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The chemistry of functional groups

Edited by Frank R. Hartley The chemistry of organophosphorus compounds

Volume 2 Phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides and tellurides





THE CHEMISTRY OF ORGANOPHOSPHORUS COMPOUNDS **VOLUME 2**

Phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides and tellurides

Edited by

Frank R. Hartley

The Cranfield Institute of Technology, England

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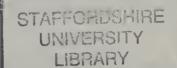






The chemistry of organophosphorus compounds

Volume 2



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The chemistry of organophosphorus compounds

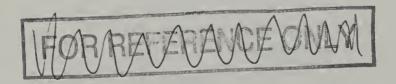
Volume 2

Phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides and tellurides

Edited by

FRANK R. HARTLEY

Cranfield Institute of Technology
Cranfield, UK



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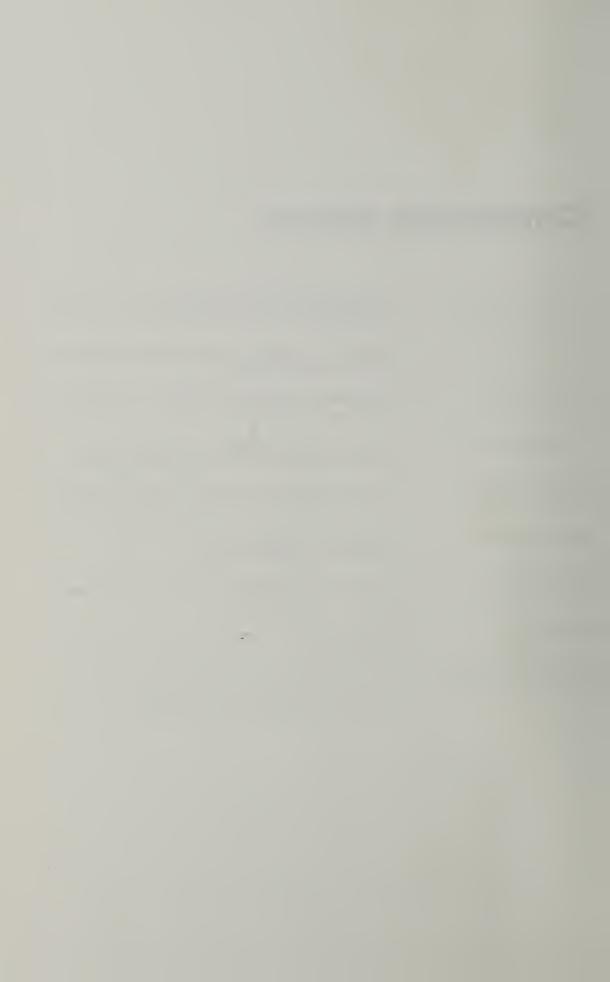
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V. H., S. M. H., J. A. H. and E. J. H.



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Foreword

The Chemistry of Organophosphorus Compounds is a multi-volume work within the well established series of books covering The Chemistry of Functional Groups. It is proposed to cover the extensive subject matter in four volumes.

Volume 1 covers primary, secondary and tertiary phosphines $(PR_3H_{3-n}, n=1-3)$, polyphosphines [both $P(C)_nP$ and $R(P)_nR'$, n>1) and heterocyclic compounds containing phosphorus.

Volume 2 covers phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides and tellurides.

Volume 3 will cover phosphonium salts, phosphonium ylides and phosphoranes.

Volume 4 will cover phosphinous, phosphonous, phosphinic and phosphonic aeid compounds and their halogen derivatives R_2PY , RPY_2 and $R_2P(X)Y_2$, where Y = halogen and X = O, S or Se.

For many years the nomenclature used in organophosphorus chemistry was extremely frustrating, with different compounds being given the same name by different authors. The nomenclature has, however, now been rationalized and is summarized in Volume 1, Chapter 1, Section IV.

In common with other volumes in The Chemistry of the Functional Groups series, the emphasis is laid on the functional group treated and on the effects which it exerts on the ehemical and physical properties, primarily in the immediate vicinity of the group in question, and secondarily on the behaviour of the whole molecule. The coverage is restricted in that material included in easily and generally available secondary or tertiary sources, such as Chemical Reviews and various 'Advances' and 'Progress' series, as well as textbooks (i.e. in books which are usually found in the chemical libraries of universities and research institutes) is not as a rule repeated in detail, unless it is necessary for the balaneed treatment of the subject. Therefore, each of the authors has been asked not to give an encyclopaedic coverage of his or her subject, but to concentrate on the most important recent developments and mainly on material that has not been adequately covered by reviews or other secondary sources by the time of writing of the chapter, and to address himself or herself to a reader who is assumed to be at a fairly advanced postgraduate level. With these restrictions, it is realised that no plan can be devised for a volume that would give a complete coverage of the subject with no overlap between the chapters, while at the same time preserving the readability of the text.

The publication of the Functional Group Series would never had started without the support of many people. This volume would never have reached fruition without the help of Mr Mitchell and Mrs Perkins with typing and the efficient and patient ecoperation of several staff members of the Publisher. Many of my colleagues in England, Israel and elsewhere gave help in solving many problems, especially Professor Saul Patai, without whose continual support and encouragement this work would never have been attempted.

x Foreword

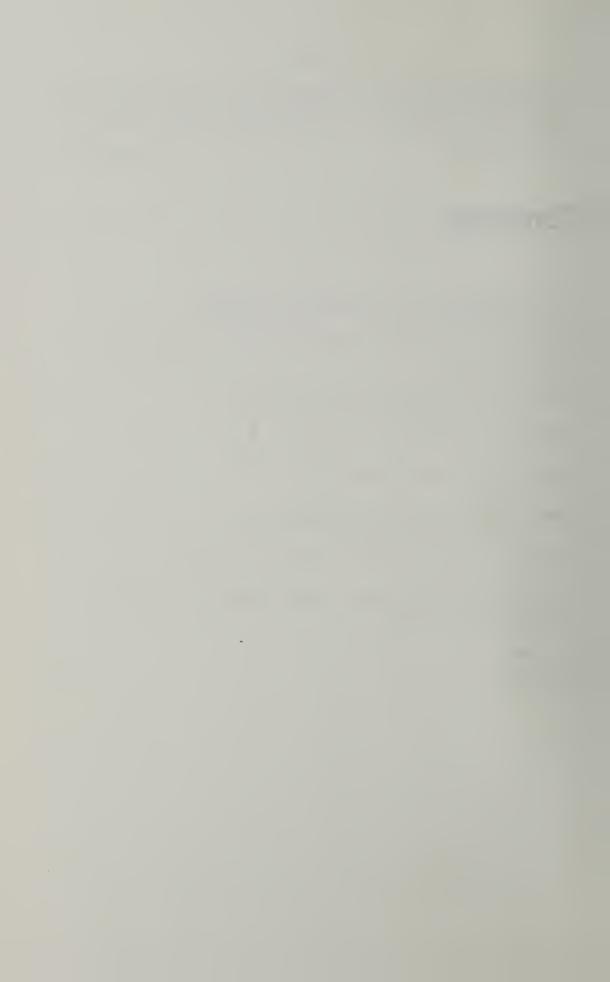
Finally, that the project ever reached completion is due to the essential support and partnership of my wife and family, amongst whom my eldest daughter provided both moral support and chemical understanding in the more difficult areas of the subject.

Cranfield, England

FRANK HARTLEY

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List of abbreviations used

abd azobisisobutyl diacetate

Ac acetyl (MeCO)
acac acetylacetone
Ad adamantyl

aibn azobisisobutyronitrile

all allyl

an acetonitrile
An anisyl
Ar aryl

ATP adenosine triphosphate

bipy 2,2'-bipyridine

BSA bovine serum albumin

N.O-bis(trimethylsilyl)acetamide

Bu butyl (also t-Bu or Bu^t)

Bz benzyl

btsa

cd circular dichroism cod cycloocta-1,5-diene cp cyclopentadienyl

mCPBA m-chloroperoxybenzoic acid

CPMAS cross-polarization magic angle spinning

Cy cyclohexyl

dbn 1,5-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]non-5-ene

dbso dibenzoyl sulphoxide

dbu 1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene DDPN+ deamino diphosphopyridine nucleotide

diop 2,3-o-isopropylidene-2,3-dihydroxy-1,4-bis(diphenylphosphino)

butane

dme 1,2-dimethoxyethane dmf dimethylformamide dmg dimethylglyoximate

dmpe bis(1,2-dimethylphosphino)ethane

dmso dimethyl sulphoxide
DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

 $\frac{dpbO_2}{dpbS_2} \left\{ Ph_2P(E)(CH_2)_4P(E)Ph_2 \quad E = O, S \right\}$

dpbSe₂ dpeO₂ dpeS2 $Ph_2P(E)(CH_2)_nP(E)Ph_2$ dpeSe2 dpmO₂ b. n = 4e, n = 2dpmS₂ m, n = 1dpmSe₂ p, n = 3dppO₂ E = O, S, SedppS₂

dppSe2

ee

dpmPS Ph₂P(S)CH₂PPh₂ Ph, P(Se)CH, PPh, dpmPSe

diphosphopyridine nucleotide DPN+

dihydronicotinamide adenine dinucleotide **DPNH**

bis(1,4-diphenylphosphino)butane dppb bis(1,2-diphenylphosphino)ethane dppe bis(1,1-diphenylphosphino)methane dppm bis(1,3-diphenylphosphino)propanc dppp

diphenyl sulphoxide dpso

electron transfer followed by chemical reaction followed by further **ECE**

> electron transfer enantiomeric excess

electron paramagnetic resonance epr

electron spin resonance esr

flavine adenine dinucleotide **FAD** flavine mononucleotide **FMN** Fourier transform FT

Hba benzoylacetone

benzoyltrifluoroacetone Hbfa dibenzoylmethane Hdbm

di(2-ethylhexyl)phosphoric acid H2dehp

dimethylglyoxime H₂dmg

dithizone (3-mercapto-1,5-diphenylformazan) H2dz

Hex hexyl

hexafluoroacetylacetone Hhfa

hanging mercury drop electrode hmde hexamethylphosphoramide hmpa hexamethylphosphorotriamide hmpt highest occupied molecular orbital **HOMO**

8-hydroxyquinoline Hox

high-performance liquid chromatography **HPLC** 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-acylpyrazol-5-one Hpmap 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-benzoylpyrazol-5-one Hpmbp 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-butyrylpyrazol-5-one Hpmbup

1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-(3,5-dinitrobenzoyl)-pyrazol-5-one Hpmdbp

1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-octanoylpyrazol-5-one Hpmop 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-stearoylpyrazol-5-one Hpmsp 1-phcnyl-3-methyl-4-trifluoroacetylpyrazol-5-one Hpmtfp

pivaloyltrifluoroacetone Hpva

dipivaloylacetone Hpvta

thiobenzoyltrifluoroacetone Htbfa Htfa trifluoroacetylacetone

Htfma 1,1,1-trilluoro-5-methylhexanc-2,4-dione 1,1,1-trifluoro-3-(2-thenoyl)acetone Htta

IP ionization potential

concentration causing lethality to 50% of the population LC₅₀

dose causing lethality to 50% of the population

LD_{so} 1da lithium diisopropylamide lone pair of electrons lp

lowest unoccupied molecular orbital LUMO

M metal Me methyl

mibk methyl isobutyl ketone

modified neglect of diatomic overlap MNDO

nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate NADP

nba N-bromoacetamide N-bromosuccinimide nbs

nicotinamide ribose monophosphate NHN

Np naphthyl

OAc acetate

optical rotatory dispersion ord

Pe pentenyl pentyl (C_5H_{11}) Pen

photoelectron spectroscopy pes

Ph phenyl

tbpo

tfa

1,10-phenanthroline phen polyphosphoric acid ppa parts per million ppm

propyl (also i-Pr or Pr i) Pr

any radical RNA ribonucleic acid

standard calomel electrode SCE

self-consistent field SCF

trigonal bipyramid (when referring to a structure) or tert-butyl tbp

peroxide (when referring to a chemical)

tri-n-butyl phosphate trifluoroacetic acid

tetrafluorobenzobicyclo[2.2.2]octatriene tfb

thf tetrahydrofuran tetrahydrothiophen tht

N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylenediamine tmeda 2,2,6,6-tctramethylpiperidinc-1-oxyl tmpo

xvi List of abbreviations used

Tol tolyl (CH₃C₆H₄) tri-n-octyl phosphate

tos tosyl

TPN triphosphopyridine nucleolide

VSEPR valence shell electron pair repulsion

X halide

CHAPTER 1

Structure and bonding in tertiary phosphine chalcogenides

D. G. GILHEANY

Department of Chemistry, St. Patrick's College, Maynooth, Co. Kildare, Ireland

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1. INTRODUCTION

The general features of bonding to phosphorus were discussed in Volume 11, including likely bonding schemes and the strengths of single and double bonds to phosphorus. Using these, the gross features of the structure and bonding of phosphine chalcogenides are readily predicted and understood. Taking the oxides as an example, phosphorus has five electrons available for bonding, so five bonds to phosphorus are possible, while oxygen is normally divalent and double bonds are allowed. Hence, if we ignore the octet rule, there is no problem in predicting the correct structure: phosphorus will have four ligands via three single bonds and one double bond to oxygen, with all electrons used. From the recently rehabilitated2 valence shell electron pair repuslion (VSEPR) theory, the four ligands are expected to have tetrahedral geometry with the bond to oxygen being stronger than the others and rather polar because of the difference in electronegativity between oxygen and phosphorus. These predictions are borne out completely by measurement of the bond lengths and angles (detailed in Section III), vibration frequencies and dipole moment (Section IV.A). The strength of the PO bond is illustrated by the experience of practical chemists that its formation drives the very useful Wittig and Arbusov reactions and the reactions of life itself.

Of course, it is not that simple. First, there is the problem of the octet rule, and second, on the LCAO-MO model there are, at first sight, not enough orbitals on phosphorus. Indeed, much of the previous discussion of the bonding in phosphine oxides, (and sulphides and selenides) has centred on how to overcome these difficulties, in particular with respect to the nature of the PO bond. Thus the standard discussion of the PO bond in previous reviews of this topic³⁻¹³ has been in terms of a combination of two different descriptions, often *via* a resonance between structures 1A and 1B:

$$P^+ \longrightarrow O^- \longleftrightarrow P \Longrightarrow O$$
1A 1B

Structure 1A avoids the problem of violation of the octet rule, but there is evidence (Section IV.A) that there is not a full positive charge on phosphorus or negative charge on oxygen, so structure 1B is allowed to contribute. In this case the number-of-orbitals problem is overcome by invoking a suitable virtual d orbital on phosphorus in an overlap scheme such as that in Figure 1. The conventional phrase is often used³⁻¹³ that 'there is expansion of the octet on phosphorus to allow backbonding from oxygen lone pairs into low-lying empty d orbitals'. In turn, this explains the difference between phosphine oxides and amine oxides in that the first-row element does not have easily accessible d



FIGURE 1. The now outdated and misleading view of the π -type orbital overlap in phosphine oxides

orbitals. Hence a discussion of the bonding in phosphine oxides leads on to the differences

between the first and subsequent rows of the Periodic Table.

It is shown below that work over the last 10–15 years has rendered this description untenable¹⁴. First the d-orbitals concept is now redundant at best, and inaccurate and misleading at worst, because d orbitals are not required for there to be backbonding. As described in Section II, it has recently been confirmed beyond doubt by Magnusson¹⁵ that the importance of d functions in *ab initio* calculations on these systems does not mean that they have a valence role. Second, at a deeper level, doubt has been cast on the description of the PO bond as a single bond with some backbonding, the rival description being a formal triple bond. As we shall see in Section IV, this latter issue is not yet settled and is part of a developing general controversy about the nature of multiple bonding.

Hence the investigation of the bonding in phosphine oxides (and sulphides and selenides) calls for an examination of some the most basic concepts in valency and bonding theory in the context of one of the most important bonds in practical chemistry and the processes of life. The following quotations are from two recent papers which are discussed in Section IV.D.3 and illustrate the controversial nature of the subject:

'These studies emphasize the importance of partial ionic bonding in second row hypervalent species... Due to the ionic character of the bonding, the *electronic* octet rule is far from being violated. This emphasizes the robustness of the Lewis octet concept'.

A. E. Reed and P. v. R. Schleyer¹⁶

'Contrary to much previous experience based on molecular orbital calculations, generalized valence bond calculations exhibit six bonds to P and S atoms in the presence of electronegative ligands. One must conclude that this is strong evidence that such molecules violate the Lewis-Langmuir octet rule'.

R. Messmer¹⁷

Even the representation of the bond from oxygen to phosphorus in tertiary phosphine exides is contentious. Practical chemists usually just write a double bond, R₃P=O, but a number of other descriptions and representations have been advocated as the following chronological list illustrates: 'somewhere between a single and triple and only by chance it happens to be a double bond'18; 'a partial triple bond'19; 'a resonance between single and triple bond structures, the double bond being rejected on symmetry grounds'20; 'the dipolar structure dominates and the double bond structure contributes but little'21; 'a formal triple bond'17. In Section IV.F, we discuss the representation of the PO bond and argue that the continued use of the double bond formula is perfectly reasonable and unrelated to the controversy as to where exactly the bonding electrons are.

II. NON-INVOLVEMENT OF d ORBITALS

The description of the structure and bonding in phosphine oxides has been connected intimately with the concept of virtual d-orbital involvement in bonding in the Main

Group of the Periodic Table. Since, as we shall see, it is only recently that this concept has been discredited, a short overview of the subject is warranted.

The elegance, economy and widespread applicability of the valence bond (VB) and molecular orbital (MO) methods have made them nearly universal in both the qualitative and quantitative discussion of bonding and other molecular properties²². In particular, a version of the MO method, the linear combination of atomic orbitals (LCAO) scheme²², provides the most commonly used framework for the discussion and interpretation of the bonding. In these methods atoms are considered to offer, for bond formation, the outermost valence orbitals (those which are occupied in the atom). Thus hydrogen has one atomic orbital (AO) available for bonding, the first-row elements boron to neon have four, the transition metals six, and so on. In this way, early explanations were provided for s and p bonds in the first row of the Periodic Table from lithium to fluorine. In 1931 Pauling²³ showed how, by introducing appropriate hybrids of s and p orbitals, the characteristic valence angles and bond lengths in compounds of carbon, oxygen and nitrogen could be explained. Although the rough qualitative picture obtained by bonding with these orbitals was satisfactory in most cases, some important difficulties arose.

A particular qualitative difficulty concerned the existence of the so-called 'hypervalent molecules'. In these there seem to be more bonds from the central atom than would be permitted on the basis of Langmuir's octet rule. Thus, in the valence bond picture of, for example, the SF₆ molecule, sulphur forms six σ bonds using six equivalent d^2sp^3 hybrids²⁴. However, the d functions used are virtual, not being occupied in the aufbau description of the ground-state sulphur atom. It is then said⁵ that SF₆ is characterized by 'outer d-orbital participation in the bond' or that there is an 'expansion of the valence shell of sulphur by promotion of an electron(s) into a low-lying vacant d orbital(s)'. Similar considerations applied to PF₅. The concept of d orbitals was then found convenient to describe two other π -type phenomena exemplified in phosphorus chemistry³ by (i) the structure and stability of phosphine oxides and ylides (especially compared with their nitrogen analogues) and (ii) the shortening of formally single bonds such as the PO bonds in phosphates. These latter two phenomena involve d orbitals in π -type overlap with adjacent p orbitals⁵.

In this way, the possession of 'low-lying' d-orbitals came to be seen as a fundamental difference between first- and second-row elements of the Periodic Table, explaining, for example, why silicon tetrafluoride hydrolyses readily whereas carbon tetrafluoride does not²⁵. Since the work of Pauling²³, there have been many papers dealing with the participation of d-orbital basis functions in molecular orbitals for systems containing non-transition elements. Because of their more elaborate symmetry, d orbitals may form more kinds of bonds than can s and p orbitals and detailed and elaborate schemes were built up to use d orbitals to explain the various phenomena²⁶⁻³⁰. This early work is well summarized in a number of reviews^{5,31-33}, the most useful of which is that of

Mitchell⁵.

At the outset, a distinction has to be made between inner and outer d orbitals³⁴. This refers to the principal quantum number of the d orbital in relation to that of the other valence electrons. *Inner* d orbitals have a principal quantum number one less than that of the other valence electrons. Thus, in the first transition metal series it is the 3d, 4s and 4p orbitals that are involved and the charge cloud for these d electrons lies mostly within that of the s and p electrons. Since these d orbitals are occupied in the ground-state atom, they are clearly required for description of the molecular wavefunction, and the question of their inclusion does not arise. This is the case for bonding in the transition metals³⁵ and will not be discussed further. *Outer* d orbitals, on the other hand, have the same principal quantum number as that of the other valence shell electrons. The question of their involvement in bonding is much more problematic since they are not occupied in the ground state of the atom under consideration. Indeed, the concept was never fully

accepted by the chemical community, including Pauling²⁴, and, from an initially small group of dissenters^{36–43} among whom it is probably fair to single out Rundle³⁹, the concept has now become redundant, at least among theoretical chemists. Its popularity probably peaked around about 1970 with the review by Mitchell⁵ and the advent of the first *ab initio* calculations on these systems (see Section II.B).

A. Alternative Models

The first reservation that has to be entered about virtual d-orbital involvement in bonding is that there are alternative explanations of all the phenomena involved. One of the initial successes of the hybridization theory of bonding as proposed by Pauling^{23,24} was the prediction of molecular stereochemistry in that bond directions are determined by the relative orientations of a set of hybrid orbitals on the central atom which are used to form bonds to the ligand atoms and to hold unshared electron pairs. However, during the 1950s it was shown by Gillespie that the successful prediction of molecular geometry does not require explicit reference to the bonding involved because the well known and useful VSEPR model^{35,44} explains the geometry of most molecules. Also, at about the same time, a simple and reasonably easily understood model was developed which explains the bonding in non-octet (hypervalent) compounds and which does not require the use of d orbitals. This is the three-centre bond model proposed at various times by Pimental^{36,37}, Rundle^{38,39}, Havinga and Wiebenga^{40,41}, Pitzcr⁴² and Musher⁴³ and their coworkers and developed in detail by Rundle³⁹ and Musher⁴³. Bonding is envisaged as partly ionic, which removes the need to involve the d orbitals and explains why fluorine is a crucial ligand in hypervalence. Better still, this model explains well the bonding in other systems where the d orbital concept is lacking, e.g. noble gas derivatives^{45,46} and the interhalogen compounds⁴¹. As we shall see in Section IV, there is also a simple alternative to the d orbital concept as applied to $d\pi$ -p π systems.

Second, from the 1950s to 1970s there were a multitude of experimental and theoretical investigations, none of which confirmed unequivocally the validity of the concept of d-orbital involvement. This is well documented in the book by Kwart and King⁴⁷, the problem being that no study could distinguish d-orbital involvement from an alternative explanation. Indeed, it appeared that the d orbital theory might fit into Popper's category of an unfalsifiable theory⁴⁸. Examples of phenomena which were investigated without definitive results are (i) bond length data in the series of ions XO₄ⁿ (X = Si, P, S and Cl), which are all short relative to values reasonably expected for single bonds^{30,35,49}, and (ii) the planarity of trisilylamines^{50–53}. Probably the last example where a determined effort was made to prove d orbital involvement is the detailed study of a cyclic conjugated sulphone by Fraenkel and coworkers⁵⁴. Even in 1986, after all the work that had gone before⁴⁷, these workers felt able to claim that their study implicated p–d bonding 'unequivocally and for the first time'⁵⁴. However, in the light of the results discussed below, it seems likely that all they did, which was still significant, was to show that cyclic conjugation occurred in their system.

B. Theoretical Studies

Since the experimental work had been so very contradictory, it was hoped that calculations might lead to a more definitive answer. Indeed, the early theoretical work was encouraging because it had concentrated on certain issues concerning the suitability of the valence atomic d orbitals for their task⁵⁵⁻⁶³. Two issues of concern were the size and energy of the d orbitals. First, the d orbitals are too large to overlap effectively with their potential s and p partners^{34,56}. By consideration of the factors affecting the size⁵⁷, namely unpaired electron spin assignments^{34,58,59}, the number of promoted

electrons^{34,59,60} and the formal charge on the central atom⁵⁹, it was shown that this objection could be overcome. In particular, the contraction of the d orbitals in a field of strongly electronegative ligands provided a neat explanation of why fluorine is able to induce the largest valence of a central atom. As regards the energies of the d orbitals, which are too high in the isolated atom for effective hybridization with s and p orbitals⁵, it was also shown that a field of electronegative ligands could reduce the energies to reasonable values^{57,62,63}.

In about 1970, with the advent of full *ab initio* calculations on these molecular systems, more detailed investigation of the bonding became possible. For example, early descriptions of the bonding in phosphine oxides (see Section I) involved either semipolar bonds without reference to d orbitals or ordinary covalent bonds constructed from appropriate hybrids that involve d orbitals. Since the former corresponds to a zero population of d orbitals and the latter to a population of unity, it was expected that an analysis of the d populations of the calculated wavefunctions would indicate which was correct. Indeed, the first calculations appeared to confirm the importance of d orbitals because, when d functions were left out, very inaccurate results were obtained and also their addition caused very large energy decreases. Certain calculations in particular had a very strong influence, at least on the community of practical phosphorus chemists⁶⁴, e.g. the extended Huckel studies of ylides and phosphoranes by Hoffmann and coworkers⁶⁵⁻⁶⁷ and the *ab initio* STO-3G studies by Van Wazer and coworkers on ylides and phosphine oxides^{68,69}. This despite the specific warning of Hoffmann and coworkers⁶⁷ on the *deus ex machina* aspect of d orbitals.

However, there were two problems which confused the theoretical analysis of these systems, namely the incompleteness of most of the basis sets used and the requirement for polarization functions. Initially it was not well recognized that if the s and p basis sets used in the calculations were not saturated, that is, addition of further s and p basis functions still gave energy lowering, then the added d functions would make up the difference and lead to an overestimation of the importance of d orbitals. Differences in the basis set then lead to large differences in the importance of d orbitals from populations of 0.3 to greater than 1. Although the evidence for this was present from the start (see Section IV.D.2), it was only later that it was stated explicitly¹⁹. The difficulties were further compounded by the well known dependence of population analysis on basis set¹⁹.

However, even if the sp basis is saturated and the population analysis is foolproof, there is still a crucial role for d functions in the calculation of molecular properties and most calculations, especially on second-row elements, will require their inclusion 1.15,70-73 This is because they act as polarization functions 15,34,71. Early in the development of quantum chemistry it was known⁷⁴ that a proper description of the σ bond in H, requires the use of a po basis function on the proton. The purpose of this function is to polarize the wavefunction (see below) and thus permit the charge distribution to change shape, becoming more localized along the bond axis. This requirement is now routine⁷⁵ and for first-and second-row elements the polarization functions needed are d functions. To illustrate the effect of these polarisation functions, consider an electron in a 2p state of a fixed hydrogen atom³⁴ (Figure 2a). Application of a steady fixed electric field in the z-direction would polarize the charge and pull it in the z-direction. The final perturbed shape is shown in Figure 2c. It can be seen that the charge cloud, and hence the wavefunction, of the perturbed state can be approximated by a superposition (Figure 2b), of some amount, λ of d orbital character on the original p orbital³⁴. Hybrids of this kind, involving a small amount of d character, will often be the easiest way of expressing perturbations or polarizations of p orbitals, for example in molecules containing a large dipole moment or in strained-ring compounds 71. The d orbitals mixed in by this process are not suggested to have any independent existence. In fact, it can be shown 15,34 that the d contribution which expresses the polarization of a 2p orbital

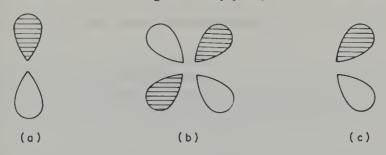


FIGURE 2. Polarization of a p orbital. (a) + λ (b) = (c)

is a 2d orbital and its function is merely to be of about the same size as the orbital it perturbs and to have the appropriate symmetry to provide the angular flexibility needed to direct the electron density efficiently into regions between bonded atoms. 15,71.

Needless to say, many theoretical workers were uncasy about ascribing a valence role to such polarization functions. During the 1970s there were a number of attempts to define circumstances in which one could say which role was taken by the d functions. For example, Coulson³⁴ distinguished between polarisation (d population < 0.1) and participation of d orbitals in bonding, where one or more complete d orbitals are used, and Ratner and coworkers 76,77 drew a similar distinction between the qualitative and auantitative necessity for d orbital inclusion in a basis set, while noting that the whole question is to some extent an artifact of the very convenient atom-centred LCAO method. Then, during the 1980s, it gradually became clear to the majority of theoretical workers that the maximum d population was about 0.3 in most cases and that it has no valence role. Examples of this conclusion are in calculations on, among many others, oxy- and thio-carbanions^{78,79}, sulphur tetrafluoride^{80,81} and, especially significant, the volte-face of Cruickshank⁴⁹ on the oxyanions of second-row atoms. There was a minor renaissance⁸²⁻⁸⁴, but it is now clear beyond doubt through the very recent work of Magnusson, discussed below, that the dorbital concept is redundant. Good recent leading references to this literature are the paper by Magnusson¹⁵, that of Reed and Schleyer¹⁶ which, since they treat phosphine oxides, is discussed in detail in Section IV.D.3.a, and the general review by Kutzelnigg14 on bonding in Main Group compounds, which is indispensable.

C. Calculations by Magnusson

Many workers have studied the variation of the use of d functions in a calculation in order to determine their valence role and concluded that it was not large⁸⁵. For example, Grein and Lawlor⁸⁶ showed that the use of bond functions⁸⁷ replicated the beneficial effect of d functions in calculations on H₃NO. However, the recent study by Magnusson¹⁵ is so comprehensive and gives such an unequivocal conclusion that it surely must be the final word on the subject. Therefore, we reproduce below the main conclusions in some detail.

Magnusson¹⁵ reported calculations for a very large number of compounds of first- and second-row elements, both normal valent and hypervalent, all at a comparable level. The basis set was of double zeta quality and the experimental geometries were used. Single and multiple sets of five Gaussian d functions were added to the basis sets of all atoms except hydrogen (p function). The exponents of the d functions on the central atom were optimized in all cases, as were those on selected peripheral atoms. The possibility of basis set superposition error was checked and avoided and also the results

were compared with those obtained by adding Slater-type functions. The results are given below.

i. The most important observation is that the optimum d function exponent for any element changes very little from one compound to another, even those as different as H_2S and SF_6 . Hence there is no support for the view that diffuse d orbitals on the central atom take part in bonding after being contracted by an electronegative ligand field; for example, there is no sign of any progressive contraction across the SF_2 , SF_4 , SF_6

sequence¹⁵.

ii. There are large energy depressions for many other types of molecule than the allegedly hypervalent species and there is no clear demarcation between them and the normal-valent compounds. In fact, when the energy depressions are measured *per bond* they show only limited variation. This suggests that the involvement of d functions is characteristic of the bond rather than the compound that contains it, and that the extra involvement of d functions in hypervalent molecules is because they have more bonds¹⁵.

iii. There are also energy depressions on the addition of d functions to the basis sets of peripheral atoms. The energy increment per added function is much greater for the

central atom but per bond there is no difference¹⁵.

iv. There are also energy depressions in compounds of first-row elements and when the results are obtained at the same basis set level the contrast between second- and third-shell behaviour is less spectacular than usually reported 15.

v. There is a strong response in the optimum exponent and d function energy increment to change in bond length. The optimum d function exponent on the peripheral

atom also changes 15.

vi. Finally, there is no difference in the role of d functions between normal-valent and hypervalent compounds. They facilitate the transfer of electronic charge into the internuclear bonding region at the expense of the outer parts of the valence wavefunction. Hence the occupations of the higher order functions are strongly dependent on the degree of charge transfer from the central atom and the number of electron pairs formally arranged around the central atom. In short, their purpose is to respond to the rapidly varying molecular potential in the space between the nuclei 15.

We also leave the final word on this with Magnusson¹⁵: 'accordingly, any resemblance between d functions in molecular wavefunctions and the valence d orbitals of excited second-row atoms is an artifact of the electronic structure model; they should not be called d orbitals'.

III. STRUCTURE

Structure in organophosphorus chemistry was last reviewed comprehensively in 1974 by Corbridge⁹, but work on tertiary (and other) phosphine chalcogenides was not well developed at that time. Thus the material presented below is mostly from the intervening period. The usual general publications^{88–91} also give some relevant data but, again, the coverage is not complete. The structures of tertiary phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides and the few tellurides are first discussed using the data in Tables 1–3. Then these compounds are compared and contrasted with other phosphorus derivatives and non-phosphorus compounds not strictly relevant to this chapter, in particular the parent tertiary phosphines, halogenophosphoryl derivatives and amine and arsine chalcogenides using the data in Tables 4 and 5.

Although a high proportion of available structures are included in Tables 1–3, they are not comprehensive and readers requiring data on particular compounds should also refer to *Chemical Abstracts*. Readers should also refer to the original publications for

detail of the structural determinations, error limits and the other molecular dimensions of the compounds quoted.

A. Bond Length-Bond Angle Relationships

The idea that bond length and bond angle are related can be helpful in the analysis of trends in the structures of molecules. It is especially useful in the case of a tetrahedral disposition of ligands around a central atom where most of the space around that atom is occupied. Then the introduction of either bulky or more electronegative groups will lead to a change in both bond angle and bond length. Thus, for example, the bond angle between bulky groups will have to be larger, so all ligand(s) will not be able to approach as close to the central atom and their bond length will be larger. On the other hand, a more electronegative group will require a shorter bond length to the central atom, forcing the other ligand(s) closer together and reducing their bond angle. The structure of the molecule then reflects the balance between these two effects.

Used carefully, the concept can reduce the number of experimental correlations that have to be explained. Obviously there are limitations on its use, e.g. (i) if the space around the central atom is not fully occupied, then bond angle can increase while maintaining bond lengths, for example in the tricoordinate phosphines¹ and perhaps in the later rows of the Periodic Table where the central atom is relatively large, and (ii) if the space around the central atom is already very crowded, as in tetrahedral derivatives of the small first-row atoms, then the size effect may be more dominant.

B. Phosphine Oxides

Table 1 gives some structural data for tertiary phosphine oxides, mostly determined using X-ray diffraction. As befits such an easily crystallized and thereby useful¹⁴⁸ compound, there are no less than eight reported X-ray crystal structure determinations on triphenylphosphine oxide^{96-99.149}, most of which are detailed in Table 1. This is because there are at least two crystal modifications and there have been temperature variation studies. Note the fairly large changes in structural parameters as the R value falls from 7.8 to 3.5. Only in one case, trimethylphosphine oxide, were both X-ray and electron diffraction used, with only moderate agreement between the methods (the difference was not caused by intermolecular contacts in the crystal⁹³). A number of useful generalizations may be made from Table 1.

The PO bond length is usually in the range 147.5-149.0 pm (the figure of 146 pm, derived from the first study 98 on triphenylphosphine oxide, which was widely quoted 92.94 into the mid-1980s, is clearly in error). This PO distance is almost insensitive to molecular environment. It increases by only 1 pm on metal complexation of the triphenyl derivative 100 (Table 1) or on hydrogen bonding 9.150, although the trialkyl derivatives are affected by a larger amount by the latter change 9. Similarly, the PO length is little changed by electronegative substituents, α,β -unsaturation or inclusion in a tricyclic ring structure (Table 1). It is possible that alkyl-substituted phosphine oxides have a PO bond length marginally shorter than aryl analogues, which could be due to a bond length may be compared with those in HPO91 (151.2 pm), diatomic PO91 (147.6 pm) and a typical PO single bond (160 pm; bridging bond in P4O1089). Clearly the PO bond has high multiple character.

The PC bond length is normally in the range 179-181 pm. From the limited data available, there is a strong effect of electronegative substituents to increase the PC distance, the extreme example being the tris(trifluoromethyl)-substituted case. Also, it is possible that P—C(alkyl) is less than P—C(aryl) by about 1 pm but, again, there are

TABLE 1. Structural data^a for some tertiary phosphine oxides

Molecule	Method ^b	r(P=O)	r(P—C)	∠OPC	∠ CPC	R^c	Ref.
Me ₃ P=O	E	147.6	180.9	114.4	104.1	5.2	92
We ₃ 1 — 0	X	148.9	177.1	113.1	105.9	6.5	93
$Bu_3^tP=O$	Ë	159.0	188.8	106.1	112.9	9.7	94
$(CF_3)_3P=O$	Ē	147.6	189.7	114.2	104.3	—	95
$Ph_3P=0$	X^d	148.3	179.2	112.3	106.5	6.0	96
FII ₃ F=0	Xe	148.4	180.3	112.3	106.6	4.5	97
	\mathbf{X}^f	146	176	111.7	107.1	7.8	98
	$X^{f,g}$	149.1	180.3	112.4		3.5	99
	$X^{e,g}$	149.4	180.0	112.4		3.6	99
Ph ₃ P=O complexes	X^h	150	179	111	—	_	100
$(2-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{P}=0$	X	147.4	181.0	112.9	106.0	7.5	101
$(4-ClC_6H_4)Ph_2P=O$	X	148.5	180.5	111.9	107.0	4.7	102
$(4-BrC_6H_4)Ph_2P=O$	X	149.7	180.8	112.0	106.9	6.4	103
$(C_6F_5)Ph_2P=O$	X	147.4	179.6	—	_		104
$Me_2PhP=O$	X	147.4	178.9	113.9	105.5	4.3	105
Me ₂ rm —0			181.5^{i}	111.9^{j}			
ClCH ₂ Ph ₂ P=O	X	149.3	183.2	113.9	105.6	5.3	106
CICI121 II21 — 0	•		180.4^{i}	112.6^{j}			
Ph ₂ P(O)CH ₂ P(O)Ph ₂	X	149.1	181.9	112.0	106.8	6.3	107
	**		179.4 ⁱ				
$Ph_2P(O)C \equiv CP(O)Ph_2$	X	148.1	179.4	114.4	103.7	3.9	108
11121 (0)0=01 (0)1 112			180.8 ⁱ	112.9 ^j	108.5^{k}		
Ph ₂ P(O) CH ₂ Cl			100.0				
C=C	X	148.5	184.3	112.5	106.3	3.3	109
$ClCH_2$ $P(O)Ph_2$			180.0^{i}				440
7-Phosphanorbornene	X	148	186.7	116.8 111.1 ^j	84.3 112.9 ^m	7.0	110
derivative ^l	37	1.40.7	181.1 ⁱ	111.1	96.2	5.4	111
1-Phosphanorbornane derivative ⁿ	X	148.7	178.3	_	90.2	J.4	111

 $a_r(P-X) = bond$ length in pm; $\angle XPY = bond$ angle in degrees; mean values are quoted, unless indicated otherwise.

^bE = electron diffraction; X = X-ray crystallography at room temperature, unless indicated otherwise.

not enough data to be sure. There is a small but definite decrease in PC length (1 pm) on metal complexation at oxygen. There is a consistent deviation of the bond angles from the tetrahedral values with CPO higher (112-114°) and CPC lower (104-107°). This is consistent with the shorter PO distance relative to the PC distance.

Note the totally anomalous nature of the structure of tri(tert-butyl)phosphine oxide.

^cReliability index = 100 × conventional R for both X and E, except where indicated otherwise; see original papers for definitions.

^dMonoclinic, space group P2₁/a.

^eMonoclinic, space group $P2_1/c$.

^fOrthorhombic, space group *Pbca*.

^gPerformed at 100 K.

h. Average of 62 fragments from the Cambridge Crystallography Database.

ⁱP--C_{Ph}. ^jO - P--C_{Ph}.

 $^{{}^}kC_{Ph}$ ---P-- C_{Ph} .

¹5-Cyano-1,4,7-triphenyl-7-phosphabicyclo[2,2.1]hept-2-ene-7-oxide.

