

Review

The chemistry of organo(silyl)platinum(II) complexes relevant to catalysis

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Abstract

A variety of silylplatinum complexes *cis*- and *trans*-PtR(SiYPh₂)L₂ (R = Me, Et, Pr, Bu, vinyl, phenyl, phenylethynyl; Y = Ph, Me, H, F, OMe; L = PMePh₂, PMe₂Ph), *cis*-Pt(SiR₃)(SnMe₃)(PMe₂Ph)₂ (SiR₃ = SiMe₃, SiMe₂Ph, SiMePh₂, SiPh₃), and *cis*-Pt(SiR₃)₂(PMe₂Ph)₂ (SiR₃ = SiMe₂Ph, SiMePh₂, SiPh₃) have been prepared, and their structures and reactivities toward C–Si bond formation and phenylacetylene insertion have been examined by X-ray diffraction analysis, NMR spectroscopy, and kinetic experiments. Three types of processes are operative for C–Si bond formation from *cis*-PtR(SiYPh₂)L₂ complexes giving RSiYPh₂. One is the direct C–Si reductive elimination; most of the complexes follow this process. The second type involves isomerization of *cis*-PtR(SiYPh₂)L₂ to *cis*-PtY(SiRPh₂)L₂, followed by Y–Si reductive elimination; this process has been observed for *cis*-PtR(SiPh₃)L₂ (R = Et, Pr, Bu) and *cis*-PtR(SiHPh₂)L₂ (R = Me, Et, Pr, Bu). Reactions of alkyl–silyl complexes with hydrosilanes also afford the corresponding alkylsilanes quantitatively, constituting the third type of process. Insertion of phenylacetylene into the Pt–Si bond of PtR(SiPh₃)L₂ complexes takes place only for the *cis* isomers. Silyl–stannyl complexes undergo competitive insertion of phenylacetylene into the Pt–Si and Pt–Sn bonds under kinetic conditions, whereas the insertion into the Pt–Si bond predominates under thermodynamic conditions. Reactivities of four Pt–SiR₃ bonds toward insertion relative to the Pt–SnMe₃ bond have been evaluated: SiMe₃ (> 49) > SiMe₂Ph (1.9) > SiMePh₂ (0.69) > SiPh₃ (0.075). Bis-silyl complexes exhibit a rather intricate dependence of the insertion reactivity upon the sorts of silyl ligands, not simply correlated with the reactivity of Pt–SiR₃ bonds, owing to the insertion process involving prior dissociation of a phosphine ligand. The bis-silyl complexes have a twisted square planar structure significantly distorted from planarity, and the rate of phosphine dissociation is highly sensitive to this distortion. © 2000 Elsevier Science S.A. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Silyl complex; Platinum; X-ray structures; C–Si bond formation; Reductive elimination; Insertion; Kinetic study

1. Introduction

Catalytic addition of inter-element linkages to unsaturated hydrocarbons has attracted a great deal of recent interest [1,2]. The addition of a silicon–element bond catalyzed by a platinum-group metal complex is among the central subjects of such reactions. The classical examples include hydrosilylation and bis-silylation of alkenes and alkynes [3,4]. More recently, a variety of silicon–element bonds including Si–B [5,6], Si–Sn [7], and Si–S [8] have been applied to the catalysis, and the

scope of applications has been remarkably expanded [1,2]. Organosilicon compounds thus prepared are important tools in organic synthesis. They also occur as building blocks in various synthetic materials [9].

Scheme 1 illustrates essential features of the catalytic cycle generally accepted. The first step is oxidative addition of a silicon–element bond (Si–E) to a low valent metal species **A**. Insertion of a C–C multiple bond into either the metal–silicon bond or the metal–element bond in **B** forms intermediate **C** or **D**, respectively. The subsequent C–E or C–Si reductive elimination gives the addition product with regeneration of **A**.

Among the elementary processes thus presumed, the oxidative addition has been relatively well documented,

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especially for Si–H and Si–Si bonds [1,10]. On the other hand, little is known about the insertion and reductive elimination processes [11]. For example, although it has been reported that isolated bis(silyl)-palladium and -platinum complexes react with alkenes and alkynes to give bis-silylation products [12], direct observations of each elementary process (i.e. insertion into a M–Si bond and C–Si reductive elimination) have been extremely limited [13–15]. This is probably due to the instability of the alkyl (or alkenyl) silyl intermediates, formed by the insertion of alkene or alkyne into bis-silyl complexes.

Table 1 summarizes bond dissociation energies between Group 14 elements and platinum or palladium, estimated by thermochemical and theoretical studies [16]. It is seen that metal–silicon bond is much stronger than the corresponding metal–carbon bond. Nevertheless, the reactivity of silyl metal complexes, inferred from catalytic and stoichiometric silylation reactions, is much higher than that of common organometallic complexes, especially for platinum systems. This fact indicates that the highly reactive nature of silyl complexes is mainly due to kinetic reasons. Therefore, we have been interested in the reaction chemistry of platinum silyl.

In this paper, we wish to summarize our recent studies on the structures and reactivities of silylplatinum com-

plexes in two sections. The first section deals with C–Si bond formation from *cis*-PtR(SiYPh₂)L₂ type complexes [17–23]. The succeeding section describes insertion reactions of phenylacetylene into a platinum–silicon bond [24–27]. Proper choice of supporting ligands has rendered the starting and/or product organo(silyl)platinum complexes stable enough for isolation to permit clean kinetic experiments. This is the first mechanistic study on C–Si bond formation and insertion reactions into a metal–silicon bond using solution kinetics.

2. C–Si bond formation

2.1. Stereoselective synthesis of *cis* and *trans* isomers

The *cis*- and *trans*-PtR(SiYPh₂)L₂ complexes prepared in this study are listed in Chart 1. Since it has been established that the reactivity of square planar, d⁸ metal complexes toward reductive elimination is strongly affected by the configuration around metal center [28], we first examined stereoselective synthesis of the two geometrical isomers.

