mol) is stronger than the Fe–Ge (dissociation energy: 31.6 kcal/mol) bond. The difference in the bond dissociation energies is expectable, as generally believed that the Fe–Ge bond cleavage is more facile than the Fe–Si bond. Interestingly, the reductive elimination observed by H. Nakazawa et al. in eq. (1) cleaves the stronger bond rather than the weaker one. Whereas, the Si–H binding energy (Et<sub>3</sub>Si + H → Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H) is calculated to be –95.5 kcal/mol and Ge–H binding energy (Et<sub>3</sub>Ge + H → Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H) is to be –88.0 kcal/mol, indicating Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H is more stable than Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H. The difference of binding energy (7.5 kcal/mol) suggests that reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H from R1 is more favorable than Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H.

The calculated potential energy profile for the reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H from R1 is illustrated in Fig. 2(a). The reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H from R1 to give Int1 is barrierless, as can be verified from the always increasing relative energy of R1 with decreasing Si–H bond distance in R1 (see curve 1 in Fig. 4). Similarly, the transformations from Int2 to Int3 (Fig. 2(a)), R1 to Int1' (Fig. 2(b)), R2 to Inta (Fig. 2(c)) and P1 to Inta (Fig. 2(d)), are all barrierless (see curves 3, 4, 2 and 5 in Fig. 4, respectively).

The reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H from R1 gives the 16e species Cp(CO)FeH(GeEt<sub>3</sub>) (Int1) with a low free energy of 0.4 kcal/mol (see Fig. 2(a)), which is more stable than the Int1' obtained through the reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H from R1 with a free energy of 5.4 kcal/mol (see Fig. 2(b)). Moreover, the subsequent oxidative addition of Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H to Int1 to afford Cp(CO)FeH(SnEt<sub>3</sub>)(GeEt<sub>3</sub>) (Int2) with a low free energy of –13.0 kcal/mol, which is more stable than R2 obtained through the oxidative addition of Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H to Int1' with a free energy of –10.1 kcal/mol. These results clearly indicate that the Fe–Si bond cleavage in R1 is much more