^mC_{Ph} −P − C_{ring}.

ⁿ1-Phosphabicyclo[2.2.1]heptane-1-oxide.

The remarkable features of the structure of Bu₃ PO are (i) the much greater length of the PO bond (159.0 pm) compared with all other oxides, making it essentially a single bond length, (ii) the greater length of the PC bond (188.8pm) and (iii) the reversal of the angle deviation from tetrahedral (CPC is greater). Obviously the great bulk of the tert-butyl groups must be at least partly responsible for this anomalous structure. For example, the CPC angles in the parent phosphine 136 (109.9°) are already one of the highest known and could hardly be expected to decrease on oxidation. However, it should be pointed out that there is no steric requirement for the PO bond to be so long because the oxygen atom is well separated from its neighbouring carbon atoms and from the methyl group atoms⁹⁴. The long PO bond length has therefore also been attributed⁹⁴ partly to the electron-releasing properties of the tert-butyl groups. In any event, it seems reasonable to regard the bonding in the molecule as purely $Bu_3^t P^{\frac{1}{2}} - O^{-1}$.

Brock and coworkers⁹⁹ made a very careful study of both forms (monoclinic and orthorhombic) of triphenylphosphine oxide at low temperature. They found that there do not appear to be any important differences between the molecular dimensions in the two crystals. Even some small structural trends are shared by the two molecules; for example, of the three PC distances, 179.8, 180.3, 180.8 pm in the orthorhombic and 179.7, 180.2, 180.2 pm in the monoclinic structure, the smallest is to the phenyl ring whose plane is most nearly perpendicular to the PO bond (see also Section V).

C. Phosphine Sulphides

Table 2 gives some structural data for tertiary phosphine sulphides. Only in the case of trimethylphosphine sulphide was more than one method used to study the structure

TABLE 2. Structural data^a for some tertiary phosphine sulphides

Molecule	Method ^b	r(P=S)	r(P—C)	∠SPC	∠ CPC	R^c	Ref.
Me ₃ P=S	M	193.6	181.4	114.4		< 0.2	112
	E	194.0	181.8	114.1	104.5	4.8	92
	X	195.9	179.8	113.2	_	5.0	113
$[(Me_3P=S)_3Cu]ClO_4$	X	199.4	179.3	111.6	_	11	113
$(Me_3P=S)Cr(CO)_5$	X	199.0	179.2	112.4	106.4	6.5	114
(cyclohexyl) ₃ P=S	X	196.6	183.9	110.9	108.0	5.8	115
(cyclopropyl) ₃ P=S	X	193.9	178.5	113.4	104.9	6.0	116
Ph ₃ P=S	X	195.0	181.7	113.1	105.7	4.6	117
$(2-MeC_6H_4)_3P=S$	X	194.8	181.9 ^d	112.6	106.1 ^e	9.0	101
$(3-MeC_6H_4)_3P = S$	X	193.6	181.5	112.3	106.5	8.0	118,119
$(4-\text{ClC}_6\text{H}_4)\text{Ph}_2\text{P}=\text{S}$	X	194.9	180.7	112.9	105.9	5.2	120
$(4-BrC_6H_4)Ph_2P=S$	X	195.0	181.6	113.1	105.7	5.1	121
$(4-CH_3C_6H_4)Ph_2P=S$	X	194.8	179.4	113.7	105.2	6.7	122
$Ph_2P(S)C \equiv CP(S)Ph_2$	X	192.3	176.3	113.8	101.8	4.0	123
			179.5 ^f	114.9 ^g	108.3 ^h		

 $^{{}^{}a}r(P-X) = bond length in pm; \angle XPY: bond angle in degrees, mean values are quoted, unless otherwise noted.$

 $^{{}^{}b}E$ = electron diffraction; X = X-ray crystallography at room temperature.

 $^{^{\}circ}R$ = reliability index = $100 \times \text{conventional } R$ for both X and E, except where indicated otherwise; see original papers for definitions; percentage error for M. $^dd(P=C)$ range = 177.3-187.0 pm.

^e∠ CPC range = 101.5–110.6°.

P -CPh. ^hC_{Ph} P C_{Ph}

and, again, agreement was only moderate, although the gas-phase methods are in good

agreement.

The PS bond length is in the range 194–195 pm. However, unlike the oxide, this shows variation with environment. Metal complexation causes it to increase by about 5 pm while conjugation appears to cause a decrease of about 2 pm. Again, it may be that P—C(alkyl) is less than P—C(aryl), but there are not enough data. This PS bond length may be compared with that of a typical PS single bond of about 208–210 pm (208.5 pm for bridging bond in $P_4S_{10}^{89,90}$). Hence the PS bond also has high multiple character. The PC bond length in phosphine sulphides is in the range 181–182 pm, somewhat

The PC bond length in phosphine sulphides is in the range 181–182 pm, somewhat longer than in the oxides. Once again there is a more noticeable change (decrease of 2 pm) on metal complexation at oxygen. The deviation of the bond angles from the tetrahedral values is similar to that in the oxides (CPS, 112–114°; CPC, 104–107°). The structure of the fairly bulky tricyclohexylphosphine sulphide shows, to a lesser extent, the same trends as tri(tert-butyl)phosphine oxide of longer bond lengths and equalization of bond angles.

D. Phosphine Selenides

Table 3 shows data from nearly all structural studies of tertiary phosphine selenides. Again, X-ray crystallography has been the method of choice and, again, only the trimethyl derivative has been studied by other methods with only slightly better agreement between

them than for the oxides and sulphides.

The PSe bond length is normally in the range 209–211 pm. However, there is not enough variation in the groups attached to phosphorus to make generalizations on trends in the PSe bond length, although it is noticeable that, as usual, bulky groups increase it. Other discernible trends (e.g. shortening of PSe with electronegative substituents) may not be crystallographically significant. This PSe bond length may be compared with the PSe single bond length of 224 pm (bridging bond in P₄Se₃⁸⁹) and

again it is apparent that the PSe bond has high multiple character.

The PC bond length in phosphine selenides is variable, covering the range 178–185 pm with more values in the upper part of the range (181–184 pm). Comparison of the trimethyl and triphenyl derivatives strongly suggests that P—C(alkyl) is less (by 4 pm) than P—C(aryl), but other data in Table 3 contradict this. The deviation of the bond angles from the tetrahedral values is similar to that in the oxides and sulphides (CPSe, 112–114°; CPC, 104–107°). Again, the structure of the fairly bulky tris(2,4-dimethoxyphenyl)phosphine selenide shows, to a lesser extent, the same trends as tri(tert-butyl)phosphine oxide of longer bond lengths and equalization of bond angles. However, the tris(trimethoxyphenyl) derivative is anomalous in this respect in that crowding is avoided by a marked asymmetry of the substituents¹³⁰.

Allen and coworkers ¹²⁹ advanced two arguments for the shortening of the P—C bond in the 2-furyl derivative; a π -type interaction with the substituent or the lower steric demand of the 2-furyl group. Given that the CPC angle is also narrowed (a bond length-bond angle relationship), it seems more reasonable to prefer the steric argument.

E. Phosphine Tellurides

To date there appear to be structural data for only one tertiary phosphine telluride¹³⁷. Unfortunately, this is the tri(tert-butyl) case (included in Table 4). We have already noted the totally anomalous nature of the structure of tri(tert-butyl)phosphine oxide. Comparison of these (Table 4) shows that the same unusual structural characteristics are present in the telluride as in the oxide. Thus the CPC angle is greater than the TePC angle and the PC bond length is very long (same length as in the oxide), in contrast to all other tertiary phosphine chalcogenides. There must therefore be a strong suspicion

TABLE 3. Structural data^a for some tertiary phosphine selenides

Molecule	Method ^b	r(P = Se)	r(P-C)	∠ SePC	∠ CPC	R^c	Ref.
Me ₃ P=Se	E	209.1	181.6	113.8	104.8	9.1	124
	X	211.1	178.6	113.1	105.7	4.8	125
	N	_		_	105.0	± 0.2	126
Ph ₃ P=Se	X	210.6	183.0	113.1	106.0	7.0^{d}	127
$(2-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{P}=\text{Se}$	X	211.6	183.4	112.7 ^k	106.4	6.7	101
$(3-MeC_6H_4)_3P = Se$	X	210.9	182	112.3	106.7	11	119
$(3-CF_3C_6H_4)_3P = Se$	X	209.4	181.5	113.1	105.6	5.4	128
(2-furyl) ₃ P=Se	X	209.4	177.8	115.0	103.5	3.8	129
$(2,4-(MeO)_2C_6H_3)_3P = Se$	X	213.5	184.3	111.1 ^e	107.9 ^f	5.2	130
$(2,4,6-(MeO)_3C_6H_2)_3P = Se$	X	211.9	182.7^{g}	112.8 ^h	106.2^{i}	6.4	130
Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ P(Se)Ph ₂	X	210.0	184.3	114.9	104.6	4.4	131
			181.1^{j}	113.1^{k}	105.5^{l}		
Ph ₂ PCH ₂ P(Se)Ph ₂	X	210.3	182.6 181.3 ^j	113.6	105.0	3.9	132
PhMePrP=Se	X	211.9	182.3	113.1	105.7	4.8	133
			180.0 ^j 185.4 ^m				
Ph ₂ P(Se)C≡CP(Se)Ph ₂	X	209.7^{n}	178.3	112.7	102.6	6.3	134
2 () == (==)==2			183.2^{j}	114.5 ^k	108.8^{l}		

^ar(P X) = bond length in pm: \angle XPY = bond angle in degrees; mean values are quoted, unless indicated otherwise. ^bE = electron diffraction; X = X-ray crystallography at room temperature; N = NMR in liquid crystal (nematic)

that the PTe bond length of 236.8 pm is not typical of tertiary phosphine tellurides. In fact, analogy with tri(tert-butyl)phosphine oxide suggests that it is significantly too long. If it were too long by the same percentage as in the oxide (6.7%), then the true length would be about 222 pm.

Against this it must be said that the PTe distance found in the other phosphine tellurides examined is, in some cases, of the same order of magnitude as this. There have been four other crystal structures reported, yielding five phosphine telluride PTe distance measurements 151-153 of 228.8, 232.2, 232.7, 235.4 and 235.6 pm. The 235.6 pm value is for the trismorpholino derivative, which, it could be argued, is crowded, leading to longer bond lengths. On the other hand, the trismorpholinophosphine selenide analogue had a normal PSe bond length 154. The other reported structures all involve phosphorus with two nitrogen ligands in a four-membered ring; again, it could be argued that this is an unusual situation. It would be helpful to know if tri(tert-butyl)phosphine selenide has a longer than usual PSe bond. Even with this uncertainty, it should be noted that a PTe bond length of 236.8 pm corresponds to a bond order of 1.5 calculated 24.137 using the covalent radii of Schomaker and Stevenson.

 $^{^{\}circ}R$ = reliability index = 100 × conventional R for both X and E, except where indicated otherwise; see original papers for definitions.

 $dR = R_{w}$

^e∠ SePC = average of 106.2, 110.0 and 117.0°.

 $f \neq CPC = average of 102.1, 110.5 and 111.0^{\circ}$.

 $^{{}^{}g}r(P-C) = average of 180, 182 and 186 pm.$

 $^{^{}h} \angle$ SeCP = average of 103.6, 116.3 and 118.5°.

 $[\]angle$ CPC = average of 97.8, 108.7 and 112.0°.

 $^{{}^{}j}P - C_{Ph}$ ${}^{k}Se - P - C_{Ph}$ C_{Ph}-P-C_{Ph}.

mP-C_{Pr}

 $^{{}^{}n}r(P-C) = average of 212.4 and 206.9 pm.$

TABLE 4. Comparison of structural data^a for some tertiary phosphine chalcogenides R₃P=Y

Molecule	Method ^b	r(P=Y)	<i>r</i> (P—C)	∠YPC	∠ CPC	R^c	Ref.
Me ₃ P	E	_	184.7	_	98.6		135
$Me_3P=O$	Е	147.6	180.9	114.4	104.1	5.2	92
$Me_3P = S$	E	194.0	181.8	114.1	104.5	4.8	92
Me ₃ P=Se	Е	209.1	181.6	113.8	104.8	9.1	124
Bu ^t , P	X	_	191.9		109.9		136
$Bu_3^IP=O$	Е	159.0	188.8	106.1	112.9	9.7	94
$Bu_3^t P = Te$	X	236.8	189.6	108.7	110.2	6.9	137
Ph ₃ P	X		182.8		103.0		138
$Ph_3P=O$	X	148.4	180.3	112.3	106.6	4.5	97
$Ph_3P = S$	X	195.0	181.7	113.1	105.7	4.6	117
Ph ₃ P=Se	X	210.6	183.0	113.1	106.0	7.0	127
$(2-MeC_6H_4)_3P$	X		183.5	_	101.7	4.5	101
$(2-MeC_6H_4)_3P = O$	X	147.4	181.0	112.9	106.0	7.5	101
$(2-MeC_6H_4)_3P = S$	X	194.8	181.9^{d}	112.6	106.1 ^e	9.0	101
$(2-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{P} = \text{Se}$	X	211.6	183.4	112.7	106.4	6.7	101
$(3-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{P}$	X		183.5	_ 33	101.7	10.7	119
$(3-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{P}=\text{S}$	X	193.6	181.5	112.3	106.5	8.0	118, 11
$(3-\text{MeC}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{P} = \text{Se}$	X	210.9	182	112.3	106.7	11	119
$(4-ClC_6H_4)Ph_2P=O$	X	148.5	180.5	111.9	107.0	4.7	102
$(4-C1C_6H_4)Ph_2P = S$	X	194.9	180.7	112.9	105.9	5.2	120
$(4-BrC_6H_4)Ph_2P=O$	X	149.7	180.8	112.0	106.9	6.4	103
$(4-BrC_6H_4)Ph_2P=S$	X	195.0	181.6	113.1	105.7	5.1	121
$Ph_2P(O)CH_2P(O)Ph_2$	X	149.1	181.9	112.0	106.8	6.3	107
1 11/21 (0) 01-2- (-)- 12			179.4 ^f				
Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ P(Se)Ph ₂	X	210.0	184.3	114.9	104.6	4.4	131
			181.1 ^f	113.1 ^g	105.5 ^h	(1	139
Ph ₂ PC≡CPPh ₂	X		176.5	_	100.2	6.1	139
			183.2 ^f	4444	102.8 ^h	2.0	100
$Ph_2P(O)C \equiv CP(O)Ph_2$	X	148.1	179.4	114.4	103.7	3.9	108
			180.8 ^f	112.9^{g}	108.5 ^h	4.0	123
$Ph_2P(S)C \equiv CP(S)Ph_2$	X	192.3	176.3	113.8	101.8	4.0	123
			179.5 ^f	114.9 ^g	108.3 ^h	()	134
$Ph_2P(Se)C \equiv CP(Se)Ph_2$	Χ ͺ-	209.7^{i}	178.3	112.7	102.6	6.3	134
			183.2 ^f	114.5 ^g	108.8 ^h		

 $a_r(P-X) = bond$ length in pm; $\angle XPY = bond$ angle in degrees; mean values are quoted, unless indicated otherwise.

 ${}^b\mathrm{E} = \mathrm{electron}$ diffraction; $\mathrm{X} = \mathrm{X}\text{-ray}$ crystallography at room temperature.

F. Comparison of Phosphine Chalcogenides

First, from the discussions in the previous sections, the contraction in PY distance from a standard single bond to that in R₃PY is similar for oxides, sulphides and selenides, being in the range 6.5-7.5%. Within that range, the oxides have the largest contraction

 $^{^{\}circ}R = \text{reliability index} = 100 \times \text{conventional } R \text{ for both } X \text{ and } E, \text{ except where indicated otherwise; see original}$ papers for definitions.

 $^{^{}d}d(P-C)$ range = 177.3-187.0 pm. $^{e} \angle$ CPC range = 101.5–110.6°.

 $[^]fP--C_{Ph}$.

 $^{{}^}g Y - P - C_{Ph}$. ${}^h C_{Ph} - P - C_{Ph}$. ${}^i d(P - Se) = average of 212.4 and 206.9 pm$.

(7.5%), sulphides are next (7.2%) and selenides have least (6.7%). Hence the three types of compound probably have similar PY bond orders with minor differences in the order O > S > Se.

Tables 4 and 5 show comparisons of the structures of phosphine chalcogenides with the parent phosphines and other pnictogen chalcogenides. A number of interesting trends may be gleaned from these comparisons. As mentioned in previous sections, there is little variation in either CPY or CPC angles in the chalcogenides and it can be seen from Table 4 that all are larger than in the parent phosphines. This is attributed in the valence shell electron pair repulsion (VSEPR) theory to greater repulsion from the lone pair than from the oxo, sulphido or seleno ligand.

The PC bond length calculated²⁴ by the Schomaker-Stevenson equation is 184 pm, which, not surprisingly, is the typical PC bond length in tertiary phosphines. Also in tertiary phosphines P—C(alkyl) is slightly larger than P—C(aryl), which is probably a bond length-bond angle relationship since alkyl CPC angles are less than aryl CPC

angles¹. The following related observations were taken from Tables 4 and 5:

(i) The PC bond length decreases on formation of the chalcogenide. However, it can also be seen that the fall is greatest for oxides (-4 pm), is less for sulphides (-2.5 pm) and may be less again for the selenides (-1 pm), although this is not consistent). From Table 5, it can be seen that there are similar decreases in the PF and PCl bond lengths in the series $F_3P > F_3PS > F_3PO$ and $Cl_3P > Cl_3PS > Cl_3PO$. These decreases may attributed to the increase in the effective electronegativity of the phosphorus atom due to its extra positive charge in the chalcogenides which is in the order O > S > Se (see Section IV.A). The detailed differences in the lengths of the PA bond in A_3PY molecules

TABLE 5. Comparison of structural data^a for some pnictogen chalcogenides A₃Pn=Y

Molecule	Method ^b	r(Pn=Y)	r(Pn—A)	∠ YPnA	∠APnA	Ref.
Me ₃ P=O	E	147.6	180.9	114.4	104.1	92
$F_3P=0$	E	143.6	152.4	_	101.3	140
$Cl_3P=O$	E	144.9	199.3	_	103.3	140
$(MeO)_3P=O$	E	147.7	158.0	_	105	141
Me ₃ P=S	Е	194.0	181.8	114.1	104.5	92
$F_3P=S$	E	186.6	153.8	117.9	99.6	142
$Cl_3P=S$	Е	188.5	201.1		101.8	140
Me ₃ N	M		145.1		110.9	91
Mc_3N^+ O	X	138.8	147.7			143
F ₃ N	M		136.5		102.4	91
$F_3N=0$	E/M	115.9	143.2	117.4	100.5	144
F ₃ P	Е		157.0		97.8	145
$F_3P = O$	Ē	143.6	152.4		101.3	140
$F_3P=S$	E	186.6	153.8	117.9	99.6	142
Cl ₃ P	Е		203.9		100.3	146
$Cl_3P = O$	Ē	144.9	199.3	_	103.3	140
$Cl_3P=S$	Ē	188.5	201.1	_	101.8	140
Me ₃ As	Е		196.4		96.0	124, 147
$Me_3As = O$	E	163.1	193.7	112.6		92
$Me_3As = S$	Ē	205.9	194.0	113.4		92

 $^{{}^{}a}r(Pn - A) = bond length in pm; \angle APnA = bond angle in degrees.$

 $^{^{}b}E$ = electron diffraction; X = X-ray crystallography at room temperature; M = microwave spectroscopy.

have been interpreted as evidence of strengthening by a π -bonding component in some cases ¹²⁴.

(ii) Most interestingly, the only exception to (i) (which is strongly in the other direction)

is for the PC bond to an alkyne earbon. This is difficult to explain.

(iii) Also difficult to explain is that P—C(alkyl) is probably less than P—C(aryl) for all the chalcogenides although, as noted above, there are not enough data to be sure.

There is no apparent bond length-bond angle relationship in this ease.

(iv) There is a consistent variation in PO and PS bond lengths in that they decrease over the series $Me_3PO > Cl_3PO > F_3PO$ and $Me_3PS > Cl_3PS > F_3PS$. These shortenings again suggest a polarity effect which may be discussed in terms of the VSEPR theory; with more electronegative groups the electron pairs of the bonds are displaced away from phosphorus allowing the oxo or sulphido ligand to approach closer 40,155. However, an exception may be trimethylphosphate, which has the same PO bond length as trimethylphosphine oxide, although this may be a steric effect since the terminal PO bond length in $P_4O_{10}^{88}$ is 139 pm.

For the nitrogen analogues the following comments and comparisons are derived

from Table 5:

(i) The NO bond length in trimethylamine oxide is close to the NO single bond length in hydroxylamine (145.3 pm)⁹¹, while the NO length in trifluoroamine oxide is very significantly shorter and must be accorded the status of a double bond.

(ii) There is a much larger decrease in the NO distance from the trimethyl to the trifluoro compound than in the analogous PO distance. Undoubtedly this is due both to the increased electronegativity and a strong steric effect at the small nitrogen atom.

(iii) There is an *increase* in both NC and NF bond lengths on formation of the oxide. This is the opposite of the trend noted above for the phosphine oxides. However, again, the extra factor is the small size of the first-row atom so that the ligands are already close together and the additional oxygen means they have to move apart.

IV. BONDING

For the reasons outlined in the Introduction (Section I), studies of the bonding in phosphine oxides, sulphides and sclenides have concentrated on the nature of the PO bond, and to a lesser extent the PS and PSe bonds. Particular issues which have been of concern are (i) the great strength of the PO bond, (ii) the exact distribution of the electron density in the PO bond, (iii) the difference between the PO bond in phosphine oxides and the NO bond in amine oxides and (iv) the difference between the oxides and the sulphides and sclenides.

A. Other Experimental Observations

From the bond lengths reported in Section III, it is clear that the phosphoryl (and thio- and seleno-phosphoryl) bond has high multiple character. In the case of the oxides, since the bond length is shorter than in HPO and of the same order as diatomic PO, the bond order lies between double and triple. Some other physical measurements support this conclusion and provide further insights.

1. Bond energies

Strong multiple character is also suggested by the paltry number of bond energies that are available for phosphine oxides and sulphides, a selection of which are given in Table 6. It can be seen that the PO bond dissociation energy is usually in the range 536-577 kJ mol⁻¹(128-139 kcal mol⁻¹) with the electronegatively substituted com-

TABLE 6. Bond dissociation energies^a and stretching frequencies^b in some phosphine chalcogenides $A_3P=Y$

Molecule	D(P=O)	v(P=O)	Molecule	D(P=S)	v(P=S)	Molecule	v(P=Se)
H ₃ PO	464°	1240 ^d					<u>_</u>
Me ₃ PO	582	$1170^{e,f}$	Me_3PS		567 ^f	Me ₃ PSe	441 ^g
Pr ₃ PO	577	1166	Pr ₃ PS	383	550		
Ph ₃ PO	536	1195	Ph ₃ PS		637 ⁹	Ph ₃ PSe	561 ^g
F ₃ PO	540 ^h	1418 ^f					
Cl ₃ PO	510 ^h	1298^{f}	Cl ₃ PS	293 ⁱ			
P_4O_{10}	577	1400					
P_4O_6	360^{j}						
(EtO) ₃ PO	619 ^h	1272	$(EtO)_3PS$	379	608		
(EtO) ₃ P	385^{j}						
PO diatomic	586 ^k	1218 ^f					

^aD(P-Y) in kJ mol⁻¹ (kcal mol⁻¹), from ref. 156 unless indicated otherwise.

pounds at the higher end of the range. In agreement with chemical experience, however, both methyl and halogen substituents have a higher bond energy than unsubstituted phosphine oxide.

In general, these bond energies are of the same order as that in diatomic PO while a PO single bond energy is about $360-385 \,\mathrm{kJ}\,\mathrm{mol}^{-1}$ ($86-92\,\mathrm{kcal}\,\mathrm{mol}^{-1}$). The difference of about $200 \pm 20\,\mathrm{kJ}\,\mathrm{mol}^{-1}$ can be taken as an indication of the extra energy in the

phosphoryl bond over that in a PO single bond.

In a useful exercise, Kutzelnigg¹⁴ developed a series of σ and π 'increments' for various multiple bonds which were derived by a combination of calculation and the limited experimental results. His value for the π increment of the PO bond (155 kJ mol⁻¹) is in rough agreement with the figure of $200 \pm 20 \,\mathrm{kJ}$ mol⁻¹ derived above, given the many approximations that have to be made and the limited experimental data. The σ increment for the PO bond was given as $335 \,\mathrm{kJ}$ mol⁻¹ whereas for the NO bond the σ increment was $188 \,\mathrm{kJ}$ mol⁻¹, with a π increment of $368 \,\mathrm{kJ}$ mol⁻¹. Note that, as expected¹, π bonds formed by the second-row element are weaker than its σ bonds whereas it is the opposite for the corresponding first-row element.

Kutzelnigg¹⁴ also calculated the bond dissociation energy for H₃PO (464 kJ mol⁻¹), H₂FPO (531 mol⁻¹) and H₃NO (222 kJ mol⁻¹) and, while obviously subject to some calculational inaccuracy (see Section IV.C.1), they can be helpful for comparison. Unfortunately, the experimental results for amine oxides are almost non-existent with the only reasonably reliable one¹⁴ being a bond dissociation energy of 276 kJ mol⁻¹ for

the NO bond in FaNO.

Based on these limited comparisons, it can be seen that the NO bond energy in trifluoroamine oxide is larger than the corresponding single bond whereas the strength of the PO bond lies between those for a double and a triple bond. Also, the bond energy of the PS bond is noticeably less than that of the PO bond, but a suitable single PS

 $^{^{}b}v(P - Y)$ in cm⁻¹, from ref. 156 unless indicated otherwise.

^{&#}x27;Calculated, from ref. 14.

^dMatrix isolated species from ref. 157.

^{*}Actually 1169-1180 cm⁻¹.

From refs 158 and 159.

From ref. 7.

^hFrom ref. 14.

Quoted in ref. 3.

^jDissociation energy of PO single bond.

 $k + 84 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$.

bond energy does not appear to be in the literature. It should be noted that the PO bond energy is expected to be greater than the NO bond energy. This is because in structure IA (see Section I) an electron is removed from phosphorus and the ionization potentials of R_3P are lower than those of R_3N . In addition, there will be interelectronic repulsions of the valence electrons around the small first-row atom.

2. Infrared spectroscopy

The strength and polarity of the PO bond in phosphine oxides is attested to by the very strong and diagnostic PO stretching frequency which occurs in the range 1100–1400 cm⁻¹, usually near 1200 cm⁻¹, and Table 6 includes the values for some representative compounds. These frequencies and the derived force constants have been used^{3,160} to derive bond orders of about two for the PO bond, although this is variable for reasons discussed below. The PS stretching frequency is much lower than that of the oxide, as are the PSe frequencies^{7,161}, possibly indicating lower bond orders.

Other useful information can also be derived from infrared spectroscopy^{3,162}. Indeed the only experimental study of unsubstituted phosphine oxide is an infrared spectrum of the matrix isolated species¹⁵⁷ which is discussed in Section IV.C.2. The value found in this study for the PO stretch (1240 cm⁻¹) is included in Table 6. There is a well established^{3,6,158,162}, approximately linear¹⁶³, relationship between PO stretching frequency and electronegativity of substituent, which can be seen qualitatively in Table 6. The more electronegative the substituent, the higher is the wavenumber and the higher is the PO bond force constant, in qualitative agreement with the trend of the bond energies.

There is one other interesting observation in Table 6. As mentioned in the previous section the bond energies of both methyl- and halogen-substituted phosphine oxides are higher than that of the unsubstituted compound. However, the PO stretching frequencies of alkyl- and aryl-substituted phosphine oxides are *lower* than that in the unsubstituted molecule whereas the halogen- and oxygen-substituted cases are *ligher*. This suggests that the methyl group stabilizes the phosphoryl bond while decreasing its force constant and leads to the difficulties in assigning bond orders from infrared spectra, referred to above. This observation is in agreement with the theoretical studies of substituted phosphine oxides and is discussed further in Section IV.D.5.

3. Dipole moments

Phosphine chalcogenides have significant dipole moments, some of which are given in Table 7. As can be seen, for the tertiary derivatives the polarity increases in the series oxide < sulphide < selenide. However, when this is converted into charge separation across the PY bond the order becomes 92,164 oxide > sulphide \approx selenide, in line with

TABLE 7. Dipole moments^a of some tertiary phosphine chalcogenides

Molecule	μ(P=O)	$\mu(P=S)$	$\mu(P=Se)$
Me ₃ P=Y	4.29	4.73	
Ph ₃ P=Y	4.51	4.88	5.17
$F_3P=Y$	1.74	0.63	
$Cl_3P=Y$	2.42	1.42	

 $^{^{}a}\mu$ in D, from refs 164 and 165 and references cited therein.

electronegativity considerations. As might be expected, dipole moments show an inverse relationship with substituent electronegativity^{164,166}. The reduced charge separation found for the trihalo derivatives has been taken as evidence of increased backbonding¹⁶⁴. The fact that substituent electronegativity has a greater effect on the charge separation in sulphides than in oxides suggests that there is less multiple character in the PS bond¹⁶⁴.

It has long been argued 92,167 that the PO bond moment is smaller than expected for the purely coordinate structure 1A. Thus, if the structure were 1A, then the expected

bond moment should be

electronic charge × bond length =
$$(1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}) \times (1.49 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m})$$

= $2.39 \times 10^{-29} \text{ C m} = 7.15 \text{ D}$

However, the actual bond moment, derived by measurement on the triphenyl derivative at the time of the original discussion¹⁶⁷, was 3.5 D, only about 50% of the theory, so a full electron has not been transferred from phosphorus to oxygen. A similar calculation for the NO bond, using available data from trimethylamine oxide, gave 6.66 D as the maximum theoretical value while the actual value was 4.3 D, 65% of the theory. This was then be taken as evidence of a greater amount of backbonding of electron density from oxygen to phosphorus than from oxygen to nitrogen. However, this argument can be criticized^{21,168} because any two charges as near as a bond length will be polarized towards each other and the bond moment will be less. In fact, this may well be the case for the amine oxides and it is possible that the difference between them and the phosphine oxides is just the greater polarizability of phosphorus. Indeed, the reduction in expected bond moment for phosphine sulphides is greater again (abut 30% of the theory), in line with the greater polarizability of sulphur. Recent, more sophisticated, measurements and calculations¹⁶⁹ gave the limits for the PO bond moment as 3.26–4.72 D and the PS moment as 3.65–4.85 D. Hence the issue remains unclear.

4. Magnetic resonance spectroscopy

Nuclear magnetic resonance (31 P, 1 H and 13 C) confirms that there is a high degree of positive charge at phosphorus in the tertiary chalcogenides and that there is multiple binding $^{161,170-173}$. Thus, in the 31 P spectra of the oxides, the phosphorus atom is strongly deshielded relative to the parent phosphine, typically by about 30–40 ppm, but it can be much more 170 ; for example, for the triphenyl case $\Delta\delta \approx 37$ ppm whereas for the trimethyl case $\Delta\delta \approx 100$ ppm. In a comparison of a number of bisphosphine chalcogenides, Grim and Walton 161 found that the charge developed at the phosphorus atom increased in the order oxide (+0.29) < sulphide (+0.47) < selenide (+0.52), in agreement with the dipole moments. Since this is not the order expected on the basis of the electronegativity of the chalcogens, they concluded that there was more backbonding for the oxide than the sulphide or selenide.

Other evidence for multiple bonding is provided by, among others, (i) ^{31}P chemical shift anisotropies, which show stronger shielding in the direction of the P=X bond $^{174-176}$, (ii) $^{31}P-^{77}$ Se coupling constants 177 and (iii) ^{17}O nuclear quadrupole double

resonance 178.

5. Photoelectron spectroscopy

The core and valence ionization potentials of some phosphine chalcogenides are given in Table 8. From the core values we expect information on the degree of charge on the atom concerned 180, whereas the first ionization potential in these molecules corresponds to the loss of an electron from a chalcogenide lone pair 19,68,69,179,184,185. For our purposes it is unfortunate that core potentials tend to be large and show only a small

TABLE 8. Core^a and valence^b ionization potentials^c for some phosphine chalcogens and related molecules

Molecule	P(2p)	O(1s)	S(2p)	Se(3p)	1st IP
Me ₃ P	135.9				
Me ₃ PO	137.8	536.1			9.9
Me ₃ PS	137.5		166.9		8.48
F_3P	141.8				
F ₃ PO	143.0	539.1			13.52
F_3PS					11.05
Me ₃ NO		537.7			8.43
F_3NO		542.0			14.11
H_2O		539.8			12.91
Cl ₃ P	139.6				
Cl ₃ PO	140.9	537.8			11.93
Cl ₃ PS	140.5				
Ph ₃ P	131.1				
Ph ₃ PO	132.8	531.1			
Ph ₃ PS	132.6		162.0		
Ph ₃ PSe	132.6			160.8	
Ph ₃ PBF ₃	132.2				
Ph ₄ P ⁺ Cl ⁻	133.0				

^aFrom refs 179–183; more accurate comparisons of molecules would be possible using data from one source only, but no one source covers the full range of molecules given.

^bFrom refs 179 and 184.

variation with environment. Also, although there are valence ionization energies for a good number of phosphoryl derivatives in the literature 186-188, the data for tertiary phosphine oxides are sparse. However, some useful trends can be discerned from Table 8.

As expected, phosphorus core ionization energies in the chalcogenide derivatives are higher than those for the parent phosphine, reflecting a high positive charge at phosphorus 180,190. Conversely, in most cases, the oxygen core potentials are lower than that for water, for example, with the striking exception of F₃NO. The elevation of the phosphorus value for the triphenylphosphine chalcogenides is about half that in tetraphenylphosphonium salts, indicating that there is not as great a positive charge at phosphorus in the former. In the few cases where comparison of chalcogenides is possible, the elevation for the sulphides and selenides is similar and less than that in the oxide, indicating a greater charge at phosphorus in the latter, as expected. Comparison of analogous phosphine and amine oxides shows that there is a larger negative charge on oxygen in the former, in agreement with electronegativity predictions. The same trends as these were found in the X-ray K emission spectra of triphenylphosphine and its oxide^{190,191}. Finally, there is a change of about 2 eV in the P(2p) core potential on formation of phosphine oxides but the analogous change in N(1s) for amine oxides is much larger (4eV), which could be taken to indicate backbonding in the phosphorus derivatives 181

Similar conclusions can be drawn from the valence ionization potentials. First, although not shown in Table 8, there is an overall stabilization of orbital energies in the X_3P moiety in X_3PY compared with those in the parent X_3P species¹⁸⁴. This corresponds to a charge transfer from the X_3P group to the Y atom¹⁸⁴. From Table 8, the first ionization potential of tertiary phosphine oxides and amine oxides is less than that in water. This is consistent with an increased negative charge at oxygen. The

^{&#}x27;In eV; although some of these values are very precise, the accuracy is ca ± 0.3 eV.

exceptions are the trifluoro derivatives, which may be taken as evidence of extensive backbonding or may be solely due to electronegativity¹⁸⁸. Also, the first ionization potential of trimethylphosphine oxide is greater than that in trimethylamine oxide, indicating a lesser charge at oxygen in the phosphine oxide. Finally, the first ionization potential of sulphides is less than that of the analogous oxide, in line with electronegativity.

B. Qualitative Considerations

To summarize the experimental observations so far: the phosphoryl bond is strong, short and polar and, whereas the sulphur and selenium analogues are similar, they are not quite as strong and are more polar. Most estimates of bond order give the PO bond as greater than two and the PS and PSe bonds as less than two. As mentioned in the Introduction (Section I), the standard description of the PO bond to account for these observations has been in terms of a resonance hybrid of structures 1A and 1B. The extra bond in the case of 1B is formed by backbonding of lone-pair electron density from oxygen into suitable acceptor orbitals on phosphorus. Qualitatively, there are some obvious problems with this description.

First, the double bond formalism clashes with the octet rule. Until fairly recently, it was usual^{3-13,192} to sidestep this issue by saying that this indicated that 'an expansion of the octet is required', which is a euphemism for saying that the octet rule is broken by these compounds. Also, until recently, there was a smoothly made connection^{3-13,192} that this indicated that 'the low-lying atomic d orbitals are involved in hybridization at phosphorus'. We now know (Section II) that there is no role for valence d orbitals in

bonding within the Main Group of the Periodic Table.

Second, the structures 1A and 1B are not mutually exclusive. For example, consider the overlap of oxygen lone pairs with suitable receiving orbitals on phosphorus. No matter what receiving orbitals are envisaged (either the d orbitals or some other combination—see below), the overlap would be highly unsymmetric with most of the electron density near oxygen²⁹. Hence the double bond structure 1B would necessarily lead to a polar molecule anyway. Alternatively, one could consider that the PO bond is a pure σ single bond formed by donation of the phosphine lone pair into a vacant p orbital on O (preserving the octet at phosphorus). Then the phosphorus carries a full positive charge and the oxygen a full negative change. The proximity of these two opposite charges must surely lead to a strengthening of the PO link via an ionic type of attraction. It has been often implied²¹, but has not been shown explicity, that this does not account fully for the shortened PO distance and the increased bond strength.

A final difficulty is that there may be more than one way of having a π -type backbonding interaction from oxygen to phosphorus. In the case of d orbitals it was always recognized that this was the case 14,19,193 , because there are two d orbitals of appropriate symmetry which could overlap with two oxygen lone pairs. This is obscured by the double bond formula 1B and so a triple bond formula naturally arises 19 . An alternative description is as a resonance between structure 1A and a triple bond 20 . The description 'partial triple bond' is also reasonable 14,19 on the basis that the bond order is between two and three. This latter view involves one σ bond and two half π bonds and has become common recently 14,16 . Note that a formal triple bond from oxygen to phosphorus in these compounds would imply that phosphorus carries a negative charge and oxygen a positive charge, perhaps providing a qualitative rationalisation of the reduced PO bond moment discussed in Section IV.A.3, if indeed it really is reduced.

Of these difficulties the d orbital issue is easiest to deal with qualitatively. This is because there is available a perfectly reasonable alternative set of acceptor orbitals on phosphorus. We have already described the backbonding in transition metal phosphine

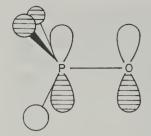


FIGURE 3. View of the bonding in phosphine oxide, showing one of the π backbonds formed by overlap of a lone pair on oxygen with an antibonding orbital of e symmetry on the H_3P moiety

complexes which is not into phosphine d orbitals but into the phosphine LUMO which is of σ^* type^{194–197}. The backbonding in phosphine chalcogenides can be considered to be exactly analogous. In an AH₃ moiety there is a set of two antibonding orbitals with the *e* symmetry required to accept electron density from the oxygen lone pairs. These are the orbitals labelled 2*e* in Figure 3 in ref. 1 or Figure 9.6 in ref. 198. In the case of Me₃PO, H₃PO and F₃PO these are the 7*e*, 3*e* and 7*e* sets, respectively (see Figure 5 in ref. 1). This alternative to d orbital involvement in the backbonding in phosphine oxides is shown in Figure 3. Some additional useful insights are provided by this analysis.

The structure of F₃NO was always very inconvenient for those who advocated the involvement of d orbitals to explain the structure of phosphine oxides. It will be recalled from Section III.F (Table 5) that the NO distance in this molecule is extremely short and must be accorded the status of a double bond and 'rightly or wrongly, few chemists would invoke the 3d-orbitals of nitrogen to explain the bonding' 199. Thus its stability was 'somewhat surprising' 200. Now that backbonding does not have to be into d orbitals there is no problem. Indeed, the NF bond is lengthened (see Table 5), consistent with population of the antibonding orbitals. The orbitals of F₃NO were analysed in detail by Grein and Lawlor⁸⁶, who concluded that the 3e orbital of NF₃ was the suitable acceptor orbital.