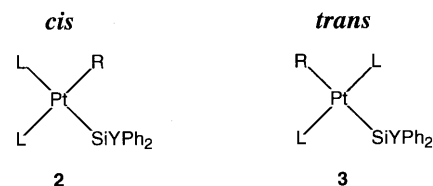
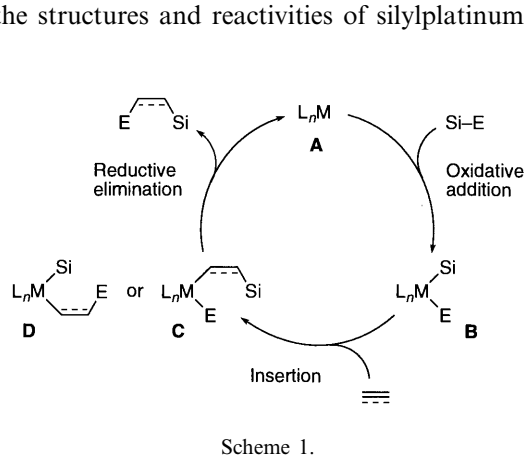


Chart 1.

Table 1
Bond dissociation energies of M–E bonds in kcal mol^{−1}

System	Bond energy	Method	Reference
Pt–CH ₃	32.3	Thermochemical	[16a]
Pt–SiMe ₃	55.7		
Pt–GeMe ₃	43.5		
Pt–SnMe ₃	32.3		
Pd–CH ₃	26.3	Theoretical	[16b]
Pd–SiH ₃	44.5	(at CCSDT level)	
Pd–GeH ₃	38.6		
Pd–SnH ₃	37.5		
CH ₃ –CH ₃	95.3	Theoretical	[16b]
CH ₃ –SiH ₃	86.7	(at CCSDT level)	
CH ₃ –GeH ₃	78.6		
CH ₃ –SnH ₃	68.9		

Complex	R	SiYPh ₂	L
2a	Me	SiPh ₃	PMePh ₂
2b	Me	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
2c	Et	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
2d	Pr	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
2e	Bu	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
2f	Bu	SiMePh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2g	Bu	SiFPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2h	Bu	Si(OMe)Ph ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2i	Me	SiHPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2j	Et	SiHPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2k	Pr	SiHPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2l	Bu	SiHPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2m	CH=CH ₂	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
2n	C≡CPh	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
2o	Ph	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
2p	Ph	SiMePh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2q	Ph	SiEtPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2r	Ph	SiPrPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
2s	Ph	SiBuPh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph
3a	Me	SiPh ₃	PMePh ₂
3b	Me	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph

3c	Et	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
3m	CH=CH ₂	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
3n	C≡CPh	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
3o	Ph	SiPh ₃	PMe ₂ Ph
3p	Ph	SiMePh ₂	PMe ₂ Ph

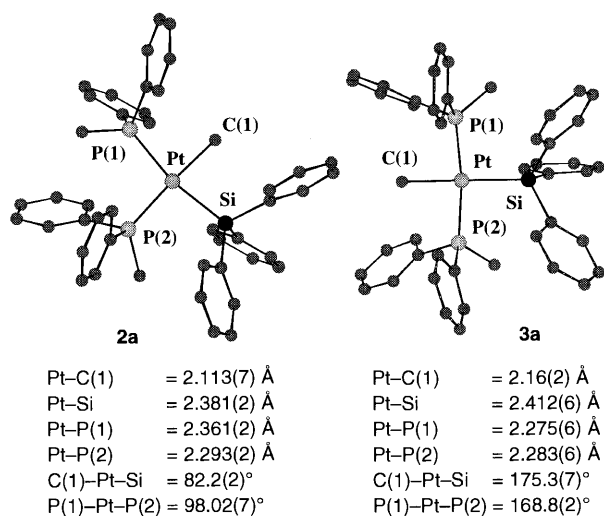
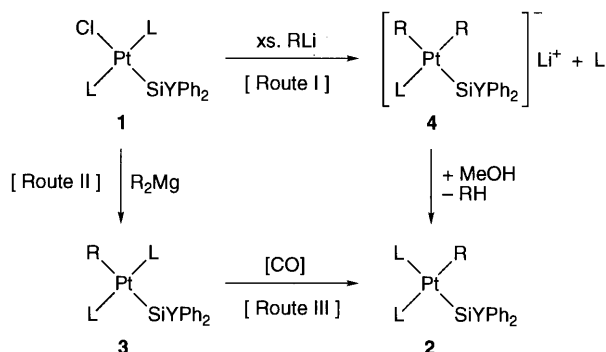


Fig. 1. CHEM-3D views of the X-ray structures of **2a** ($R = 0.038$) and **3a** ($R = 0.056$).

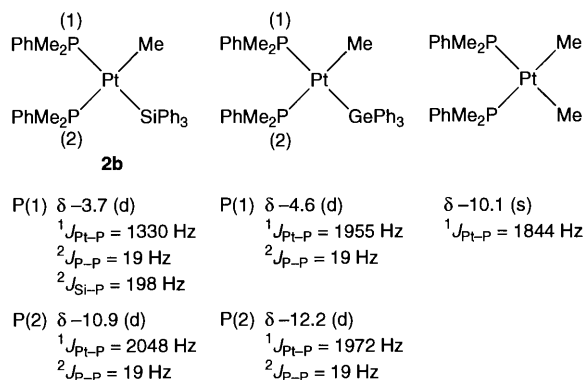


Fig. 2. Comparison of ³¹P-NMR data between **2b** and related complexes.

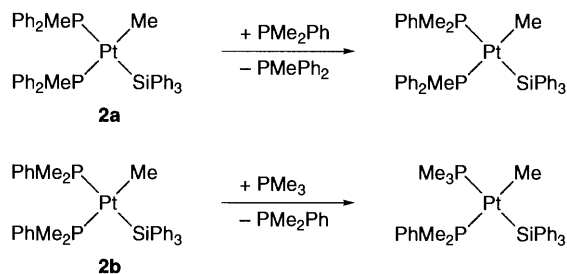
Scheme 2 summarizes the synthetic routes. The basis of stereocontrol is our previous studies on dialkylpalladium complexes [29]. The *cis* isomers of alkyl complexes (**2a–l**) were synthesized by using dialkyl(silyl)platinate intermediates **4**, generated in situ from *trans*-PtCl(SiYPh₂)L₂ (**1**) and excess amounts of alkyllithiums (Route I) [17,25]. Treatment of **4** with MeOH at low temperature led to selective protonation at the more electron-rich alkyl ligand, which is situated *trans* to the silyl ligand. Hence the *cis* isomers **2** were exclusively formed. On the other hand, since dialkylmagnesiums do not form the ate complexes owing to the less ionic nature [30], their reactions with **1** took place with retention of the *trans* configuration, giving the *trans* isomers **3a–c** in almost quantitative yields (Route II) [17,25].