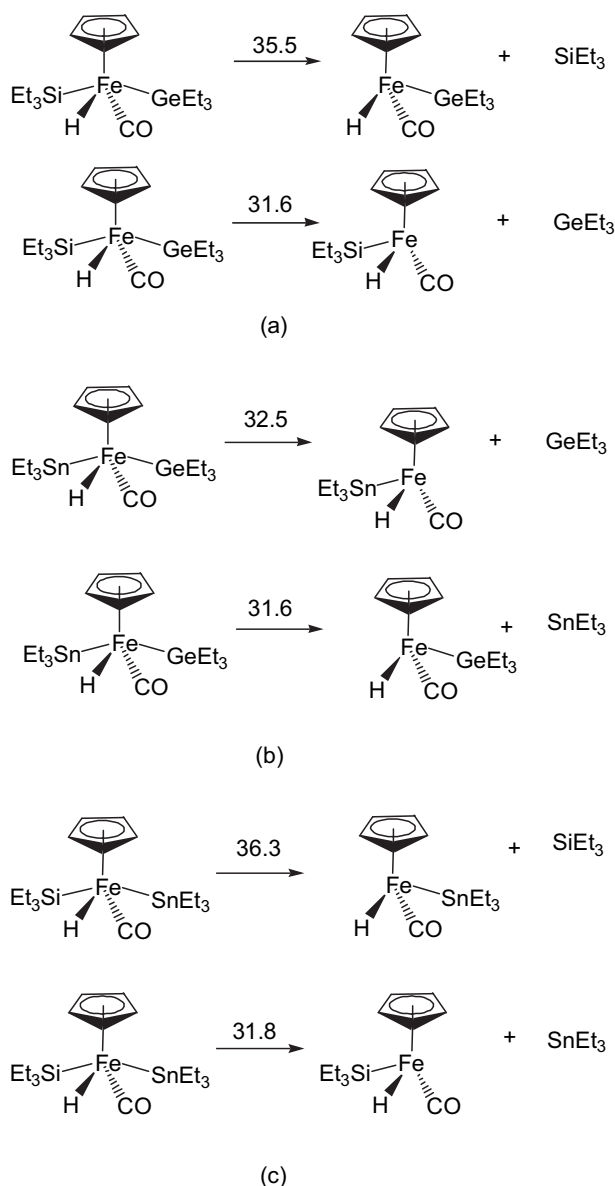


Fig. 3. Bond dissociation energies are given in kcal/mol including the basis set superposition errors (BSSE) correction using the counterpoise (CP) method.

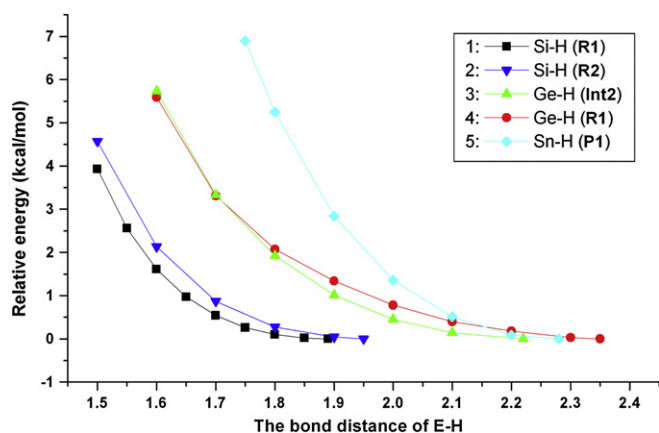


Fig. 4. Relationship between relative energies and bond distance of E–H (E = Si, Ge, Sn). The bond distance is given in Å.

thermodynamically favorable than the Fe–Ge bond cleavage in **R1**, although the Fe–Si bond is stronger than the Fe–Ge bond. That is to say, the elimination of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H}$  from Fe(IV) center takes places more readily than  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$ , which is well consistent with the experimental facts “Treatment of **R1** with a 10-fold molar excess of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  for 5 min at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  produced the germylstannyl complex **Int2** by the selective exchange of the  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si}$  group for the  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn}$  group (96% NMR yield)” [32].

The second process of the ligand exchange reaction of **R1** with  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  is the exchange of the  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge}$  group for the  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn}$  group, which also undergoes two steps. The first step is the reductive elimination of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$  from **Int2** to give a 16e  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{Fe}(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**Int3**) with a low free energy of  $-5.5$  kcal/mol, followed by the oxidative addition of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  to give a stable 18e  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**P1**). The lowering of free energy difference ( $-8.5$  kcal/mol: from **Int2** to **P1**) indicates that the process is thermodynamically favorable. The binding energies of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$  ( $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$ ) and  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  ( $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ ) are  $-88.0$  kcal/mol and  $-78.8$  kcal/mol, respectively, and the Fe–Ge bond is stronger than the Fe–Sn bond (bond/dissociation energy: Fe–Ge/32.5 kcal/mol, Fe–Sn/31.6 kcal/mol, see Fig. 3(b)). In the process the reductive elimination of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$  from Fe(IV) center takes place more readily than  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  due to the thermodynamic preference and the stability of the corresponding products for the reductive elimination. The overall energy difference (from **R1** to **P1**) is  $-21.5$  kcal/mol, indicating that the ligand exchange reaction of **R1** with  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  is thermodynamically favorable.