The energies of these antibonding acceptor orbitals are also interesting and those derived from a SCM-X α DV calculation¹⁹⁵ are detailed in ref. 1 (Figure 5 and Table 13 therein). In H₃P the 3e orbital is the LUMO at 0.88 eV whereas in F₃P the 7e orbital is the LUMO at -1.05 eV, but in Me₃P the lowest unoccupied orbital of e symmetry is the 7e orbital which is the NLUMO at 0.85 eV, the LUMO being 9a₁ at 0.43 eV. Thus the appropriate acceptor orbital for the F₃P moiety of F₃PO is at significantly lower energy than that in H₃PO and Me₃PO, in agreement with greater backbonding leading

to a stronger PO bond in F₃PO.

It should be noted that the idea of backbonding into antibonding orbitals to explain the bonding in phosphine oxides has been around for a long time. It is essentially the same as the concept of hyperconjugation or 'double-bond/no bond resonance' 180,199.

For the other qualitative difficulties with the description of the PO bond, we must hope that they will be answered by accurate calculation. However, as we shall see, they

have not yet been satisfactorily resolved.

There is one further qualitative insight which is of value. There is a formal analogy between the semipolar bond, e.g, in H₃PO, and the bonding situation in phosphoranes such as H₃PF₂, just as H₂CO and H₂CF₂ are formally related ^{14,16}. In this way the PO bond can be viewed as analogous to the three-centre, two-electron bond developed by Rundle³⁹ to explain the bonding in phosphoranes. Note that this three-centre, two-electron bond model is not incompatible with some degree of backbonding.

C. Survey of Ab Initio Calculations on Phosphine Chalcogenides

At the outset, it is important to delineate what useful results should be expected from calculations on phosphine chalcogenides. Two objectives may be identified: (i) an

understanding of the nature of the PO bond and (ii) predictions of the structure and properties of those members of the series which are not yet known molecules. It can be seen that these are much more ambitious objectives than in the case of, for example, calculations on the parent phosphines¹.

We have already discussed extensively¹ how calculations on phosphines have become reliable only in the last few years. The factors responsible for this (e.g. basis set inadequacy and lack of geometry optimization) apply with increased force to calculations on phosphine chalcogenides. Thus, for example, a calculation on phosphine oxide is likely to be at least 50% more difficult than phosphine owing to the increase in the number of electrons. However, an additional consideration for the chalcogenides is the increased need for polarization functions, due to the charge differences within the molecule, so that the actual increase in difficulty is even greater. Given the increased expectations for such calculations, we should not be too disappointed if they do not fulfil one or other of the objectives set out above.

1. Survey of calculations

Table 9 gives the results (total energy, geometry and dipole moment) of selected calculations on phosphine chalcogens (mainly oxides). It also includes amine oxides for comparison. The literature has been surveyed as far as the end of 1990. Owing to the extra computation required, the total number of calculations is less than for the phosphines but the quality is better. This is probably because investigators undertook studies only if they had the facilities to do so; for example, most workers took care to include polarization functions. Nevertheless, even for H₃PO, only a limited number include correlation corrections in MO treatments.

It is very difficult to assess the usefulness of the calculations whose results are reported in Table 9. In such an assessment, it is usual to examine the accuracy of predicted geometric, or other, parameters and whether the total energy has been minimized. Neither procedure is foolproof; sometimes geometry is predicted well at basis set levels which give poor results for other properties and the energy test must be carefully applied because, for example, augmenting the basis set for the inner shells has a significant effect on the total energy without improving the properties associated with the valence shell¹⁸. However, in this case, these difficulties are compounded by the fact that the most studied molecule, H₃PO, was unknown until recently and is very unstable. Hence its geometry is not available for comparison and the only information to date is the infrared spectrum of the matrix-isolated species¹⁵⁷. This problem is discussed in detail in Section IV.C.2. It is appropriate to discuss separately the usefulness of the calculations for the two objectives mentioned above.

a. Prediction of unknown species. As regards the prediction of the structure and properties of unknown species, we may be fairly confident of reasonable accuracy in some of the latest calculations. Even so, perusal of Table 9 shows that the agreement of theory and experiment can, at best, only be described as modest. This is not surprising because it is expected that basis sets of at least double zeta quality with polarization terms, full geometry optimization and some form of electron correlation will be necessary for the detailed description of compounds of third-row elements, and very few such calculations have been reported for phosphine oxides. It can be seen from Table 9 that the best split-valence and double zeta calculations are only just about adequate to describe consistently the geometric parameters of these molecules. Even then there are some worrying basis set effects; for example, the difference in predicted dipole moment for phosphine oxide between the 6–31G* and DZ + P basis sets 201 which are normally of comparable quality 22. Basis set effects on the structure of phosphine oxide and fluorophosphine oxide have been studied in detail by two groups 201,207. Also, there is

TABLE 9. Results of ab initio calculations on phosphine and amine chalcogenides A₃E=Y

Molecule	Calculation ^a	Energy ^b	$r(E=Y)^c$	r(E—A)°	L YEA ^d	μe	Ref.
H.P=0	STO-3G	-412.3567	165.6	138.3	118.7		201
) *£**	3-21 G	-415.0830	157.9	140.5	117.2	4.60	201
	3-21 G#	-415.2070	147.0	139.1	117.5		192
	3-21 G*	-415.2961	146.0	139.3	117.8	3.46	201
	4-310**	-416.8795	146.0	139.8	117.4		202
	6-310*	, -417.3068	146.4	139.3	117.0	4.18	16, 201, 203, 204
	6-310**		146.5	139.6	116.9		205, 206
	D7	-417.1831	160.5	140.5	116.0		207
	DZ + D	-4173342	147.4	139.3	115.8	5.14	201
	T7 + D		145.6	139.2	116.0		206, 208
	- DZ - D + C/	417 5378	1				19
	77 + Dg + Ch	-4177140				3.87	208
EII D-O	0+1+21 0+0+0+3	2147.74	142.1	139.0 H	117.2 H		209
rn ₂ r—O	310-20#		i	148.4 F	118.8 F		
	3-21 G	-513.4178	154.1	138.8 H	117.3 H	4.23	201
)			161.5 F	114.5 F		
	3-21 G*	-513.7179	145.1	138.9 H	116.9 H	3.13	201
) 1			154.2 F	115.7 F		
	> DZ + P	-515.9874	146.7	139.0 H [']	$108.3\mathrm{H}^i$	4.14	19
	1			157.8 F	$117.3 \mathrm{F}^i$		
	6 31 C*j	- 516 2075					209
	6-31 C* + C*	- 516,6631					209
MaH D—O	STO-2 G#	10000	141.7	138.5 H	118.2 H		209
19101121 —	± () 1			181.4 C	115.9 C		
	3-21 G*	-454.1131	146.5	138.1 H	116.1 H	4.28	210
				178.9 C	119.0C		

211 209 212 212 204 213	140 207 212 212 204 207 92	20, 204 21,2 21,2 21,2 20,4 14,2	204 92 214 215 86 214 16,214 17 (continued)
1.48	5.08	4.72° 1.03 1.23 0.63	4.73 5.8 5.6
117.2	116.8 116.2 113.8 113.9 114.4	117.3	114.0 114.1 109.5 ⁱ 108 111.0 109.5 ⁱ
161.2 149.0 157.5 152.7 152.6 157 ⁱ	152.4 184.0 184.9 180.5 182.0 180.0	138.9 139.3 158.9 153.7 153.5	182.4 181.8 101 ⁱ 100.1 101 ⁱ 100.9
155.7 140.9 150.6 142.7 142.5 145 ⁱ	143.6 161.9 159.8 147.8 147.4 159.2 148.0	192.0 195.3 204.2 185.5 187.4 186.6	196.5 194.0 153.1 145. 140.0 152 137.7
- 710.4446 - 714.0301	- 528.1413 - 531.8002 - 534.0490 - 534.1679	- 736.3530 - 1031.6412	-130.7596 -130.8057 -130.8937 -130.9339
STO-3G STO-2G# 3 21G 3-21G* 6-31G* > DZ + P ^t GVB-SOPP	EXPT" STO-3G 3-21G 3-21G* 6-31G* DZ DZ EXPT"	3-21G# 6-31G* 3-21G 3-21G* 6-31G*	6-31 G* EXPT" 4-31 G 4-31 G + BF 6-31 G 6-31 G* GVB-SOPP ^q
$F_3P=0$	$Me_3P=0$	$H_3P = S$ $F_3P = S$	Me ₃ P=S H ₃ NO

TABLE 9. (continued)

Molecule	Calculation ^a	Energy ^b	r(E=Y) ^c	r(E—A) ^c	L YEA ^d	μ^e	Ref.
F ₃ NO	4-31 G 4-31 + BF DZ + BF DZ + BF + CI	426.7288 426.9059 427.4232 427.7633	118.7	141.2 136 136 143	117.2 116.6 116.9 117.4	0.88 1.20 1.23 0.52	215 86 86 86 86 16
Me ₂ NO	GVB-SOPP GVB-SOPP EXPT" STO - 3G 4-31 G EXPT"	244.9079 247.6864	115.8 115.8 158.2 146.6	143.1 147.7 147.7	117.1 109.5 109.5 ^t	0.04 5.2 5.0	17 144,216 214 214 214 143,217

4-31 G and 6-31 G have their usual meanings^{22,*} * = a set of six d-type polarization functions added to basis set; # = a set of five d type functions added; P = other combinations All self-consistent field, contracted Gaussian-type basis sets and geometry optimized by the gradient method unless indicated otherwise. Symbls STO-3 G, DZ, TZ, 3-21 G. of d functions added; BF = bond functions added as polarization functions; CI = with electron correlation by configuration interaction; C = with correlation by other methods;

GVB-SOPP = generalized valence bond calculation employing the strong orthogonality and perfect pairing approximations. ^bTotal electronic energy in hartree; 1 hartree = $27.2 \,\text{eV} = 2625 \,\text{kJ} \,\text{mol}^{-1}$.

Bond length in pm; H, C or F identifies atom A.

Bond angle in degrees; H, C or F identifies atom A.

Two uncontracted d sets on P and one on O, one p set on H with added diffuse functions. CEPA-PNO method, coupled electron pair approximation with pair natural orbitals. Dipole moment in debye.

Double substitution coupled cluster metbod—ACCD form.

Assumed.

Geometry optimized at STO-2G# level.

Correlation using Møller-Plesset perturbation theory

Two d sets on P.

"From Tables 1-5 and 7.

'Single d function on P.

At STO-2G# geometry.

PSingle d set on N.

At the geometry found for F₃NO by GVB-SOPP method.

no consistent trend in the errors in the prediction of geometric parameters, except of course the dramatic increase in bond lengths for both second- and third-row elements if polarization functions are omitted.

Notwithstanding the above comments, we may say with reasonable confidence that if the structure of phosphine oxide is determined in the future, the values will be $r(PO) = 146.0 \pm 0.5 \,\mathrm{pm}$, $r(PH) = 139.4 \pm 0.2 \,\mathrm{pm}$ and $\angle HPO = 116.5 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$. Similar predictions can be made for other unknown species in Table 9. The bond length of 146 pm may be compared with those in HPO^{91} (151.2 pm), diatomic PO^{91} (147.6 pm) and a typical single PO bond (160 pm; bridging bond in $P_4O_{10}^{89}$). Also, the PO length in H_3PO is about 2 pm shorter than in substituted phosphine oxides (Section III, Table 1) which is almost certainly a bond length-bond angle effect wherein oxygen can approach closer to phosphorus as the angle between the other ligands decreases. A similar effect is probably responsible for the shortening of the PH bond length from that in parent phosphine 1 (PH = 142 pm, HPH = 93.5°).

b. Nature of the PO bond. In this case we must be less sanguine. The results in Table 9 do not lead to total confidence in the usefulness of the calculations for the elucidation of the nature of the PO bond, a problem which has already proved intractable. They are only just about able to predict geometries with confidence, so we may feel legitimately mistrustful of their ability to describe the distribution of electron density in the region of the PO bond. More scriously, all theoretical studies so far on the nature of the PO bond have used either the 6-31G*. DZ + P or inferior levels of calculation and most have been on phosphine oxide. From Table 9 it can be seen that the lowest energy achieved so far for phosphine oxide is about 0.4 hartree below that at the 6-31G* or DZ + P levels. This is about twice the energy of the PO bond and was achieved by electron correlation. Hence, again, it is perfectly legitimate to feel uneasy as to whether the electron distribution in the PO region can be adequately described at these levels. Even with correlation, the computed PO strengths are significantly low; for example, Schmidt and Gordon²⁰ estimated the PO bond strength in F₃PO to be 467 kcal mol⁻¹ (at the 6-31G* level with correlation by third-order Møller-Plesset theory using the 6-31G* geometry) whereas the experimental value 156 is 542 kJ mol -1, an error of about 14%.

A further point is that the problem is made extra difficult by not being a comparative one. Often it is possible to obtain useful results at modest levels of calculation by comparing sets of molecules. In the determination of the PO bond, however, an absolute result is sought, namely its electron distribution. Even comparison with amine oxides may not be real since they may very well be different entities.

2. Infrared spectrum of phosphine oxide

As mentioned above, unlike the situation in the parent phosphines¹, there is a problem with comparison of theory and experiment for phosphine oxides. This is because it is only recently that good calculations could be done on anything other than H₃P=O and, unfortunately, until recently this was an unknown molecule. Even now the only experimental study that has been reported is the infrared spectrum of the matrix-isolated species¹⁵. Two groups have attempted to calibrate the theory with this experimental²⁰⁴⁻²⁰⁶. However, this is more problematic than, for example, comparison of computed and measured molecular geometry data because of the extra step involved in computing the infrared spectrum.

Table 10 shows the comparison of experimental and calculated wavenumbers in the infrared spectrum of $H_3P=0$. Usually computed wavenumbers are considerably higher (10-15%) than experimental values and this can be seen clearly in Table 10 at all the

TABLE 10. Comparison^a of experimental and calculated vibrational frequencies (cm⁻¹) in the infrared spectrum of H₃P=O

$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Mode	Experimentalb	3-21 G#°	g#g		6-31 G*d			6-31 G**	0	$TZ + P^f$	+ P/	TZ + P	$P + A^g$
2359 2687 328 2694 2372 2644 272 2666 1240 1437 197" 1397 1144 1287 143" 1284 1114 1238 124 1246		W E	ν°C	\ \dag{\dag{\dag{\dag{\dag{\dag{\dag{	», v	V	Asc	»C	A	$\Delta_{ m sc}$	v _C	Δ	P _C	Δ
2372 2644 272 2666 1240 1437 197" 1397 1144 1287 143" 1284 1114 1238 124 1246	PH a.	2359	2687	328	2694	335	46	2647	288	23	2594	235	2500	141
1240 1437 197" 1397 1144 1287 143" 1284 1114 1238 124 1246	PH 0	2372	2644	272	2666	294	7	2618	246	91-	2573	201	2490	118
1114 1287 143" 1284 11114 1238 124 1246	DO a	1240	1437	197"	1397	157	16	1389	149	10	1361	121	1341	101
1114 1238 124 1246	HPH A	1144	1287	143#	1284	140	11	1282	138	10	1263	119	1245	101
	HPH 0	1114	1238	124	1246	132	-22	1238	124	0	1235	121	1213	66
853 976 123 938	HPO e	853	926	123	958	105	-13	656	106	7	933	80	922	69

 $^{a}v_{E} = experimental$ vibration frequency, $v_{C} = calculated$ harmonic vibration frequency at the indicated level of theory; $\Delta = v_{C} - v_{E}$; $\Delta_{sc} = v_{C} - v_{E}$ after scaling of the calculated

value – see text.

From ref. 157.

From ref. 192.

From ref. 204.

From ref. 205.

From ref. 206.

 $^{\theta}A$ = with anharmonicity correction; from ref. 206. $^{\pi}A$ These frequencies interchanged from the assignment in the original work—see text.

levels of theory studied. Traditionally this difficulty has been addressed by using a scaling procedure; theoretical and experimental values are compared for related species for which data is available (e.g., PH₃ and F₃P=O in this case) and scale factors are computed to adjust the theoretical wavenumbers for the unknown species. Scaling procedures attempt to remove systematic errors which may be due, for example, to basis set incompleteness, neglect of electron correlation or neglect of anharmonicity considerations^{205,218,219}. Table 10 includes scaled values for two of the theory levels.

Returning to the question of the quality of the calculations, as can be seen from Table 10, after scaling, the predicted frequencies are accurate to about 20 cm⁻¹ in most cases. Schneider and coworkers²⁰⁴ were non-committal about the quality of the scaled 6–31G* results, being fairly content with the PO modes but less than satisfied with the PH stretching modes (2359 and 2372 cm⁻¹), whereas Person and coworkers²⁰⁵ considered that the scaled 6–31G** results were spectacularly good. However, it can also be seen from Table 10 that there is still a substantial difference in absolute terms between theory and experiment because, even after including a correction for anharmonicity, the calculated wavenumbers at the triple zeta plus polarization level are still approximately 5–10% higher than the experimental values. This reviewer concludes that better than TZ + P and substantial consideration of correlation effects will be necessary for satisfactory agreement between experiment and theory for the infrared spectrum of H₃P=O. This reinforces the conclusions of the previous section on the usefulness of these calculations for determining the nature of the PO bond.

A subsidiary, but significant, issue is that there is inevitable uncertainty as to the frequency of the PO stretch in $\rm H_3PO$ due to strong mode mixing from the $\rm H_3P$ bending mode²⁰⁵. For consistency because of this, in the 3–21G# column in Table 10, the values for PO stretch (1437 cm⁻¹) and HPH bend (1287 cm⁻¹) (both a_1 modes) are the reverse of those in the original work. Incidently, and ironically, Schmidt and coworkers¹⁹² used this calculated value of 1287 cm⁻¹ to argue that the PO bond fell far short of a double bond in comparison with the calculated value of 1498 cm⁻¹ for the PO bond in the HPO molecule. With the revised assignments, this argument would lead to the opposite conclusion.

The PO force constant derived from the infrared spectrum¹⁵⁷ is $9.53 \times 10^2 \,\mathrm{N}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}$. This may be compared with the force constants for the PO bonds in¹⁵⁷ H₂POH (4.39 × 10² N m⁻¹), HPO (8.67 × 10² N m⁻¹) and diatomic PO (9.24 × 10² N m⁻¹). This confirms that the PO bond in stronger than a single or double bond and is comparable to, or greater than, the bond strength in diatomic PO.

3. Population analyses

A widely used device in the analysis of wavefunctions is population analysis²². This seeks to find, among other properties, regions of charge build-up, orbital occupancy and bond order. There are a number of methods available for this purpose²², that of Mullikan being the most commonly used for phosphorus compounds. Others used have been that of Ahlrichs and coworkers^{220,221} and the natural population analysis²²² based on the natural bond orbitals (see Section IV.D.1). A slightly different approach is the calculation of integrated spatial electron populations (ISEP) for regions bounded by minima in the projected electron density functions²¹. These methods were developed later than the Mulliken method and all claim to be better.

Table 11 gives a comparison of some results from the various population analyses which have been applied to phosphine oxides and related molecules. Population analysis, especially the Mulliken method, has been subject to much criticism^{14,16,22,222} as being basis set dependent and giving unphysical results. In fact, as noted by Kutzelnigg¹⁴, a difficulty with most population analyses of this kind (based on the LCAO method) is

TABLE 11. Population analyses^a from ab initio studies of $A_3E = Y$ compounds and related molecules

Molecule	Method ^b	Calculation	qE	qY	qA	pEY	Ref.
$H_3P=O$	M	6-31 G*	0.92	-0.72	-0.07	0.56	203
1131 — 🗸	M	> DZ + P	1.33	-0.97		0.71	19
	M	TZ + P	0.84	-0.97	0.04		208
	M	TZ + P + C	0.72	-0.86	0.05		208
	H	> DZ + P	1.12	-0.78		1.78	19
	N	6-31G*	1.51	-1.16	-0.12	0.73	16
	Ī	3-21 G*	1.83	-1.53	-0.10		201
	Ĩ	6-31 G*		-1.53			201
	Ī	DZ + P		-1.58			201
H ₂ POH	M	> DZ + P	0.58	-0.56		0.35	19
H ₃ NO	M	> DZ + P	0.39	-0.76		0.35	19
113140	N	6-31 G*	-0.46	-0.74	0.40	0.84	16
H ₂ NOH	M	> DZ + P	0.08	-0.48		0.60	19
$H_2FP=O$	M	STO-2G#	1.24	-0.65	$-0.40\mathrm{F}$		209
1121 1 — 0	M	> DZ + P	1.82	-1.01		0.80	19
	Н	> DZ + P	1.40	-0.77		1.94	19
	Ĭ	3-21 G		-1.23	$-0.81\mathrm{F}$		201
	I	3-21 G*		-1.51	$-0.86\mathrm{F}$		201
$MeH_2P=O$	M	STO-2 G#	1.03	-0.69	−0.78 C		209

 $^{{}^}aqE/Y/A = net$ atomic charge on E/Y/A; H, C or F identifies A atom; pEY = overlap population of EY bond. bType of population analysis: M = Mulliken, H = Heinzmann-Ahrichs, N = natural population, I = ISEP; see text for explanations.

that any resolution of the charge density in a molecule into atomic contributions is not unique. Thus one seeks not to analyse the population of an individual molecule (which is not very meaningful) but to compare different molecules with the same or comparable AO basis sets and, so long as the basis sets are balanced ^{t4}, one hopes that reliable results may be obtained.

Examination of Table 11 shows the expected strong dependence on basis set of Mulliken populations. Note, for example, the variation for H_3PO even among the higher quality basis sets. Also, as expected, there is wide variation among the different methods of population analysis, both for atomic charges and overlap populations. However, it is clear that the PO bond is strongly polarized, phosphorus having a net charge near 1.0 whereas oxygen has charge of about -1.0. It should be emphasized that the absolute values in Table 11 have no useful meaning, especially the overlap populations, but comparisons may be valid. Thus, with care, other conclusions can be drawn from Table 11 which will be discussed in the following sections.

D. Detailed Ab Initio Studies of the Bonding

Given the comments in Section IV.C.1 on the usefulness of the calculations reported so far, the reader will not be surprised that a single picture has not yet emerged of the nature of the PO bond. That is not to say, however, that there are no definite statements in the literature on this topic. In fact, as intimated in Section I, the debate on the nature of the PO bond has recently been vigorous with two apparently contradictory viewpoints being proposed. These may be termed the σ/π -bond description and the Ω -bond description, neither of which, of course, involves much discussion of the involvement of

^{&#}x27;see footnote a in Table 9.

d orbitals. These two alternatives are described below, but first it is necessary to fill in some background for readers who are not theoreticians and to dispose of the d orbital issue.

1. Localization procedures

Before we can describe the studies which have been done on the PO bond, it is necessary to mention the concept of delocalized and localized MOs. The LCAO-MO description of chemical bonding²² leads to a set of molecular orbitals formed by the overlap of atomic orbitals centred at different atoms. These MOs are then classified as bonding, non-bonding or antibonding, depending on whether their energy is less than, equal to or greater than that of the constituent AOs. Each of the MOs is completely delocalized about all the constituent atoms and may only be occupied by two electrons of opposite spin. To express this, the ground-state wavefunction is described by a Slater determinant of the MOs. From this wavefunction can be calculated the properties of the molecule, e.g. electron probability density, dipole moment and geometry. However, this description is significantly deficient in one very important respect: as its stands, it is inconsistent with the existence of individual bonds in the molecule. The idea of a chemical bond between a pair of atoms in a molecule, which is approximately transferable between molecules, is fundamental to chemistry, so this is a grave deficiency indeed.

However, it is possible to reconcile the MO method with reality. This is because it is possible to convert the Slater determinant of MOs, by a unitary transformation, into another Slater determinant containing a set of MOs corresponding to localized bonds. These are the *localized* MOs as opposed to the original *canonical* MOs from the LCAO-MO method. Although this transformation does not change the value of the total electronic ground-state energy, the orbital energy values are shifted. In fact, there are an infinite number of such transformations possible²², many of them corresponding to localized MOs, so that one needs a procedure or criterion for generating them consistently. Three such procedures are:

(i) that which generates the *energy-localized* MOs, originally suggested by Lennard-Jones and Pople²²³ and developed by Edmiston and Reudenberg²²⁴; the LMOs are defined as that set of orbitals which minimizes inter-orbital repulsion and exhange energy;

(ii) that which generates the exclusive MOs due to Foster and Boys^{225,226}, usually called the Boys LMOs, defined as that set which maximizes the sum of the squares

of the distances between the orbital centroids;

(iii) a more recent method is that of the *natural localized molecular orbitals* developed by Reed and Weinhold²²⁷, which are derived from a natural bond-orbital analysis proposed by Foster and Weinhold²²⁸. The natural bond orbitals correspond more closely to the picture of localized bonds and lone pairs as basic units of molecular structure, are much easier to calculate and give results usually in good agreement with the other LMO methods²²⁹.

Of these methods, that of Boys probably has been in greater use especially for systems containing second-row atoms because of its ease of computation. All three methods have been applied to phosphine oxides, more commonly that of Boys. Normally the different localization methods give similar results but not in the case of phosphine oxide, as we shall see.

An interesting point about these localization methods is that they sometimes lead to 'banana bonds'. For example, the energy-localized MOs for N₂ are three equivalent curved bond orbitals spaced 120 apart from one another, the 'banana bonds', whereas

the canonical MOs are the familiar σ bond and two π bonds²². A similar result may be obtained for the alkene and carbonyl groups using the Boys method¹⁸. Thus localization procedures tend to obscure σ/π separability, which has also been a useful concept in chemistry. This aspect is often avoided by a preliminary examination of the canonical orbitals, especially the HOMO, to see if it has π properties and is already strongly localized; if it has, it is then excluded for the localization procedure. For example, the HOMO of ethylene is excluded in the localization procedure to preserve the familiar σ/π description of the carbon—carbon double bond²².

Note that both these difficulties (absence of identifiable bonds and then loss of σ/π separability) are artifacts of the framework chosen for solution of the Schödinger

equation—the LCAO-MO method.

2. Insignificance of d orbitals

Phosphine oxide calculations are a very good example of the trend mentioned in Section II whereby the significance of d orbitals appeared to change during the 1970s. In 1970 three sets of calculations indicated that d orbitals were significant in the electronic description of phosphine oxide^{69,185a,230}. This was on the basis that leaving out the d functions leads to large energy increases for the species. Although all groups reported that d orbitals were important there were, with hindsight, significant differences in the degree of importance. Thus, for example, Hillier and Saunders^{185a} found a d population of > 1 for H₃PO at the STO-3G* level, while Demuynck and Veillard²³⁰ found that it was 0.36 at > DZ + P. Also, Marsmann and coworkers⁶⁹ noted that the d-orbital radii found, by optimization, were similar to those of the s and p orbitals but, in their opinion at that time, this merely showed that there was no problem involved in achieving good overlap of these orbitals. This bias towards one vicwpoint at the time is not surprising, given the preconditioning towards it that had occurred in the previous two decades and the apparent confirmation of it in the calculations.

By 1979 the situation had changed, even though the calculations were similar. Thus, in the course of a comprehensive study, discussed further below, Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg¹⁹ repeated the observation of Demuynck and Veillard²³⁰ that the d population in H_3PO is 0.3 at the > DZ + P level. However, they showed (convincingly by both Mulliken and Heinzmann-Ahlrichs population analysis) that the d functions used were not true valence orbitals. For example, the Mulliken d population with a saturated sp basis is 0.3, which is comparable to that found in H_3PF_2 (0.2), but the d population in H_2POH is only smaller by a factor of 2. Further, the energy lowering due to the presence of d functions is roughly proportional to the d population (in line with the considerations of Section II above). They concluded¹⁹ that 'the traditional valence AOs of s and p type are, when appropriately deformed, able to describe the bonding in all molecules in this paper. They are slightly poorer for the electron-rich molecules but

even for them there is no indication of a valence extension'.

Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg¹⁹ also demonstrated that phosphine oxides are a good example of d functions making up any deficiencies in the s and p basis and that, to obtain consistency in d function contribution, basis sets must be used which are saturated for s and p basis functions (i.e. there should be no further energy lowering on adding more s and p basis functions). However, in retrospect, their more important finding was that the use of d functions is essential to obtain an accurate description of these molecules. For example, they found for H₃PO that, on addition of d functions, there was a strong energy lowering, amounting to 218 kJ mol⁻¹ (52 kcal mol⁻¹). Also, the PO bond length optimized without d functions (160 pm) was close to that of a single bond (calculated as 167 pm in H₂POH), while the optimized bond length with d functions (147 pm) was in good agreement with experimental values¹⁹ (see Table 9). As discussed in Section II,

this need for d functions in phosphine oxide calculations is because the PO bond is very polar so that there is a rapidly varying potential between the nuclei, which cannot be described accurately by a wavefunction which includes only atom-centred s and p functions.

These early conclusions by Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg¹⁹ have been confirmed in detail by the later studies, two of which deserve mention. Magnusson¹⁵ included calculations on phosphine oxides in his general study of hypercoordinate molecules (described in Section II) and they followed the same general pattern whereby there is no role for valence d orbitals. Reed and Schleyer¹⁶ addressed the same problem in their recent study of hypervalent molecules (discussed further in Section IV.D.3.a). They showed that the depletion of the Y lone-pair orbital population in A₃XY systems was not matched by a corresponding increase in the central atom d orbital population.

Finally, an interesting psychological observation can be made about the influential paper by Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg¹⁸. Although they demonstrated that there is no valence role for d orbitals in phosphine oxides, nevertheless they used arguments based on them, in the same paper, to explain several aspects of the bonding. This reluctance on their part to abandon the concept, even though they had disproved it, shows how convenient the idea had been up to that time.

3. The two alternative views of the bonding in phosphine oxide

All of the detailed theoretical studies of the PO bond to date show, in agreement with experimental observation, that the PO bond has high multiple bond character and is highly polarized ^{16,17,19-21,68,69,185,192,201,203,230,231}. From Table 9, the optimized PO bond length for H₃PO (146 pm) is in good agreement with the experimental value for the substituted compounds. From Section III this is less than the bond length in the PO molecule (147.6 pm) or the HPO molecule (151.2 pm), both of which must have multiple character, and is distinctly shorter than a PO single bond (160 pm).

The results of population analyses (Table 11) are consistent with the picture that about one electron is transferred from phosphorus to oxygen. The polarity of the PO bond is significantly larger in $\rm H_3PO$ than in $\rm H_2POH$, where it is only determined by the difference in electronegativity. Also, there is significant PO overlap as measured by overlap populations. There is no problem in reconciling these population results because if there was overlap of oxygen lone pairs with suitable receiving orbitals on phosphorus it would be highly unsymmetrical with most of the electron density near oxygen, as discussed in Section IV.B. In fact, the detailed studies (see the references at the start of this section) show that the presence of backbonding does not attenuate the charge-transfer characteristic of a semipolar bond and that backbonding means that the π AOs of oxygen are strongly polarized towards the $\rm H_3P$ moiety $\rm ^{16.17,19-21,68.69,185,192,201,203,230,231}$.

Although we know that the PO bond is multiple and highly polar, there is still strong disagreement about the exact electron distribution in it. As mentioned above, there are two viewpoints, described below. It turns out that phosphine oxides are part of the overall dichotomy between the σ/π and bent bond descriptions of multiple bonds²².

a. One σ bond and two half π bonds (backbonding/negative hyperconjugation). This might now be described as the traditional view, having become so over about the last 30 years with the dominance of the molecular orbital method. It has been discussed qualitatively in Section IV.B. The bond can be viewed^{20,192} as a donor-acceptor or Lewis acid-base interaction with backbonding superimposed. The lone pair of electrons from phosphorus forms a σ bond to oxygen which completes its octet. Then there are two possibilities. The resulting extra charge density on oxygen may go into suitable acceptor orbitals on phosphorus, forming a double bond (or rather a partial triple bond)

by a π -type interaction called backbonding^{14,16,19}, as shown in Figure 3. The suitable orbitals are now known^{15,16,19} not to be d orbitals but a set of antibonding orbitals of e symmetry on the R₃P moiety (see Section IV.B). This can be viewed as a resonance between single and triply bound structures²⁰. The alternative possibility^{21,201} is that the two opposite charges on adjacent atoms interact in an ionic bond and strengthen the PO link so that it is multiple (essentially structure 1A with some polarization of the charges towards each other).

There has never been any doubt, from the earliest to the most recent calculations, that there is a polarization of the charge at oxygen (the lone pairs) towards phosphorus 14,16,19-21,69. It is the interpretation of this polarization which has proved difficult because, as already pointed out, any double bond between phosphorus and oxygen must be highly polar, so that it is difficult to distinguish between ionic and covalent bonding here. Most workers have interpreted the polarization as indicating backbonding, but, for example, Streitwieser and coworkers 21,201 took the view that it is nothing more than the polarization of the charges in an ionic bond. They asserted, but did not show, that this view was consistent with the reduced dipole moment because the charges are not spherically symmetric about the nuclei 201. Similar sentiments were raised by Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg 19 who stated at one point in their paper, but again did not show, that the polarity of the PO bond was inconsistent with double bond character. However, later in the paper, they invoked backbonding to form a partial triple bond.

Most recently, Reed and Schleyer¹⁶ did a very useful broad general study of the bonding in A_3XY species. They used calculations at the 6–31G* level and population analyses using the natural population method. They formalized the view that the backbonding is into empty σ^* orbitals on the R_3P moiety and placed the phenomenon in the context of the more general idea of negative hyperconjugation. Hyperconjugation is the interaction of filled σ orbitals and empty π^* orbitals, e.g. the σ_{CH} bonds of the CH₂ group of cyclopentadiene with the π^* orbitals of the diene. Negative hyperconjugation is then the converse, i.e. electron donation from π to σ^* orbitals as in

 $\pi_{\rm C}$ to $\sigma_{\rm CF}^*$ donation in the FCH₂CH₂⁻ anion²³².

There was one irritating difficulty with Reed and Schleyer's results ¹⁶. A consequence of negative hyperconjugation in A_3XY should be relatively increased XA bond lengths. This is indeed found to be the case for, for example, F_3CO^- and in F_3NO . However, the PF bonds are shortened in F_3PO and F_3PS and in most tertiary phosphine oxides relative to the parent phosphine (see Section II). Therefore, Reed and Schleyer had to look for other factors which influence PA bond lengths and they proceeded to invoke the greater importance of d orbitals(!) for second- as opposed to first-row atoms. They then attempted to measure the relative importance of negative hyperconjugation and d orbital involvement by examining the ratio between the depletion of the lone-pair occupancy and the d orbital population on the central atom. They found that the depletion was relatively high and the d orbital population low. They therefore concluded that the bonding was a partially ionic σ bond and partial π bonding which occurs mainly through negative hyperconjugation and only secondarily through overlap with extra valence shell d orbitals.

This reviewer was surprised by the readiness of Reed and Schleyer¹⁶ to invoke valence d orbitals as an explanation for the bond length contraction in phosphine oxides relative to the parent phosphines, especially since one of the thrusts of their paper was that the traditional dsp³ and d²sp³ models are now invalid. Also, as they pointed out, d functions serve to polarize existing valence orbitals to lead to a better wavefunction for the system. This is equivalent to saying that if negative hyperconjugation occurs then d functions will be required in the LCAO-MO calculation. In fact, it is just as reasonable to argue that the need for d functions in the LCAO-MO treatment indicates that negative

hyperconjugation is occurring. Hence it cannot be strictly valid to compare the amount of negative hyperconjugation with the d population since they are already related.

There are other explanations which can be resorted to before valence d orbitals need to be invoked. One such is the bond length-bond angle relationship. Thus unsubstituted and both fluoro- and methyl-substituted phosphine oxides have decreased P—ligand bond lengths compared with their parent phosphines but all also have increased bond angles, and all of the variation is of the same order (about 5 pm and 5-6°; compare Tables 4 and 5 with Tables 2-4 in ref. 1). It is commonplace to argue¹, in the case of Main Group compounds, that an increase in bond angle is related to a decrease in bond length, because as the ligands move apart from each other (bond angle increases from 90° towards 109.5°) they can approach closer to the central atom (see also Section III.A) That the first-row compounds do not follow the same pattern can be ascribed to the already crowded environment around the small central atom.

b. Three Ω bonds (banana bonds/bent multiple bonds). This might be termed the unorthodox view, the valence bond method having been somewhat in disuse until recently. There is neither a σ nor a π bond. The PO bond is a formal triple bond with the three curved regions of electron density disposed between P and O in a symmetrical fashion (at 120° to each other in Newmann projection along the PO coordinate, Figure 4A). This description arises in both the MO and VB theoretical analyses of phosphine oxides described below. In both cases the electron density of the bonds is found to be strongly displaced towards oxygen and the remaining lone pair on the oxygen atom is found to be directed away from phosphorus along the PO axis.

These curved bonds have been termed 'bent multiple' bonds²⁴ and 'banana' bonds²², while more recently the terms ' τ bond' and ' Ω bond' have been coined by VB workers^{233,234}. Since the term Ω bond has been used in connection with phosphine oxides already, and since the Greek letter is reminiscent of their shape, we shall use it in the following discussion. The term τ bond has been used for the specific case where the banana bonds occur in pairs, as in alkenes²² and phosphorus ylides²³⁴.

i. Boys localization. In SCF-HF/LCAO-MO calculations, the Boys localization procedure for phosphine oxides gives the Ω -bond description, shown as a contour plot in Figure 5, at all levels of theory studied. Guest and coworkers²³¹ were the first to describe banana bonds for H₃PO, Me₃PO, F₃PO, Cl₃PO and F₃PS at the STO-3G* level. Then Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg¹⁹ found the same at the DZ + P level, after

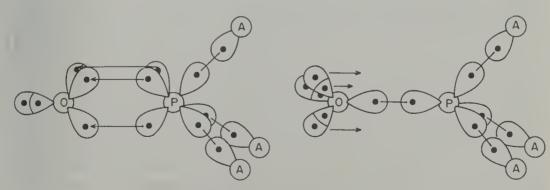


FIGURE 4A. The Ω bond model of the bonding in phosphine oxides, A₃PO. Adapted from Messmer¹⁷

FIGURE 4B. The triple backbond model of the bonding in phosphine oxides, A₃PO. Adapted from Messmer¹⁷. The backbonds are shown by the arrows

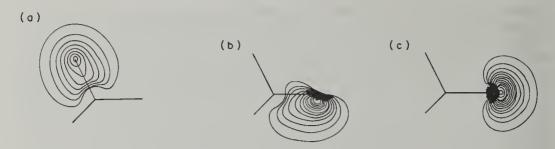


FIGURE 5. Contour plots of the Boys localized bonding orbitals of $\rm H_3PO$. (a) One of three PH bonds; (b) one of three banana bonds (note that it is strongly polarized towards oxygen); and (c) the single oxygen lone pair. At the 3–21 G# level, one phase only shown, increment between all contours is 0.05 bohr^{-3/2}. Adapted from Schmidt and coworkers¹⁹²

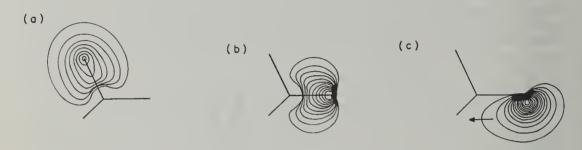


FIGURE 6. Contour plots of the energy-localized bonding orbitals of $\rm H_3PO$. (a) One of three PH bonds; (b) the PO σ bond; and (c) one of three oxygen lone pairs (note the backbonding towards phosphorus, shown by the arrow). At the 3–21 G# level, one phase only shown, increment between all contours is 0.05 bohr^{-3/2}. Adapted from Schmidt and coworkers¹⁹²

noting that there was no natural choice of a plane of symmetry to impose a σ/π separability. Recently, Molina and coworkers²⁰³ found the same result at the 6–31G* level.