Route I could not be applied to the *cis* isomers with vinyl, phenylethynyl, and phenyl ligands (**2m–p**). Thus the treatment of **1** with corresponding organolithiums followed by methanolysis provided a mixture of *trans* and *cis* isomers. Pure **2m–p** were prepared by isomerization of the *trans* isomers **3m–p** instead (Route III) [20–22]. Interestingly, carbon monoxide served as a good promoter for the isomerization, where no CO insertion into Pt–C bonds took place. On the other hand, *trans*-alkyl–silyl complexes **3a–c** readily underwent the insertion of CO to give *cis*-acyl(silyl)platinum complexes [25].

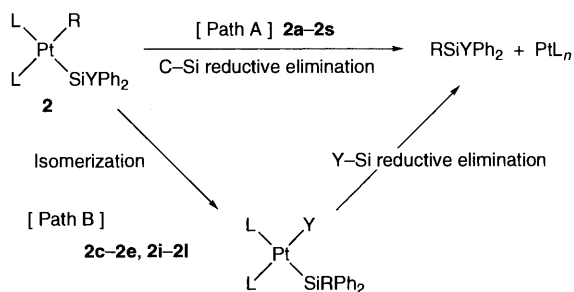
Fig. 1 shows X-ray structures of the *cis* and *trans* isomers of PtMe(SiPh₃)(PMePh₂)₂ (**2a** and **3a**) [17]. A notable structural feature arises from high *trans* influence of the silyl ligands, which leads to elongation of the M–E bonds *trans* to these ligands. For example, in the structure of **2a**, the Pt–P(1) bond (2.361(2) Å), *trans* to the SiPh₃ ligand, is about 0.07 Å longer than the Pt–P(2) bond (2.293(2) Å). It is also noted that the Pt–C(1) bond of **3a** (2.16(2) Å) is about 0.05 Å longer than that of **2a** (2.113(7) Å).

Fig. 2 compares the ³¹P-NMR data of **2b** with the related dimethyl and methyl–germyl complexes [18]. Reflecting the high *trans* influence of the SiPh₃ ligand, the ¹J_{Pt–P} value of P(1) in **2b** is significantly smaller than that of P(2). In contrast, the two phosphorus nuclei in the methyl–germyl complex exhibit almost the same ¹J_{Pt–P} values to each other, indicating the comparable *trans* influence of the GePh₃ and Me ligands. This observation was supported by X-ray structural analysis.

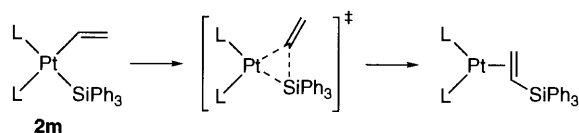
Silyl ligands exhibit extremely high *trans* effect as well. Representative examples are seen in the ligand exchange reactions of **2a** and **2b** with tertiary phosphines (Scheme 3). Treatment of **2a** with an equimolar amount of PMe₂Ph resulted in selective displacement of PMePh₂ *trans* to the SiPh₃ ligand [17,25]. The reaction



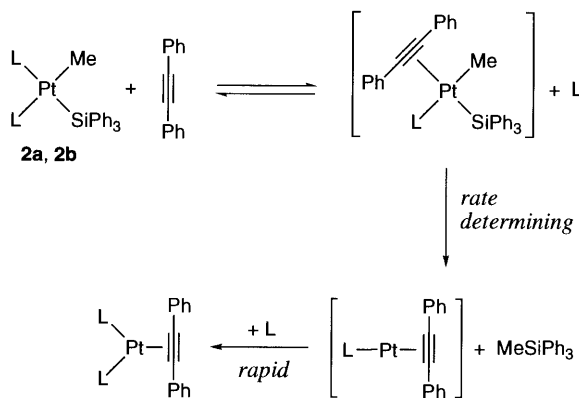
Scheme 3.



Scheme 4.



Scheme 5.



Scheme 6.

of **2b** with PMe_3 also proceeded site-selectively [18]. These reactions were instantly completed at -20°C .

2.2. Mechanisms of C–Si bond formation

Among the organo(silyl)platinum complexes listed in Chart 1, the *trans* isomers **3** were thermally stable. On the other hand, the *cis* isomers **2** underwent C–Si bond

formation under appropriate conditions to give the corresponding organosilanes (RSiYPh_2) in quantitative yields. Detailed analysis of the thermolysis reactions revealed that the C–Si bond formation proceeds via two reaction pathways, as depicted in Scheme 4. Path A is direct C–Si reductive elimination, whereas Path B is an indirect reaction pathway, comprised of isomerization and reductive elimination processes. Most of the complexes followed Path A, while alkyl complexes bearing a SiPh_3 or SiHPh_2 ligand, except for methyl–triphenylsilyl complexes **2a** and **2b**, also underwent Path B.

2.2.1. C–Si bond formation via Path A

Vinyl complex **2m** rapidly decomposed at around room temperature in toluene- d_8 to give a platinum(0) complex coordinated with vinylsilane ($k = 1.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 25.0°C) (Scheme 5) [21]. The reaction rate was not affected by free PMe_2Ph added to the system, indicating a reductive elimination process without dissociation of the phosphine ligand. Complex **2n** having a phenylethenyl ligand exhibited similar kinetic behavior ($k = 2.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 35.0°C in benzene- d_6) [22].

While alkyl complexes **2a**, **2b**, and **2f–h** also gave the corresponding alkylsilanes only by Path A in solution, they showed significantly different thermolysis behavior from **2m** and **2n** [17]. Thus the reaction progress was strongly retarded by addition of free phosphine to the system. The reaction was very slow or not operative in pure solvents, but took place in the presence of an excess amount of alkene or alkyne. Dimethyl acetylenedicarboxylate and maleic anhydride bearing electron-withdrawing substituents served as particularly effective promoters. Diphenylacetylene and styrene also induced the reductive elimination to a considerable extent. On the other hand, the reactions conducted in the presence of simple alkenes such as 1-hexene and 1-octene were slow.

The C–Si reductive elimination from **2a** and **2b** was examined by kinetic experiments in the presence of diphenylacetylene, and the mechanism in Scheme 6 emerged [17,18]. The first step is ligand displacement of one of the phosphine ligands (L) with diphenylacetylene. Taking the much greater *trans* effect of the SiPh_3 ligand than the Me ligand into consideration, this step was assumed to take place selectively at the site *trans* to the SiPh_3 ligand. The acetylene-coordinated complex thus produced undergoes rate-determining elimination of MeSiPh_3 .