### 3.2. Reaction mechanisms of $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SiEt}_3)(\text{SnEt}_3)$ (**R2**) with $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$ (eq. (3)) and $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ (eq. (4))

H. Nakazawa and co-workers also examined the reaction of silylstannyl complex **R2** with  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$  (eq. (3)) and  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  (eq. (4)) to afford the corresponding complexes  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{GeEt}_3)(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**P2**) and  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SnEt}_3)(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**P1**). The calculated free energy profiles are given in Fig. 2(c). The reactions of **R2** with  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$  and  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  are proposed to undergo two steps. The first step of the two reactions is the reductive elimination of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H}$  from **R2** to give a 16e  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**Inta**) with a low free energy of 3.8 kcal/mol. The second step is the oxidative addition of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$  and  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  to give  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{GeEt}_3)(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**P2**) and  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SnEt}_3)(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**P1**), respectively. The lowering of energy differences ( $-1.8$  kcal/mol from **R2** to **P2** and  $-11.4$  kcal/mol from **R2** to **P1**) indicates the ligand exchange reactions of **R2** with  $\text{GeEt}_3\text{H}$  and  $\text{SnEt}_3\text{H}$  are thermodynamically favorable, in accordance with experimental results. As discussed above,  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H}$  instead of  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  in **R2** is first reductively eliminated. The bond dissociation energies of Fe–Si and Fe–Sn in **R2** are also calculated as shown in Fig. 3(c). Fe–Si bond (dissociation energy: 36.3 kcal/mol) is stronger than Fe–Sn bond (dissociation energy: 31.8 kcal/mol). Similarly, the trend is applicable to Fe(II) complexes which were reported by Koga [34]. The bond energy of Fe(II)–Si is 41.7 kcal/mol and that of Fe(II)–Sn is 36.3 kcal/mol. Further, the binding energies of the reductive products  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H}$  ( $\text{Et}_3\text{Si} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{Et}_3\text{Si-H}$ ) and  $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$  ( $\text{Et}_3\text{Sn} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{Et}_3\text{Sn-H}$ ) are  $-95.5$  kcal/mol and  $-78.8$  kcal/mol, respectively. The stable products and the thermodynamic preference make  $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H}$  first be reductively eliminated from **R2**, although Fe–Si bond is stronger than Fe–Sn bond.

### 3.3. Reaction mechanisms of $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SnEt}_3)(\text{SnEt}_3)$ with $\text{Et}_3\text{Si-H}$ and $\text{Et}_3\text{Ge-H}$ (eq. (5))

The calculated energy profiles of  $\text{Cp}(\text{CO})\text{FeH}(\text{SnEt}_3)(\text{SnEt}_3)$  (**P1**) with  $\text{SiEt}_3\text{H}$  and  $\text{GeEt}_3\text{H}$  are shown in Fig. 2(d), which undergo two steps, respectively. The first step is the reductive elimination of

SnEt<sub>3</sub>H to give 16e species Cp(CO)Fe(SnEt<sub>3</sub>) (**Inta**) with a high free energy of 15.2 kcal/mol, indicating the step is thermodynamically unfavorable. The second step is the oxidative addition of SiEt<sub>3</sub>H and GeEt<sub>3</sub>H to give Cp(CO)FeH(SiEt<sub>3</sub>)(SnEt<sub>3</sub>) (**R2**) and Cp(CO)FeH(GeEt<sub>3</sub>)(SnEt<sub>3</sub>) (**P2**), respectively. The raising of free energy differences (11.4 kcal/mol from **P1** to **R2**, 9.6 kcal/mol from **P1** to **P2**) suggests that the reactions are thermodynamically very unfavorable, which is consistent with the experimental results “a solution of the bis(stannyl) complex **P1** and a 10-fold molar excess of Et<sub>3</sub>E'H (E' = Si, Ge) was heated at 60 °C for 24 h, but the ligand exchange reaction of the Et<sub>3</sub>Sn ligand for the Et<sub>3</sub>E' group was not observed” [32].