Schmidt and coworkers¹⁹² found an even more interesting result. This was that, for H_3PO , the energy localization procedure gave a different result from the Boys procedure. The energy localized orbitals at the 3–21G# level for H_3PO are shown in Figures 4B and 6. They are three equivalent PH bond, one strong PO σ bond and three equivalent orbitals on oxygen whose character is principally lone pair. This is similar to a representation using structure 1A except that each of the lone pairs possesses some tendency to back-donate electron density to phosphorus. This result is different¹⁹² from the Boys result at the same level of theory, which is in terms of banana bonds as shown in Figures 4A and 5, whereas usually the two procedures give similar results. Even starting each procedure with the localized orbitals from other procedure gave the same end result¹⁹². The energy-localized result described above is in accord with the picture of the PO bond as arising from strong σ donation enhanced by some degree of π backbonding, except that the back-donating lone pairs are staggered with respect to the PH bonds, which would be inimical to negative hyperconjugation.

It is noticeable that whenever a localization procedure gives banana bonds, the result is not taken seriously²². This is not reasonable, since it has the same energy as a σ/π description, but it is understandable, because it is outside the familiar realm of textbook

chemistry. In just the same way, those workers who obtained this result for phosphine oxide were often reluctant to take it fully on board; some comments were: 'should not be taken too literally'¹⁹, 'overly complicated'¹⁹², 'a very peculiar electronic distribution'²⁰³. Most notable was the reaction of Schmidt and coworkers¹⁹² who had performed both localization procedures and chose to reject the banana bond description without any justification other than to say that they favoured the alternative. This was in spite of the fact that on increasing fluorine substitution the energy-localized orbitals reverted to the banana bond description (see Section IV.D.5).

ii. Generalized valence bond calculations. Very recently a new approach to the bonding in these compounds has been published ¹⁷ based on the generalized valence bond (GVB) method.

The GVB method was developed from about 1970 by Goddard and coworkers²³⁵. The GVB wavefunction is much simpler than a VB wavefunction and so easier to calculate. However, it is still computationally difficult and, as usual, approximations have to be made. There are two such approximations, called the strong orthogonality (SO) and the perfect pairing (PP) restrictions, first proposed by Hurley and coworkers²³⁶ and developed by Goddard and coworkers²³⁵. Usually they are both applied (SOPP). The method is claimed to be a substantial improvement beyond Hartree–Fock theory in that it is the most general independent particle model and provides a unique set of localized orbitals with which to interpret the bonding^{17,235}. There are very few valence bond studies of hypervalent molecules^{61,81,234}.

During the late 1980s Messmer and coworkers^{233,237-239} started to explore the utility of GVB methods on simple systems, both with and without the SOPP restrictions. In most cases they found that the description of multiple bonds is in terms of Ω bonds. For example, in the description of difluoroacetylene the three Ω bonds may be thought of as the overlap of three sp³ hybrids on each of the carbons²³⁷. These Ω bonds are very similar to the banana bonds often given by localization procedures in MO theory, except that in this case they are the only result which minimises the energy of the system. One interesting aspect of these studies was that the GVB-SOPP results may give different results from the full GVB method. For example, tetrafluoroethylene is described by the traditional σ/π representation in GVB-SOPP but by a two Ω -bond representation (τ bond) in the full GVB treatment²³⁹. Schulz and Messmer²³⁹ have tried to develop guidelines on when the full GVB will give the same results as GVB-SOPP.

Very recently, these studies using the GVB-SOPP method have been applied to Main Group (N,S, and P) oxides^{17,240}. It is found that in F_3PO the oxygen forms a triple bond to the phosphorus atom using three Ω bonds, very similar to the Boys localization results from MO theory shown in Figures 4A and 5. The phosphorus atom assumes a pseudo-octahedral distribution of orbitals about its core and the orbitals are strongly

polarized towards the surrounding atoms.

It should be noted that, although the idea of Ω bonds now appears unorthodox, it is not at all new. In fact, Pauling introduced it in 1931^{23} to explain E/Z isomerism in alkenes in the same paper which developed the sp³ model and it is discussed at length in the third edition²⁴ of *The Nature of the Chemical Bond*, where he notes that the description was used by nineteenth century chemists to explain why the carbon—carbon double bond is not fully twice the energy of the single bond. However, the σ/π representation predominated later because it could be quantified fairly easily through MO theory²².

Although this reviewer finds the triple bond description for the PO bond to be fairly convincing and appealing, some reservations do have to be entered about the GVB-SOPP results reported above. First, full GVB gives Ω bonds for $F_2C=CF_2$ whereas GVB-SOPP gives a σ/π description, so it is just conceivable that it could be other way

around for F_3PO . Messmer¹⁷ has argued against this possibility but he cannot yet rule it out completely. Also, many of the systems reported so far have fluorine as ligands (e.g. FC = CF, $F_2C = CF_2$, F_3NO , F_3PO) and in the case of the amine oxides the result was different with hydrogen ligands (see Section IV.D.4). Hence there is the possibility that the result will be different for phosphine oxide or tertiary phosphine oxides. Again Schulz and Messmer²³⁹ have indicated that change in ligand is not important, but only in references to unpublished material. More seriously, an examination of Table 9 shows that the few results available from GVB-SOPP calculations do not compare favourably with those from other calculational methods. For example, for F_3PO , the predicted PO bond length is 147 pm compared with the experimental result of 143.6 pm while the 6–31G* value was 142.5 pm.

A final point is that both the Boys localization results and the GVB-SOPP results for F_3PO are inconsistent with negative hyperconjugation. Examination of Figure 5 shows that the three Ω bonds are staggered with respect to the other phosphorus—ligand bonds, giving an octahedral disposition of electron pairs around phosphorus. This is the arrangement expected on the basis of the Pauli exclusion principle, but it would minimize the overlap of the orbital interaction required for negative hyperconjugation.

4. Comparison of phosphine oxides and amine oxides

Tables 9 and 11 also include for comparison results from calculations on ammonia oxide and other amine oxides. It is to be expected that differences between these results and those for phosphine oxides should reflect fundamental differences between first- and second-row elements. There are some anomalous results reported in Table 9. Note, for example, that most of the calculations on F_3NO are hopelessly inaccurate with the single GVB–SOPP result being particularly bad. The worst predictions are for the NF bond length and the dipole moment and only when correlation is included are the results reasonable, although the NO bond length is still overestimated. Indeed, we can be much less confident in predicting the geometry of ammonia oxide than we were above for phosphine oxide.

The observations to be explained, which may or may not be related, include:

- (i) the lower dipole moment of phosphine oxides compared with amine oxides;
- (ii) the PO bond in H₃PO and R₃PO is stronger and shorter than a PO single bond whereas in H₃NO and R₃NO the NO bond (length ca. 140 pm) is like an NO single bond²⁴¹:
- (iii) the PO bond in F₃PO is qualitatively similar to that in H₃PO whereas the NO bond in F₃NO is a double bond on the criteria of length and strength;
- (iv) the PA bond lengths in A_3PO are all shorter than those in A_3P whereas the NA lengths in A_3NO are longer than in A_3N , with the contrast being especially marked for the fluoro derivatives (compare Tables 4 and 5 with Tables 2-4 in ref. 1).

Many of the theoretical studies of phosphine oxides also include comparison with amine oxides 16,17,19,203,242 and there is greater unanimity about the bonding in amine oxides. All find that the NO bond in amine oxides is weaker than in phosphine oxides, in agreement with the chemical experience that amine oxides are oxidizing agents and phosphines are reducing agents. There is a general picture from population analyses 14,19,242 (Table 11) that ammonia oxide and tertiary amine oxides are singly bound with a semipolar bond and no backbonding, equivalent to the representation $R_3N^+-O^-$. The presence of backbonding in the phosphine oxides and its absence in the amine oxides then explains the lower than expected dipole moment in phosphine oxides.

The difference between R₃NO and F₃NO is also explained because it is found that

there is backbonding in the fluorine derivative. As observed in Section IV.B, now that backbonding does not have to be into d orbitals there is no problem about it for nitrogen compounds. The likely acceptor orbitals for back-donation in F₃NO were analysed by Grein and Lawlor⁸⁶, who concluded that the 3e orbital of NF₃ was the most suitable. A similar picture was found in the Boys localized molecular orbitals of H₃NO at the 6–31 G* level²⁰³, which were found to be composed of one centroid along the NO bond with the remaining ones around oxygen, in contrast to the result found by the same workers²⁰³ for phosphine oxide outlined in the previous section.

Also similar were the GVB-SOPP calculations¹⁷ on F₃NO and H₃NO, which gave results different from each other and from F₃PO. We have seen in Section IV.D.3.b that the result for F_3PO was three Ω bonds. The result for F_3NO was different. In this case there is a σ bond from nitrogen to oxygen and the three lone-pair orbitals on oxygen are strongly polarized towards nitrogen as in Figures 4B and 6, yielding three equivalent backbonds, amounting overall to a second bond between oxygen and nitrogen in accord with the short length (116 pm) of the NO bond in F₃NO. The result for H₃NO was different again. This time there is again a σ bond but the lone pairs on oxygen are not polarized towards nitrogen; there is no backbonding, in agreement with the longer bond lengths in substituted amine oxides. It should be mentioned that the concept of backbonding used here is different from the same idea in MO theory, because it is not based on atomic orbitals. Therefore, in order for electrons on one atom to backbond to another atom there is no need to invoke vaeant atomic orbitals on the acceptor atom. The only requirement, for example for the oxygen lone pairs in F₃NO to backbond to nitrogen, is that there be sufficient space for them, provided by the polarization of the NF bond orbitals towards fluorine. In the case of H₃NO the NH bond orbitals are not polarized towards the ligands as in F₃NO and so there is no room for backbonding electron density.

Messmer¹⁷ contended that the fundamental difference between first- and second-row atoms is reflected in these different results from the GVB-SOPP calculations on F₃PO and F₃NO, described above. The nitrogen atom in F₃NO prefers to form four primary bonds (the backbonding is regarded as secondary) whereas the phosphorus atom in F₃PO forms six. This is a direct consequence of the greater core size in the second row.

There is one point where the unanimity breaks down, namely on the issue of where the backbonding is directed in F_3NO . What we have referred to as the traditional view would see it as going into suitable acceptor orbitals on nitrogen, the most likely being the σ^* NF antibonding orbitals. This is negative hypereonjugation and is consistent with the increased length of the NF bonds relative to F_3N . However, this agreement with the NF bond length may be coincidental, as pointed out in Section IV.D.3.a, because there is not a similar lengthening in F_3PO relative to F_3P . On the other hand, examination of the GVB-SOPP version of the backbonding in F_3NO , shown in Figures 4B and 6, shows that it is inconsistent with negative hypereonjugation. This is for just the same reasons as in F_3PO discussed in the previous section; the donating oxygen lone pairs are staggered with respect to the NF bonds.

In addition, Messmer¹⁷ offcred a simple and reasonable explanation of the trends in bond lengths found to the other ligand, i.e. the lengthening of the NF bonds in F_3NO relative to F_3N and the shortening of the PF bonds in F_3PO relative to F_3P . This is based on the bond length-bond angle relationship referred to in the previous section and on the small size of first-row elements. Thus, in going from F_3N to F_3NO the added oxygen contributes polarizable lone pairs which may contribute electron density to screen the nitrogen core. When the lone pairs approach closer to the small core, the resulting increased Pauli repulsions with the NF bonds produce a lengthening in these bonds. In the case of F_3P and F_3PO , the difference lies in the larger size of the phosphorus core, which means that it can form more bonds because there is more room. Then,

because the oxygen polarizes orbitals away from P there is a reduction in Pauli repulsions with the PF bonds resulting in the shortening of these bonds.

5. Bonding in substituted phosphine oxides

Parent phosphine oxide is known only in matrix isolation experiments¹⁵⁷ and yet the formation of the PO bond drives the synthetically useful Wittig and Arbusov reactions and some of the processes of life itself. The most obvious question to be answered here then is why carbon, oxygen and fluorine substituents all stabilize phosphine oxide. The obvious answer is that decomposition by tautomerism of a hydrogen atom is prevented by any substitution. However, calculations have shown that the answer is more subtle than that, because there is a general effect of substitution to increase the PO bond

strength 14,19,20,204,210,213.

Schmidt and Gordon²⁰ quantified this effect in detail in a comparison of substituent effects on the PO bond and some of their results are given in Table 12. They found both an increase in bond strength and a decrease in bond length on substitution (except for an Si substituent) at all levels of theory studied, including calculations with electron correlation. The effect increases with increasing electronegativity of the substituent but there is a limit to the ability of increasing electronegativity to increase bond strength. For example, from Table 12 it can be seen that in the series H, CH₃, NH₂ the bond strength increases significantly but remains nearly constant for OH and falls off slightly for F. There is a similar pattern with multiple substitution. Note that the experimental bond energy of F₃PO is 542kJ mol⁻¹, so these computed bond strengths are too low; however, it is assumed that the calculated values are internally consistent.

Schmidt and Gordon²⁰ also compared the effect of substitution on H_3PO with respect to a Mulliken population analysis. They found that the substituents withdrew electron density from phosphorus, the amount of the withdrawal being consistent with electronegativity (F > OH > NH₂ > CH₃). The charge at oxygen was also reduced by a smaller amount. Even so, there was still a large positive charge on phosphorus and negative on oxygen. They also derived the PO bond order by Mulliken population analysis for some of the substituted phosphine oxides given in Table 12. It can be seen that the bond orders increase roughly as the computed bond strengths, i.e. with increasing

TABLE 12. Effect of substitution on PO bond lengths and strengths and orders at various basis set levels^a

Molecule	$d(P=O)^b$		Bond streng	th ^c	Bond order ^d
		3-21 G#	6-31 G*	MP3/6-31 G*	-
H ₃ PO	142.3	377	423	531	1.58
H ₂ (CH ₃)PO	141.7	423	460	565	1.66
$H_2(NH_2)PO$	142.0	494	519	628	
H ₂ (OH)PO	141.8	485	527	640	1.69
H ₂ FPO	141.1	481	515	628	1.74
HF ₂ PO	141.0	540	565	686	
F ₃ PO	140.9	523	540	657	

^aAll at STO-2G# geometry from ref. 20; see Table 9, footnote a, for terminology.

^bSTO-2G# computed bond lengths in pm.

^dDerived from a Mulliken population analysis at the 3–21 G# level.

Energy for the dissociation of the phosphine oxide to phosphine and ¹D oxygen in kJ mol⁻¹ using the indicated calculation; ¹D oxygen is about 190 kJ mol⁻¹ above the triplet ground state.

electronegativity of the substituent. This was found to be due to an increased amount of backbonding²⁰.

Two groups have argued that the stabilizations by fluoro and methyl substituents are caused by different mechanisms. Schneider and coworkers²⁰⁴ studied a series of A₃P=Y molecules (A = H, CH₃, F; Y = O, S) at the 6-31 G^* level, the results of which are shown in Table 13. It can be seen that the substitution of H by both F and Me causes an increase in the P=Y bond energy but only F substitution causes an increase in stretching force constant. As noted in Section IV.A.2, this is confirmed by experimental observations. They say that this shows that methyl stabilization is by a different mechanism, because the higher P=O and P=S bond strengths in the trimethyl compounds are shown by this to be not directly related to inherent properties of the PO and PS bonds, but must rather be caused by changes in the R₃P moiety. Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg¹⁹ studied fluorine substitution in detail, using the population analyses shown in Table 11. They found that the binding energy of the PO bond in $H_2P(O)F$ is larger than that in H_3PO . Also, the overlap population or bond order is significantly (25%) larger in H₂P(O)F than in H₃PO, which confirms that fluorine substitution stabilizes the PO bond. A similar result was found for double fluorine substitution and they noted that both were in line with the results for the triply substituted compound reported by Serafini and coworkers²¹³.

Both Schneider and coworkers²⁰⁴ and Wallmeier and Kutzelnigg¹⁹ advanced the same mechanisms for the different ways that fluorine and methyl substituents stabilize the PO bond. Thus fluorine increases π backbonding by electron withdrawal from phosphorus, which becomes more positive, giving more opportunity for electron donation from oxygen lone pairs. On the other hand, methyl groups stabilize the partial positive charge on phosphorus in R₃PY so we must look for another effect. A possibility is that steric hindrance destabilizes Me₃P relative to H₃P to a greater extent than Me₃PY relative to H₃PY, because of the change in the angles at phosphorus (see Table 4 and Table 2 in ref. 1). Hence, since PO bond dissociation in R₃PO leads to R₃P, this gives a higher bond dissociation energy for the methyl-substituted compound.

Von Carlowitz and coworkers²¹⁰ compared bond lengths in methylphosphine and methylphosphine oxide and the effect of fluoro substitution thereupon, and some of the results are shown in Table 14. They found that there was a remarkably large variation (decrease of 10 pm) in PC bond length from methylphosphine to difluoromethylphosphine

TABLE 13. Calculated and experimental bond energies and calculated force constants for P = Y in $A_3P = Y$ compounds

Molecule	$D_0(P=Y)^a$	$D_0(P=Y)^b$	f^c
$H_3P=O$	426		9.423
$F_3P=O$	539	540	11.812
$Me_3P=O$	537	582	9.144
$H_3P=S$	226		4.210 ^d
$F_3P=S$	269	293 ^e	6.093 ^d
$Me_3P=S$	324	383 ^f	3.917 ^d

[&]quot;In kJ mol⁻¹ at 6-31 G*, from ref. 204.

^bBest available experimental comparison from Table 6.

Scaled stretching force constant in mdyn Å⁻¹, using scale factors optimized for PH₃ and F₃P=O.

^dThese are not directly comparable, see ref. 204.

 $[^]eD_0(P=S)$ in $Cl_3P=S$.

 $^{^{}f}D_{0}(P - S) \text{ in } (C_{3}H_{7})_{3}P = S.$

TABLE 14. Effect of fluoro substitution on calculated bond lengths in methylphosphine and methylphosphine oxide^a

Bond length ^b	CH ₃ PH ₂	CH ₃ PF ₂	CH ₃ POH ₂	CH ₃ POF ₂
PC	185.3	179.9	178.9	175.3
P=0	.050		146.5	143.1
P—F		157.8		153.9

^aFrom ref. 210.

oxide. This was made up from two increments. There was the fall (5 pm) in PC on change from phosphine to the oxide explained by the bond length—bond angle relationship (see Section III.A), but there was also a decrease of about 5 pm on substitution of two fluorines for two hydrogens. They commented²¹⁰ that 'these extremely large structural variations are presumably due to the withdrawal of negative charge from the phosphorus atom and the consequent shrinkage of bonds to other electronegative substituents'. Thus, in all cases, replacement of one substituent by a more electronegative one results in a shortening of all of the other P—X bonds.

Finally, Schmidt and Gordon²⁰ found a very interesting result of substitution on the derived energy-localized orbitals. Methyl and silyl phosphine oxides still have the three lone-pair orbitals on oxygen and one PO σ bonding orbital as described in Section IV.D.3.b for parent phosphine oxide, Figures 4B and 6. For hydroxy and fluoro phosphine oxides, the lone-pair orbital *trans* to the substituent becomes so involved in backbonding that it tips inward and the localization procedure leads to the formation of two banana bonds from it and the σ bond. For the trifluoro compound two lone pairs tip in, leading to three banana bonds, Figures 4A and 5.

6. Bonding in phosphine sulphides

Some of the studies of phosphine oxides have included phosphine sulphides for comparison $^{16.20,231}$. It is found that the sulphides are qualitatively similar to the oxides, except that they have a relatively weaker PS bond and are less polar. Schmidt and Gordon 20 studied H_3PS and derived a bond order (from Mulliken population analysis) of 1.32 for H_3PS compared with 1.58 for H_3PO . As in the oxide, electronegative substituents act to increase the PS bond strength. One additional result was that the weakness of the thiphosphoryl bond was also due to a weakening of the PS σ bond. This was derived from Mulliken population analysis of atomic charges, P = 0.481 and S = -0.457, compared with P = -0.922 and O = -0.719. They commented 20 that 'sulphur's diminished ability relative to oxygen to hold a large negative charge has decreased the charge separation in the PX bond considerably and thus weakened the formally ionic donor σ bond'.

Guest and coworkers²³¹ did an STO-3G* calculation at assumed geometry on F₃PS with Boys transformation of the resulting canonical orbitals. They found essentially the same features for the PS bond as for the PO bond, including banana bonds. The PS bond polarity was slightly less and the phosphorus component to the bond involved slightly smaller 3d and 3p contributions.

E. Empirical Calculations

Since the initial study of Wagner¹⁶² there have been only a few empirical or semi-empirical studies of phosphine oxides. The earlier ones reported detailed

^bIn pm, using 3-21 G* basis set.

examinations of the bonding $^{162.199,243-245}$ and concluded that the PO bond is multiple and polar, but were much taken with the influence (or lack thereof) of d orbitals. Later studies $^{246-252}$, mainly by Soviet workers, used these methods (HMO, CNDO) to predict atomic charges and dipole moments, in some cases to explain or predict extractive capability or donation ability. The SINDO method was applied to phosphine oxide by Jug and Schulz in their general study but gave poor results (PO = 149 pm, PH = 142 pm).

F. Summary of Bonding and Comments on the Formula of Phosphine Oxides

Previous general discussions³⁻¹³ of the bonding in phosphine oxides have been couched in terms of a resonance between two possible limiting structures $H_3P = O$ and $H_3P^+ = O^-$. This view will have to be given up. It is too simplistic because, as we have seen, the presence of a multiple bond between phosphorus and oxygen is not inconsistent with a high degree of polarity. More important, this view reduces the significance of the P = O formulation without conveying in return the true complexity of the bonding. A subsidiary point is that if the Ω bond description (Section IV.D.3.b) turns out to be the correct one, the formula $R_3P^+ = O^-$ would be misleading because it implies that there is a σ bond between P and O.

The satisfactory formulation of the PO bond is difficult because we are accustomed to formulae from the first row of the Periodic Table. In the first row there is a fortuitous correspondence between bond strength, number of electron pairs and valence. This is one of the indirect consequences of the small size of these elements. Thus, for the common multiple bonds of organic chemistry, C=C, C=C and C=O, the two (or three) lines carry three different implications at the same time: (i) that the bond is twice (or three times) the strength of a single bond between the elements concerned, (ii) that there are two (or three) electron pairs in the region between the elements and (iii) that it is possible to have an addition reaction wherein one (or two) ligand(s) is (are) added to each of the atoms involved in the bond.

This all breaks down in the second and higher rows. In the case of PO, we have a double-strength, highly polar bond composed of three (or more) electron pairs (by both of the descriptions in Section IV.D.3). Hence the PO bond can be viewed as either a double bond P=O or a triple bond P=O. If we wish to have one formula to represent the PO bond, we must choose which information is the most important to convey. If we consider that it is more important to convey the information that the PO bond contains three electron pairs then we should use the P=O formula, but if we consider that it is more important that the strength of the bond be specified then we should use the P=O formula.

This reviewer proposes that a utilitarian view be taken. Strength and, especially, valence are the things that matter in practical chemistry (i.e. how much energy will be required for the bond to react and how many things can be attached to it in an addition reaction). Hence the formula $X_3P=O$ is the most useful. In addition, it also has the merit that it is currently in common use. However, until now, practical chemists have been made to feel uneasy about its correctness. The above analysis shows that their instincts were correct.

Sometime in the future, better calculations will determine the electronic distribution in the PO bond. For now, the best we can say is that the nature of the PO bond will probably be one of the following:

either

'The PO bond is a double strength bond, formulated as P=O. This representation also implies (i) that there are three electron pairs between P and O composed of a σ bond between P and O and two π backbonds between lone pairs on O and acceptor

orbitals on P which are antibonding in character with respect to the other ligands on P as shown in Figure 3 and (ii) that the electron density of the bonds is strongly skewed towards O so that there is a high degree of positive charge on P and negative on O'.

or

'The PO bond is a double strength bond, formulated as P=0. This representation also implies (i) that there are three electron pairs between P and O composed of three Ω bonds from P to O as shown in Figure 4A and (ii) that the electron density of the bonds is strongly skewed towards O so that there is a high degree of positive charge on P and negative on O'.

or

'The PO bond is a double strength bond, formulated as P=O. This representation also implies (i) that there are four electron pairs between P and O composed of a σ bond between P and O and three backbonds from lone pairs on O to the P atom as shown in Figure 4B and (ii) that the electron density of the bonds is strongly skewed towards O so that there is a high degree of positive charge on P and negative on O'.

Finally, is the octet rule broken by phosphine oxides? As the quotations in the Introduction imply, the answer is yes and no. This reviewer would argue that it may not be broken technically because the electron density is skewed towards O so that P is not receiving a full half share of each electron pair. Reed and Schleyer¹⁶, for example, are careful to say that the *electronic* octet rule is not broken. However, there is a strong case that it is broken in spirit because phosphorus is participating in more than four electron pair bonds.

V. CONFORMATION

There have been a number of studies, both experimental and theoretical, on the conformations of tertiary phosphine oxides. Of particular concern have been the *trans/gauche* ratio (see Figure 7) about the PC bond and the orientation of the aromatic rings in the triaryl derivatives.

A number of workers have examined the conformations about the PC bond of trialkylphosphine chalcogenides using various physical techniques, including infrared spectroscopy, dipole moments, Kerr effects and NMR²⁵⁴⁻²⁵⁹. The conclusion is that in solution there is a mixture of the *trans* and *gauche* forms with the *gauche* form usually preferred, the ratio depending on the substituents and the solvent, while only the *gauche* form remains in the solid state, at least in the case of ethyldimethylphosphine sulphide²⁵⁴.

For the triaryl derivatives, the most detailed study was that of Brock and coworkers⁹⁹ at low temperatures on both forms of triphenylphosphine oxide (monoclinic and

FIGURE 7. The *trans* and *gauche* conformers of a tertiary phosphine oxide

orthorhombic). In both structures the normal to one phenyl ring (A) is roughly (within 30°) parallel to the PO bond while the other two ring normals (B and C) are roughly perpendicular to this bond. A similar observation was made for triphenylphosphine sulphide¹¹⁷. As already noted in Section III.B, the smallest PC bond in both structures is the one to ring A, perhaps an indication of delocalization of the aromatic π system into the PO π^* orbital^{99,260}. In solution, however, no difference has been found in the orientation of the phenyl rings by a variety of methods, including infrared and ultraviolet spectroscopy, dipole moment and Kerr constant^{261–265}. The introduction of *ortho*-substituents on the aryl rings causes some minor changes in conformation^{101,266–268} and, as expected, rotation of the rings is slowed on the nmr time scale^{267,268}.

In a particularly careful and interesting study of a very large number of published X-ray crystal structures, Bye and coworkers¹⁰⁰ mapped the reaction path for stereoisomerization of triphenylphosphine oxide derivatives. Their description of the interconversion is repeated here. The equilibrium structure of an isolated Ph₃PO—X fragment is close to a symmetric propeller shape with all three phenyl rings rotated from the respective CPX planes in the same sense and by approximately the same amount. about 40°. Then, starting with a molecule with positive torsion angles, the stereoisomerization path begins by rotation of one ring, say A, toward 90° (perpendicular to its CPX plane) coupled with a rotation of the other two rings in the opposite sense (toward 0°) and by half the amount of ring A. As the reaction proceeds, the rotation of the other two rings B and C becomes out of step, with one, say B, rotating less, leading to a mirror-symmetric structure with torsion angles of ca 90° , 10° and -10° . At this point ring A has rotated by $+50^{\circ}$, ring B by -30° and ring C by -50° . In the second part of the path, the roles of rings B and C are interchanged, so the path ends at the enantiomorphic structure with torsion angles of 140° , -40° and -40° equivalent to -40° , 40° and 40° .

The more complicated cases of mixed alkyl and aryl phosphine chalcogenides have also been studied by many workers. The orientation of the aryl ring(s) follows the same trends as in the triaryl compounds mentioned above. In the solid phase one aryl ring is usually roughly parallel with the PO bond^{105,106,122} whereas in solution the non-coplanarity increases^{269,270}. As regards the *trans/gauche* ratio, the same results were found as above, namely that the *gauche* conformer is the preferred form in solution, the preference increasing with increasing size of the substituent groups, and the preference becomes total in the solid state^{106,271-274}.

Theoretical methods have also been applied in the study of the conformations of phosphine oxides, mainly of the molecular mechanics type^{209,275-278}. The results generally agree with the experimental work and there have been a number of predictions of a similar nature for species previously not studied experimentally. It is considered that in the *gauche/trans* equilibrium (Figure 7), the *trans* form is favoured by dipole–dipole interactions and the *gauche* form by steric considerations^{255,272,278}.

In studies of the conformations of 2-(diphenylphosphinoyl)-[1,3]-dithiane, Juaristi and coworkers^{279–281} discovered the existence of a strong S—C—P anomeric effect. This is shown by the predominance of the conformer of the dithiane ring, which places the phosphinoyl group in the axial orientation. The analogous diphenylthiophosphinoyl derivative also shows the same effect to a lesser extent²⁸². Similar observations on this system and on the 1,3,5-trithiane derivatives were made by Mikolajczyk and coworkers^{283–287}.

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CHAPTER 2

Structure and stereochemistry of secondary and tertiary phosphine chalcogenides

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I. INTRODUCTION

The stereochemistry of phosphorus chalcogenides, and of phosphorus compounds in general, is a subject that is essentially only 30 years old. This is despite the fact that

methylethylphenylphosphine oxide was first resolved by Meisenheimer¹ in 1911 using (+)-bromocamphorsulphonic acid as the resolving agent. He subsequently resolved benzylmethylphenylphosphine oxide in the same way in 1926^{2a}, but it was to be many years before another phosphine oxide, the dibenzphosphole 1 was resolved^{2b}. In 1944 Davies and Mann³ resolved the sulphide 2. These isolated instances apart, it was generally held that the stereochemistry of phosphorus (and arsenic, antimony and bismuth) would be uninteresting, since any conversion to the trivalent form would result in racemization owing to inversion in the same way as was known to occur for nitrogen. It was further held that the equilibrium (equation 1) was a mobile one and would prevent any useful stereochemical studies of quaternary compounds. Although ample evidence to the contrary existed, the notion persisted until it was demolished entirely by Horner's isolation of stable enantiomeric phosphines by the electrolytic cleavage of resolved quaternary salts. This discovery stimulated an enormous amount of interest in the stereochemistry not only of phosphorus, but also of many other elements, and the field is now so large that it is doubtful if it could be usefully reviewed as a whole.

$$R_4 P^+ X^- \rightleftharpoons R_3 P + RX \tag{1}$$

This chapter is restricted to a consideration of the stereochemistry of chalcogenides of tertiary and secondary phosphines. It will be very largely concerned with oxides and sulphides, since very little work has appeared on selenides and tellurides^{4a}. Indeed, simple tellurides, R₃PTe, are unstable compounds and decompose at room temperature unless kinetically stabilized by bulky groups, such as *tert*-butyl^{4b}.

Strictly, there are three classes of phosphine chalcogenides, primary, RP(X)H₂, secondary, R₂P(X)H, and tertiary, R₃PX, in addition to the parent compounds H₃PX. These last are unknown, although H₃PO and its tautomer H₂POH have been detected as reaction products in an argon matrix^{5a}. Theoretical considerations indicate they should be stable, probably in the tautomeric form H₂PXH^{5b}. Phosphine oxide has been suggested⁶ to account for the formation of tertiary phosphine oxides in the attempted base-catalysed alkylation of alkyl phosphinates, ROP(O)H₂. Primary phosphine chalcogenides, although known, have been little studied and no stereochemical or structural information is available.

In the stereochemical discussion which follows, the terms inversion and retention of configuration refer only to the non-chalcogen atoms on phosphorus in order to avoid the confusion which may arise in discussion if the Cahn-Ingold-Prelog nomenclature is strictly adhered to. Put another way, the chalcogen atom is considered always to be the atom of lowest priority in the RS system when discussing configurational changes (or lack of them) at phosphorus.

II. SECONDARY PHOSPHINE CHALCOGENIDES $R^1R^2P(X)H$ (X = 0, S, Se)

A. Preparation

Secondary phosphine chalcogenides are reasonably well known, although little structural information is available. Methods for their preparation are limited and most do not lend themselves to resolution. Nevertheless, secondary phosphine oxides and sulphides

have been obtained in optically active form. The first example, benzylphenylphosphine oxide (3; R = PhCH₂), was obtained by lithium aluminium hydride reduction of one enantiomer of (-)-menthyl benzylphenylphosphinate (equation 2). Shortly after, β naphthylphenylphosphine oxide (3, R = 2-naphthyl) was similarly obtained⁸. Both compounds had extremely low rotations ($\alpha_D - 0.52^\circ$ and -0.59° , respectively) and nothing is known of the optical purity of either sample.

However, Campbell and Way^{2b} and Mislow and coworkers (3)⁹ had found that lithium

aluminium hydride causes racemization of tertiary phosphine oxides, so it must be considered unlikely that a high degree of stereoselectivity would be obtained in the reduction of the esters. Both groups presented evidence that the observed rotation was in fact due to chiral phosphorus, but the subsequent preparation of (-)-phenyl-tertbutylphosphine oxide^{10a} (3; R = t-Bu, $\alpha_D - 28.8$) suggests that optical purities for 1 ($R = PhCH_2$ or 2-naphthyl) were low. Michalski and Skrzypzynski^{10a} obtained 3 (R = t-Bu) by two routes (equation 3) and assigned absolute stereochemistry on the basis of its stereospecific alkylation to give the tertiary oxide, whose absolute stereochemistry had previously been established by correlation¹¹.

$$(-)-Ph(R)P(O)O-Menthol \xrightarrow{LiAIH_4} (-)-Ph(R)P(O)H$$
(2)
(3)

The sequence shown in equation 3 also serves to establish the stereochemistry of the addition of S and Se to secondary phosphine oxides as proceeding with retention. It is notable that the anion formed from 3 (R = t-Bu) retains its stereochemical integrity. This fact, together with the general observation that thiophosphinic acids are readily synthesized and usually readily resolvable, suggests that desulphurization of resolved thiophosphinates followed by base-catalysed alkylation or Michael-type addition reactions may well prove a useful general route to chiral tertiary phosphine oxides.

(i) Raney Ni; (ii) S₈; (iii) Se_n; (iv) NaH; (v) MeI

The same Polish workers¹⁰⁶ prepared the sulphur analogue, 5, by reduction of a mixed anhydride (equation 4): Only the mixed anhydride with trifluoromethanesulphonic acid gave chiral products, presumably because the triflate anion is an excellent leaving group and substantially reduced the risk of stereomutation of the intermediate. Both

$$Bu'PPh(S)OSO_3CF_3 \xrightarrow{NaBH_4} Bu'PPh(S)H$$

$$(+)or(-)$$

$$(-)or(+)$$

$$(5)$$

$$CH_{2}P(0)(OE1)_{2}$$

$$OOCH_{3}$$

(i)
$$N_0AIH_2(OCH_2CH_2OEt)_2$$
; (ii) H_2O_2 ; (iii) H^+ , H_2O_2

enantiomers were obtained with apparently good optical purity. There is good evidence that the reduction step proceeds with inversion in an S_N2 type of reaction. A cyclic secondary phosphine oxide, 6, has been prepared as part of a phosphasugar study 11. Its synthesis is shown in reaction 5. The stereochemistry at phosphorus was not assigned and some doubts have been east on its homogeneity.

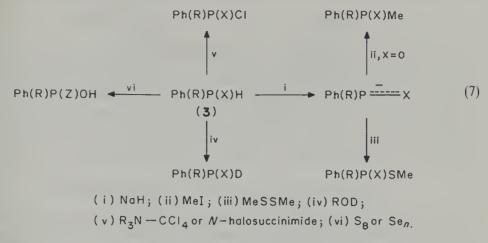
B. Reaction Stereochemistry

Like other classes of phosphorus compounds containing the structural feature P(X)H, secondary phosphine chalcogenides exist in a tautomeric equilibrium (equation 6): although, in general, evidence for the phosphorus(III) form is indirect and little is known

$$R_1R_2P(X)H \rightleftharpoons R_1R_2PXH$$
 (6)

of the factors influencing the equilibrium. However, the small amount of chemical evidence available suggests that the conversion does not alter the stereochemistry. Thus, deuterium exchange is rapid even with the absence of a catalyst and produces no evidence of racemization. The same behaviour has been observed with isopropyl methylphosphinate, $McP(O)(H)OPr^{i}$. Similarly, deprotonation of 3 (R = t-Bu) does not afford a racemic product although this is reported for base treatment of 3 ($R = PhCH_2$). Both 3 (R = t-Bu) and 5 may be converted to the corresponding halides or thiomethyl compounds with retention of stereochemistry and 3 (R = t-Bu) reacts with sulphur or selenium also with retention. Equation 7 summarizes the known transformations, all of which proceed with retention of configuration.

Conditions for racemization are unclear. Emmick and Letsinger⁷ reported that both acids and bases racemized 1 (R = PhCH₂), although the related isopropyl methylphosphinate is stable to acids and not to bases¹². Since tertiary phosphine oxides are stable to alkali and the secondary phosphine chalcogen anions retain their stereochemistry, base-catalysed inversion seems unlikely. Acids, however, do isomerize tertiary phosphine oxides, presumably via a phosphorus(v) intermediate, and this type of reaction seems more likely for the secondary analogues also, although it does not appear to have been reported, except indirectly in the preparations of 3 (R = PhCH₂ or



2-naphthyl). The stereochemistry of the reversible addition of ethylphenylphosphine oxide to carbonyl compounds has been described¹³, but otherwise the use of secondary phosphine chalcogenides in synthesis has been little studied.

III. TERTIARY PHOSPHINE CHALCOGENIDES, $R^1R^2R^3P(X)$ (X = 0, S, Se)

A. Structure

Because of their chemical stability and the fact that they are usually crystalline solids, this class of organophosphorus compounds has received much stereochemical attention. There is a wealth of structural data available, both in the solid state (in 1990 the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Base contained more than 250 structures of tertiary phosphine chalcogenides) and in solution, for oxides, sulphides and selenides, but very little for tellurides. Cyclic and acyclic compounds are well represented. Solid-state structures show a tetrahedral geometry at phosphorus with the XPC angle greater than for a regular tetrahedron, possibly owing to a repulsive interaction between the P = X and P - C bonds.

B. Preparation

1. Cyclic compounds

Although stereoisomerism arising from cyclic phosphine chalcogenides was not reported until the early 1960s¹⁴, it rapidly became commonplace and *cis-trans* isomers have been observed and characterized for oxides and sulphides of cyclic phosphines of virtually every ring size that has been studied¹⁵. Nowadays failure to observe this type of stereoisomerism in cyclic systems would require comment. The preparative heterocyclic chemistry of tertiary phosphine chalcogenides is very extensive and cannot be surveyed here. A good book¹⁵ is available and cyclic phosphines have been reviewed in Volume 1 of this work¹⁶. In general, oxidation or sulphuration of cyclic phosphines affords the corresponding chalcogenides in a stereospecific manner with retention and with the number and ratio of isomers formed being the same as are present due to the pyramidal phosphine. The diastereoisomers are usually readily separated by normal techniques. Many X-ray structures have been determined¹⁵.

Chiral cyclic phosphine oxides are rare, the major examples being phosphinoyl sugars, which have been studied largely by Inokawa and coworkers¹⁷. Several X-ray structures of these have been determined¹⁸ and, since, the absolute stcreochemistry of

(i) EtP(OEt)2; (ii) NaAlH2(OCH2CH2OEt)2; (iii) H+, H2O

the carbocyclic portion of the ring is known, these constitute determinations of absolute stereochemistry at phosphorus, independent of correlation. Equation 8 shows one such route to this class of compounds. Another chiral cyclic phosphine oxide, 3-oxo-1-phenyl-2-phospholene-1-oxide 10, was obtained by Bodalski and coworkers¹⁹ from the readily accessible 1-phenyl-3-phospholene-1-oxide (7) (reaction 9). Stereospecific epoxidation followed by base-catalysed rearrangement gave the (\pm) -alcohol 9 which was resolved using camphanyl chloride to give the (\pm) -isomer, whose absolute configuration was determined by X-ray diffraction as S_PR_C . Oxidation afforded the chiral ketone, 10, stable under the reaction conditions and hence probably of high optical purity.