2.2.2. C–Si bond formation via Path B

Although the methyl–triphenylsilyl complexes **2a** and **2b** smoothly decomposed by Path A at around room temperature in the presence of diphenylacetylene, the ethyl, propyl, and butyl analogs **2c–e** having the same SiPh_3 ligand were thermally more stable, and mainly

decomposed by the alternative pathway, Path B in Scheme 4. Thus, **2c–e** initially isomerized to the corresponding *cis*-PtPh(SiRPh₂)L₂ complexes (**2q–s**), and then afforded alkylsilane by C–Si reductive elimination [19,20].

Fig. 3 shows the change of platinum complexes with time in the thermolysis solution of **2c**, which was followed by NMR spectroscopy at 50°C [20]. It is seen that at the initial stage phenyl(ethyldiphenylsilyl) com-

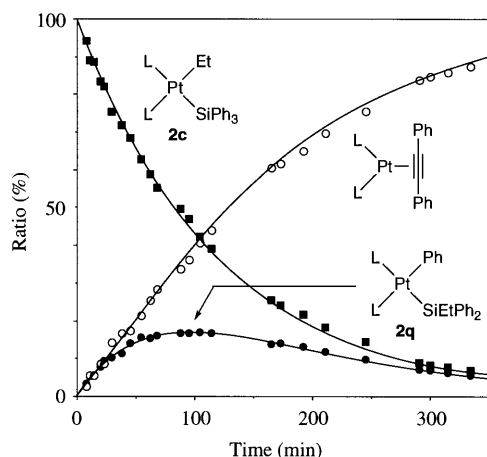
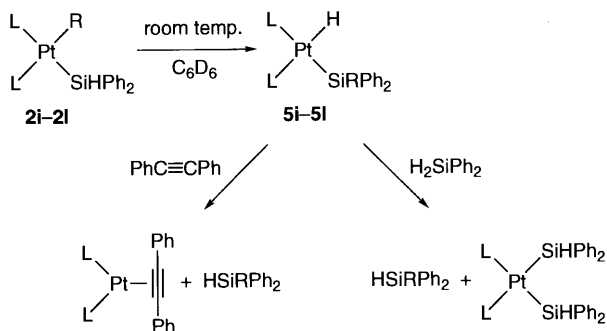
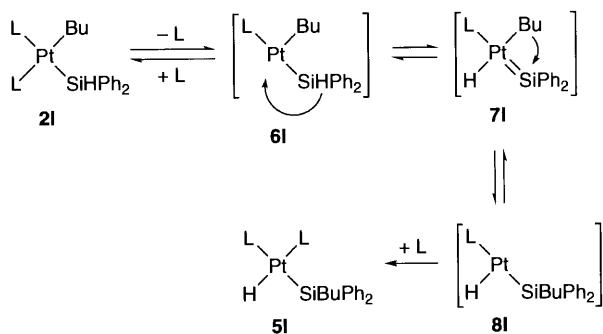


Fig. 3. Time-course of the thermolysis of **2b** in benzene-*d*₆ at 50°C in the presence of diphenylacetylene: [**2b**]₀ = 20 mM, [PhC≡CPh]₀ = 0.20 M. The solid lines exhibit calculated reaction curves for concurrent operation of Path A and Path B in Scheme 4.



Scheme 7.



Scheme 8.

plex **2q** and Pt(PhC≡CPh)L₂ as the reductive elimination product formed simultaneously at the expense of **2c**. The amount of **2q** reached a maximum after approximately 60 min and then gradually decreased, while the amount of Pt(PhC≡CPh)L₂ increased further. Finally, **2c** and **2q** disappeared and only the signal of Pt(PhC≡CPh)L₂ was observed in the ³¹P-NMR spectrum. The time-course thus observed was to be in good agreement with the theoretical curves, estimated for concurrent operation of Path A and Path B in Scheme 3. The rates of the isomerization of **2c** to **2q** ($k = 8.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and the subsequent reductive elimination from **2q** ($k = 2.1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$) were 1.3 and 3.5 times faster than that of the direct reductive elimination from **2c** ($k = 6.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$), respectively.

Path B was more remarkable for the thermolysis of **2i–l** having a SiHPh₂ ligand [19]. These complexes, dissolved in benzene-*d*₆ at room temperature, were converted within a few minutes into the corresponding platinum hydrides *cis*-PtH(SiRPh₂)L₂ (**5i–l**) (Scheme 7). Addition of diphenylacetylene or diphenylsilane to the resulting solutions led to instant liberation of HSiRPh₂ in quantitative yields. Hence the C–Si bond formation without C–Si reductive elimination was observed.

Kinetic data suggested the mechanism in Scheme 8 for the isomerization of **2l** to **5l**. The first step is dissociation of PMe₂Ph from the site *cis* to the SiHPh₂ ligand. The three-coordinate species **6l** thus formed isomerizes to a hydrido–butyldiphenylsilyl complex **8l**, probably via a hydrido–butyl–silylene intermediate **7l**. Coordination of PMe₂Ph to **8l** completes the isomerization. The formation of a platinum silylene complex via α -hydrogen elimination from a SiHAR₂ ligand has been reported [31]. The C–Si bond formation via migration of an alkyl ligand to a silylene ligand also has a precedent [32].

2.2.3. Comparison of C–Si reductive elimination rates

Table 2 summarizes the rates of C–Si reductive elimination for a series of *cis*-PtR(SiYPh₂)(PMe₂Ph)₂ complexes. The first-order rate constants for **2m** and **2n** were observed in pure solvents without additives. On the other hand, since the reductive elimination from the other complexes required the presence of promoters, the reaction rates were measured under pseudo-first-order kinetics conditions containing an excess amount of diphenylacetylene. While the reactions of **2c**, **2d**, and **2e** proceeded via dual pathways (Scheme 3), only the values for Path A are included in the table.