From above discussion, one can see reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H from Fe(IV) complexes is the most favorable, although Fe–Si bond dissociation is more difficult than Fe–Ge bond in **R1** and Fe–Sn bond in **R2**. Si–H interaction involved in hydrido transition metal-silanes was reported [50–53]. Especially, Vyboishchikov et al. studied in 2006 the Si–H interaction in a family of

silylhydride complexes [Fe(Cp)(CO)(SiMe<sub>n</sub>Cl<sub>3-n</sub>H(X))] (X = SiMe<sub>n</sub>Cl<sub>3-n</sub>, H, Me, n = 0–3), which is similar to the compounds of Cp(CO)FeH(EEt<sub>3</sub>)(E'Et<sub>3</sub>) (E, E' = Si, Ge, Sn) studied in this work, and found that the Si–H interaction was rather insensitive towards the substitution at the silicon atom and the orientation of the silyl ligand relative to the Fe–H bond [26].

We expect that the preferential reductive elimination of Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H from **R1** and **R2** is also related to the nature of Si–H interaction. The Si–H distances are 1.89 Å in **R1** and 1.97 Å in **R2** (Fig. 1), which indicate that **R1** and **R2** belong to silylhydride complexes [53], viz. Cp(CO)Fe(η<sup>2</sup>-HSiEt<sub>3</sub>)(GeEt<sub>3</sub>) and Cp(CO)Fe(η<sup>2</sup>-HSiEt<sub>3</sub>)(SnEt<sub>3</sub>). The short bond distances suggest that strong attractive interaction can exist between silyl and hydride ligands in **R1** and **R2**. In order to prove the existence of the strong Si–H interaction we analyze the MO diagrams shown in Fig. 5 including Si–H, Ge–H and Sn–H bonds in **R1**, **R2** and **Int2**. From Fig. 5(a) we can see there is a larger overlap between Si atom and H atom than between Ge atom and H