2. Acyclic compounds

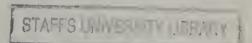
a. Resolution methods. Chiral phosphine oxides were first obtained by resolution using (+)-bromocamphorsulphonic acid^{1,2}, a method relying on protonation of the phosphoryl oxygen and separation of the salts by recrystallization. Tartaric acids and their derivatives have also been used²⁰. The method can be, and usually is, extremely tedious and very laborious, but in Meisenheimer's hands it yielded ethylmethylphenyland benzylmethylphenyl-phosphine oxides of good optical purity. Part of the difficulty is that phosphines oxides are not very basic and the position of the equilibrium (equation 10) under normal circumstances would lie predominantly on the phosphine

$$R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}P = O + H^{+} \rightleftharpoons R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}P = \overset{+}{O}H \leftrightarrow R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}\overset{+}{P}OH$$
 (10)

oxide side. Nevertheless, the method is occasionally useful and has been used by Nyori and coworkers²¹ for the resolution of 2,2'-bisdiphenylphosphino-1,1'-dinaphthyl (11). The related compound, (+)- or (-)-2,2'-dihydroxy-1,1'-dinaphthyl (12), has been successful in the resolution of phosphine oxides by diastereoisomeric complex formation²². Although simple and giving excellent yields and purity, the method appears extremely sensitive to spatial factors. Thus, it resolved EtMePhP(O) but not MePrPhP(O). Tartaric acid has also been used successfully in the resolution of phosphine oxides. Very high yields and virtually complete enantiomeric separations have been obtained chromatographically for phosphine oxides using a column with a bonded stationary phase of 3,5-(NO₂)₂C₆H₄CONHCHPhCONH(CH₂)₃^{23a}, with normal stationary phases on a cyclodextrin column^{23b} or using Pirkle's chiral stationary phase^{23c}. A range of organophosphorus compounds can be resolved on a column of optically active poly(trityl methacrylate)²⁴. In view of the present availability of very efficient chromatographic processes, the development of a range of columns would seems to be the most hopeful area for convenient resolutions in the future.

Although Davies and Mann³ resolved the phosphine sulphide 2 nearly 50 years ago, there has been no reported interest since then. Sulphides are much weaker protic bases than oxides and the acid-base approach will not be successful here. No resolution of a selenide has been described. The sulphur chalcogenides are commonly obtained by stereospecific synthesis from the phosphine²⁵ using a range of reagents; selenides are similarly prepared. Sulphides may also be prepared from the oxides with predominant (acyclic) or complete (cyclic) retention of configuration using B_2S_3 as a reagent²⁶.

b. Synthesis. McEwen and coworkers²⁷ resolved the first acyclic phosphonium salt (benzylethylmethylphenyl) using the dibenzoyl hydrogentartrate anion and converted



$$R_{1}R_{2}R_{3}\overset{\dagger}{P}CH_{2}Ph \xrightarrow{i} R_{1}R_{2}R_{3}P = 0$$

$$(+) \qquad (+) \qquad (i)$$

$$R_{1}R_{2}R_{3}P = 0 \xrightarrow{i} R_{1}R_{2}R_{3}\overset{\dagger}{P}CH_{2}Ph$$

$$(-) \qquad (-)$$

$$(i) \text{ Wittig reaction; (ii) OH}^{-}-H_{2}O-ROH$$

the enantiomeric salts into the corresponding oxides by either alkaline hydrolysis (inversion) or the Wittig olefination reaction (retention) (equation 11). As a general method this is restricted by the stereochemical complications which can arise in the alkaline hydrolyses of phosphonium salts²⁸, the fact that the benzyl group will not necessarily be the only group participating in the Wittig reaction and by difficulties in the preparation and resolution of the phosphonium salts.

$$R_{1}R_{2}P(0)CI \xrightarrow{i} R_{1}R_{2}P(0)O-(-)-menth$$

$$R_{p} \text{ and } S_{p}$$

$$\downarrow ii$$

$$R_{1}R_{2}R_{3}P(0)$$

$$S_{p} \text{ and } R_{p}$$

$$(12)$$

(i) (-)-menthol- R_3N ; (ii) R_3MgX

Mislow and coworkers²⁹ separated the diastereoisomeric esters of phosphinic acids and (—)-menthol, in itself a difficult and low-yielding process, and converted them into phosphine oxides by stereospecific Grignard reactions (equation 12). The reaction is believed to proceed with inversion since Hudson and Green³⁰ had earlier shown that transesterification of phosphinate proceeds with inversion. Until recently, this method was the most widely used, despite the practical difficulties. (—)-Menthol is almost invariably the resolving agent, although cholesterol was briefly tried³¹. The use of organolithiums in place of Grignards does not produce any great improvement and often gives products of lower optical purity. If the chiral starting ester is a resolved cyclic phosphonate, then the reaction has the advantage that by altering the sequence of the two Grignard displacements enantiomeric phosphine oxides may be obtained from the same starting material³² e.g. by interchanging steps ii and iii in equation 13.

Inch and coworkers³² successfully used carbohydrate diols as the asymmetric unit

Inch and coworkers³² successfully used carbohydrate diols as the asymmetric unit (equation 13) and noted that the cyclic phosphonate was readily separated into its diastereoisomers, which is often not the case for acyclic phosphinates. Further, the assignment of absolute configuration to the starting phosphonate is more straightforward in view of the well established correlations in the carbohydrate field. However, the reaction suffers from the same disadvantages as the phosphinate method in terms of sluggish reactions and low yields.

Some variations on this theme have appeared in recent years which seek to overcome some of the problems by using other stereospecific reactions. Kato and coworkers³³ began with the isomerically pure diol 13 and prepared the cyclic phosphonates (14),

which underwent the Michaelis-Arbuzov reaction (retention) to give the benzyl phosphonate (15), which was then subjected to a Grignard reaction (reaction 14). However, the optical purities of the products were not high. Similarly, Juge and Genet³⁴ opened the ring of the readily accessible chiral 1,3,2-dioxaphospholan 17 by Arbuzov alkylation and, after transesterification, Grignard reaction gave the phosphine oxides (18) (reaction 15). By varying the order of addition of the substituents they obtained either enantiomer with good enantiomeric excesses.

A variation of this approach (reaction 16) utilizes the readily resolvable O-alkyl monoesters of alkylphosphonothioic acids (19). The stereochemical consequences here are less certain, particularly as displacement of the thiolo group may be sensitive to subtle variations of reaction conditions and structure³⁵; generally, however, displacement of a thiolate group at phosphorus proceeds with retention, not inversion as is the case for alkoxy groups.

An alternative approach avoids the often vexatious Grignard reaction altogether (reaction 17). Alkylation of the secondary phosphine oxide (29) with (-)-menthyl chloroacetate, separation of the diastereoisomers, hydrolysis and decarboxylation afford

Ph Ph
$$(S)-(-)-(18)$$
 92% ee

Ph Ph $(S)-(-)-(18)$ 92% ee

(15)

MeO

Ph Ph Ph CH₂Ph

Ph CH₂Ph

CH₂Ph

(R)-(+)-(18) 77% ee

(i) MeI; (ii) MeOH — H⁺; (iii) PhCH₂MgBr; (iv) PhCH₂Br;

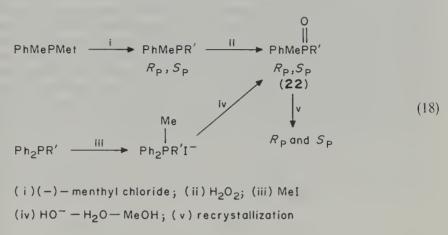
(v) MeOH-H⁺; (vi) MeMgBr

(i) Alkyl holide; (ii) RMgX; (iii) R'MgX

(i) base; (ii) hydrolysis; (iii) pyrolysis; R' = (-) - menthol

the chiral methyl oxides (21) with essentially 100% enantiomeric excess. Provided that the secondary phosphine oxide is available, this seems a general and useful route to a range of compounds of good chiral purity.

In an alternative approach, two groups have prepared diastereoisomeric phosphines by the reaction of alkali metal phosphides with optically active halides (reaction 18) followed by oxidation and separation of the mixtures^{36,37}. Elimination was a serious side reaction with the substitution procedure. A variant is to prepare the phosphines from diphenyl phosphide and then to quaternize and hydrolyse the salts with alkali³⁸. Crystal structures have established the absolute stereochemistry at phosphorus in the menthylmethylphenylphosphine oxides (22)^{37,38}.



All the foregoing syntheses involve a separation of diastereoisomers, and this is very often tedious, difficult and, worse still, unpredictable. An alternative approach is to start from a phosphine oxide already resolved and to elaborate it further using reactions which do not affect the stereochemistry at phosphorus. An initial step in this direction was taken by Mislow and coworkers³⁹, who showed first that deprotonation of carbon attached to chiral phosphorus left the stereochemistry there unaffected and used this reaction to prepare and oxidatively couple the anions to make chiral diphosphine dioxides (reaction 19). This reaction is important since it provides a route to chiral diphosphines⁴⁰, which are very valuable as chelating agents in homogeneous transition metal catalysis.

$$\begin{array}{c}
O \\
\parallel \\
R^{1}R^{2}PMe \longrightarrow R^{1}R^{2}P(O)CH_{2} \xrightarrow{Cu^{1}} R^{1}R^{2}P(O)CH_{2}CH_{2}P(O)R_{1}R_{2} \\
(+) or (-) \\
\end{array} (19)$$

A much more flexible approach, however, has been developed recently by Pietrusiewicz and coworkers⁴¹. They have established a good preparative route (reaction 20) to (-)-(S)-methylphenylvinylphosphine oxide (23) of high optical purity. Unlike most other oxides, 23 contains a reactive site at which a great deal of chemistry can be carried out without affecting the stereochemistry at phosphorus. Vinyl phosphine oxides, particularly those unsubstituted at the β -carbon, are excellent Michael acceptors and 23 readily adds alcohols⁴², amines^{43,44}, alkyl groups^{45,46} (as the cuprates), thiols⁴² and secondary phosphine oxides⁴⁷. The alkene will undergo Diels-Alder⁴⁵ and related⁴⁸ cycloaddition reactions. By halogenation and dehydrohalogenation, 23 is converted to the α -halovinyl oxide (24), which will in turn undergo a number of addition-elimination

PhP OBu
$$CH_2CO_2-(-)-menth$$
 CH_3 (20)

reactions as well as cycloadditions⁴⁸; some of these transformations are summarized in equations 21. The addition of secondary phosphine oxides is of particular interest since it results in diastereoisomer formation if the secondary oxide is chiral and hence the effective resolution of another tertiary oxide. Similarly, the α -halovinylphosphine oxide 24 affords chiral *trans*-ethene-1,2-bisphosphine oxides⁴⁹. It is clear that this approach is versatile and flexible and represents the first systematic development of an active chemistry of this class of compounds as distinct from preparing examples.

Much less work has been done with chiral sulphides and selenides. However, a method exists for converting oxides to sulphides stercoselectively with retention using boron

$$\begin{array}{c} Ph \\ Me \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} Ph \\ Ne \end{array}$$

(i) RXH; (ii) Bu₂CuLi; (iii) CH₂==CHCH==CH₂; (iv) RR'P(O)H; (v) X₂, base; (vi) 2,3-dimethylbutadiene; (vii) RR'P(O)H, base; (viii) RSH, base

sulphide, B₂S₃⁵⁰. The more commonly used phosphorus pentasulphide causes racemization⁵¹.

The simplest and most straightforward method of obtaining isomerically pure chalcogenides is to treat the corresponding phosphine with an oxidising agent or with sulphur or selenium reagents. These last two methods work well, the reaction proceeding cleanly and essentially stereospecifically with retention at phosphorus. A common method of determining stereoisomer distribution in mixtures of diastereoisomeric phosphines is to convert them to their sulphides, which are air stable and usually crystalline. Oxidation, however, is not so straightforward and stereochemical integrity can easily be lost. Stereochemical results can vary with the reagent 52-55 and solvent 52.53 and may depend on whether the phosphine is cyclic or not. Retention, inversion and racemization have all been observed in the formation of phosphine oxides from phosphines. In particular, any reaction proceeding via a phosphorane can lead to partial or complete racemization because of ligand reorganization in the intermediate. This process does not require a symmetrical intermediate and is normally very rapid at ambient temperature. Halogens⁵⁵, pseudo-halogens⁵⁵, 'positive' halogen compounds⁵¹ and mono- or dialkyl-peroxides⁵³ will, in general, give either racemization via a phosphorus(V) intermediate (26) or inversion [via displacement on an initially formed phosphorus(IV) (25), depending on whether a nucleophilic solvent is absent or present. Polar solvents will usually favour polar intermediates such as 25 and hence are less likely to lead to loss of optical activity, although this can be brought about by a reversible S_N2 processes. Bistrimethylsilyl peroxide oxidizes phosphines to their oxides cleanly and with retention 56.

$$R_3P + X_2 \longrightarrow R_3PX + X^- \longrightarrow R_3PX_2$$
(25)
(26)
retention
$$\downarrow H_2O \qquad \qquad \downarrow H_2O$$

$$R_3P(O) \qquad \qquad R_3P(O)$$
inversion
(22)

Perhaps the most general oxidant is aqueous hydrogen peroxide, which affords the oxide with retention and relatively few side-reactions^{54,57}. It is occasionally difficult, however, to separate unreacted peroxide from the product. Aerial oxidation, although sometimes very clean, can result in P—C bond cleavage and should be avoided. Polish workers have used an unusual class of reagents, the selenoxides, RR'SeO, which convert phosphines, their sulphides or their selenides, into the corresponding oxides with variable stereochemical results⁵⁸. For Me₂SeO, the reaction proceeds with inversion for acyclic compounds and retention for cyclic compounds, but other selenoxides are less specific and the steric result may also vary with the solvent. Oxides may also be obtained from the other chalcogenides by oxidation, but the stereochemical results are not promising. For example. N₂O₄, a reagent widely used for oxidizing phosphites to phosphates, converts sulphides to oxides with overall retention but partial racemization⁵⁹. This reagent will even induce racemization in phosphine oxides, e.g., 27, and hence its value as an oxidant in stereochemical work is dubious. Other oxidants, e.g. KMnO₄, do not look much more promising, retention with partial racemization being the general rule 54a. These results presumably reflect the formation of pentacovalent species from the chalcogenide and oxidant with the degree of racemization being a function of the lifetime of the intermediate. Enantiospecific oxidation of phosphenes has been reported to be unsuccessful³⁶.

In general, claims in the literature for oxidation with complete retention or inversion should be treated with caution since, though this may well be the case in the quoted examples, it would be unwise to assume that the statement is generally true.

C. Determination of Stereochemistry

Cyclic compounds

This is a large field and a great deal of principally spectroscopic work has been done to elucidate diastereoisomerism and conformation. Much of this relates to oxa-, thia- or aza-heterocycles and is outside the scope of this chapter. Rings which are carbocyclic, except for the phosphorus atom, are less amenable to ¹H NMR for reasons of spectral complexity^{60b}. Lanthanide shift reagents can sometimes simplify the spectra sufficiently for them to be useful, although several instances are known of conformational equilibria being disturbed by the reagent. Lanthanides complex at the phosphoryl oxygen even when alternatives sites, such as carbonyl, are available. These reagents have been used successfully for rigid systems such as phosphetane oxides⁶¹ or bicyclic oxides^{62,63}. Sulphur and selenium complex poorly with lanthanides, making the shift reagents of little use in stereochemical assignments for these chalcogenides.

The principal spectroscopic tool is 13 C NMR, for which well established Karplus-type angular dependencies, $^{n}J_{PC}(n=1,2 \text{ and } 3)$ are available 15,60a . Such relationships do not, however, establish the geometry at phosphorus and for this reliance must be placed on chemical shift trends and X-ray analysis. However, for those cyclic oxides where the proton spectra are resolved, $^{2}J_{PCH}$ is related to the dihedral angle OPCH with the *anti* orientation having a smaller magnitude than the *gauche* orientation 17 . This appears to be reliable since, although relatively few examples have been reported, they are mainly from the well established carbohydrate field. The range of values for $^{2}J_{PCH}$ is considerable and it would be unwise to make an assignment without having both isomers at hand.

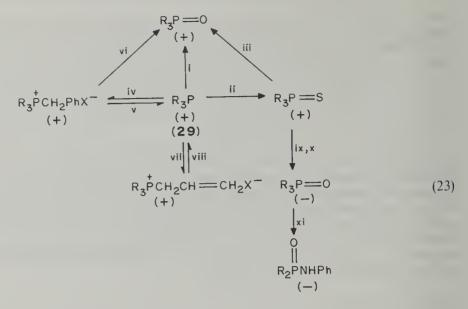
Since the steric (or volume) requirements of oxygen, sulphur, and selenium at phosphorus are not large and since the increased length of the phosphorus—earbon bonds (compared with earbon carbon bonds) diminishes non-bonded interactions further, influences on the carbon chemical shift are usually related to the orientation of the exocyclic carbon substituent at phosphorus. In general, the carbon substituent on phosphorus of the more crowded isomer (usually the axial substituent in phosphinanes) absorbs upfield of its less crowded partner. This effect is independent of ring size, although the magnitude may vary considerably and would be expected to diminish in large rings. No consistent variation is observed in ${}^{1}J_{\rm PC}$ for axial or equatorial disposition of the substituent. There is no useful correlation between ring geometry and phosphorus chemical shift, although in restricted classes of compounds a correlation may be observed. There are differences in both chemical shifts and coupling constants for axial and equatorial selenium on the developing field of ${}^{17}{\rm O}$ spectroscopy appears very promising, since both chemical shift and ${}^{1}J_{\rm PC}$ seems very sensitive to geometry 60d .

Dipole moments have also been used, particularly for rings with more than one phosphinyl group, and the technique is one of the few methods available for isomer determination in large rings⁶⁴. Generally, conformational bias in phosphorus heterocycles is considerably less than is found in their carbocyclic analogues, presumably because of the increased bond lengths to phosphorus in comparison with the same distances to carbon. These resulting small energy differences are reflected in at least one instance¹⁵ of both conformers being found in the same crystal and in conformational preferences in solution varying with solvent.

In phosphinane chalcogens the chalcogen atom will normally occupy the axial position^{15,65} unless steric factors elsewhere on the ring dictate otherwise. Strongly electronegative groups on phosphorus may alter this preference. There is no reason to suppose that the rings do not undergo rapid flipping, however, the *cis*-diphosphinane 28 shows only a single absorption in its ³¹P NMR spectrum⁶⁶ and, in general, separate peaks for conformers are only seen as low temperatures. Absolute configurations at phosphorus have been assigned in the phosphasugar series and substantiated by X-ray structures^{17,18}. The only other example is compound 10, whose configuration was also established by X-ray techniques¹⁹.

2. Acyclic compounds

The initial steps in this field were taken by McEwen and coworkers²⁷, who first resolved an acyclic phosphonium salt and, with both enantiomers available, were able to construct the simple cycle (equation 11) which established that alkaline hydrolysis and the Wittig reaction proceeded with opposite stereochemistries. Since it was very likely that the Wittig olefination proceeded with retention, they suggested that alkaline hydrolysis went with inversion. Shortly thereafter, Horner and coworkers⁵⁴ established the basic principles on which assignments of the steric consequence of reaction now depend, using resolved tertiary phosphines as the starting point. Benzylation of a phosphine and its regeneration by electrolytic cleavage proceed without affecting the stereochemistry at phosphorus; similarly, allylation of a phosphine and its regeneration by removing the allyl group with cyanide ion leave the configuration at phosphorus unaffected. Since the latter reaction, in particular, proceeds by reaction remote from phosphorus, it is overwhelmingly probable that alkylation proceeds with retention. Oxidation and sulphuration are similar to alkylation in involving the lone pair on phosphorus, and it follows that they too should proceed with retention; hence the steric course of alkaline hydrolysis and the Wittig reaction of phosphonium salts are as proposed by McEwen and coworkers. Sulphides may be converted to oxides with inversion by alkylation at sulphur, which necessarily proceeds with retention at phosphorus, followed by hydrolysis, hence adddition of sulphur to a phosphine proceeds with retention as expected. Benzylmethylphenylphosphine oxide undergoes a Wittig-Horner reaction with benzaldehyde-N-phenylimine to give N-phenylmethylphenylphosphinamide, whose optical rotatory dispersion curve had the same sign as the starting oxide, thus lending strong support to the notion that the Wittig reaction proceeds with retention. Most Wittig reactions are now believed to proceed via a phosphorane and should theoretically be capable of stereomutation at phosphorus; such a process might result in racemization, but it is difficult to see the net steric result being inversion. These reactions and a number of others shown in equations 23 (largely due to Horner and coworkers) are used to establish the stereochemistry of phosphine chalcogenides in general. It would be unwise, however, to assume that these reactions always apply, and there are many instances of reversal of the expected results. Thus the stereochemical consequence of the alkaline hydrolysis of a phosphonium salt is sensitive to the nature of the leaving group, and the size and nature of the substituents^{28,67-69}. Small or strained rings may give



(i) H_2O_2 ; (ii) S_8 ; (iii) $KMnO_4$ - Py; (iv) $PhCH_2X$; (v) cathodic reduction; (vii) Wittig, (vii) CH_2 == $CHCH_2X$; (viii) CN^- ; (ix) MeI; (x) $aq.OH^-$; (xi) Wittig

unexpected results; phosphetanes, for example, react predominantly with retention at phosphorus⁷⁰ and the 7-phosphanorbornene system undergoes a range of reactions unprecedented in less strained or acyclic systems⁷¹. The stereochemistry of none of these pathways can be assumed on the basis of results with unrelated systems.

The ability to determine absolute stereochemistry spectroscopically would be very desirable but has attracted relatively little attention. Small chemical shift differences have been observed for enantiomeric phosphine oxides in both 31P and ¹H NMR spectra when they are in the presence of a chiral solvent; thus Mislow and coworkers⁶⁸ used (+)-1-phenyl-2,2,2-trifluoroethanol (Pirkle's reagent) to determine the optical purity of tert-butylmethylphenylphosphine oxide. The same group established the absolute configuration at phosphorus in the diastereoisomerically pure methyl phosphinates from their proton spectra⁷² and hence, by inference, the configurations of the phosphine oxides prepared from them by Grignard reaction²⁹. Pirkle and coworkers⁷³ found small differences (1.4–3.2 Hz at 100 MHz) in the chemical shift of the methyl group of the enantiomers of three phosphine oxides using (+)-1-phenyl-2,2,2-trifluoroethanol as cosolvent. With more modern higher field instruments, these differences will be amplified considerably. More recently, Moriyama and Bentrude³⁵ have shown that tert-butylphenylthiophosphinic acid gives better separation (3.0-10.6 Hz at 90 MHz) of enantiomeric groups in the proton NMR and suggest it may be generally useful for this purpose. Two groups have used chiral shift reagents, (R)-(-)-N-3,5-dinitrobenzyl-1-phenylethylamine and (+)- or (-)-1phenylethylamino-3,5-dinitrobenzamide, to determine stereochemical purity by proton NMR on the basis of chemical shift differences, usually of a methyl group 74.75. These differences are not large, however, typically only 0.01-0.02 ppm. It might be expected that 31 P NMR differences would be greater and, although they have been observed 76 with lanthanide shift reagents, no stereochemical use of them has been described, possibly because of difficulties in quantifying the peak heights.

Other physical methods have not been much used, although diarylmethylphosphine oxides have been correlated with sulphoxides by circular dichroism. The method is limited by the need for an appropriate chromophore 77. Chemical methods of configurational correlation are uncommon, largely as a consequence of the limited chemistry that has been studied for groups attached to phosphorus. Conversion of methylphenylvinylphosphine oxide to ethylmethylphenylphosphine oxide by hydrogenation is one example 41. By utilizing relay compounds, Lewis and Mislow 8 ingeniously correlated trialkyl- and triaryl-phosphine oxides (equation 24). Conformational analysis of acyclic compounds has received a reasonable amount of attention primarily for phosphine oxides. Normal methods for study are dipole moment variation and proton NMR spectroscopy. The subject has been reviewed 79.

D. Reaction Stereochemistry

1. Oxides

The phosphoryl group is normally regarded as being particularly stable and its formation is believed to constitute a strong driving force for a reaction. In fact, its dissociation energy does not differ all that greatly from that of a carbonyl group and its apparent lack of reactivity seems more a reflection of its reduced polarity, generally attributed to backbonding between oxygen and phosphorus, than any inherent great stability. The oxygen is sufficiently basic to allow its protonation with reasonably strong acids which, if they are chiral, will allow resolution. Whether a hydroxy phosphonium

salt exists under these conditions or a strongly hydrogen-bonded complex is not known. With sufficiently powerful alkylating agents, usually trialkyloxonium salts, alkoxyphosphonium salts are formed with, of course, retention of configuration at phosphorus80. These salts, like their sulphur analogues, undergo alkaline hydrolysis with complete inversion of eonfiguration; attack at carbon does not seem to occur and has been excluded by isotopic experiments. Under vigorous acid conditions such as refluxing aqueous hydrochloric acid, racemization at phosphorus in phosphine oxides occurs, accompanied by ¹⁸O exchange ^{81,82}. This suggests the formation of a pentacovalent species 30, which is essentially symmetrical under aqueous conditions. A similar result is obtained by heating the phosphine oxide with a carboxylic acid anhydride to give, presumably, the diacycloxyphosphorane 31. However, a symmetrical intermediate is not essential for racemization of a pentacovalent species as ligand reorganization can produce inversion without bond breaking, as is evidenced by obtaining the same result with hydrogen chloride in dry dioxane⁸². Racemization may also be brought about by N₂O₄⁵⁶, a reaction whose mechanism is not obvious but which presumably also involves reversible formation of a phosphorane.

Stereomutation also occurs with Lewis acids, e.g. phosphine oxides are racemized by lithium aluminium hydride⁹, presumably via reversible formation of a phosphorus(V) species. This accounts for the failure of Campbell and Way²⁰ to reduce their resolved phosphine oxide (equation 26) to an optically active phosphine and the general failure of this reducing agent to give stereospecific reduction of phosphine oxides. However, like most reactions of phosphorus compounds, stereochemical generalizations are difficult to maintain. Thus, the resolution of 1 involved the preparation and separation by crystallization of the diastereoisomeric amides of the acid with (—)-phenylethylamine. The enantiomers were regenerated by vigorous acid hydrolysis, which appears to have had no effect on the optical purity since both enantiomers were obtained with equal and opposite rotations^{2b}. Further, phosphine oxides with *tert*-butyl substituents have been reduced by lithium aluminium hydride with overall retention^{8,3}. These reactions

CONHCH₂CH(CH₃)Ph

R and S

HO₂C

$$(1) R \text{ and } S$$

Ph

racemic

 $(i) H^+, H_2O; (ii) LiAIH_4$

(26)

suggest that the racemization process may be subject to both ring and substituent effects. The combination of lithium aluminium hydride and cerium(III) chloride reduces phosphine oxides readily but non-stereoselectively⁸⁴.

Reduction of phosphine oxides proceeds fairly readily with a variety of silanes containing a silicon—hydrogen bond under mild conditions unlikely to produce thermal epimerization of the product phosphine. The inexpensive and readily available trichlorosilane converts phosphine oxides to phosphines with different stereochemical consequences, depending on the presence or absence of amines in the reaction mixture⁸⁵. In the absence of an amine the reaction proceeds with predominant retention, as it does also in the presence of pyridine; in the presence of triethylamine, inversion is observed. It was soon realized86 that the steric result was affected by the base strength of the amine used and that with strong bases reduction was being brought about by decomposition products of the trichlorosilane. This observation led to the introduction of hexachlorodisilane as a reducing agent⁸⁶ and this was found to reduce phosphine oxides to phosphines of good optical purity with inversion at phosphorus. Experimental conditions are critical with hexachlorodisilane, however, since extended reaction times beyond that necessary for reduction may result in extensive racemization of the product phosphine. Some racemization of the phosphine oxide may occur; both processes may result from the reversible formation of pentacovalent phosphorus species or alternatively via reversible substitutions on an intermediate phosphonium salt. The latter proposal is supported by the fact that phosphine oxides may be racemized by silicon tetrachloride, acetyl chloride, or phosphorus trichloride when the solvent acetonitrile is used, which should favour polar intermediates. Suggested mechanisms for silane reductions and racemizations are outlined in Scheme 1. Other silanes, such as phenyl- or diphenyl-silane,

$$\begin{array}{c} R \\ R'''''''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{HSICI_3} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R'''''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R''''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R''''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R''''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R'''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R'' = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R'''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R'''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \begin{array}{c} R \\ R''P = 0 \end{array} \xrightarrow{R'''P} \xrightarrow{$$

$$R_{3}P(O) + XY \longrightarrow R_{3}POX Y^{-}$$

$$R \text{ or } S$$

$$Inv. \longrightarrow Inv$$

$$R_{3}PY \longrightarrow Inv.$$

$$R_{3}PY OX^{-}$$

SCHEME 1

are also commonly used and, as would be expected from the initial studies on trichlorosilane, these reductions also proceed with retention. All silane reductions are frequently non-stereospecific and varying degrees of racemization are observed. It seems that a general principle where maximum stereoselectivity is important is to minimize exposure of the product phosphine to the reducing agents and their oxidation products. Phosphetane oxides are reduced with retention, regardless of the silane used, reflecting the constraints imposed by the four-membered ring on the intermediates. Initial reaction of a phosphetane oxide will give a phosphonium cation (32), particularly susceptible to further attack to give a phosphorane (33) because of the relief of the severe angular distortion at phosphorus (ca 20° from tetrahedral) in the four-membered ring when it is incorporated into trigonal bipyramidal geometry. Permutational isomerisation of such an intermediate is blocked by the inability of the four-membered ring to lie in the equatorial plane, since the four-membered ring could not accommodate a 120° angle at

phosphorus (equation 27). Similarly, phosphetane oxides alkylated at oxygen undergo hydrolysis with retention rather than inversion and this has been shown by isotopic techniques to proceed via attack at phosphorus⁸⁷. This type of behaviour is common with phosphetanes and reflects a generally increased reactivity of the phosphoryl group as a consequence of ring strain. All phosphetane oxides currently available have their reactivity masked by heavy substitution on the ring, a consequence of the limited methods of preparation available, and a simpler, less crowded system, should display a diverse and interesting chemistry. The bicyclic phosphine oxides, e.g. 34 (equation 28), readily available by either dimerization or Diels-Alder cycloaddition of intermediate phosphole oxides, possess a severely strained bridging phosphorus which exhibits a remarkable range of reactions many of which are often unprecedented, and usually unexpected, on the basis of less strained derivatives⁷¹. Angular distortion in these structures is of the same order as in phosphetanes, i.e. about 20° from the tetrahedral. Attempted oxidation of the double bond in the ring resulted in oxygen insertion in to the P—C bond88, a reaction analogous to the Bayer-Villiger reaction, which is general for strained bicyclic systems⁷¹ and also occurs with phosphetanes⁸⁹. The phosphorus may be epimerized by the action of water or amines, a reaction in striking contrast to the otherwise inert behaviour of the phosphoryl group towards nucleophiles in unstrained systems. For example, prolonged refluxing with aqueous alkali or alcoholic alkoxides does not affect the stereochemistry at phosphorus⁸² in acyclic systems. It does not follow, however, that nucleophilic attack has not occurred under those conditions, since in the expected intermediate (35, equation 29) the oxygen ligand may be effectively locked in the radial plane of the pentacovalent species.

$$R_{3}P(0) + Nuc^{-} \longrightarrow R_{Nuc}^{R_{Nuc}}$$

$$(29)$$

$$(35)$$

Apart from the foregoing, relatively few reactions of the phosphoryl group are known whose stereochemical consequences have been examined. Allylic optically active phosphine oxides are thermally stable, unlike the sulphides, e.g. resolved allylmethylphenylphosphine oxide showed no loss of optical activity after 12 h at $200\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}^{90}$. The phosphoryl group may be converted to thiophosphoryl, B_2S_3 giving retention and P_2S_5 racemization⁵¹; removal of proton from carbon adjacent to phosphorus does not affect the stereochemistry there³⁹. When a chiral phosphinoyl group migrates in a carbonium ion rearrangement, it does so with retention of configuration at phosphorus⁹¹.

2. Sulphides and selenides

Little chemistry has been done with selenides and even less of stereochemical interest. Like sulphides, they are converted by selenoxides into phosphine oxides with a stereochemical result depending on the selenoxide and the reaction conditions⁵⁸.

Sulphides are much less basic towards protons than oxides, but since they are softer bases they alkylate more readily and alkaline hydrolysis of the resulting thioalkyl-phosphonium salts affords the oxides with inversion at phosphorus^{54a,79}. Reduction of sulphides with hexachlorodisilanc proceeds, unexpectedly, with high retention of

stereochemistry at phosphorus⁷⁹, in marked contrast to the behaviour of oxides. The reason for this difference is obscure and, as in the case of phosphine oxide reduction, a clearer understanding is hampered by difficulties in identifying the silicon by-products. Once again, in contrast to phosphine oxides, optically active sulphides are reduced to the phosphine by lithium aluminium hydride with retention of configuration⁹².

Allylic phosphine sulphides may be racemized thermally, presumably via allylic rearrangement to a trivalent thiophosphinite which then undergoes thermal inversion ⁹³ (equation 30). This is supported by the facts that the activation energy of the process is

similar to the activation energies for the thermal inversion of phosphines and also that allylic thiophosphinites are known to undergo thermal allylic rearrangement to the corresponding sulphides ^{93,94}. Conversion of phosphine sulphides to oxides is brought about by a range of oxidizing agents and with variable stercochemical results, but usually overall retention is observed.

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CHAPTER 3

Electrochemistry of organophosphorus(V) compounds

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I. INTRODUCTION

The pivotal role played by electrochemistry in unravelling the chemistry of reactive phosphorus intermediates of organophosphorus(V) compounds is discussed in this chapter. These intermediates are either free radical anions or cations undergoing cleavage reactions or geometrical isomerizations or biochemical energy transductions. In several ways the cleavage reactions are similar to the phosphorus(III) compounds discussed in the earlier volume of this series1; P-C bond cleavage is observed after adding one electron (1e) to the organophosphorus compound. By contrast, the P-O bond in phosphorus(V) compounds is remarkably stable and is useful in generating reactive species for initiating redox reactions. One example of this kind is the energy transduction in biochemical reactions occurring through the phosphate bond of adenosine triphosphate (ATP); the high-energy phosphate bond (ca 33 kJ mol⁻¹)² usefully converts the reduced or oxidized form of 1e transducing systems. Examples of transducing systems are pyruvate-acetate, CO₂; pyruvate CoA-acetyl CoA*, CO₂; α-ketoglutarate-succinate, CO₃; and acetaldehyde-acetate. The phosphate bond has the potential to increase the concentration of the unenergized form 106-fold by changing the Nernstian voltage by 350 mV.

These results have led to the introduction of energy coupling schemes in biological chemistry³. An important transduction of the phosphate bond energy into redox energy is the ATP-dependent reduction by dihydronicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (DPNH) of 3-phosphoglycerate^{3,4} via 1,3-diphosphoglycerate to glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate. By this mechanism uphill reactions proceed at the expense of the high-energy phosphate bond of ATP. Consequently, there has been growing interest in the redox reactions of organophosphorus(V) compounds in the last two decades. This quest has led to the synthesis and characterization of phosphorus(V) liganded complexes using electrochemical techniques. Of greater importance is the chemistry of the geometrical isomerization of metal-phosphido complexes⁵.

The electrochemistry of diphosphonucleotides has evoked detailed investigations for more than a decade into understanding the reduction mechanisms of these compounds. Does the chemical or biochemical reduction occur through a hydride ion or an electron-proton-electron transfer scheme? This question led to analogues of phosphonucleotides being synthesized for electrochemical studies to obtain an answer.

The interfacial phenomena at the electrode/solution interface such as adsorption of organics, in general, and more specifically organophosphorus(V) compounds, has

generated an interest in understanding the geometry of these molecules in the adsorbed state in addition to the adsorption kinetics. Theoretical models proposed by Frumkin⁶, Langmuir⁷ and others⁸ have been tested by using the interfacial adsorption of phosphorus compounds.

This review discusses the mechanisms and reactivities of organophosphorus(V) compounds during and after the charge transfer at the electrode.

II. PHOSPHINE OXIDES

A. Triphenylphosphine Oxide: Ph₃PO

1. Polarographic characteristics

The electrochemistry of Ph_3PO is of interest in relation to Ph_3P for the mechanistic changes occurring in the valence transformation of phosphorus(III) to phosphorus(V)⁹⁻¹⁴. The polarographic characteristics have been examined in solvents such as N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF), acetonitrile (MeCN) and hexamethyl phosphoramide (HMPA); the two waves appearing for Ph_3PO in these solvents are identified as due to successive 1e additions occurring with $E_{1/2}^1 = -2.51$ V and $E_{1/2}^{II} = -2.84$ V vs SCE. Figure 1 shows a typical polarogram of 1.32mm Ph_3PO . The wave nature defined by

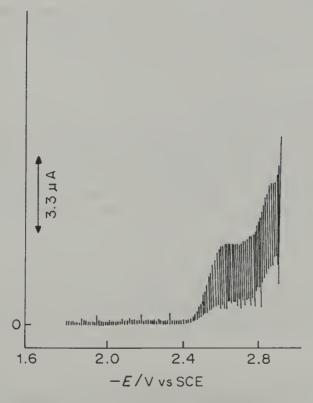


FIGURE 1. Polarogram of triphenylphosphine oxide from a solution containing 1.32 mm triphenylphosphine oxide and 0.1 m tetrabutylammonium iodide in DMF. Taken from ref. 11. Copyright (1968) American Chemical Society.

 $E_{3/4} - E_{1/4}$ for the first wave has a value of 60 mV and for the second wave about 62 mV. The diffusion coefficient of $(Ph_3)_3PO$ is estimated to be 2.35×10^{-5} cm² s⁻¹ in DMF. The polarographic wave of this compound is shifted in the positive direction with respect to Ph_3P , which shows $E_{1/2} = -2.70$ V vs SCE. Both the polarographic waves of Ph_3PO are diffusion controlled in the above solvents.

2. Cyclic voltammetric characteristics

Cyclic voltammetric experiments at a hanging mercury drop electrode (HMDE) also exhibit two cathodic peaks at $E_{\rm pc}^1 = -2.52\,{\rm V}$ and $E_{\rm pc}^{\rm II} = -2.88\,{\rm V}$, corresponding to two successive 1e transfers; the first peak is reversible, exhibiting a complementary anodic peak. The constancy of the current function of the first peak and the peak current ratio $i_{\rm pa}/i_{\rm pc} \approx 1.0$ suggests high stability of the radical anion and the absence of any prior reaction of Ph₃PO and DMF¹¹. However, at very low scan rates, below 0.067 V s⁻¹, the anion radical of Ph₃PO produced at $-2.52\,{\rm V}$ undergoes a catalytic reaction¹³ in solvents such as MeCN and HMPA; the catalytic reaction is faster in MeCN. This catalytic reaction is attributed to the electrophilic attack by the solvent on the radical anion or impurities in the solvent. This interpretation is supported by the observation of the ESR spectrum of the free radical anion of Ph₃PO in DMF by Illyasov *et al.*¹⁴ with ³¹P coupling to the protons of the ring. However, the radical anion decomposes during longer periods of storage.

The solvent-dependent feature of cyclic voltammetric behaviour was reported by Santhanam and Bard¹¹; in DMSO containing Bu₄NI two peaks at $E_{\rm pc} = -2.44$ V and $E_{\rm pc} = -2.51$ V were observed at a slower scan rate of 0.15 V s⁻¹. The two peaks merged into one broad peak at higher sweep rates. Both peaks are irreversible in nature. These

peaks are shifted to negative potentials in DMF.