It is seen that the effects of SiYPh₂ groups are modest (entries 7–9 and 10–14), whereas the R groups affect the reaction rates remarkably (entries 1–6 and 14). The reactivity order observed for a series of alkyl–triphenylsilyl complexes (**2b–e**: R = Me ≫ Et > Pr ≥ Bu) is of particular interest, because this order is just

Table 2

The first order or pseudo-first-order rate constants for C–Si reductive elimination from *cis*-PtR(SiYPh₂)(PMe₂Ph)₂ complexes (Path A in Scheme 3)^{a,b}

Entry	Complex		Additive	Temperature (°C)	10 ⁴ <i>k</i> (s ⁻¹)	
	R	SiYPh ₂				
1	C=CH ₂	SiPh ₃	2m	25.0	12	
2	C≡CPh	SiPh ₃	2n	35.0	2.8	
3	Me	SiPh ₃	2b	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0 (30.0)	33 (2.2)
4	Et	SiPh ₃	2c	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	1.0
5	Pr	SiPh ₃	2d	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	0.61
6	Bu	SiPh ₃	2e	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	0.58
7	Bu	SiMePh ₂	2f	PhC≡CPh (0.40 M)	40.0	6.9
8	Bu	SiFPh ₂	2g	PhC≡CPh (0.40 M)	40.0	3.7
9	Bu	Si(OMe)Ph ₂	2h	PhC≡CPh (0.40 M)	40.0	2.7
10	Ph	SiMePh ₂	2p	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	4.3
11	Ph	SiEtPh ₂	2q	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	3.5
12	Ph	SiPrPh ₂	2r	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	1.8
13	Ph	SiBuPh ₂	2s	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	1.4
14	Ph	SiPh ₃	2o	PhC≡CPh (0.20 M)	55.0	1.6

^a The rate constants were measured in benzene-*d*₆, except for runs 1 and 3 (toluene-*d*₈).

^b Initial concentration of **2**: 15–25 mM.

the reverse of the conventional C–C reductive elimination [28,33]. This fact could be rationalized by considering a product-like transition state, in which the R–SiYPh₂ bond is nearly formed. The activation barrier mainly reflects the bond energy between the alkyl and silyl groups, which decreases in the order Si–Me >> Si–Et > Si–Pr ≥ Si–Bu.

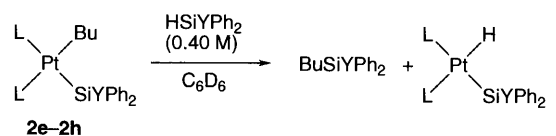
2.2.4. C–Si bond formation in the presence of hydrosilanes

The ethyl, propyl, butyl, and vinyl complexes (**2c**–**2m**) are models of catalytic intermediates for platinum-catalyzed hydrosilylation of alkenes and alkynes. Thus the C–Si reductive elimination from these complexes are generally assumed as the product-forming step of the catalysis [11]. Actually, the vinyl complex **2m** exhibited high reactivity toward C–Si reductive elimination even at room temperature (entry 1 in Table 2). The alkyl complexes bearing SiHPh₂ ligand also underwent C–Si bond formation at room temperature according to the process depicted in Scheme 8. However, the other complexes **2c**–**2h** were poorly reactive. Thus, although **2c**–**2h** afforded alkylsilanes under heated conditions in the presence of diphenylacetylene, the C–Si reductive elimination was extremely slow in the presence of common alkene substrates such as 1-hexene and 1-octene. Therefore, we next examined if the alkylsilane formation takes place in the presence of hydrosilanes, the other substrates of catalytic hydrosilylation [23].

The results are summarized in Scheme 9. The butyl–silyl complexes, except for **2h** (Y = OMe), provided the corresponding butylsilanes in almost quantitative yields

(> 97%), together with hydrido(silyl)platinum complexes. The reaction of **2g** was first-order in the concentration of hydrosilane ($k_{\text{obsd}} = k[\text{HSiFPh}_2][\mathbf{2}]$), showing the selective formation of BuSiFPh₂ by the interaction of **2g** with HSiFPh₂.

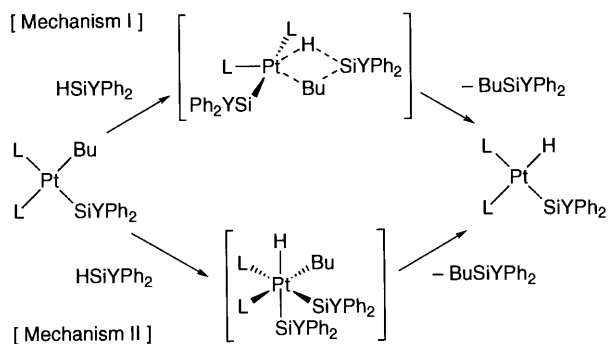
There are two possible mechanisms for the reactions of alkyl(silyl)platinum complexes with hydrosilanes (Scheme 10). One is σ -bond metathesis involving a four-center transition state (Mechanism I), and the other is a sequence of oxidative addition and reductive elimination involving a Pt(IV) species (Mechanism II). While the former mechanism has been well documented for early transition metals complexes having a d⁰ metal center [34], its experimental evidence for late transition metal systems is extremely limited [35]. On the other hand, the latter process is commonly assumed for late transition metal-catalyzed reactions. Furthermore, the occurrence of well-defined platinum(IV) complexes by



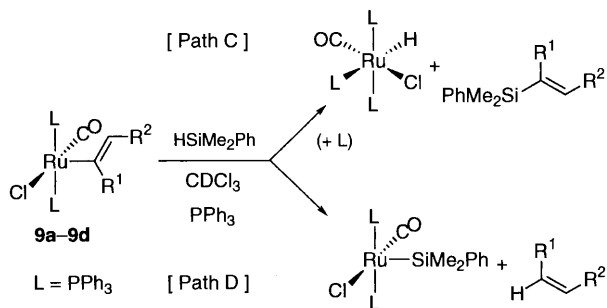
Y	Temp. (°C)	Yield (%) ^a	10 ⁴ <i>k</i> (s ⁻¹)
Ph	55.0	99	1.7
Me	40.0	97	2.7
F	40.0	99	1.6
OMe	60.0	trace	slow

^a GLC yield.

Scheme 9.



Scheme 10.



Complex	R ¹	R ²	Path C/Path D
9a	H	Ph	99/1
9b	H	<i>t</i> -Bu	91/9
9c	Ph	Ph	0/100
9d	CH=CH(SiMe ₃)	SiMe ₂ Ph	0/100

At room temperature. **9**/HSiMe₂Ph/PPh₃ = 1/20/1.

Scheme 11.

oxidative addition of hydrosilanes has been recently reported [36]. Nevertheless, an important problem associated with mechanism II still remains unclarified. Thus, to the best of our knowledge, there is no definitive example for the selective C–Si bond formation from an isolated alkyl(hydrido)(silyl)metal species. On the contrary, preferential C–H reductive elimination from such species has been documented [37].