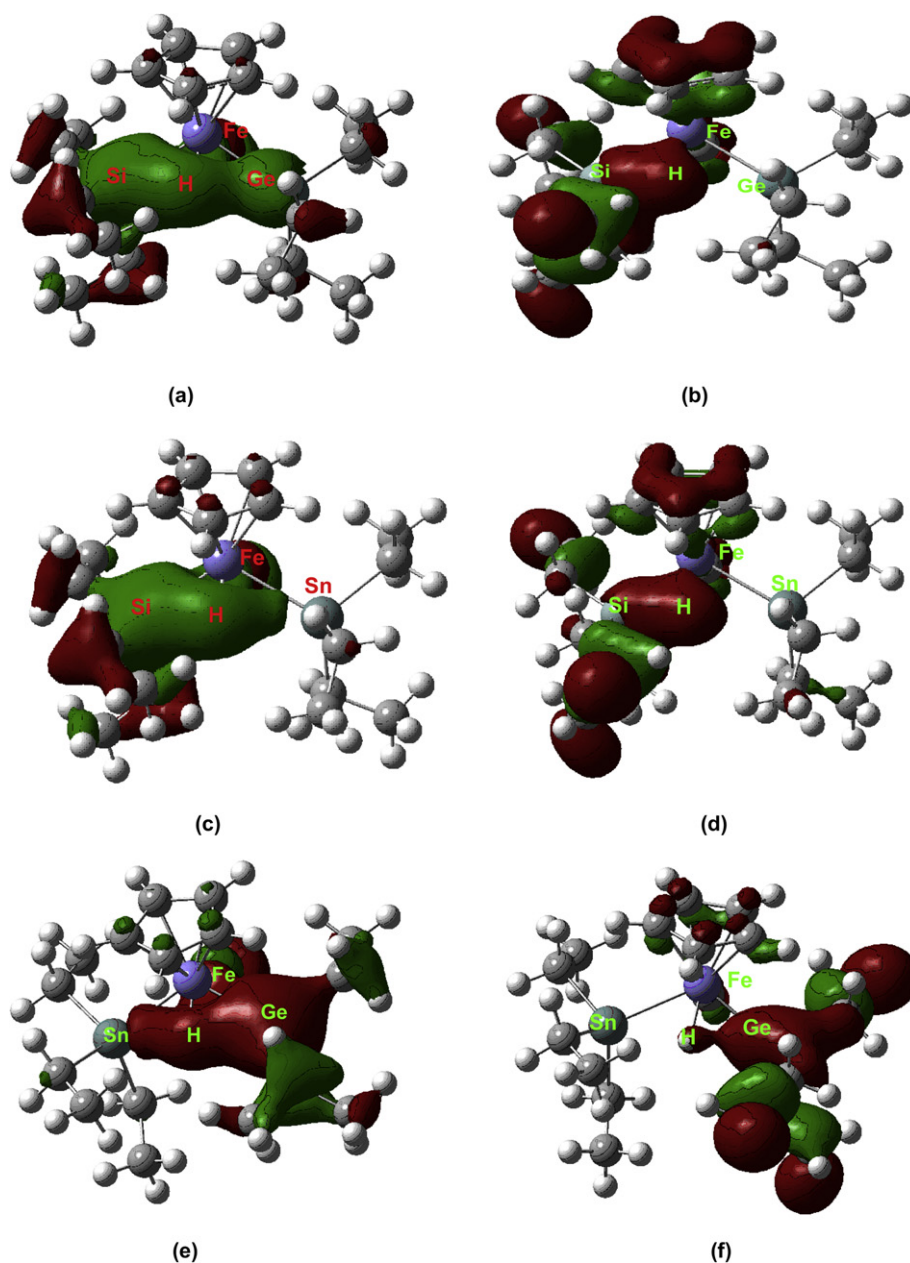


Fig. 5. Molecule orbital displays relevant to the Si–H bond, Ge–H bond and Sn–H bond in Fe–Si–Ge (**R1**), Fe–Si–Sn (**R2**) and Fe–Sn–Ge (**Int2**).

atom in **R1**. Moreover there is also an overlap between Si atom and H atom in another molecular orbital of **R1** (see Fig. 5(b)). These indicate that the interaction between Si atom and H atom in **R1** is stronger than the interaction between Ge atom and H atom in **R1**. Similarly, from Fig. 5(c) and (d) we found there also exists interaction between Si atom and H atom in **R2**, stronger than interaction between Sn atom and H atom in **R2**. The stronger interaction between Si atom and H atom further facilitates reductive elimination of HSiEt<sub>3</sub> from Fe(IV) center in **R1** and **R2**. So HSiEt<sub>3</sub> is reductively eliminated more easily than HGeEt<sub>3</sub> from **R1** and HSnEt<sub>3</sub> from **R2**. To prove the strength of the interaction of Ge–H and Sn–H. We plot the related MOs of **Int2** reflecting the Ge–H and Sn–H interactions as shown in Fig. 5(e) and 5(f). And we found that the interaction between Ge atom and H atom in **Int2** is stronger than the one between Sn atom and H atom in **Int2**, which makes HGeEt<sub>3</sub> more easily be reductively eliminated than HSnEt<sub>3</sub> from **Int2**.

#### 4. Conclusions

The ligand exchange reaction mechanisms of Cp(CO)FeH(EEt<sub>3</sub>) (E'Et<sub>3</sub>) with (HEEt<sub>3</sub>) (E, E' = Si, Ge, Sn) have been investigated through DFT calculations. The reductive elimination of HEEt<sub>3</sub> from Fe(IV) center takes place more readily in the order Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H > Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H >> Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H. The reasons for the order are as follows:

- (1) The thermodynamic preference for reductive elimination: Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H > Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H >> Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H.
- (2) The trend of E–H binding energy: Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H > Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H > Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H.
- (3) The short bond distance between silyl silicon and the hydride indicates a stronger Si···H attractive interaction. The order of the interaction of E–H: Et<sub>3</sub>Si–H > Et<sub>3</sub>Ge–H >> Et<sub>3</sub>Sn–H.

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