3. Controlled potential electrolysis

The long-term stability of the 1e reduction product of Ph_3PO has been investigated by controlled potential electrolysis $^{11.13}$. Exhaustive reduction in DMF at $-2.60\,V$ invariably resulted in a higher steady-state current than the background current electrolysis. The current-time decay features and cyclic voltammetric analysis after the electrolysis were indicative of a Ph_3PO radical anion reacting with the medium to regenerate Ph_3PO . Saveant and Ph_3PO radical anion reacting with the supporting electrolyte.

4. ESR features

The electrochemically generated Ph₃PO radical anion produces an ESR spectrum^{12,14} with fine structure arising from ³¹P coupling with the ring protons. Chemical reduction using metallic potassium resulted in the radical anion spectrum of Ph₃PO⁻K⁺, with the spectrum containing potassium ion hyperfine splittings.

5. Redox reaction scheme

The first step in the electrochemical reduction of Ph₃PO produces the anion by reaction 1^{11,13}.

$$Ph_3PO + e \rightleftharpoons Ph_3PO^{-}$$
 (1)

The radical anion reacts with the supporting electrolyte, Bu₄N⁺, as indicated by

reactions 2-4.

$$Ph_{3}PO^{-\bullet} + Bu_{4}N^{+} \xrightarrow{k} Ph_{3}P\dot{O}Bu + NBu_{3}$$
 (2)

$$Ph_3P\dot{O}Bu \xrightarrow{k_1} Ph^* + Ph_2POBu$$
 (3)

$$Ph_2POBu \xrightarrow{k_2} Bu' + Ph_3PO$$
 (4)

An alternative mechanism depicted by reactions 5-7 has also been proposed¹³.

$$Ph' + Ph_3PO^{-} \longrightarrow Ph_3PO + Ph^{-}$$
 (5)

$$Bu^* + Ph_3PO^{-*} \longrightarrow Ph_3PO + Bu^{-}$$
 (6)

$$2Bu' \longrightarrow C_8H_{18} \text{ or } C_4H_{10}$$
 (7)

The alkylation reactions in DMF and HMPA proceed with rate constants $k_1 = 0.14 \,\mathrm{mol}^{-1} \,\mathrm{ls}^{-1}$ and $k_1 = 0.05 \,\mathrm{mol}^{-1} \,\mathrm{ls}^{-1} \,\mathrm{13}$, suggesting that the alkylation reaction 3 is 20 times slower in HMPA. The cleavage of the P—C bond in reaction 3 is dependent on the dielectric constant; it appears to be facilitated by the alkylation reaction 2.

III. PHOSPHATES

A. Nitrophenyl Phosphates

1. Polarographic characteristics

A large number of nitro-substituted phenyl phosphates have characteristic polarographic reductions¹⁵⁻¹⁷. The characteristic constants are listed in Table 1. The diffusion current constant values indicate that these nitro compounds undergo 1e reductions with the exception of multi-nitro-substituted compounds. This class of compounds show multiple reductions as each nitro group is susceptible to reduction [see tris(*p*-nitrophenyl) phosphate], provided that geometrical considerations allow sufficient electron density for the electron transfer. The 1e reduction produces a stable radical anion of nitrophenyl phosphates; these behavioural patterns are comparable to those of the well studied nitrobenzenes¹⁸⁻²⁴.

A general feature of nitro compounds is their affinity for adsorption on a mercury surface; this adsorption results in the appearance of polarographic pre-waves. In a few cases these waves have been identified and distinguished from the diffusion-limited waves. Thus p-nitrophenyl phosphate exhibits a well defined adsorption wave (see Table 2) 25,26 . The $E_{1/2}$ of diphenyl-4-nitrobenzyl phosphate is shifted in the positive direction owing to its adsorption on mercury; this feature is also observed with tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate 15,25 . The polarographic characteristics such as $E_{1/2}$ and $|E_{3/4} - E_{1/4}|$ are not significantly altered by the solvent; the values in MeCN and DMF are nearly the same 15 .

2. Cyclic voltammetric patterns

In-depth studies of nitro-substituted phosphates have been carried out using tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate, bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate and mono(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate as model compounds for the phosphates^{25,26}. Typical cyclic voltammetric curves of tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate and bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate are depicted in Figure 2. The five well defined peaks of tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate in the cyclic voltammogram are reduced to three for bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate. This difference

TABLE 1. Characteristic polarographic features of nitro-substituted phosphorus compounds in acetonitrile

Structure	Species	$-E_{1/2} \\ \text{(V)}$	ⁱ _{d/c} (μΑ l mmol ⁻¹	$E_{3/4} - E_{1/4}$ (V)	1
O ₂ N E t	Diethyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate	1.07	2.93	0.078	7,
O ₂ N CH ₂ CH ₂ C	Diethyl-4•nitrobenzyl phosphate	1.11	4.18	0.053	6
O2N Physical Control of the Control	Diphenyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate	1.09	3.92	0.057	σ.
O ₂ N We ph	Diphenyl-2,6-dimethyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate	1.14	3.19	0.056	2
	Di(4-methylphenyl)-4-nitrophenyl phosphate	1.09	4.77	0.057	4
Me Me					

4.2

3.1	3.3	3.5		
0.05	0.071	0.080		4
3.52	3.81	ı	0.80	0.080
1.10	0.086	0.83	0.94	1.28
Di(2-methylphenyl)-4-nitrophenyl phosphate	Diphenyl-4-nitrobenzyl phosphate	Tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate	Bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate	p-Nitrophenyl phosphate
O ₂ N _M e	02N CH2		0 - HO O N20	O HO OH OHO

^aTaken from refs 15-17. Potentials measured with respect to the saturated calomel electrode (SCE).

 $^{b}I = \frac{i_{d}}{m^{2/3}} \frac{i_{d}}{t^{1/6}C}$, calculated from i_{d}/C values. $i_{d} = \text{diffusion current}$, m = mass of mercury drop, t = seconds, C = concentration.

TABLE 2. Relative changes in the polarographic reduction of tris(p-nitrophenyl)phosphate^a

Height of mercury column (cm)	Wave I, $i_{\mathrm{d}/h}$ $(\mu\mathrm{Acm}^{-1})$	Wave II, $i_{d/h}^{1/2}$ $(\mu A \text{ cm}^{-1/2})$
110.9	0.0139	0.86
100.9	0.0139	0.87
90.9	0.0137	0.83
70.9	0.0127	0.92

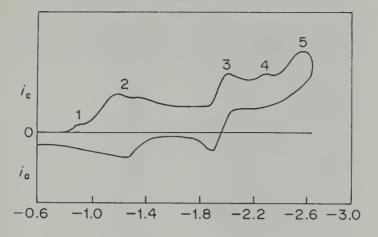
^aMedium: DMF containing 1.47 mm tris(*p*-nitrophenyl) phosphate and 0.1 m Bu₄Nl. $m = 1.70 \,\mathrm{mg \, s^{-1}}$; $t = 2.4 \,\mathrm{s}$. Reprinted with permission from ref. 25. Copyright (1967) American Chemical Society.

appears to arise from the complex chemical reactions that occur with the multiple charge-transfer schemes on attachment of more nitrophenyl groups to phosphate. Table 3 gives cyclic voltammetric data for the three nitro compounds; these features are indicative of chemical reactions accompanying the charge-transfer process²⁵. The peak current increases directly with increasing scan rate.

3. ESR features

The nitrophenyl phosphates produce ESR spectra on electrochemical reduction on the first wave. Mononitrophenyl phosphates of the type listed in Table 4 show ESR spectra with characteristic coupling constants arising from nitrogen, protons and phosphorus¹⁵. The anion radical of diphenyl-4-nitrobenzyl phosphate is unstable and hence produces no ESR signal. An interesting feature of the ESR of nitrophenyl phosphates is their close resemblence to those of the nitrophenyl group. The nitrogen coupling constants of nitrobenzene can be matched with those of nitrophenyl phosphates; $a_{H(0)}$ and $a_{H(p)}$ are identical for the two compounds. The conclusion one can draw from the data is that the introduction of the phosphate moiety into the nitrobenzene ring does not perturb the π -electron density distribution in the ring. Further, as the phosphorus coupling to the electron is observed, there is no steric hindrance offered by the phosphate. The characteristic ESR patterns of a variety of phosphates are shown in Figure 3.

The mechanism of the spin density transmission to phosphorus in anion radicals is fascinating from a geometrical point of view. If the geometry of the neutral molecule persists even after the 1e reduction, then the P—O bond length in PO₄³⁻ will be 1.54 Å (shorter by 0.19 Å from covalent radii) with a bond order of 1.70. It is altered in esters and phosphoryl oxygens to 1.63 and 1.43 Å. As the O—P—O and P—O—C angles were determined by Davies and Stanley²⁷ from crystallographic data as 117° and 122°, the nitrophenyl phosphates with the above parameters have tetrahedral geometry. The situation changes with diethyl-4-nitrobenzyl phosphonate; the P—CH₂—C angle is estimated to be 109°. The spin density transmission would depend on the position of the C—Y—P plane with respect to the plane of the nitrophenyl group (C and Y refer to the ring carbon atom and oxygen or carbon atom). When a group such as —CH₂PO(OEt)₂ is coupled to the nitrophenyl ring, the phosphorus atom is pushed out of the plane of the aromatic ring¹⁵. This understanding is supported by the value of methylene proton coupling constant (2.70 G), which is far from that of the 4-nitrotoluene anion radical (3.92 G). Further, this non-planarity has reduced a_p in comparison with



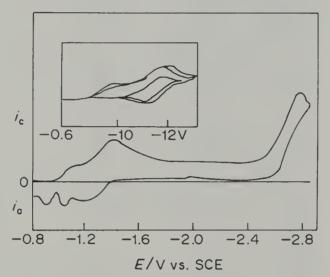


FIGURE 2. Top: cyclic voltammetric curve of tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate from a solution containing 0.1 M tetra-nbutylammonium iodide and 2.85 mm tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate in DMF. Numbers on the recording represent the number of peaks observed. Sweep rate, 153 m s⁻¹; working electrode, platinum (area = 0.031 cm^2). Taken from ref. 16. Bottom: cyclic voltammetric curve of bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate from a solution containing 0.1 M tetra-n-butylammonium iodide and 0.3 mm bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate. Sweep rate, 153 mV s⁻¹. Inset: repetitive cycling of the electrode potential between -0.83 and -1.25 V. Working electrode, hanging mercury drop electrode (area: 0.022 cm²). The oscillations on the anodic scan are due to oscillation of the mercury drop due to the 'stirring phenomenon'. Reprinted with permission from ref. 17. Copyright (1969) American Chemical Society.

the planar structure that exists in the semiquinone phosphates²⁸ which have values in the range 17.2-20 G. Hence the mechanism of spin transmission appear to be based on C—P hyperconjugation.

The bis- and tris-(p-nitrophenyl) phosphates produce radical anions that can be

TABLE 3. Cyclic voltammetric characteristics of nitrophenyl phosphates^a

$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		Pe	Peak 2	Pea	Peak 3	Pea	Peak 4	Pea	Peak 5
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Compound	$E_{ m pc}$	$i_{\rm p}/v^{1/2}$, $(\mu A s^{1/2})$ $m V^{-1/2})$	E _{pe}	$i_p/v^{1/2}$ $(\mu As^{1/2})$ $mV^{-1/2})$	E _{pe} (V)	$i_{\rm p}/v^{1/2} \ (\mu A^{1/2} \ mV^{-1/2})$	E _{pc}	$i_{\rm p}/v^{1/2}$ $(\mu A s^{1/2})$ $m V^{-1/2})$
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate	-1.13 ^b -1.14 ^c	3.27	-1.96 -1.99	3.12	- 2.24 - 2.34	0.81	-2.51 -2.59	6.11
-1.28	Bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate	-1.35^{d} -1.37^{e}	0.73	-2.54 -2.77	2.40	i	1	ı	l
	Nitro-phenyl phosphate	-1.28^{f}	I	-2.02					

^oTaken from refs 25 and 26. Potentials are with respect to SCE. ^bSweep rate for this set at 67.1 mV s⁻¹. ^cSweep rate for this set at 222 mV s⁻¹. ^dSweep rate for this set at 91.4 mV s⁻¹. ^eSweep rate for this set at 943 mV s⁻¹. ^fSweep rate of 67.1 mV s⁻¹.

TABLE 4. Electron spin resonance data for nitrophenyl phosphates^a

Compound ^b	Parameter	Acetonitrile	DMF		
1	a_{N} $a_{\mathrm{H}(o)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(m)}$ a_{p}	10.43 ± 0.06 3.64 ± 0.04 1.13 ± 0.02 7.05 ± 0.06	9.93 ± 0.03 3.44 ± 0.04 1.13 ± 0.02 7.28 ± 0.02		
2	a_{N} $a_{\mathrm{H}(o)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(m)}$ a_{p}	10.27 ± 0.04 3.47 ± 0.02 1.13 ± 0.02 10.29 ± 0.04	$\begin{array}{c} 9.71 \pm 0.03 \\ 3.46 \pm 0.02 \\ 1.12 \pm 0.01 \\ 10.84 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$		
3	a_{N} $a_{\mathrm{H}(o)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(m)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{CH}_2)}$ a_{p}	10.26 ± 0.26 3.33 ± 0.05 1.10 ± 0.02 2.70 ± 0.02 13.59 ± 0.23	$\begin{array}{c} 9.61 \pm 0.19 \\ 3.38 \pm 0.02 \\ 1.08 \pm 0.05 \\ 2.81 \pm 0.02 \\ 17.51 \pm 0.24 \end{array}$		
4	a_{N} $a_{\mathrm{H}(o)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(m)}$ a_{p}	$\begin{array}{c} 9.96 \pm 0.03 \\ 3.42 \pm 0.02 \\ 1.12 \pm 0.01 \\ 7.92 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 9.50 \pm 0.03 \\ 3.47 \pm 0.02 \\ 1.12 \pm 0.01 \\ 8.35 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$		
5	$a_{ m N} \\ a_{{ m H}(o)} \\ a_{{ m H}(m)} \\ a_{ m p}$	10.50 ± 0.04 3.39 ± 0.01 1.03 ± 0.01 10.50 ± 0.04	9.75 ± 0.19 3.40 ± 0.01 1.02 ± 0.01 11.06 ± 0.06		
6	a_{N} $a_{\mathrm{H}(o)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(m)}$ a_{p}	10.14 ± 0.04 3.46 ± 0.02 1.12 ± 0.01 7.90 ± 0.02	9.89 ± 0.03 3.45 ± 0.02 1.12 ± 0.01 8.00 ± 0.03		
7	a_{N} $a_{\mathrm{H}(o)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(m)}$ a_{p}	$10.15 \pm 0.06 3.46 \pm 0.01 1.12 \pm 0.02 8.27 \pm 0.06$	9.87 ± 0.03 3.46 ± 0.04 1.12 ± 0.02 8.39 ± 0.03		
8	a_{N} $a_{\mathrm{H}(o)}$ $a_{(m)}$ $a_{\mathrm{H}(p)}^{(m)}$	10.32 3.39 1.09 3.97	9.83 3.32 1.09 3.97		

^aAbsolute values of coupling constants are given in gauss, and standard deviations from the mean are indicated. Proton positions are labelled with respect to the nitro group. All the radicals in both solvents had a g factor close 2. Reprinted with permission from ref. 15. Copyright (1966) American Chemical Society.

explained as being due to secondary products such as 4,4'-dinitrobiphenyl anion radical with coupling constants $a_{\rm N} = 2.96\,\rm G$, $a_{\rm H} = 1.21\,\rm G$ and $a_{\rm H} = 0.21\,\rm G$. The ESR spectra of these radicals are shown in Figure 4. The 4-nitrophenyl phosphate group can be identified in the spectral recordings²⁶.

 $[^]b$ 1 = Diethyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate; 2 = O.O-diethyl-O-4-nitrophenyl thio-phosphate; 3 = diethyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphonate; 4 = diphenyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphonate; 5 = diphenyl-2,6-dimethyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate; 6 = di(4-methylphenyl)4-nitrophenyl phosphate; 7 = di(2-methylphenyl)4-nitrophenyl phosphate; 8 = nitro-benzene.

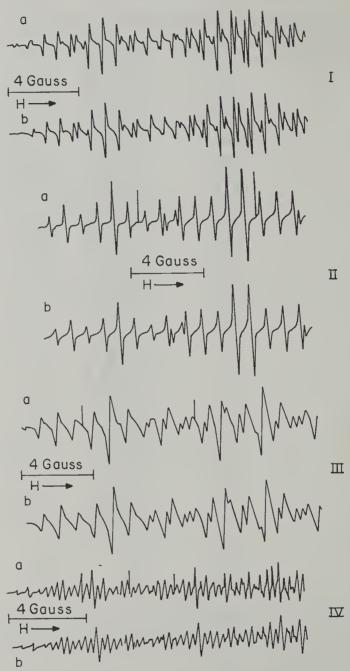


FIGURE 3. I. (a) First-derivative ESR spectrum of the anion radical of diphenyl-2,6-dimethyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate in DMF. Low-field half of the spectrum. (b) Computed spectrum using $a_{\rm N}=9.71~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=3.395~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=1.02~{\rm G}$ and $a_{\rm P}=11.06~{\rm G}$. Line width: 0.125 G. II. (a) ESR spectrum of diphenyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate anion radical in DMF. Low-field half of the spectrum. (b) Computed spectrum using $a_{\rm N}=9.46~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=3.46~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=1.12~{\rm G}$ and $a_{\rm P}=8.31~{\rm G}$. Line width, 0.125 G. III. (a) ESR spectrum of diethyl-4-nitrophenyl phosphate anion radical in DMF. Low-field half of the spectrum. (b) Computed spectrum using $a_{\rm N}=9.93~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=3.47~{\rm G}$ and $a_{\rm P}=7.28~{\rm G}$. Line width, 0.23 G. IV. (a) ESR spectrum of diethyl-4-nitrobenzyl phosphonate in DMF. Slightly more than the low-field half of the spectrum. (b) Computed spectrum using $a_{\rm N}=9.70~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=3.34~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=1.08~{\rm G}$, $a_{\rm H}=2.79~{\rm G}$ and $a_{\rm P}=17.60~{\rm G}$. Line width, 0.140 G. Reprinted with permission from ref. 15. Copyright (1986) American Chemical Society.

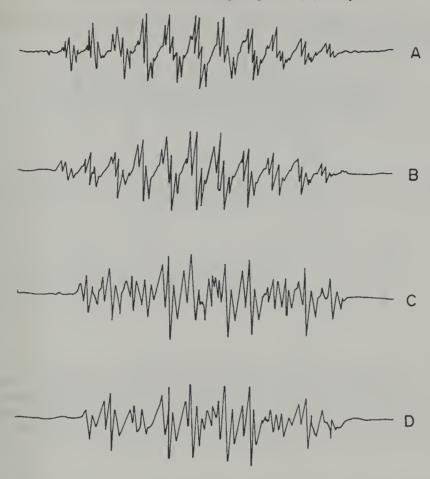


FIGURE 4. (A) Derivative ESR spectrum of 4,4'-dinitrobiphenyl anion radical obtained by electroreduction of 2.38 mm tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate in DMF. (B) Computed spectrum with $a_{\rm N}=2.62$ G, $a_{\rm H}=1.21$ G and $a_{\rm H}=0.21$ G. (C) Derivative ESR spectrum of nitrophenyl phosphate anion radical during reduction of tris(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate in DMF. (D) Computed spectrum with $a_{\rm N}=3.3$ G, $a_{\rm H}=0.83$ G and $a_{\rm P}=11.4$ G. Reprinted with permission from ref. 16. Copyright (1969) American Chemical Society.

4. Redox mechanisms

A strong resonance interaction between the nitro group and other substituents has been observed in the series of compounds listed in Table 1. The half-wave potentials for compounds with reference to nitrobenzene shift in the direction predicted by Hammett's constant. σ . This shift also correlates with the observed shift in the values of $a_p^{15,19}$.

With only one p-nitrophenyl substituent attached to phosphate, the reduction proceeds as in equation 8, where X and Y represent the substituent groups listed in Table 1, such as phenyl, methyl, ethyl or benzyl. When two p-nitrophenyl substituents are attached to phosphate, the radical anion produced is unstable and decomposes by the pathway in reactions 9–11, where SH represents DMF. The 4,4'-dinitrobiphenyl is further reduced at -2.54 V and appears as the third peak in the cyclic voltammetric patterns. Cleavage of the C—O bond has been observed by Santhanam and Bard²⁶ followed by coupling of the radicals to produce 4,4'-dinitrobiphenyl. This molecule is easier to reduce than

bis(p-nitrophenyl) phosphate and hence the electron spin resonance spectrum of 4,4'-dinitrobiphenyl is observed.

$$(NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}-O-)_{2}-P-OH + 2e = [(NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}-O-)_{2}-P-OH]^{2-} (9)$$

$$/SH$$

$$NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}C_{6}H_{4}NO_{2} + HO-P-OH + 2S^{-} (10)$$

$$NO_2C_6H_4C_6H_4NO_2 + e$$
 [$NO_2C_6H_4C_6H_4NO_2$] (11)

The introduction of third nitrophenyl group into phosphate produces more complexity but nevertheless cleavage of the C—O bond is observed. The reaction scheme during reduction is depicted by equations 12–15. With this series of molecules the energy-rich P—O bond remains intact; cleavage of the C—O bond takes place with ease; a similar phenomenon is observed with diphenylphosphate on reduction.

$$(NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}-O-)_{3}-P + 2e \longrightarrow [(NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}-O-)_{3}-P]^{2-}$$

$$(12)$$

$$[(NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}-O-)_{3}-P]^{2-} + 2SH \longrightarrow NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}-O-P$$

$$OH OH$$

$$+ 2S^{-} + NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4}C_{6}H_{4}NO_{2}$$

$$NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4} \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow P \qquad + e \longrightarrow NO_{2}C_{6}H_{4} \longrightarrow OH \longrightarrow OH$$
 (14)

$$NO_2C_6H_4C_6H_4NO_2 + e \longrightarrow NO_2C_6H_4C_6H_4NO_2^{-1}$$
 (15)

B. Nitrophenyl Thiophosphate

O,O-Diethyl O-4-nitrophenyl thiophosphate generates a polarographic wave in MeCN with a half-wave potential at $E_{1/2}=-1.16\,\mathrm{V}$ vs SCE, with a wave slope of $|E_{3/4}-E_{1/4}|$

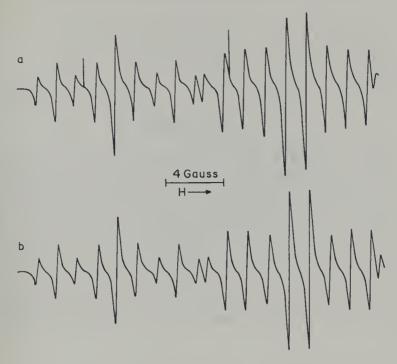


FIGURE 5. (a) Derivative ESR spectrum of the anion radical of 0,0-diethyl-0,4-nitrophenyl thiophosphate in DMF. (b) Computed spectrum using $a_{\rm N} = 9.68$ G, $a_{\rm H} = 3.46$ G $a_{\rm H} = 1.135$ G and $a_{\rm P} = 10.82$ G. Line width, 0.185 G. Reprinted with permission from ref. 15. Copyright (1966) American Chemical Society.

 $\approx 53 \,\mathrm{mV}$. This wave is due to a 1e reduction of this molecule¹⁵ and the free radical anion produces an ESR spectrum as shown in Figure 5. The spectrum shows the following coupling constants in DMF: $a_{\rm N} = 9.68 \,\mathrm{G}$, $a_{\rm H(O)} = 3.46 \,a_{\rm H(m)} = 1.13 \,\mathrm{G}$ and $a_{\rm p} = 10.82 \,\mathrm{G}$. The coupling constants are slightly shifted in MeCN: $a_{\rm N} = 10.27 \,\mathrm{G}$, $a_{\rm H(O)} = 3.47 \,\mathrm{G}$, $a_{\rm H(m)} = 1.13$ and $a_{\rm p} = 10.29 \,\mathrm{G}$. Replacement of the phosphoryl oxygen by sulphur (see Section 3.) produces $a_{\rm N}$ and ring proton coupling constants that are virtually unchanged, but results in an increase in $a_{\rm p}$ by about 45%. This feature of incresing $a_{\rm p}$ has also been observed for the radical produced by dehydrogenation of diphenyl(4-hydroxy-3,5-ditert-butylphenyl)phosphine oxide; a change in $a_{\rm p}$ from 14.7 to 15.4 G is observed with the analogous phosphine sulphide³⁰. As oxygen is more electronegative than sulphur, it does not attract the electron towards itself.

C. Quinol Phosphates—Biological Significance

1. Oxidative phosphorylation

Oxidative phosphorylation plays a role in energy transfer schemes in biological processes. Quinol phosphates possesses the potential for understanding the energy transduction in biological mechanisms³¹. The pioneering work in understanding the phosphorylating agent stems from a series of publications by Todd and co-workers^{32–35}. Phosphorylating agents such as phosphonic anhydrides on reaction with quinol phosphate expel an anion as in equation 16.

Several studies^{32,33} have been carried out on the initiation of the P—O and C—O bond fission processes. Lapidot and Samuel^{36,37} indicated that both fission processes operate in the oxidation schemes. The implication of this finding is that the P—O bond fission will produce a metaphosphate intermediate for the phosphorylation. Todd's group³² has demonstrated metaphosphate generation, but could not find support for phosphoryl cation formation during the oxidation of quinol diphosphates by a number of oxidizing agents. The product of these oxidations is quinone; a qualitative correlation between the redox potential of the quinone—quinol system and the efficiency of quinone formation has been observed³². Further support for the finding that P—O bond fission is susceptible to metaphosphate intermediate formation during phosphorylation has been arrived at through cyclic voltammetric studies on 2-methyl-1.4-naphthoquinol 1-phosphate³⁸.

2. Cyclic voltammetric pattern

Quinol phosphate (2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinol 1-phosphate) oxidation at an electrode takes place over a wide pH range from 2.50 to 10.39^{38} . The 2e oxidation occurs in acidic solutions at $E_p = 0.60\,\mathrm{V}$ vs SCE. The product undergoes fast hydrolysis to produce a semiquinone. The oxidation process occurring at different pH values is depicted in Figure 6. The anodic peak current decreases with increasing pH, which is attributed to the equilibrium that exists between the ionized and non-ionized forms. A complete reaction scheme is shown in Figure 7. The oxidized product is unstable and decomposes to form the quinone, which is easily identified by its characteristic cyclic voltammetric features. The cyclic voltammetric parameters are listed in Table 5. The $|E_p - E_{p/2}|$ value is close to the 2e irreversible peak having a transfer coefficient of 0.5^{38} ; the increase in the $|E_p - E_{p/2}|$ value with increasing pH is consistent with the complexity of the mechanism and changes in the transfer coefficient. The current function also decreases with increasing pH and is a characteristic feature of this oxidation.

$$\circ_0 \longrightarrow \circ_{0}^{2^{-}} \xrightarrow{k_f} \circ_0 \longrightarrow \circ_{0}^{-} + \circ_3^{-}$$
 (17)

In basic media 1e oxidation of quinol phosphate followed by further oxidation and cleavage of the P-O bond is observed. The rate constant for the process in equation 17 is controlled by the prior equilibrium that exists which depends on the hydroxide ion concentration (pH of the medium and pK_a). It is considered to be composed of

$$k_{\rm f} = k_1 + k_2 [{\rm OH}^-]$$
 (18)

with $k_1 = 0.2 \pm 0.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k_2 = 700 \pm 4001 \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Using equation 18, an estimate of $k_{\rm f}$ in any basic solution can be determined.

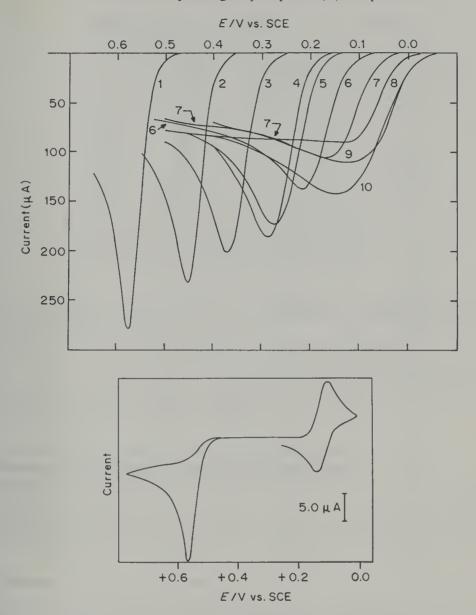


FIGURE 6. Top: current-voltage curves for 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinol 1-phosphate in acetate, phosphate and borate buffers. (1) 1 M H₂SO₄; (2) pH 2.50; (3) pH 4.04; (4) pH 5.63; (5) pH 6.32; (6) pH 7.44; (7) pH 8.38; (8) pH 9.27; (9) pH 11.18; (10) pH 11.87. Bottom: cyclic voltammetric curve for 0.53 mM 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinol 1-phosphate in 1 M H₂SO₄. Swcep rate for both recordings, 60 mV s⁻¹. The reversible couple at 0.20 V is due to the quinone formed after the electrochemical oxidation of the electroactive species at +0.58 V. Working electrode, carbon paste (Nujol). Reprinted with permission from ref. 38. Copyright (1966) American Chemical Society.

FIGURE 7. Reaction mechanism for quinol phosphate oxidation.

3. Electron spin resonance features

The ESR spectral features of the oxidized product of quinol phosphate (2-methyl-1,4-naphthaquinol 1-phosphate) are identified as arising from the substituted quinone (product II in Figure 7)³⁸. Allen and Bond³⁹, however, generated the following semiquinone phosphate radical:

TABLE 5. Cyclic	voltammetric	parameters	2-methyl-
1,4-naphthoquinol	l 1-phosphate ^a		

pH $E_{\rm p} - E_{\rm p/2}$ (mV)		$(A cm^{-2} I mol^{-1} V^{-1/2} S^{1/2})$		
0.59	26.5	2.18		
1.44	30.5	1.89		
2.50	30	1.84		
3.48	36	1.86		
4.04	40	1.55		
4.48	46	1.38		
5.63	49	1.41		
6.32	55	1.35		

^aSweep rate 0.10 V s⁻¹. Reprinted with permission from ref. 38. Copyright (1966) American Chemical Society.

by chemical oxidation using permanganate at high pH (11.7). The electrolytic oxidation of quinol phosphate at this pH value can only generate a weak, unresolved signal, indicating the instability of the radical.

The phosphorylation reaction in biological systems has been of importance in arriving at the bioenergetics. The nature of the phosphorylating agent is speculative^{31,40,41}; is there a reactive intermediate in phosphorylation reactions^{42,43}? The electrochemical data together with ESR results for quinol phosphate suggest that the semiquinone phosphate radical is the phosphorylating agent³⁸.

D. S-(1,2-Dicarbethoxyethyl)-O,O-dimethyl Dithiophosphate or O,O-Dimethyl S-(1,2-dicarbethoxyethyl Phosphorodithioate) (Malathion): $(CH_3O)_2P(S)SCH(COOC_2H_5)CH_2COOC_2H_5$

The electrochemical reduction of malathion occurs at $E_{\rm p}=-0.21\,{\rm V}$ vs SCE at a DME in ethanol-HCl medium. The second peak is observed at $E_{\rm p}=-0.80\,{\rm V}$ vs SCE. In alkaline medium (NaOH), only one reduction peak at $E_{\rm p}=-0.80\,{\rm V}$ is observed⁴⁴.

E. Nicotinamide Ribose Monophosphate

The redox chemistry of the most familiar form of β -nicotinamide ribose monophosphate (NMN) has been investigated extensively by Schmakel *et al.*⁴⁵, using this as a model compound to understand several nucleotides, such as nicotinamide adenine dinucloetide (NAD+) and nicotinamide adenine dinulceotide phosphate (NADP+). NMN exhibits a half-wave potential which is independent of pH up to 5, becomes more negative between pH 5.0 and 7.5 and then remains constant up to pH 12. These shifts occur as a result of secondary phosphate dissociation. While the first well defined wave of NMN+ is observed at $E_{1/2} = -0.90\,\mathrm{V}$ vs SCE, the second wave which appears at $E_{1/2} = -1.60\,\mathrm{V}$ vs SCE is not visible in solutions of pH 5 owing to the background electrolysis setting in earlier. Both the waves are well defined in solutions of pH 9.6. A.c. polarographic measurements conclusively establish the first wave as being due to a reversible le process. The reversibility of the electron transfer reaction has been confirmed by fast-sweep cyclic voltammetric studies. Table 6 provides the data for NMN+ at pH 5-9. The first 1e reduction produces a neutral radical which dimerizes rapidly with a rate constant of $1.5 \times 10^6\,\mathrm{l}\,\mathrm{mol}^{-1}\,\mathrm{s}^{-1}$. The dimer has been identified by spectral and

TABLE 6. Dimerization rate	s of	the	free	radicals	derived	from
NMN ⁺ , DPN ⁺ and TPN ^{+a}						

Parent compound	Solvent	рН	$(\operatorname{lmol}^{-1} s^{-1})$	Temperature (° C)
NMN ⁺	H ₂ O	5-9	1.5×10^{6}	30
DPN+	H ₂ O	5 7 8 9	2.2×10^{6} 8.49×10^{6} $> 10^{b}$ 2.4×10^{6}	30
	DMSO		9.0×10^{5}	40
TPN+	H ₂ O	5 7	4.3×10^{6} $5.45 \times 10^{10^{-6}}$	30
		9	1.6×10^{6}	30
	DMSO		5×10^{6}	40

^aTaken from ref. 58. Measurements using peak current ratio. ^bCyclic voltammetric peak potential method.

NMR studies as a mixture of isomers of 4,4'-, 4,2'- and 6,6'-dimers⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷. The activation energy for the dimerization process has been estimated at 3.6 kcal mol⁻¹. The oxidation of the dimer at -0.28 V produces the monomer^{45,46}.

The second electron reduction process produces 1,6-dihydro-NMN (NMNH) as the major product; the other product is 1,4-dihydro-NMN (NMNH). The characteristic features of the absorption spectra are NMN⁺ in unreduced form having a peak at 265 nm; in the reduced form 1,2-species, i.e. 1,2-NMNH, has a maximum at 400 nm. 1,4-NMNH has maximum at 340 nm and 1,6-NMNH shows maxima at 270 and 350 nm. The features for the dimers of NMN are that the 4,4'-dimer absorbs at 340 nm and the 6,6'-dimer at 260 and 345 nm.

The electrochemical redox pattern in DMSO for NMN⁺ provides strong support for the mechanism postulated in aqueous media. It is reduced at $E_{1/2} = -0.99$ V with a wave slope of 45 mV. By detailed analysis of the polarographic, cyclic voltammetric and a.c. polarographic data, the reduction is attributed to the nicotinamide moiety⁴⁸. NMN is strongly adsorbed on mercury and exhibits a pre-wave at -0.38 V. The diffusion-controlled process occurs at -0.99 V and a wave slope of 45 mV is indicative of a dimerization process accompanying the 1e reduction.

The controlled potential electrolysis of NMN⁺ in both aqueous and non-aqueous media supports the 1e reduction process producing the dimer at the first polarographic wave. The electrolysis at the second polarographic wave results in the consumption of 2e per mole of NMN⁺. The dihydro product has been identified by several physical techniques^{45,48}. The reaction mechanism postulated for NMN⁺ is as shown in equation 19.

1. Oxidation of NMNH

The electrochemical oxidation of NMNH in DMSO proceeds at $E_{\rm p}=0.84\,{\rm V}$ vs SCE and based on the data obtained through cyclic voltammetry and chronoamperometry the process responsible for this wave is estimated to be 2e. The 2e oxidation produces NMN⁺ and has been identified by the characteristic cathodic peak at $-0.97\,{\rm V}$ vs SCE. Interestingly, the exhaustive electrolysis of NMNH does not produce NMN⁺ due to the following reaction scheme $^{49-52}$:

$$NMNH \longrightarrow NMN^{+} + H^{+} + 2e \tag{20}$$

$$NMNH + H^{+} \longrightarrow H(NMNH)^{+}$$
 (21)

$$H(NMNH)^+ \longrightarrow decomposition products absorbing at 280-290 nm$$
 (22)

The source of the proton in large-scale electrolysis is attributed to the first step (i.e. reaction 20) or impurities of H_2O in the solvent. The absorption arising at 280 nm is due to the chromophore I^{49} . The pseudo-first-order rate constant for this decomposition is $8.2 \times 10^{-4} \, \text{s}^{-1}$ at pH 7.1. The decomposition reaction is given in equation 23.

The rcdox patterns of NMN⁺ and NMNH discussed in this section are very similar to that of 1-methylnicotinamide; the $E_{1/2}$ of 1-methylnicotinamide is -1.03 V and that of NMN⁺ is -0.99 V vs SCE. The charge-transfer schemes are identical with these molecules, as the nicotinamide ring is reduced during electrochemical reduction.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & O \\
 & | \\
 & C \\
 & NH_2 \\
 & H_2O \\
 & R
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & O \\
 & | \\
 & C \\
 & NH_2 \\
 & H_2O \\
 & R
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & H^+ \\
 & H_2O
\end{array}$$

F. Diphosphopyridine Nucleotide (DPN+)—Redox Scheme

The electrochemical reduction of DPN⁺ at low pH (<2) is hampered by catalytic evolution of hydrogen^{53,54}. If the medium provides a large potential window, such as $-2.0\,\mathrm{V}$ vs SCE, then DPN⁺ undergoes two successive 1e reductions. Under other conditions, it undergoes only one 1e reduction. For example, at pH 4–5, a 1e reduction is generally observed at a mercury electrode, whereas between pH 8 and 10 two successive

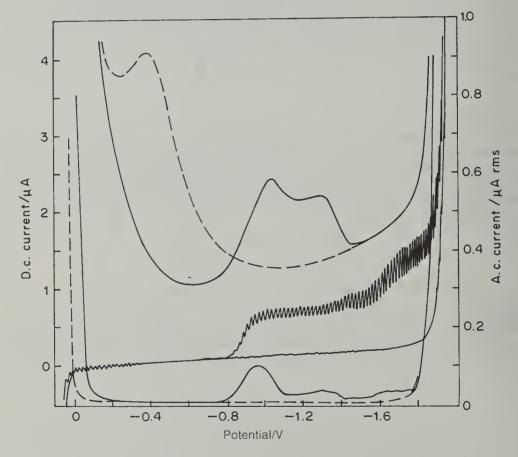


FIGURE 8. D.c. and a.c. polarograms of DPN⁺ (0.31 mm) in pH 9.3 KCl-carbonate buffer. D.c. polarograms shown with and without the electroactive species (oscillatory curve and the one below it, respectively). A.c. polarograms: solid lines represent in-phase (lower set) and quadrature (upper set) components of total a.c. current. Dashed lines represent corresponding background current. Reprinted with permission from ref. 53. Copyright (1975) American Chemical Society.

1e reductions are observed. Above pH 10, DPN⁺ undergoes hydrolysis to produce nicotinamide and a wave due to the reduction of this species is observed by both polarography and cyclic voltammetry. The decomposition rate is a function of pH; at pH 9.6 it is 1.9% decomposed and at pH 11.8 it is 88% decomposed during the same period of time⁵³. As a result of these investigations, an electrochemical redox pattern is evolved at pH 9.6 where it is less decomposed.

The characteristic d.c. and a.c. polarograms of DPN⁺ are shown in Figure 8. Note that the d.c. polarogram, which exhibits a maximum, is of the first kind. This can be suppressed by 0.0008% Triton or $5\,\mathrm{mm}$ Et₄NCl. The a.c. polarogram shows a faradaic peak (in phase component) at $-0.97\,\mathrm{V}$ (wave I process, quadrature component at $-1.04\,\mathrm{V}$) and a barely discernible peak at $-1.65\,\mathrm{V}$; this is due to the wave II process capturing 2e by DPN⁺ at the electrode. The adsorption–desorption phenomena are well depicted in Figure 8. A significant depression of the differential double layer capacity is observed at $-0.65\,\mathrm{V}$ due to the above process.