We recently found an interesting dichotomy between the mechanisms of C–Si and C–H bond formation in this connection [38,39]. As shown in Scheme 11, the reactions of alkenylruthenium complexes (**9a–d**) with HSiMe₂Ph proceed by either the C–Si or C–H bond formation process (Path C and Path D, respectively). The course-selectivity alters dramatically with the substituents on the alkenyl ligands, particularly with the α -substituent. Thus Path C is mainly operative when the α -substituent is absent (**9a** and **9b**), while Path D proceeds exclusively for the alkenyl complexes bearing an α -substituent (**9c** and **9d**).

Kinetic studies for a series of *para*-substituted styryl complex derivatives strongly suggested the C–Si bond

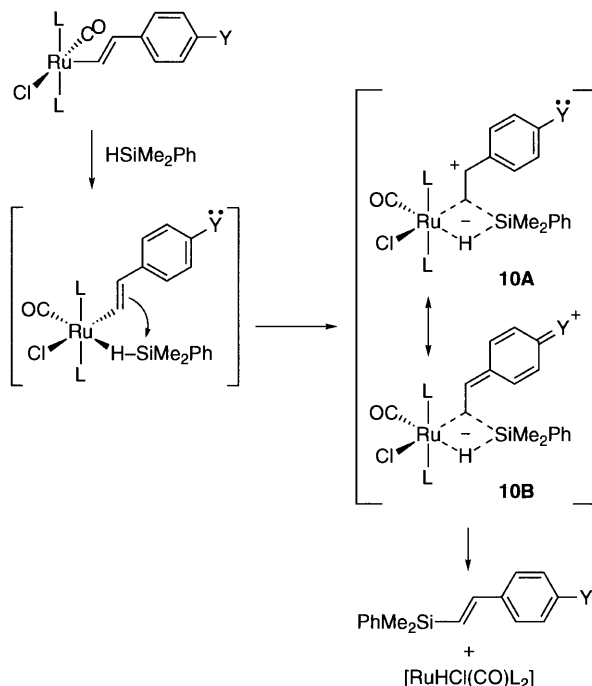
formation mechanism given in Scheme 12 [40]. The first step is a direct association of HSiMe₂Ph with the styryl complexes. The approach of hydrosilane toward ruthenium will take place initially from the compact and electron-rich hydrogen atom. The electrophilic nature of silicon is enhanced by this coordination, leading to nucleophilic attack of the α -carbon of styryl ligand on silicon. The four-center transition state **10** thus produced gives rise to the selective formation of Ru–H and Si–C bonds. The reaction rates exhibited a clear Hammett correlation with σ_p^+ values of the substituents Y ($\rho = -1.07(4)$); the values are known to reflect stabilization of an α -cationic center generated at the *para* position of the substituent in the transition state, as depicted by the limiting structures **10A** and **10B**.

On the other hand, the C–H bond formation for **9d** was found to proceed by oxidative addition of HSiMe₂Ph, followed by C–H reductive elimination from a Ru(IV) intermediate.

3. Insertion into a Pt–Si bond

3.1. Effect of *cis* and *trans* geometries

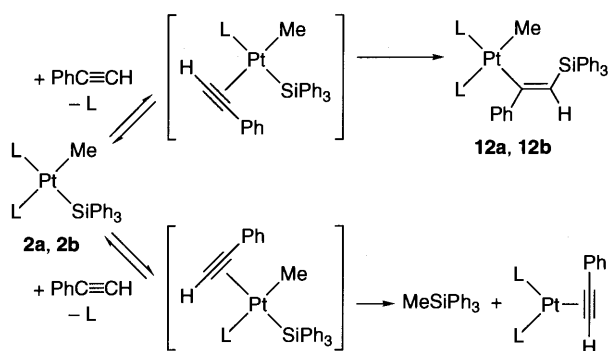
Reactivities of *cis*- and *trans*-PdMe(SiPh₃)L₂ complexes (**2a**, **2b**, **3a**, and **3b**) were compared for the insertion of phenylacetylene [24,25]. Interestingly, only the *cis* isomers underwent the insertion; the *trans* isomer was totally unreactive or slowly converted to a phenylethynyl complex *trans*-Pt(C≡CPh)(SiPh₃)L₂. This



Scheme 12.

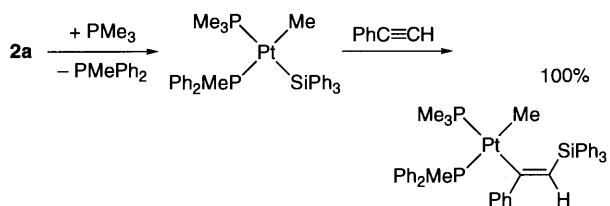
striking dependence of the reactivity upon the configuration around platinum was attributable to the ease of ligand displacement of phosphine by phenylacetylene. The occurrence of ligand exchange prior to the insertion was confirmed for a related *cis*-Pt(COEt)(SiPh₃)(PMe₂Ph)₂ complex by kinetic investigations.

Scheme 13 illustrates details of the reactions of *cis* isomers. The phenylacetylene insertion competes with

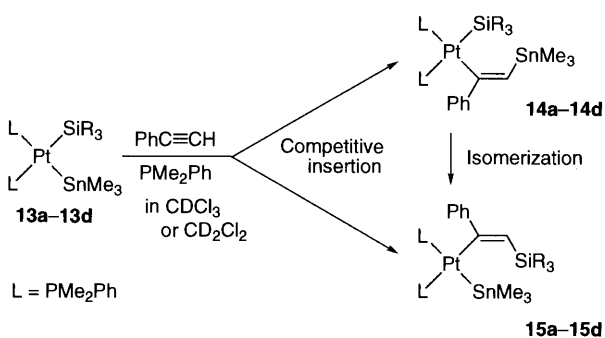


L	Insertion/Reductive elimination
PMePh ₂ (2a)	21/79
PMe ₂ Ph (2b)	70/30

In C₆D₆, at room temperature.



Scheme 13.



SiR ₃	Temp.	Kinetic ratio (14 / 15)
SiMe ₃ (13a)	-70 °C	0/100
SiMe ₂ Ph (13b)	-5 °C	34/66
SiMePh ₂ (13c)	15 °C	59/41
SiPh ₃ (13d)	50 °C	93/7

13/PhC≡CH/PMe₂Ph = 1/10/1.