The first 1e reduction of DPN⁺ produces a neutral radical which dimerizes to produce an a.c. polarogram as shown in Figure 9; the dimer surface activity shifts the tensammetric peak ($E_s = -1.27$ V) in the negative direction. The formation of a DPN free radical, its dimerization rate and the redox characteristics of the dimer have been investigated in detail^{48.53.54}. As it is coenzyme I in several biological reactions, the redox characteristics have been examined in the pH range 0–12. The lack of a potential window up to pH 2 restricts the study of DPN⁺ above pH 2. From pH 2.0 to 9.3, it undergoes a well defined 1e reduction. Above this pH, DPN⁺ undergoes two successive cyclic voltammetric 1e reductions at $E_p^I = -0.90$ V and $E_p^{II} = -1.16$ V. None of the peaks shows complementary

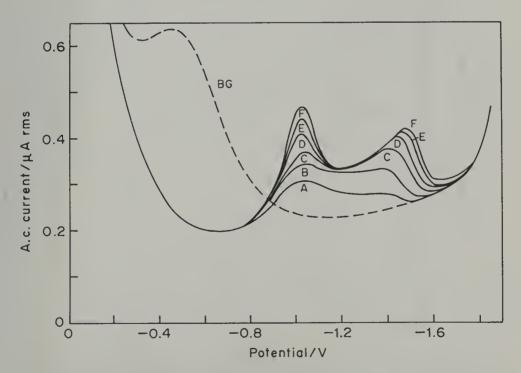


FIGURE 9. Effect of DPN⁺ concentration on the adsorption-desorption behaviour of the DPN dimeric reduction product. Quadrature components of a.c. polarograms for solutions of 1.50 m in KCl and 0.25 m in carbonate buffer (pH 9.9). DPN concentration: (A) 0.04; (B) 0.12; (C) 0.34; (D) 0.88; (E) 1.26; (F) 1.76 mm.

anodic peaks at sweep rates of $< 10 \, \mathrm{V \, s^{-1}}$. This sweep rate dependence on the appearance of anodic peak ($> 10 \, \mathrm{V \, s^{-1}}$) has been used to obtain the dimerization rate constant for DPN⁺ and the activation energy for this process. Table 6 summarizes the data for the dimerization reaction.

Controlled potential coulometry of DPN⁺ at $-1.20\,\mathrm{V}$ consumes 1e per mole, producing a dimer with $E_{1/2} = -0.25\,\mathrm{V}$ (the process is due to oxidation of the dimer to DPN⁺). The effect of pH on the stability of the DPN dimer is shown in Figure 10. The nature of the dimer has been identified^{46,55-57} by absorption spectroscopy to be a mixture of dimers linked in the 4,4'-and 6,6'-positions. As it was not possible to isolate the products⁵⁸, subsequent studies⁵⁷ using reversed-phase HPLC and gel filtration on Sephadex G-15 and NMR spectra identified the dimer as the 4,4'-isomer. Small amounts(<10%) of other isomers were also isolated. Electrolysis at $-1.60\,\mathrm{V}$ produced a mixture of 1,4- and 1,6-dihydro isomers of DPN⁺. The 1,4-dihydro isomer is 54% enzymatically active^{57,58}; the 4,5-C=C bond of the 1,6-isomer has enamic nucleophilicity and exhibits a UV absorption maximum at 340 nm; conjugation with the 3,4-double bond of the pyridinium ring is removed by protonation.

The electrochemical behaviour of diphosphopyridine nucleotide in non-aqueous media was first studied by Santhanam and Elving⁴⁸. This study established the need to have

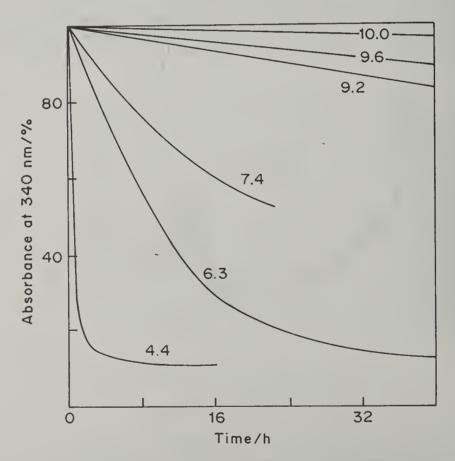


FIGURE 10. Effect of pH on stability of the DPN dimer. Buffer solutions and dimer concentrations above pH 9, carbonate buffer and 2.16×10^{-5} M; below pH 9, McIlvaine buffer and 1.89×10^{-5} M; all solutions stored under air at room temperature.

a proton environment for the reduction scheme. The reduction of DPN⁺ in DMSO occurs at $E_{1/2} = -0.98 \, \text{V}$, with the polarographic wave having a slope of 46 mV. The diffusion coefficient of DPN⁺ in DMSO is evaluated as $0.28 \times 10^{-5} \, \text{cm}^2 \, \text{s}^{-1}$, which is considerably lower than in aqueous media. The cyclic voltammetric pattern is well defined with a peak at $E_{pc} = -1.03 \, \text{V} \, \text{vs} \, \text{SCE}$ which is irreversible at slow sweep rates of $< 6.0 \, \text{V} \, \text{s}^{-1}$, consuming 1e; the neutral radical of DPN dimerizes with a rate constant of $9 \times 10^5 \, \text{l} \, \text{mol}^{-1} \, \text{s}^{-1}$. Based on quantum mechanical calculations, the site of dimerization is predicted to be either the 4,4'- or the 6,6'-position. A clear demonstration of the stability of the dimer in DMSO compared with aqueous media shows the proton involvement in its decomposition reaction. As the instability is due to the pyridine-derived species having a chromophore of the type 2:

$$-NH-C=C-C=O$$

the ring structure is removed by the proton addition. The low proton activity of DMSO explains the greater stability of the dimer. Based on the results obtained in aqueous^{42,57–59} and non-aqueous media^{48,60,61}, the redox scheme shown in equation 24 has been proposed for DPN⁺.

1. Oxidation of DPNH

The electrochemical oxidation of DPNH at solid electrodes such as a glassy carbon or platinum exhibits a cyclic voltammetric oxidation peak at $E_{\rm pa}=0.67\,{\rm V}$ and a complementary cathodic peak at $E_{\rm pc}=-1.13\,{\rm V}$ in aqueous media^{49,50}. The cyclic voltammetric features are ratio of the peak currents = 0.25, $(E_{\rm pa}-E_{\rm pa/2})=80\,{\rm mV}$ and

 $(E_{\rm pa}-E_{1/2})=7\,\mathrm{mV}$ at pH 7.1. The value of $\alpha n_{\rm a}$ (where α is the transfer coefficient and $n_{\rm a}$ is the number of electrons involved in the rate-determining steps) is 0.46. The above features in solvents such as DMSO are $E_{\rm pa}=0.89\,\mathrm{V}$, $E_{\rm pc}=-0.95\,\mathrm{V}$, $i_{\rm pc}/i_{\rm pa}=0.26$ and n=2. The effect of added bases such as pyridine or tri-n-butylamine is to increase the peak current in acetonitrile⁵⁰, but no effect is observed in DMSO. This is probably caused by oxidation of the base taking place at the potential of DPNH. The presence of dissolved oxygen in the medium did not affect the anodic peak but it significantly shifted the cathodic process⁴⁹ as oxygen is reduced in this region. The chronoamperometric data of DPNH in the absence of a base gives an estimate of n=2.

Controlled potential coulometric oxidation of DPNH yields a non-integral electron-transfer process $(n=1.5)^{49}$. This lower value has been ascribed to protonation of DPNH by the protons generated during electrochemical oxidation; this process is similar to acid-catalysed decomposition of DPNH. The process rate constant is measured as $8.5 \times 10^{-4} \, \mathrm{s}^{-1}$. The decomposition product absorbs at $280-290 \, \mathrm{nm}$ with no peak characteristic of DPNH being present. As this reaction is slow, Jaegfeldt *et al.*⁶² coupled a coulometric oxidation of DPNH to a continuous flow reactor system where the 2e product of DPNH is enzymatically reduced. By this method, the coulometric value of n=2 was obtained. However, to achieve this n value, a special electrode treatment is necessary⁴⁷. At the glassy carbon electrode very little adsorption of the final product, DPN, has been observed^{48,63,64}; very significant adsorption and passivation of the electrode process have been observed on a clean platinum electrode⁶⁵.

The electrochemical oxidation of DPNH has also been carried out at chemically modified electrodes^{66,67}. The catechols 4-[2-(2-naphthyl) vinyl catechol](NSCH₂) and 4-[2(9,10-ethano-anthracene-9-yl)vinyl catechol (ASCH₂) are adsorbed on a graphite electrode. The catechol moiety was tailored to move in and out of the solution, whereas the naphthalene and ethane-anthracene ring systems were attached to the electrode. The catalytic oxidation of DPNH decreased from 410 to 185 mV vs SCE at the NSCH₂-covered electrode in aqueous medium of pH 7.0⁶⁷. The catalytic oxidation of the NSCH₂ and ASCH₂ electrodes between DPNH and the mediating group is much faster for the NSCH₂ electrode. A similar catalytic process has been observed with a 4-[2-(1-pyrenyl) vinyl catechol](PSCH₂) modified electrode. The reaction scheme is shown in equations 25-27.

$$PSCH_2 \longrightarrow PSC + 2H^+ + 2e \tag{25}$$

$$PSC + DPNH + H^{+} \xrightarrow{k_{1}} PSCH_{2} + DPN^{+}$$
 (26)

Overall reaction:

$$DPNH \longrightarrow DPN^{+} + H^{+} + 2e$$
 (27)

 k_1 is estimated to be $1 \times 10^4 \, \mathrm{l} \, \mathrm{mol}^{-1} \, \mathrm{s}^{-1} \, \mathrm{68-70}$. The reaction pathway of DPNH was unravelled in several investigations⁷¹⁻⁷³. Of these the catalytic oxidation of DPNH through electrogenerated diimines is an interesting model system⁷².

An interesting experiment on phosphorylation coupled to DPNH oxidation was performed by combining two galvanic DPNH oxidation cells with a galvanic–electrolytic phosphorylation cell⁷⁴. This scheme is depicted in Figure 11. The four galvanic cells of DPNH oxidation are

$$DPNH \longrightarrow DPN^{+} + H^{+} + 2e \tag{28}$$

$$2H^{+} + \frac{1}{2}O_2 + 2e \longrightarrow H_2O$$
 (29)

and the overall reaction is

$$DPNH + H^{+} + \frac{1}{2}O_{2} \longrightarrow DPN^{+} + H_{2}O$$
 (30)

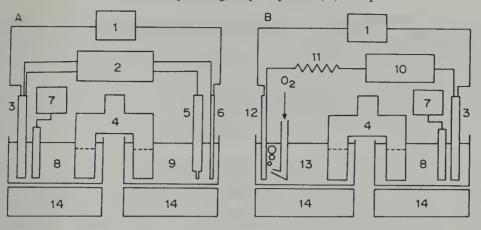


FIGURE 11. Phosphorylation set-up: Electrolytic cell (A) and galvanic cell (B). 1, Voltmeter; 2, potentiostat and coulometer; 3, anode of titanium nitroxicarbide base ceramic; 4, salt bridge; 55, saturated calomel electrode; 6, cathode (iron wire); 7, pH meter; 8, KCl aqueous solution (40 ml) containing 1–3 mm ADP and 2–6 mm acetyl phosphate for ADP phosphorylation +1.1 mm DPNH for DPNH oxidation; 9, 0.1 m HCl (40 ml); 10, coulometer; 11, resistance (1.0 Ω); 12, cathode (platinum plate); 13, 2.8 m HCl (40 ml); 14, magnetic stirrer. Copyright (1989) Electrochemical Society.

The electrolytic cell for DPNH oxidation occurs as

$$DPNH \longrightarrow DPN^{+} + H^{+} + 2e \tag{31}$$

The overall reaction is represented by

$$DPNH + H^{+} + \frac{1}{2}O_{2} \longrightarrow DPN^{+} + H_{2}O$$
 (32)

The galvanic cell for phosphorylation follows the reaction

$$ADP + H_3PO_4 \longrightarrow ATP + H_2O + 2e + 2H^+$$
 (33)

$$2H^{+} + \frac{1}{2}O_{2} + 2e \longrightarrow H_{2}O$$
 (34)

and the overall reaction is represented by

$$ADP + H_3PO_4 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \longrightarrow ATP + 2H_2O$$
 (35)

The electrolytic phosphorylation cell is depicted as

$$ADP + H3PO4 \longrightarrow ATP + H2O + 2e + 2H+$$
 (36)

A comparison of the electrochemical with a non-electrochemical method, such as DPNH oxidation by a titanium-nitroxide based ceramic board, shows that the velocity of phosphorylation in the former method is faster⁷⁴. The mechanism of oxidation of DPNH to DPN⁺ and the reverse reduction reaction involving a one-step hydride transfer or a stepwise electron-proton-electron transfer has been investigated^{75,76} by using DPN analogues.

G. Other Diphosphonucleotides

Triphosphopyridine nucleotide (TPN⁺, coenzyme II) shows characteristic features with $E_{1/2} = -0.95 \,\text{V}$ having a wave slope of 60 mV⁵³. It is strongly adsorbed at the electrode/solution interface; this feature is observed with DDPN⁺ (deamino

diphosphopyridine nucleotide). An adsorption well or depression prior to the appearance of the first polarographic wave I is striking with DDPN⁺ ⁵³. The general features of all these compounds are very similar with 1 e reductions to form neutral radicals followed by their dimerization. The dimerization rate for TPN is $4.3 \times 10^6 1 \, \text{mol}^{-1} \, \text{s}^{-1}$ (pH 5.0) and $1.6 \times 10^6 1 \, \text{mol}^{-1} \, \text{s}^{-1}$ (pH 9.0) and for DDPN⁺ $1.7 \times 10^6 1 \, \text{mol}^{-1} \, \text{s}^{-1}$ ⁵³. The activation energy for the dimerization process is estimated to be 9.0 kcal mol⁻¹ for TPN. The electrochemical behaviour of DDPN⁺ and TPN⁺ in a non-aqueous solvent indicates $E_{1/2} = -1.00 \, \text{V}$ and $-1.06 \, \text{V}$ vs SCE with diffusion coefficient values of 0.08×10^{-5} and $0.14 \times 10^{-5} \, \text{cm}^2 \, \text{s}^{-148}$.

The synthesis of the DPN⁺ analogue having ε -adenine (etheno bridge between exocylic amine group and the N(6) atom of adenosine) instead of adenine and its electrochemical properties have been reported⁷⁷. It gives rise to two polarographic waves in the pH range 2–12, but the mechanisms involved in acidic and alkaline media are different. The acidic medium produces the first 1e reduction of the nicotinamide ring, which is subsequently followed by reduction of the E-adenine moiety of the β -DPN⁺ molecule. This one-step successive 1e reduction is changed to two one-electron reduction steps in alkaline media as observed with DPN⁺.

One of the important questions that is addressed in DPN⁺ redox chemistry concerns the mechanism by which it is converted into the reduced form, DPNH⁷⁸. There are two ways by which a chemical reductant can bring out this process. One is to transfer an electron, then a proton and finally another electron^{58,79}, and the other is to transfer a hydride directly⁷⁸. The discussion in the literature is oriented towards high-energy intermediates. A recent study⁷⁸ of measurements of 35 rate constants for hydride transfer in DPN⁺ analogues, and application of Marcus theory by utilizing structure-sensitive solvent reorganisation parameter, λ , overwhelmingly supports the second way. The electrochemical reduction of DPN⁺ follows a different route, however, as discussed earlier.

Pyridoxal-5'-phosphate and n-hexylamine form a Schiff's base, which has been investigated in detail in the pH range 2–13. Two waves were observed in d.c. polarography; the first is due to the reduction of the —CH=N—bond and the second to the reduction of pyridoxal-5'-phosphate⁸⁰. Pyridoxal-5'-phosphate has been investigated polarographically⁸¹. The hydration and dehydration of pyridoxal-5'-phosphate over a wide pH range has been determined experimentally; the reaction is centred on the carbonyl group⁸¹. The polarographic and voltammetric data indicate that the currents are kinetically controlled.

Cytidine monophosphate exhibits a reduction at $E_{1/2} = -1.45 \,\mathrm{V}$ in acetate buffer

(pH 4.1)⁸² and the reaction mechanism is kinetically controlled.

H. Flavin-5'-phosphoric acid

Flavin mononucleotide (riboflavin-5'-phosphoric acid) (FMN) and flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) are strongly adsorbed on electrodes, especially mercury electrodes⁸³. The molecular orientation in the adsorbed state has been probed; FAD occupies a

geometrical area of 280 Å² corresponding to the molecular model.

The electrochemistry of FMN is very similar to that of riboflavin in both aqueous 84,85 and non-aqueous media 86 ; it exhibits a prewave. Riboflavin also has similar prewave. It undergoes 1e reduction to form the riboflavin anion with $E_{\rm pc}=-0.78\,\rm V$ vs SCE followed by its decomposition to give two products with one of the products undergoing reduction at $-1.07\,\rm V$. In aqueous media FMN reduction to an FMNH:FMNH₂ complex which is not further reduced is suggested 83 . The reversible reduction of FAD and FMN has been conclusively shown by impulse polarization; the maximum height is proportional to the concentration of prosthetic group 87 .

TABLE 7. Product yields from β -dicarbonyl enol phosphate electrolysis^a

Compound	Product	Yield (%)
OPO(0Et) ₂	CO ₂ E†	58
OPO(OEt) ₂	COMe	55
OPO(OEt) ₂	CO ₂ Et	38
CO ₂ Et	Innih CH2CO2Et	63
CO ₂ Et	Inn, Me	53
OPO(OEt) ₂ CO ₂ Et OPO(OEt) ₂	R ₁ R ₂ R ₂ IIIIII H	$51R_1 = H,$ $R_2 = Me$ $10R_1 = Me,$ $R_2 = H$
CO ₂ Et	R ₁ R ₂ R ₂ IIIIII H	$41R_{1} = H,$ $R_{2} = Me$ $18R_{1} = Me,$ $R_{2} = H$
OPO(OEt) ₂	R ₁ mm	$26R_1 = CO_2Et$ $R_2 = H$ $22R_1 = H,$ $R_2 = CO_2Et$

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The electrochemluminescence of the FMN anion and the 9,10-diphenylanthracene (DPA) cation has been investigated⁸⁸. The reaction mechanism for the production of the excited state has been proposed as in equations 37 and 38. This conclusion is supported by the effect of a magnetic field on the electroluminescence intensity. This reaction is an example of an intermolecular electron transfer between FMN⁻ and an acceptor to produce the triplet state.

$$FM\dot{N}^{-} + DP\dot{A}^{+} \longrightarrow {}^{1}FMN + {}^{3}DPA$$
 (37)

$$^{3}DPA + ^{3}DPA \longrightarrow ^{1}DPA^{*} + ^{1}DPA$$
 (38)

The electrolysis of β -dicarbonyl enol phosphates in DMF produces α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds via the attack of vinyl radical produced during the electrolysis^{88a}. Table 7 gives the yields obtained with various β -dicarbonyl enol phosphates. The results are indication of a double intramolecular cyclization of initially formed vinyl radicals.

IV. PHOSPHAAZENES

A. Phospha- λ^5 -azenes: $p\pi$ -d π double bonded systems

Phospha- λ^5 -azene systems of type 3, where R = p-NO₂, p-CN, m-NO₂, p-CF₃, p-Cl, p-F, H, p-Me, p-OMe and p-NMe₂ are unique in that they have the resonance forms

$$(C_{6}H_{5})_{3}P = N$$

$$(3)$$

$$R_{3}P^{+} - \bar{N} - R' \leftrightarrow R_{3}P = N - R' \leftrightarrow R_{3}P^{+} - N = R'$$

$$(39)$$

TABLE 8. Polarographic and cyclic voltammetric characteristics of phosphonitriles^a

Compound	Structure	E _{1/2} (V)	Lifetime of radical (s) ^c
I. Hexaphenyl cyclotriphosphazene	[NPPh ₂] ₃	-2.65	<1
II. Octaphenyl cyclotetraphosphazene	[NPPh ₂] ₄	-2.67	<1
III. Tris(2,3-dioxy- naphthyl)cyclo- triphosphazene	$[NP(2,3-O_2C_{10}H_6)]_3$	-1.24	> 10
IV. Tris(1,8-dioxy- naphthyl)cyclo- triphosphazene	$[NP(1,8-O_2C_{10}H_6)]_3$	-1.83	>10
V. Tris(2,2'-dioxy- biphenyl)cyclotri- phosphazene	$[NP(2,2'-O_2C_{12}H_8)]_3$	-2.33	_
VI. Tris(1,3,5-triphenyl)- tris(1,3,5-trifluoroethoxy)- cyclotriphosphazne	[NPPh(OCH ₂ CF ₃)] ₃	-2.45	<1

^aPotentials are referred to SCE. Reprinted with permission from ref. 100. Copyright (1969) American Chemical Society.

^bFrom polarographic data.

^{&#}x27;Cyclic voltammetric method.

TABLE 9. Cyclic voltammetric data for reduction of azenes^a

Compound	Scan rate (V S ⁻¹)	$\frac{E_{pc}}{(V)}$	$\frac{E_{p}}{(V)}$	$i_{ m pa}/i_{ m pc}$	$D \times 10^{-5}$ (cm ² s ⁻¹)
$Ph_3P = NC_6H_4NO_2-p$	0.02	-1.728	-1.660	0.95	1.34
	0.05	-1.730	-1.658	0.96	
	0.10	-1.732	-1.655	0.97	
	0.20	-1.734	-1.652	0.99	
$Ph_3P = NC_6H_4NO_2-m$	0.02	-1.601	-1.535	0.99	1.50
	0.05	-1.603	-1.532	0.99	
	0.10	-1.606	-1.529	0.98	
	0.20	-1.610	-1.528	0.97	

[&]quot;Medium, acetonitrile; carbon working electrode. Potentials are referred to Ag/AgNO₃. Reprinted with permission from ref. 103. Copyright (1986) American Chemical Society.

which involve $p\pi-d\pi$ double bonds. The resonance forms and the electronic structures of the above systems have been probed^{89,90} by electrochemistry and spectroscopy to gain an insight into the phosphorus–nitrogen coupling^{91–99}. Phosphazines of the type $[NP(OPh)_2]_3$, $[NP(OPh)_2]_3$, $[NP(NHPh)_2]_3$, $[NP(OCH_2CF_3)_2]_3$ and $[NP(O_2C_6H_4)]_3$, where $n=15\,000$, have been investigated by electrochemical and ESR methods¹⁰⁰ to obtain structural parameters. The cyclic voltammetric characteristics are given in Table 8.

Controlled potential electrolysis of the compounds listed in Table 8 have generated ESR spectra indicating that the reduction is a simple 1e process. The ESR spectra of radical anions of I and II produced an unresolved spectrum with g=2, with a total spectral line width of $20-30\,\text{G}$. The ESR spectra of III, IV and V showed 13-15, 5 and 15-20 lines, respectively. The delocalization of the unpaired electron in Ph₂P is indicated in the above radicals.

N-Phenyltriphenylphospha- λ^5 -azene has been examined polarographically in DMF¹⁰¹ and acetonitrile¹⁰². The anion radical formed by 1e reduction is accompanied by protonation and further reduction. In-depth studies by Pomerantz *et al.*¹⁰³ led to the characterization of electrochemical process. Tables 9–11 summarize the cyclic voltammetric characteristics for the above compounds and m-NO₂-substituted azene. The mechanism for the reversible cyclic voltammetric peak is represented by equation 40. The anion radical undergoes hydrogen abstraction and a further electron transfer resulting in the formation of aniline derivatives. The characteristic diffusion coefficients of azenes are given in Table 9.

$$Ph_{3}P = N \longrightarrow NO_{2} + e \longrightarrow Ph_{3}P = N \longrightarrow NO_{2}$$

$$(40)$$

1. Oxidative patterns

The azenes exhibit irreversible peaks in cyclic voltammetric experiments, the location of the peak potential being dependent on the nature of the substituent R^{103} . Table 10 gives the characteristic peak potentials for a large number of azenes. With p-OMe and p-NMe₂ as substituents, the anodic peaks are partially reversible at a slow rate of $0.10 \, \mathrm{V \, s^{-1}}$ and tend towards complete reversibility at $10 \, \mathrm{V \, s^{-1}}$. The cyclic voltammetric patterns suggest an initial electron transfer followed by a chemical reaction. The stability of the one-electron oxidation product can be correlated with the lowering of the charge density on the substituted aryl ring by the substituent.

TABLE 10. Oxidative peak potentials of azenes^a

R^b	$E_{pa}(V)$	R^b	$E_{pa}(V)$
p-NO ₂	0.844	p-F	0.480
p-CN	0.741	H	0.465
m-NO ₂	0.752	p-CH ₃	0.371
p-CF ₃	0.740	p-OCH ₃	0.210
p-Cl ₃	0.512	p-N(CH ₃) ₂	-0.195

^aPotentials are with respect to Ag/AgNO₃. Medium, acetonitrile; working electrode platinum. Reprinted with permission from ref. 103. Copyright (1986) American Chemical Society.

^bBasic structure

The effect of the substituent on the primary oxidation wave for phospha- λ^5 -azenes has also been successfully correlated with the ionization potential (energy of the highest occupied molecular orbital, E_{HOMO}). The observed trend is an indication of the site of electron abstraction in the azenes as the lone pair on nitrogen which is delocalized into the aromatic ring¹⁰³; the plot of $E_{1/2}$ of anilines with the same substituents and E_{pa} of phospha- λ^5 -azenes yields a straight line.

The electronic properties of phosphazenes are of importance in understanding the electron-withdrawing power^{91,93,100–105} of these molecules. The redox potentials of phosphazenes bonded to ferrocene have been measured; the *trans* annular linked

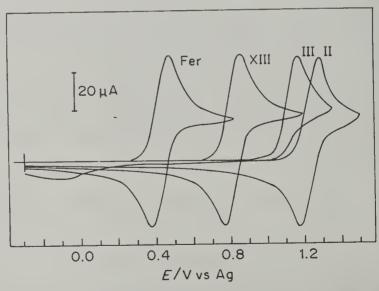


FIGURE 12. Cyclic voltammetry of 1 mm solutions of ferrocene (Fer) and XIII = $[N_3P_3F_5(\eta-C_5H_4)Fe(\eta-C_5H_5)]$, III = $[N_3P_3F_4(\eta-C_5H_4)_2Fe]$ and II = $[1,5-N_4P_4F_6(\eta-C_5H_4)_2Fe]$ in acetonitrile containing 0.1 m tetraethylammonium perchlorate. Sweep rate, 0.10 V s⁻¹. Reprinted with permission from ref. 106. Copyright (1988) American Chemical Society.

ferrocenyl phosphazenes have potentials shifted twice as much as those of the pendent analogues. The structures of a few ferrocene-substituted phosphazenes (4–7) are shown.

The oxidation potentials are dependent on the non-geminal site substituent. The cyclic voltammetric reversibility of phosphazenes is well defined in Figure 12.

The eletronic properties and redox conduction of ferrocene-substituted high polymeric phosphazenes 107 are markedly different from the solution behaviour of the monomers. Surface-immobilized films of $[N_3P_3F_4(\eta-C_5H_4)_2Fe)]_n$ in CH_2Cl_2 exhibit a large difference in their oxidation and reduction peak potentials ($\Delta E_p = 0.26 \, \text{V}$). For $[N_3P_3(OCH_2CF_3)_5-(\eta-C_5H_4)Fe(\eta-C_5H_5)_n]_n$ the separation is negligible, showing a symmetric pattern. A similar pattern was noticed for $[N_3P_3(OCH_2CF_3)_4(\eta-C_5H_4)_2Fe]_n$. The mechanism of charge transport in these polymeric films has been probed and the charge transport rates are given in Table 12. The structure of polyphosphazene (shown in Figure 13) together with the data in Table 12 suggests that the charge transport rate depends on the mobility of the ferrocene. The greater rate of charge transport observed with the rigid bridged ferrocene polymer $[N_3P_3(OCH_2CF_3)_4(\eta-C_5H_4Fe)_2]_n$ suggests a metal-like conduction occurring in the partially oxidized form 107 .

TABLE 11. Cyclic voltammetric oxidation peak potentials of phosphazenes^a

		Lpa(V)
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	re] 2-Fe] 2-Fe] 7-C ₅ H ₅)]	1.25 1.21 1.18 1.18 1.14 1.13 1.12 1.06 0.98 0.94 0.85 0.75

^aPt working electrode. Medium: acetonitrile.

^bPotentials referred to Ag/AgNO₃. Taken from ref. 103.

^cPotentials referred to Ag. Reprinted with permission from ref. 107. Copyright (1988) American Chemical Society.

TABLE 12. Charge transport rates of ferrocene-substituted polyphosphazenes^a

Polymer	$(D_{\text{ct}}^{1/2}C)_{\text{anod.}}$ $(10^{-8} \text{ mol cm}^{-2})$	$(D_{\rm cl}^{1/2}C)_{\rm cath.}$ $(10^{-8}{\rm molcm^{-2}})$
	$\begin{array}{c} 1.41 \pm 0.15 \\ 1.96 \pm 0.18 \\ 3.20 \pm 0.20 \end{array}$	1.52 ± 0.24 1.81 ± 0.44 6.19 ± 1.65

^aMeasurements were made on potential step transients. Reprinted with permission from ref. 107, Copyright (1988) American Chemical Society.

FIGURE 13. Structure of polyphosphazene. The numbers represent the number of anchored units.

V. PHOSPHORUS-BRIDGED METALLICS

A. Rhodium Phosphido-bridged Complexes

The electronic effects in phosphido-bridged complexes of transition metals have evoked a number of studies 108-113. The electrochemistry of the Rh—Rh double bond and the isomerization of the rhodium(I) system on electrochemical reduction and reoxidation have been of interest in determining the electronic effects. A series of metal carbonyl complexes (phosphido-bridged complexes) were investigated by Winner et al. 114 and Dessy and coworkers 115-117. The carbonyl complexes of rhodium provide a case for reversible geometrical isomerization 118. Figure 14 depicts such an isomerization for a di-tert-butyl phosphido-bridged complex on reduction. This scheme is a typical case of electron transfer followed by chemical reaction followed by further chemical reaction (ECE), where the chemical reaction is a geometrical isomerization producing an isomer which is more easily reduced than the parent compound. The rate constant for this isomerization is estimated to be about 600 s⁻¹ 118. Interestingly, the reoxidation at an electrode produces the parent species through the steps shown in Figure 15; the original geometry of the metal is restored. The cyclic voltammetric features interestingly provide a model for understanding this isomerization (see Figure 16) a typical cathodic peak followed by two anodic peaks representing an ECE process. The X-ray crystallographic structure of the dianion shows an imposed inversion centre at the middle of the Rh-Rh vector. The structure of $[Rh(\mu-t-Bu_2P)(CO)_2]_2$ shown in Figure 17 indicates the possibility of three isomers with metal bonds of order 0,1 and 2 extremely close in energy¹¹⁹; the square-planar-tetrahedral and square-planar-square-planar isomers are the only ones actually observed.

The electrochemical reduction of rhodium phosphido-bridged complexes places the added electron on a π^* -antibonding orbital of the metal-metal doubly bonded isomer. Further reduction of this system requires 2e to be accommodated, which forces the tetrahedral-tetrahedral configuration.

The cyclic voltammetric pattern of [Rh(PPh₃)₃]₃(DME)(ClO₄) correlates well with the rhodium phosphido-bridged complexes¹¹⁹⁻¹²²; it is reduced in two 1e reversible

FIGURE 14. Reaction mechanism. Geometrical isomerization following the reduction of rhodium phosphido-bridged complexes. Representation of ECE mechanism is indicated. The abbreviations for each species describe the approximate geometry of the metals (T = tetrahedral, P = planar) and the charge on the complex (N = neutral, A = anion, D = dianion). Reprinted with permission from ref. 118. Copyright (1985) American Chemical Society.

steps (equations 41-44). The first reduction has $E^{\circ} = -1.20 \,\mathrm{V}$ and the second $E_2^{\circ} = -1.73 \,\mathrm{V}^{119}$. The above reaction scheme is sensitive to the excess PPh₃ concentration. The kinetic parameter for reaction⁴² has been evaluated from the dependence of the scan rate on the half-wave potential; it is given in Table 13.

$$[Rh(PPh_3)]_3^+ \stackrel{e}{\rightleftharpoons} Rh(PPh)_3 \tag{41}$$

$$Rh(PPh_3)_3 + PPh_3 \xrightarrow[k_b]{k_f} Rh(PPh_3)_4$$
(42)

$$Rh(PPh_3)_4 \stackrel{e}{\rightleftharpoons} [Rh(PPh_3)_4]^- \tag{43}$$

$$2Rh(PPh_3)_4 \longrightarrow [Rh(PPh_3)_4]_2 \tag{44}$$

The effect of PPh₃ concentration on the kinetic parameter is also revealed by the data in Table 13. The ESR spectrum of $[Rh(PPh_3)_4]$ obtained by controlled potential 1e reduction of $[Rh(PPh_3)_3]^+$ shows anisotropy (Figure 18) with $g_1 = 2.22$, $g_2 = 2.10$ and $g_3 = 1.99$. The interaction of the metal with one phosphorus ligand is revealed by the

FIGURE 15. Reaction mechanism of geometrical isomerisation (reverse of that shown in Figure 14) on oxidation of the final product. The last step is a chemical step. Abbreviations as in Figure 14. Reprinted with permission from ref. 118. Copyright (1985) American Chemical Society.

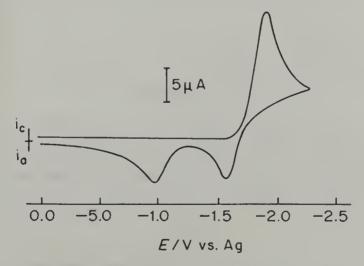


FIGURE 16. Cyclic voltammogram of $[Rh(\mu-Bu_2P)(CO)_2]_2$ in THF. Sweep rate, $0.20 \, \text{V s}^{-1}$; working electrode, platinum disc; reference electrode, Ag wire (potential with respect to SCE, $-0.36 \, \text{V}$). Copyright (1985) American Chemical Society.

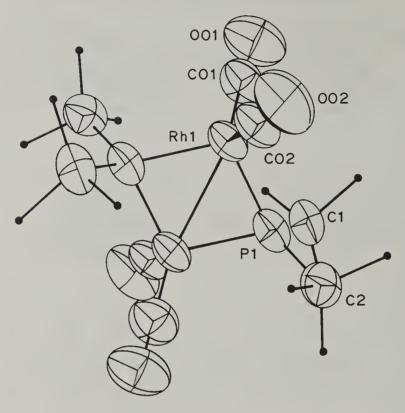


FIGURE 17. Structural view of $[Rh(\mu-t-Bu_2P)(CO_2)]_2^2$. Methyl groups on the *tert*-butyls are represented by sticks. Reprinted with permission from ref. 118. Copyright (1985) American Chemical Society.

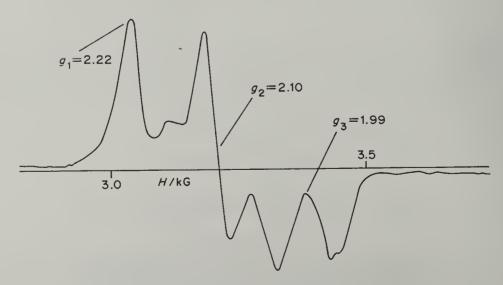


FIGURE 18. ESR spectrum of [Rh(PPh₃)₄] in DME at 120 K. Reproduced by permission of Elsevier Publishers from ref. 120.

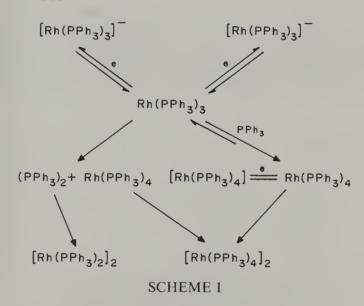
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TABLE 13. Kinetics of triphenylphosphine addition to Rh(PPh₃)^a

PPh ₃ concentration (M)	Sweep rate (V s ⁻¹)	$E_{p/2}$ (V)	$E_{ m p/2}^{}-E_{ m p/2}^{\circ} \ m (V)$	$K(k_{\rm f} + k_{\rm b})^{-1/2} $ $(s^{-1/2})$
0.01	0.02	-1.233	0	
	0.20	-1.239	0.006	_
	0.50	-1.245	0.013	0.23
	1.00	-1.253	0.020	0.27
	2.00	-1.258	0.023	0.24
	5.00	-1.270	0.035	0.30
0.016				0.078
0.030				0.15
0.100				0.26

^aConcentration of $[Rh(PPh_3)_3]^+ = 1 \text{ mM}$ in DME; supporting electrolyte, 0.2 M tetra-n-butylammonium perchlorate; temperature of the experiment, 25 °C. Potentials are with respect to $Ag/AgClO_4$.

spectrum. It appears to have a distorted tetrahedral geometry. The electrochemical redox pattern of $[Rh(PPh_3)_3]^+$ is shown in Scheme 1.



The second-order rate constant for the formation of $[Rh(PPh_3)_4]$ is estimated to be $1.4 \times 10^7 \, l \, mol^{-1} \, s^{-1}$; ligand redistribution competes with this with a rate constant of $300 \, l \, mol^{-1} \, s^{-1}$, which forces us to conclude that the former process of forming $[Rh(PPh)_3)_4]$ is complete on the time scale of typical cyclic voltammetric experiments (ms to s). The second wave is well developed as the ligand addition is faster; this is depicted in Figure 19. It is possible to prepare the d^9 complex $[Rh(PPh_3)_4]$ by the electrochemical method¹²⁰.

B. Nickel Complexes with Triphenylphosphine and Ethylene

Nickel exhibits a pattern similar to rhodium in its reaction with PPh_3^{122} . The redox reactions may be represented as equations 45 and 46, where $X = Cl^-$, Br^- or I^- and

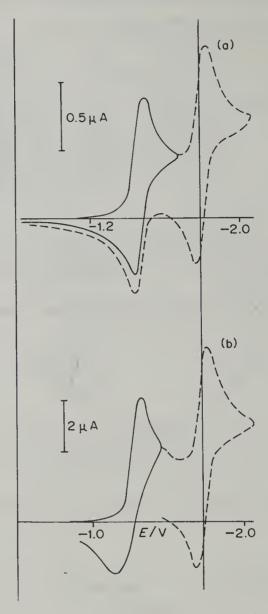


FIGURE 19. Cyclic voltammograms of 1 mm $[Rh(PPh_3)_3]^+$ in DME containing 0.2 M tetra-n-butylammonium perchlorate. (a) $PPh_3 = 10^{-2}$ M; sweep rate, 5.0 Vs.⁻¹ (b) in the presence of $PPh_3 = 10^{-1}$ M. Reproduced by permission of Elsevier Publishers.