Scheme 14.

the C–Si reductive elimination giving MeSiPh₃. Complex **2b** bearing PMe₂Ph ligands gives the insertion complex **12b** in 70% selectivity. On the other hand, the PMePh₂ complex **2a** mainly undergoes the C–Si reductive elimination. We proposed that the insertion proceeds via ligand exchange between phenylacetylene and L *trans* to the Me ligand, whereas the C–Si reductive elimination involves prior displacement of L *trans* to the SiPh₃ ligand. Actually, the reductive elimination was effectively suppressed by introducing PMe₃, which possesses a higher coordination ability than PMePh₂, into the *trans* position of the SiPh₃ ligand, causing selective formation of the insertion complex. This fact further supported the reductive elimination mechanism in Scheme 6.

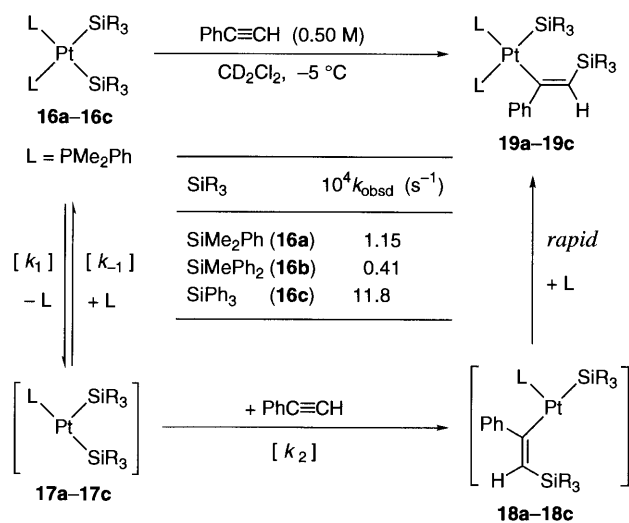
3.2. Reactivity of platinum–silyl bonds

We next examined insertion reactions of phenylacetylene into silyl(stannyl)platinum complexes **13a–d** (Scheme 14) [26]. The insertion into the Pt–Sn bond and the Pt–Si bond competed with each other under kinetic conditions. Under thermodynamic conditions, on the other hand, the insertion complexes into the Pt–Si bond (**15a–d**) were exclusively formed. These tendencies are in accordance with the previous theoretical predictions for the alkyne insertion into *cis*-Pd(SiH₃)(SnH₃)(PH₃)₂ [41].

The kinetic ratio of **14** to **15** varied significantly with the type of silyl ligand. The SiMe₃ complex **13a** gave **14a** exclusively (**14a**/**15a** ≈ 0/100), whereas **13d** bearing SiPh₃ ligand afforded **15d** predominantly (**14d**/**15d** = 93/7). Complexes **14b** and **14c** exhibited intermediate product ratios (**14b**/**15b** = 34/66; **14c**/**15c** = 59/41). Based on these kinetic ratios, insertion reactivities of the four Pt–SiR₃ bonds relative to the Pt–SnMe₃ bond are estimated: SiMe₃ (> 49) > SiMe₂Ph (1.9) > SiMePh₂ (0.69) > SiPh₃ (0.075). This order appears to reflect increasing strength of the Pt–SiR₃ bonds; namely, the M–Si bond dissociation energy is known to increase with increasing electron affinity of silyl ligand, which is enhanced by electron-withdrawing substituents on silicon [15]. A similar tendency was noted for the insertion reaction of unsymmetrical bis-silyl complex *cis*-Pt(SiMe₂Ph)(SiPh₃)(PMe₂Ph)₂ with phenylacetylene [27]. In this case, the insertion into the Pt–SiMe₂Ph bond took place in over 96% selectivity.

3.3. Factors governing the reactivity of bis(silyl)platinum complexes

We could evaluate the reactivity order of four Pt–SiR₃ bonds. However, this order was not simply correlated with the insertion reactivities of symmetrical bis-silyl complexes having these Pt–SiR₃ bonds [27].



Scheme 15.

Table 3
The rate constants in Scheme 15 for **16a–c**^a

16a (at -5°C)	$k_1 = 1.46(3) \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$k_2/k_{-1} = 1.35(9) \times 10^{-2}$
16b (at 10°C)	$k_1 = 1.8(1) \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$k_2/k_{-1} = 1.48(9) \times 10^{-3}$
16c (at -5°C)	$k_1 = 2.8(11) \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	$k_2/k_{-1} = 4.1(13) \times 10^{-4}$

^a The values were estimated from the $1/k_{\text{obsd}} - 1/[\text{PhC}\equiv\text{CH}]$ plots, examined in CD_2Cl_2 in the presence of added PMe_2Ph (2.5 mM).

The results are given in Scheme 15. As judging from the pseudo-first-order rate constants (k_{obsd}), which were measured in CD_2Cl_2 at -5°C in the presence of an excess amount of phenylacetylene (0.50 M), the reactivity of three bis-silyl complexes decreases in the order **16c** > **16a** > **16b**, which is apparently inconsistent with the reactivity order observed for the Pt–SiR₃ bonds under kinetic conditions. The most significant is the

highest insertion rate of **16c**, which has the least reactive Pt–SiPh₃ bonds.

The reason for this disagreement could be gained from kinetic data. As depicted in Scheme 15, the phenylacetylene insertion into bis-silyl complexes involves prior dissociation of one of the PMe_2Ph ligands, giving a three-coordinate intermediate **17**, which successively undergoes insertion of phenylacetylene into the Pt–Si bond. The resulting alkenyl–silyl complex **18** is then rapidly converted to the final product **19** by *trans* to *cis* isomerization followed by coordination of PMe_2Ph liberated in the system.

Table 3 lists the rate constants for each elementary step (i.e. k_1 and k_2/k_{-1} in Scheme 15). It is seen that the k_2/k_{-1} value for **16a** is 33 times larger than that for **16c**. This fact is consistent with the higher reactivity of Pt–SiMe₂Ph bond than Pt–SiPh₃ bond toward insertion (vide infra). Even in this situation, however, **16c** reacts more rapidly with phenylacetylene than **16a**. This is because **16c** undergoes the dissociation of PMe_2Ph more readily than **16a** (see the k_1 values in Table 3). The k_1 value of **16b** with the least reactivity is $1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 10°C , which corresponds to the approximate value of $0.9 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at -5°C on the basis of activation parameters. Accordingly, it is concluded that the reactivities of **16a–c** are mainly controlled by the rates of dissociation of PMe_2Ph .

Fig. 4 shows the X-ray structures of **16a–c**, together with the $^{31}\text{P}\{^1\text{H}\}$ -NMR data. As already pointed out for **16b** by Tsuji et al. [42], the bis(silyl)platinum complexes have a twisted square planar geometry around platinum, distinctly distorted from planarity in the order **16a** < **16c** < **16b**. Since the theoretical structure of *cis*-Pt(SiH₃)₂(PH₃)₂ has no such distortion [43], the structural variation observed for **16a–c** may be attributed primarily to the difference in bulkiness of silyl ligands. Actually, the distances between the two silicon

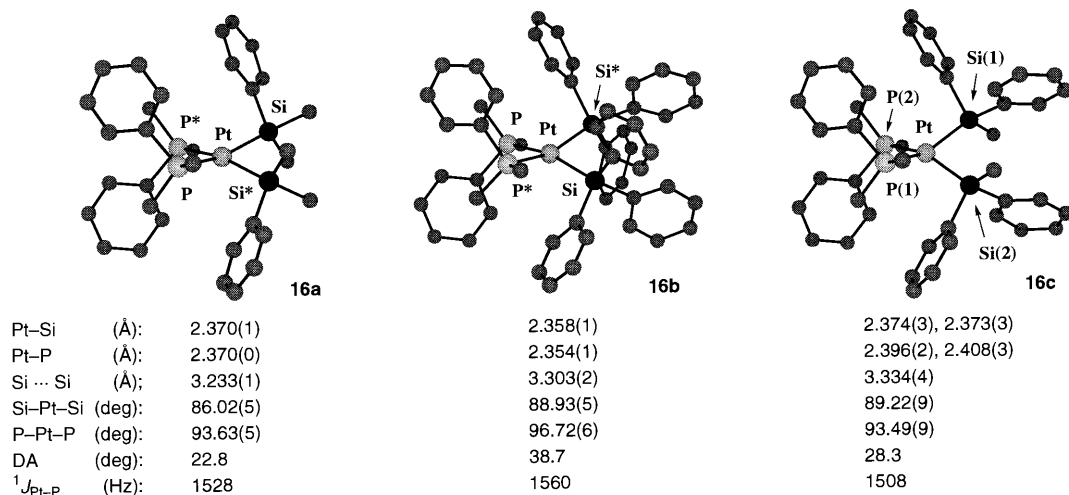


Fig. 4. CHEM-3D views of the X-ray structures of bis(silyl)platinum complexes **16a** ($R = 0.026$), **16b** ($R = 0.044$), and **16c** ($R = 0.042$).

atoms (Si–Si) and the Si–Pt–Si angles are significantly larger than the calculated ones (3.111 Å and 82.0°) and increase with increasing bulkiness of silyl ligands (**16a** < **16b** < **16c**). On the other hand, dihedral angles between the PtP₂ and the PtSi₂ plane exhibit irregularity in their order (**16a** < **16c** < **16b**), not simply accounted for by steric congestion around platinum. Thus **16b** with medium sized SiMePh₂ ligands has the most twisted structure, while **16c** with the biggest SiPh₃ ligands shows the medium dihedral angle. It is further noted that **16b**, with the most twisted structure, has the shortest Pt–Si and Pt–P bonds. Since bond lengths between the metal center and coordinated atoms in square planar complexes are known to vary with *trans* influence, the significant distortion in **16b**, which reduces the direct labilizing interaction between mutually *trans* ligands, may be responsible for the shortest bonds. It is also seen that the Pt–P bond lengths determined by X-ray structural analysis are nicely correlated with the ¹J_{Pt–P} values observed in ³¹P{¹H}NMR spectra. Thus the Pt–P distances in the crystals decrease as the ¹J_{Pt–P} constants increase. Therefore, we may consider that the structural features observed in the crystals are preserved in solution as well.

Similarly to *cis*-MR₂L₂ complexes of Group 10 metals (R = alkyl, L = tertiary phosphine) [33a], the silyl ligands in **16a–c** combine with the Pt(PMe₂Ph)₂ moiety *via* two types of bonding orbitals given in Chart 2. The *a*₁ and *b*₂ symmetry orbitals in this scheme are roughly assigned to donation (σ → d) and back-donation (d → σ*) interactions between the combination of two SiR₃ ligands and the platinum center, respectively. Unlike the dialkyl complexes, the present complexes have silyl ligands, which are much more electron-releasing than alkyl ligands. Therefore, the *a*₁ type orbital interaction can predominate over the *b*₂ type interaction. In this situation, bis-silyl complex has a significantly distorted structure when the distortion is needed to relieve the steric repulsion between the ligands. The higher distortion in **16b** than **16a** can be rationalized in this context; namely, the sterically more demanding SiMePh₂ ligand leads to the more twisted structure, and the steric strain inherent in **16b** is effectively relieved by this distortion. In addition, the distortion also reduces direct *trans* influence of the silyl ligands on the Pt–P bonds. Indeed, **16b** has the shortest Pt–P bonds and the largest ¹J_{Pt–P} constant. These situations give rise to the stability of **16b** toward the dissociation of PMe₂Ph and reduce the insertion rate.

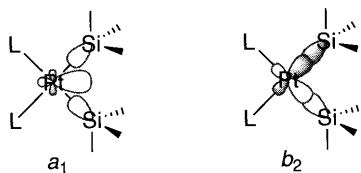


Chart 2.

On the other hand, when the silyl ligand has electron-withdrawing (or less electron-releasing) substituents and possesses an electron-withdrawing character, the *b*₁ type orbital interaction gains importance, compelling the planarity of bis(silyl) complex. Complex **16c** should be the case, in which the distortion is modest despite the presence of the most sterically demanding SiPh₃ ligands. This situation must provide significant strain energy for **16c**, which will be efficiently released by dissociation of one of the PMe₂Ph ligands. Furthermore, the more planar structure causes the more effective weakening of the Pt–P bonds by silyl ligands with great *trans* influence; **16c** actually has the longest Pt–P bonds and the smallest ¹J_{Pt–P} constant (Fig. 4). Consequently, **16c** is highly reactive to the dissociation of PMe₂Ph and hence to the insertion of phenylacetylene.

4. Conclusion

Although the mechanisms of catalytic addition of silicon–element bonds to carbon–carbon multiple bonds are frequently discussed by an extension of conventional organometallic chemistry, the present study has clearly indicated that the silyl metal intermediates are significantly unique in their structures and reactivities. The use of kinetic techniques in combination with well-defined complexes is a powerful means of gaining a deep understanding of such chemistry.

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