 $L = PPh_3$; [Ni¹XL₃] is yellow and [Ni⁰XL₃]⁻ is red. These nickel(0) and Nickel(I) complexes can be oxidized as equations 47–49.

$$[Ni^{II}X_3L]^- + e + 2L \longrightarrow [Ni^{I}XL_3] + 2X^-$$
(45)

$$[Ni^{1}XL_{3}] + e \Longrightarrow [Ni^{0}XL_{3}]^{-}$$
(46)

$$[Ni^{0}XL_{3}]^{-} \rightleftharpoons [Ni^{0}XL_{3}] + e \tag{47}$$

$$[Ni^{0}XL_{3}] \longrightarrow [Ni^{1}XL_{3}] + e \tag{48}$$

$$[Ni^{I}XL_{3} \longrightarrow e + [Ni^{II}XL_{3}]^{+} \xrightarrow{fast} [NiX_{3}L]^{-}$$
(49)

These redox processes have been confirmed using N-methylpyrrolidinone as the solvent. When ethylene is introduced into the medium before initiating the electrochemical step, the reaction scheme is modified as in equations 50 or 51, where E represents ethylene. [Ni^0L_2E] is oxidized at 0.16 V. Now,

$$[Ni^{0}L_{3}X]^{-} + E \longrightarrow [Ni^{0}L_{2}EX]^{-} + L$$
(50)

$$[Ni^0XL_3]^- + E \longrightarrow [Ni^0XL_2E]^- + L$$

$$[Ni^{0}L_{3}] + E \longrightarrow [Ni^{0}L_{2}E] + L$$
(51)

$$[Ni^{0}L_{2}EX]^{-} \longrightarrow Ni^{II} + 2e$$
 (52)

$$[Ni^0L_2E] \longrightarrow Ni^{II} + 2e \tag{53}$$

Steps 52 and 53 occur at -0.40 and 0 V, respectively. The current-voltage curves depicting the above processes are shown in Figure 20.

1. Nickel bis-1,2-diphenylphosphinoethane

The existence of the complexes $[NiD_2]^{2+}$, $[NiD_2X]^+$ and $[NiX_2D]$, where X is Cl or Br and D = bis-1,2-diphenylphosphinoethane, were established by electrochemical work 123,124. Using N-methylpyrrolidine as solvent, the electrochemical reduction produces nickel(I) or nickel(0) complexes. At a mole ratio of 1D per Ni the zerovalent

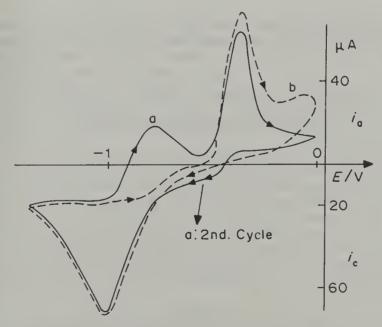


FIGURE 20. Cyclic voltammetric curves curves of NiX_2L_2 ($X = Br^-$) in N-methylpyrrolidone solutions at a gold micro electrode. The dashed line shows the curve in the presence of ethylene. Sweep rate, 0.1 V s⁻¹. Note the absence of an anodic peak in the presence of ethylene. Reproduced by permission of Elsevier Publishers from ref. 122.

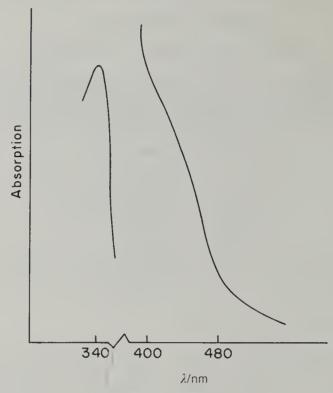


FIGURE 21. UV absorption spectrum of 2 mM [NiClO₄D₂] in N-methylpyrrolidone.

complex reacts rapidly with organic halides (RX). The electrocatalytic reduction of halide is proposed which has a hypothetical intermediate $[RNiXD]^{119,120}$. The establishment of an equilibrium for D:Ni ratios of ≥ 2 is to produce $[NiD_2]^{2+}$ through the equations 54 and 55.

$$[Ni(ClO4)2D2] \longrightarrow 2ClO4- + [NiD2]2+ \Longrightarrow Ni2+ + 2D-$$
 (54)

$$[Ni^{II}D_2]_2^{2+} \stackrel{e}{\rightleftharpoons} [Ni^{I}D_2]^{+} \stackrel{e}{\rightleftharpoons} [Ni^0D_2]$$
 (55)

The species $[Ni^{II}D_2]^{2^+}$ is yellow and shows the absorption spectrum as shown in Figure 21. Nickel(II) species disproportionate more in acetonitrile than in N-methylpyrrolidinone. The disproportionation reaction leads to nickel(0) species via reaction 56. The pK of disproportionation = $\Delta E_{1/2}/0.06 \approx 2$. The reactivity of $[Ni^{II}D_2]^{2^+}$ towards halides has been examined¹²⁵; when the ratio $Br^-:[Ni^{II}D_2]^{2^+}=1.0$, a 2e reversible reduction is observed (equation 57). As this ratio increases and reaches an excess in Br^- , an irreversible 2e reduction process is observed due to reaction 58. Notice that the end products of reactions 57 and 58 are the same except for the higher numbered moles of Br^- generated in reaction 61. The corresponding reaction for Cl^- (in place of Br^-) is shown in equation 59.

$$[2Ni^{I}D_{2}]^{+} \Longrightarrow [Ni^{II}D_{2}]^{2+} + [Ni^{0}D_{2}]$$

$$(56)$$

$$[NiD_2Br]^+ + 2e \Longrightarrow [Ni^0D_2] + Br^-$$
 (57)

$$[NiBr2D] + D + 2e \longrightarrow [Ni0D2] + 2Br-$$
(58)

$$[NiCl2D] + D + 2e \longrightarrow [Ni0D2] + 2Cl-$$
(59)

Dessy and coworkers^{115,117} arrived at an interesting generalization based on the electrochemical patterns of nickel carbonyl complexes, namely that a reversible electron transfer requires a metal—metal bond to exist in the complex to obtain a stable radical anion. For example, $[(\pi - C_5 H_5) \text{NiPPh}_2]_2$ (8) produces a stable radical anion on electrochemical reduction at -2.30 V vs a Ag/AgClO₄ electrode, giving an ESR spectrum of 10 G wide with a g value of 2.060. The nickel carbonyl species 9 also produces a reversible cyclic voltammetric wave at -1.75 V; an exhaustive electrochemical reduction at this potential generates an ESR spectrum of a purple anion radical with a total width of 6 G having a characteristic $g = 1.979^{116}$. On the other hand, a species without a metal—metal bond having structure 10, where the nickel atoms are separated by phosphorus, produces an irreversible wave at -2.40 V; in this case the anion could not be generated 116 for this compound. Popdoko et al.'s 126 results on nickel(II) complexes with diphenylphosphine are in parallel with those for the above-mentioned carbonyl complexes.

C. Chromium Carbonyls Bound to Phosphorus

Dessy et al.¹¹⁶ suggested the formation of a metal—metal bond in chromium complexes of the type [Cr(CO)₄PMe₂]₂. The structure is visualized as 11, where the metal—metal bond is shown by the dashed line. The electrochemical reduction of 11

occurs at $E_{1/2} = -1.85 \,\mathrm{V}$; the wave is reversible owing to the presence of the metal-metal bond. The 2e reduction product gives an ESR spectrum having a 1:2:1 triplet arising from the interaction of the odd electron with both phosphorus nucleii; a phosphorus splitting constant of 13 G and a proton splitting constant of 12 G are observed in the spectrum.

This spectrum is attributed to reactions 60 and 61, where X represents 11. The radical anion shows an infrared stretching frequency which is shifted by $100 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ relative to the neutral species¹¹⁶. This arises from the interaction of $d\pi$ orbitals of the metal with the carbonyl antibonding $2\pi^*$ orbitals. The chromium carbonyl complex containing phosphorus ligands has an octahedral configuration about each chromium with the two octahedra sharing an edge which is occupied by PMe₂ bridges. Metal—metal bond formation is indicated by the diamagnetism studies¹¹⁶.

$$X + 2e \Longrightarrow X^{2^{-}}$$
 (60)

$$X^{2^{-}} + X \longrightarrow 2X^{-} \tag{61}$$

The redox chemistry of tricarbonyl derivatives of chromium complexed with polycyclic tridentates shows ¹²⁷⁻¹³² two reversible 1e oxidation processes. Bond *et al.*¹³² observed isomerization, cross-redox and self-exchange reactions in [Cr(CO)₃P₃]¹⁰⁺, where P represents monodentate phosphorus ligands P(OMe)₃, P(OPh)₃, P(OMe)₂Ph and PMe₂Ph. The electrochemical data are summarized in Table 14 and indicate quasi-reversible electron transfer processes. The stereochemistry in the facial (*fac*) and meridional (*mer*) forms forces the following redox equilibria in [Cr(CO)₃P₃]¹⁰⁺:

$$fac^{0} \rightleftharpoons fac^{+} + e$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \uparrow$$

$$mer^{0} \rightleftharpoons mer^{+} + e$$
(62)

The electrochemical characteristics indicate a cross-redox reaction (63).

$$fac^{+} + mer^{0} \Longrightarrow fac^{0} + mer^{+}$$
 (63)

The controlled potential oxidation of fac^0 generates mer- $[Cr(CO)_3P_3]$. It is represented by the above reaction 63 . A cyclic voltammetric study shows (see Table 15) that at $-57\,^{\circ}$ C, the isomerization of fac^+ to mer^0 is inhibited. The isomerization of fac^+ to mer^0 is extremely slow in dichloromethane, but the conversion of mer^+ to fac^+ is very fast. The ESR spectra of mer- $[Cr(CO)_3(PMe_2Ph)_3]^+$ at 273 and 213 K and of mer- $[Cr(CO)_3(P(OMe)_2-Ph)_3]^+$ at 298, 273 and 213 K are depicted in Figure 22. The spectral features include a doublet of triplets due to 31 P hyperfine coupling, which is consistent with meridional form of the chromium(I) cation. These spectra show no hyperfine splitting due to 53 Cr (I=3/2). The spectrum of mer- $[Cr(CO)_3(P(OMe)_2Ph)_3]^+$ is broad at room temperature owing to fast exchange between the cation and the netural species. In both 18- and

TABLE 14. Electrochemical data for the oxidation of [Cr(CO)₃P₃] complexes^a

Compound	$E_{1/2}$	$E_{3/4} - E_{1/4}$	E _p ^{ox}	E _p (V)
	(V)	(V)	(V)	(V)
$mer-[Cr(CO)_3(P(OMe)_3)_3]$	0.356	0.056	0.400	0.322
mer-[Cr(CO) ₃ (P(OPh) ₃) ₃]	0.732	0.0555	0.784	0.674
mer-[Cr(CO) ₃ (P(OMe) ₂ Ph) ₃]	0.287	0.070	0.347	0.237
fac-[Cr(CO) ₃ (P(OMe) ₃) ₃]	0.456	0.057	0.561	0.475
$fac-[Cr(CO)_3(PMe_2Ph)_3]$	0.219	0.062	0.290	0.205
mer-[Cr(CO) ₃ (PMe ₂ Ph) ₃]	-0.067	0.060	-0.005	-0.100

^aSolvent, CH_2Cl_2 ; working electrode, Hg electrode; E_p values recorded at 500 mV s⁻¹; reference electrode, Ag/AgCl. Taken from ref. 132. Copyright American Chemical Society.

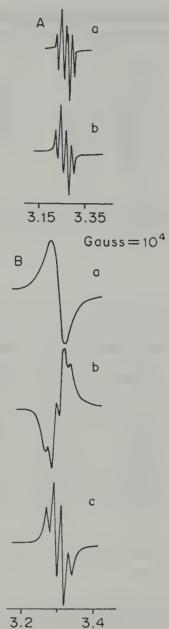


FIGURE 22. ESR spectra of (A) mer-[Cr(CO)₃(PMe₂Ph₃]⁺ at (a) 273 K and (b) 213 K and (B) mer-[Cr(CO)₃(POMe)₂Ph₃]⁺ at (a) 298 K, (b) 273 K and (c) 213 K. Abscissa in gauss; $1 = \text{unit} = 10^3 \text{ G}$. Solvent CH₂CL₂. Reprinted with permission from ref. 132. Copyright (1984) American Chemical Society.

17-electron complexes, the *mer*-isomer is favoured and the line broadening occurs due to reaction 64.

$$mer^+ + mer^0 \rightleftharpoons mer^0 + mer^+$$
 (64)

Chromium tricarbonyl bis[bis(diphenylphosphino)] methane and bis[1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)]ethane complexes are susceptible to 1e redox reactions. The electrochemical characteristics of meridional and facial forms are given in Table 16. The stepwise conversion processes are shown in reaction 65. The second electron step occurring at positive potentials, close to the solvent (CH_2Cl_2) limit, results in the generation of chromium (reaction 66), where dppm = $Ph_2PCH_2PPh_2$ and dppe = $Ph_2PCH_2CH_2PPh_2$.

Temperature (°C)	Sweep rate (mVs ⁻¹)	$E_{\mathfrak{p}}^{ox^{b}}$ (V)	$E_{\mathfrak{p}}^{red^{\mathfrak{b}}}$ (V)	$E_{p}^{ox^{c}}$ (V)	$E_{p}^{red^{c}}$ (V)
18	500	0.34	0.18	0.00	-0.13
	50	0.26	d	-0.03	-0.10
-15	500	0.36	0.15	0.01	-0.15
	50	0.30	0.17	-0.03	-0.09
-43	500	0.40	0.13	0.03	-0.17
	50	0.30	0.17	d	d
-57	500	0.46	0.09	d	d
	50	0.31	0.15	d	d

TABLE 15. Cyclic voltammetric oxidation of fac-[Cr(CO)₃(PMe₂Ph)₃]^a

TABLE 16. Electrochemical data for the $[Cr(CO)_3(\eta^1-PP)(\eta^2-PP)]$ complexes

Compound	Solvent	E _p ^{ox} (V)	$E_{\rm p}^{\rm red}$ (V)	E ⁰ (V)	T (V)
$mer-[Cr(CO)_3(\eta^1-dppm)(\eta^2-dppm)]$	CH ₂ Cl ₂ Acetone	0.15 0.08	0.02 -0.00	0.09 0.04	20 20
mer -[Cr(CO) ₃ (η^1 -dppm)(η^2 -dppm)] ⁺	CH ₂ Cl ₂ Acetone	1.27 1.00			20
$fac-[Cr(CO)_3(\eta^1-dppe)(\eta^2-dppe)]$	CH ₂ Cl ₂ CH ₂ Cl ₂	0.47	0.38	0.43	-78 20
mer -[Cr(CO) ₃ (η^1 -dppe)(η^2 -dppe)] mer -[Cr(CO) ₃ (η^1 -dppe)(η^2 -dppe)] ⁺	CH_2Cl_2 CH_2Cl_2	0.22 1.24	0.13	0.18	20 20

^aPotentials are referred to Ag/AgCl. Reprinted with permission from ref. 131. Copyright (1986) American Chemical Society.

The facial form of $[Cr(CO)_3(\eta^1\text{-dppe})(\eta^2\text{-dppe})]$ shows a similar 1e oxidation wave but the product decomposes to chromium(II). The cation is more stable at -78 °C.

$$mer-[Cr(CO)_3(\eta^1-dppm)(\eta^2-dppm)] \Longrightarrow mer-[Cr(CO)_3(\eta^1-dppm)(\eta^2-dppm)]^+ + e$$
(65)

$$mer-[Cr(CO)_{3}(\eta^{1}-dppm)(\eta^{2}-dppm)]^{+}$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$mer-[Cr(CO)_{3}(\eta^{1}-dppm)(\eta^{2}-dppm)]^{2+} + e$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$Cr^{II} + 2dppm + 3CO$$
(66)

Bis- $(\mu$ -phosphido)dichromium species exhibit reversible voltammetric waves with $n=2^{134}$. The resulting dianion disproportionates to give a monoanion and the ESR

^aWorking electrode, Pt electrode; medium, CH₂Cl₂ containing 0.1 M Bu₄NClO₄. Potentials are vs Ag/AgCl. Reprinted with permission from ref. 132. Copyright (1984) American Chemical Society.

 $^{^{}b}$ For process $fac \Longrightarrow fac^{+} + e$

[↓] mer+

^cFor process $mer = mer^+ + e$.
^dNo peak observed.

spectrum of the anion radical shows hyperfine couplings with two identical phosphorus atoms and the triplet split into a 13-fold multiplet due to Me groups of the compound (12).

D. Iron Carbonyls and Nitrosyl Complexed to Diphenylphosphine

Iron derivatives are useful in understanding metal—metal bond interactions¹¹⁶ in compounds such as 13–15. The octahedral configuration around the metal in $[(\pi-C_5H_5)Fe(CO)PPh_2]_2$ shows essentially two octahedral sharing an edge; this compound exhibits a polarographic wave at $-0.20\,\mathrm{V}\,\mathrm{vs}$ Ag/AgClO₄, oxidizing to a deep-blue radical cation. The wave is reversible and on exhaustive electrolysis the product shows a featureless ESR spectrum which is 12.5 G wide. The second polarographic wave is located at $-0.50\,\mathrm{V}$; this wave is attributed to dication formation¹¹⁶. When an Fe—Fe bond exists in the complex, such as in $[(CO)_3FePMe_2]_2$, the structure is octahedral around each iron, with the octahedral sharing a face; the metal—metal bond occupies one of the ligand positions. It undergoes a 2e reduction with $E_{1/2} = -2.10\,\mathrm{V}$. The dianion shows no ESR signal but on addition of the parent produces a radical anion exhibiting a line width of 75 G, which is difficult to resolve further. The radical anion has $g = 1.977^{116}$.

The tetrahedral configuration that exists in the nitroso compound [(NO)₂FePPh₂]₂ has $E_{1/2}^{l} = -1.70 \text{ V Ag/AgClO}_4$ and $E_{1/2}^{ll} = -2.19 \text{ V vs Ag/AgClO}_4$. The formation of a radical anion and dianion is confirmed by ESR studies. The anion gives a phosphorus triplet (1:2:1) with $\Delta H_p = 20 \text{ G}$ with g = 1.937.

Several dialkylamino phosphorus iron carbonyls have been synthesized from bis(diisopropylamino)phosphine with iron carbonyls by King and Fu¹³¹. These carbonyl complexes have an unusual property of rapid and selective cleavage of one diiso-

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propylamino group on reaction with hydrogen halides; this selective cleavage might be caused by radical cation formation.

E. Molybdenum Carbonyl Bond to Phosphorus

The molybdenum cluster system [PhMoPPh₂(CO)]₃ produces an ill-defined irreversible polarographic wave. It does not produce a radical species on exhaustive reduction in DME¹¹⁶, at the first polarographic wave. Complexes of the type [Mo(CO)₄R₂P(CH₂)₃PR₂], where R = F, Cl, C_6F_5 , MeO, Ph, Me or C_6H_{11} show characteristic quasi-reversible oxidations as in reaction 67.

$$[M(CO)_4L] \Longrightarrow [M(CO)_4L]^+ + e \tag{67}$$

The effectiveness of the phosphorus ligands to remove a charge from the metal follows qualitatively the order of electronegativity of the substituent on the donor phosphorus atom, i.e. $F > Cl > C_6F_5$; $C_6FH_5 > Me > C_6H_{11}^{133}$. The cyclic voltammetric data for the above complexes are given in Table 17. For comparison, data for the corresponding chromium complexes are also included. The $E_{1/2}$ of the two series correlate very well, as shown by Figure 23.

The complexes of [Mo(CO)₃P₃], where P is a monodentate phosphorus ligand, undergo oxidation by the scheme in equation 68. The fac-form undergoes oxidation in CH_2Cl_2 with $E_p^{ox} = 0.68 \text{ V}$ and the mer-form at $E_{pa} = 0.42 \text{ V}$.

$$fac-[Mo(CO)_{3}(\eta^{1}-dppe)(\eta^{2}-dppe)] \longrightarrow fac[Mo(CO)_{3}(\eta^{1}-dppe)(\eta^{2}-dppe)]^{+} + e$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad$$

TABLE 17. Electrochemical data for [M(CO)₆] and [M(CO)₄R₂P]CH₂PR₂ complexes in CH₂Cl₂ and acetonitrile^a

Solvent	R	M = Mo		M = Cr			
		(V)	(V)	(V)	(V)	(V)	(V)
CH ₂ Cl ₂	C_6F_5	1.46	1.10	1.28	1.235	0.860	1.05
C112C12	MeO	1.38	1.04	1.21	1.15	0.840	0.995
	Ph	1.24	0.86	1.05	1.025	0.690	0.860
	Me	0.710	0.470	0.530	0.560	0.260	0.410
MeCN	$M(CO)_6$	1.65			1.49	1.320	1.410
1/10/01 (F	1.37			1.32	1.18	1.250
	C_6F_5	1.23			1.01	0.87	0.940
	MeO	1.18			0.96	0.82	0.890
	Me	0.46			0.35	0.19	0.270

^aVoltages are vs SCE. Working electrode, glassy carbon; supporting electrolyte, Bu_4NClO_4 ; $E_{1/2} = (E_a + E_c)/2$. Reprinted with permission from ref. 133. Copyright (1984) American Chemical Society.

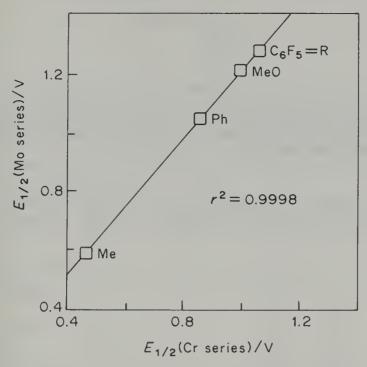


FIGURE 23. Correlation of half-wave potentials for [M(CO)₄-R₂PCH₂PR₂] complexes in CH₂Cl₂. Reprinted with permission from ref. 133. Copyright (1984) American Chemical Society.

VI. PHOSPHONIUM SALTS

By oxidation of Ph_3P using ferricinium ion in a nitrogen atmosphere, a phosphonium salt. Ph_4P^+ , has been prepared¹³⁵. This oxidation produces ferrocene in 100% yield. Schiavon *et al.*¹³⁶ proposed the oxidation scheme shown in equations 69–71 and the overall reaction 72. The reduction of Ph_3P^+ is observed at $-2.20 \, \text{V}$.

$$Ph_3P \longrightarrow Ph_3P^+ + e$$
 (69)

$$Ph_3P^+ + PhPPh_2 \longrightarrow Ph_3PC_6H_4PPh_2 + H^+ + e$$
 (70)

$$H^{+} + Ph_{3}P \Longrightarrow Ph_{3}PH^{+}$$
 (71)

$$3Ph_3P \longrightarrow Ph_3PC_6H_4PPh_2 + Ph_3PH^+ + 2e$$
 (72)

Cycloalk-1-enyl phosphonium salts are prepared in reasonable yields by a constant-current electrolysis of Ph₃P in dichloromethane at a graphite anode in the presence of cycloalkenes by reaction 73¹³⁷. The phosphonium salts are converted to the

corresponding phosphine oxide by treatment with NaOH dissolved in aqueous ethanol¹³⁸. The oxides have structure 16. The yields and the melting point of

phosphonium salts are given in Table 18. The oxidation of triphenylphosphine at a controlled potential at 1.40 V vs silver wire results in the formation of cycloalk-1-enyl phosphonium salts (equation 74).

The charge-transfer salt formed by reaction of tetracyanoquinodimethane (TCNQ) and diphosphonium iodide undergoes a 2e oxidation at a carbon paste electrode reactions 75 and 76 occur in acetonitrile. Similar schemes can be generated for $D'P^{2+}$, where $D'P^{2+} = PhMeP^+CH = CHP^+MePh_2^{139}$.

$$DPI_2 + 4TCNQ \longrightarrow DP(TCNQ)_4 + I_2$$
 (75)

$$DP(TCNQ)_4 \longrightarrow DP^{2+} + 4TCNQ + 2e$$
 (76)

The phosphonium salts are electrochemically reduced to phosphines¹⁴⁰ through reactions 77 and 78, but the neutral radial R' is electrochemically active and undergoes reactions 79–81.

$$R_4P^+ + e \Longrightarrow R_4P^* + e \longrightarrow R_4P^-$$

$$R_4P^* \longrightarrow R_3P + R^*$$
(77)

TABLE 18. Electrochemical preparation of cycloalk-1-enyl phosphonium salts^a

Cycloalkene	Yield (%)	M.p. (°C)
Cyclopentene	53	277–279
Cyclohexene	53	290-291
Cycloheptene	56	214-216
Cyclooctene	53	197-199
Norbornene	66	192-104

 $^{^{\}rm a}$ 3 mmol of Ph₃P and 15 mmol of cycloalkene in CH₂Cl₂ containing 0.2 M 2,6-lutidinium perchlorate at 1.07 mA cm⁻². Electrolysis is carried out for 8 h.

$$R^{\bullet} + e \longrightarrow R^{-\bullet} \tag{79}$$

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$$2R^{-} \longrightarrow 1/2 (R - R)$$
 (80)

$$R + H^+ \longrightarrow RH^+ \tag{81}$$

Table 19 gives the half-wave potentials, diffusion currents and the number of electrons consumed in the reaction for different substituents. The half-wave potentials for $[Ph_3P(CH_2)_nPPh_3]Br_2$ for n = 1-12 show the trend represented in Figure 24. Cleavage of the phosphorus—carbon bond occurs in all the phosphonium salts¹⁴⁰. This can be used successfully in the analytical determination of phosphonium salts (phenyltrimethylphosphonium iodide and tetra-O-tolyphosphonium iodide) in the range 0.001–0.005 M¹⁴¹; the reductions consist of two successive 1 e steps.

The electrolytic reductive cleavage of cyanoalkyl phosphonium compounds of the type $Ph_3P^+(CH_2)_nCNX^-$, where n=1-4, has been demonstrated by Wagenknecht and Baizer¹⁴² through polarographic and controlled potential electrolysis. The anion X

TABLE 19. Electrochemical characteristics of phosphonium compounds^a

	$-E_1$ (V)	$i_{\rm d} \ (\mu { m A})$	n_1	n_2
Methyltriphenyl-	1.862	2.60	2.7	1.1
Cyclohexyltriphenyl-	1.859	2.94	1.6	
	2.092	0.28	1.2	
Ethyltriphenyl-	1.837	1.79	3.1	
	1.970	0.80	1.7	
Isopropyltriphenyl-	1.833	1.56	9.1	1.2
	2.092	2.14	0.7	
n-Propyltriphenyl-	1.822	1.36	2.3	
	1.962	0.72	1.4	
	2.075	0.14	2.2	
n-Butyltriphenyl-	1.802	1.16	2.1	
	1.984	1.22	1.2	
2-Butyltriphenyl-	1.709	1.38	6.3	
	2.686	1.20	1.0	
Isobutyltriphenyl-	1.720	1.26	2.4	
	2.039	1.28	0.6	
tert-Butyltriphenyl-	1.657	0.86	2.0	
	2.041	0.54	2.2	
Allyltriphenyl-	1.626	2.10	1.4	
	1.775	0.20	0.9	
	2.065	0.45	2.2	
	2.468	1.35	2.1	
Benzyltriphenyl- ^b	1.552	2.80	1.3	
Cyanomethyltriphenyl- ^b	1.301	1.62	0.9	
	2.051	0.84	0.9	
Benzhydryltriphenyl-	1.271	0.58	1.3	
	2.067	0.13	2.2	
Dimethyldiphenyl-	2.087	4.38	1.3	
Trimethylphenyl-	2.271	5.10	0.9	
Diethyldiphenyl-	2.031	2.58	2.1	0.7
4-Bromo-n-butyltriphenyl-	1.160	0.46	0.4	
	1.766	2.25	3.4	
	2.151	1.25	0.6	
Methylenebistriphenyl-	1.195	2.50	0.8	
	1.817	0.95	1.7	

TABLE 19. (continued)

Phosphonium bromide	$-E_1$ (V)	$\stackrel{i_{ m d}}{(\mu{ m A})}$	n_1	n_2
	1.932	1.19	2.7	
Dimethylbistriphenyl-	1.475	2.50	1.9	
	2.064	2.70	2.2	
Trimethylbistriphenyl-	1.307	0.40	2.7	
	1.712	5.40	2.1	
	2.054	1.00	2.0	
Tetramethylenebistriphenyl-	1.798 2.058	8.80 0.90	1.8 2.1	
Dantanathalanahistnin banyi	1.807	5.04	3.6	
Pentamethylenebistriphenyl- Hexmethylenebistriphenyl-	1.822	4.75	1.8	
Trexmetmyleneoistriphenyi-	2.000	1.10	0.8	
Octamethylenebistriphenyl-	1.732	3.70	2.3	
	1.971	1.50	1.2	
Decamethylenebistriphenyl-	1.715	1.25	t0.9	
	1.916	0.65	2.2	
	2.073	0.45	_	
Dodecamethylenebistriphenyl-	1.664	1.50	2.7	
	1.944	2.50	0.9	
n-Propyltri-p-anisyl-	1.934	0.68	0.7	
	2.109 2.364	1.12 0.90	0.9 0.7	
Martiniania din mahadamin a	1.642	0.90	0.7	
Methyltrisdimethylamino-	2.098	0.51	0.7	
Benzyltrisdimethylamino-	1.637	0.17	0.5	
Denzym isumemylamino-	2.230	2.65	6.3	
Benzyltris-N-trimorpholino-	1.627	0.31	_	
	2.206	6.40	0.4	
Methyltris-p-dimethylaminophyenyl-	1.697	0.17	-	
Benzyltris-p-dimethylaminophenyl-	1.279	0.36	0.8	
	1.886	0.21	_	
p-Hydroxyphenyltriphenyl- ^b	1.000	2.40	0.7	
	2.046	0.50	3.0	
p-Anisyltriphenyl-	1.835	1.26	1.4 1.8	
•	1.988 2.128	0.26 0.56	1.8	
p-Aminophenyltriphenyl-	1.801	0.88	2.0	
p-Anniophenyltriphenyl-	1.916	0.34	1.3	
	2.144	0.30	2.3	
	2.473	1.56	1.2	
p-Dimethylaminophenyltriphenyl-	1.777	2.60	2.1	0.7
	2.091	0.41	1.1	
p-Tolyltriphenyl-	1.692	2.50	2.0	0.8
	2.073	0.26	1.7	0.7
m-Tolyltriphenyl-	1.684	2.28	2.0	0.7
	2.066	0.46	1.9	0.6
Tetraphenyl-	1.680 2.068	2.80 0.15	2.1 1.5	0.6
o-Tolyltriphenyl-	1.678	2.12	2.0	0.3
0-1 olyitriphenyi-	2.061	0.21	1.8	0.0
p-Benzhydrylphenyltriphenyl-	1.668	0.60	1.0	0.6
p-Cumyltriphenyl-	1.654	2.78	1.7	0.7
	2.056	0.40	1.3	
			(co	ntinued

TABLE 19. (continued)

Phosphonium bromide	$-E_1$ (V)	$\stackrel{i_{d}}{(\muA)}$	n_1	n_2
p-Carbohydroxyphenyltriphenyl-	1.630	1.10	0.6	0.2
	2.346	2.70	0.6	
1-Naphthyltriphenyl-	1.439	0.88	3.5	1.1
	1.781	0.50	0.9	
	2.054	0.45	1.9	
	2.326	1.70	0.8	
2-Naphthyltriphenyl-	2.488	1.30	2.0	
2-ivapittiyttiphenyi-	1.554	1.80	2.0	
	1.653	0.75	1.4	
	2.049 2.207	0.44	1.4	
	2.325	1.00	1.1	
	2.323	2.20	1.0	
o-Biphenylytriphenyl-	1.527	1.65 1.70	1.4	0.9
o orphony ij triphony i	1.655	0.35	2.4 1.1	0.9
	2.076	0.33	1.1	
	2.279	1.30	1.0	
	2.490	4.70	1.0	
p-Nitrophenyltriphenyl-	0.454	2.90	3.1	1.5
, introphony triphony i	1.502	1.35	1.1	1.5
	1.831	0.65	2.0	
	2.118	0.50	1.8	
p-Phenylenebistriphenyl-	1.155	0.40	1.6	
	1.269	0.40	1.5	
	1.477	1.24	1.2	
	1.667	2.48	1.6	
	2.069	0.24	1.5	
	2.435	4.70	3.1	
p-Trifluoromethylphenyltriphenyl-	1.410	7.85	1.1	
3 1 3 1 3	2.077	0.35	2.2	
	2.323	7.90	0.7	
	2.482	1.20	3.3	
Phenylsulphophenyltriphenyl-	1.227	2.06	1.8	
	1.677	0.65	3.1	
	1.954	1.15	1.3	
	2.083	0.17	1.3	
	2.350	1.65	1.4	
	2.490	1.05	2.0	
Di-p-tolyldiphenyl-	1.695	2.48	1.5	0.9
	2.092	1.18	0.9	
Γri-p-tolylphenyl-	1.727	2.60	2.1	1.2
	2.071	0.32	3.0	
Di-p-anisyldiphenyl-	1.790	0.908	1.3	
	1.954	3.12	-	
Fri-p-anisylphenyl-	1.848	1.30	1.2	
	2.006	0.22	2.1	
	2.128	0.74	2.9	
Γri-p-toly-p-cumyl-	1.713	2.50	2.2	0.6
	2.004	0.46	2.5	
	2.455	0.28	1.6	

^oConcentration of phosphonium salt: 10⁻³ M. Potentials are vs SCE. Reproduced by permission of Elsevier Publishers from ref. 140. ^b Phosphonium chloride.

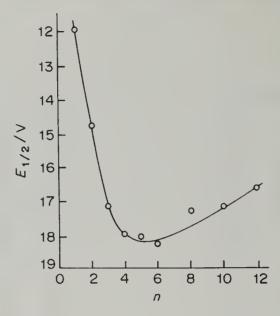


FIGURE 24. Half-wave potentials of Ph₃-P(CH₂)_nPPh₃Br₂ vs the number of CH₂ groups. Reproduced by permission of Elsevier Publishers from ref. 140.

generally represents a halide or p-toluenesulphonate. The compounds produce three or four polarographic waves depending on the value of n. The first wave is attributed to reactions 82–84. The second wave appears to be due to the reduction of 19, represented by reaction 85. Species 18 decomposes by reaction 86. The third wave is observed due to the reduction of Ph_3P formed in reaction 86^1 . The electrolytic reductive coupling has been demonstrated by the isolation of the products. Table 20 gives the yields of the products obtained in electroreduction of $[Ph_3P^+(CH_2)_nCN]$ in the presence of styrene; styrene captures the carbonion formed in the reductive cleavage. Ph_3PO is formed due

TABLE 20. Yields of products in the reduction of [Ph₃P⁺(CH₂)_nCN]X⁻ in the presence of styrene^a

	Yield (%)					
Product	n=1, X=Br	$n=2, X=T^c$	n = 3, $X = Br$	n = 4, $X = Br$		
Ph ₃ P	26.4	58-74	82.5	57		
Ph ₃ PO	23.6	_	_			
$Me(CH_2)_nCN$	b	ь	b	b		
$C_6 H_6$	_	14	_	10		
$[CN(CH_2)_n]_2Hg$	_	b	b	b		
CH ₂ =CHCN		ь	_	_		
CN(CH ₂), CN	_	^b 6	_	_		
CN(CH ₂), CHPh		v				
CN(CH ₂), CHPh						

^aThe data are for the passage of 1 faraday per mole. Reprinted with permission from ref. 142. Copyright (1966) American Chemical Society.

^bProduct isolated, but yield not determined.

 $^{^{}c}T = Tolyl.$

to reaction of Ph₃P=CHCN with water during the isolation of the products. Pardini et al. 143 have investigated benzyl cinnamyl polyenylphosphonium salts in a similar way.

$$Ph_{3}P^{+}(CH_{2})_{n}CN \xrightarrow{+e} Ph_{3}P(CH_{2})_{n}CN/Hg$$

$$(82)$$

$$(17)$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
17 \longrightarrow Ph_3P(CH_2)_nCN + Hg \\
(18) \text{ (in solution)}
\end{array} \tag{83}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
17 \longrightarrow \text{Ph}_3\text{P}(\text{Hg}(\text{CH}_2)_n\text{CN}] \\
(19)
\end{array} \tag{84}$$

$$19 + e \longrightarrow Hg + (CH_2)_n CN^-$$
 (85)

$$\begin{array}{c}
18 \longrightarrow Ph_3P + (CH_2)_nCN \\
\text{(in solution)}
\end{array} \tag{86}$$

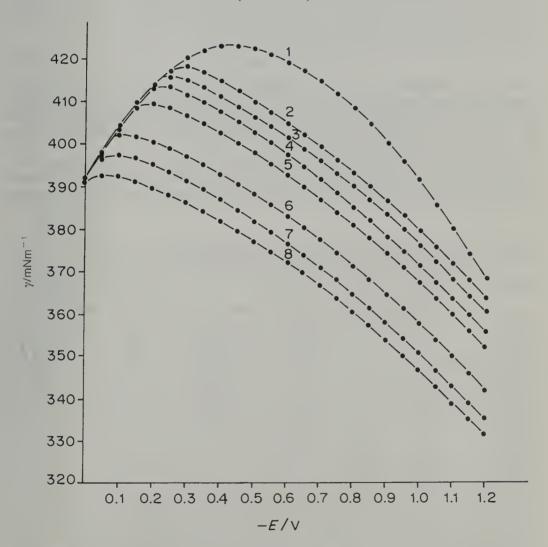


FIGURE 25. Electrocapillary curves of phosphine oxides at various concentrations in 0.1 M H_2SO_4 : (1) 0; (2) 2×10^{-4} ; (3) 4.98×10^{-4} ; (4) 9.9×10^{-4} ; (5) 1.96×10^{-3} ; (6) 1×10^{-2} ; (7) 2×10^{-2} ; (8) 5×10^{-2} M. Reproduced by permission of Elsevier Publishers.

VII. INTERFACIAL ADSORPTION BEHAVIOUR OF PHOSPHORUS(V) COMPOUNDS

The adsorption of phosphine oxides of the type dialkyl-, phenyl-, alkyldimethyl- and alkyldiethyl-phosphine oxides at the mercury/electrolyte solution interface is a common feature 144 with the extent of adsorption controlled by the composition of the medium and the structure of phosphine oxides. The interaction constant of the oxide is also dependent on its nature. The electrocapillary curves of phosphine oxides are shown in Figure 25. The surface tension, γ, values in the presence of C₅H₁₁(C₂H₅)₂PO systematically decrease as the bulk concentration of the oxide increases. An increase in chain length by one CH₂ group causes a decrease in γ by about $7\,\mathrm{mN\,m^{-1}}$. This effect is observed for the homologous dialkylphenylphosphine oxides. The adsorption of the phosphine oxides is analysed through the Frumkin isotherm defined by equation 87, where b is the adsorption coefficient and a is the lateral interaction constant; θ is the degree of coverage, defined by $(C_0 - C)/(C_0 - C_s)$, where C_0 is the differential capacity of the supporting electrolyte, C is the differential capacity for the phosphine oxide at any concentration and C_s is the saturation differential capacity. Table 21 gives estimates of the adsorption parameters of phosphine oxides. The parameters a and b increase by an order of magnitude on increasing the chain length.

$$bc(1-\theta) = \theta \exp(-2a\theta) \tag{87}$$

The areas occupied by adsorbed phosphine oxides in aqueous solutions were experimentally evaluated at 0.63, 0.57 and 0.52 nm² for Ph₃PO, EtPh₂PO and MePh₂PO, respectively. The calculated area values based on structural considerations for these three molecules are 0.71, 0.63 and 0.57 nm², respectively. The lower experimental values are attributed to multi-layer adsorption^{145,146}.

Adsorption of phosphine oxides influences the rate of electrochemical reductions ^{147,148}. The three homologous dialkylphenylphosphine oxides PhR_2PO , where R = Et, Pr and Bu, influences the reduction of Cu^{2+} with the rate being proportional to the adsorbed

TABLE 21. Interfacial	adsorption cha	racteristics of	phosphine oxides ^a
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Molecule ^b	$\frac{E_{\max}}{(\mathbf{V})}$	$\sigma_{\max}^{M^d}$ $(\mu \text{c.cm}^{-2})$	$\Gamma_5 \times 10^{10}$ (mol cm ⁻²)	а	$b (10^3 \mathrm{dm^3 mol^{-1}})$	$-\Delta G_{\underline{A}}^{\circ^e} (kJ.mol^{\underline{A}})$
Et ₂ PhPO	-0.80		2.7	1.3 ± 0.2	4.00	30
Pr ₂ PhPO	-0.75	_	2.6	1.5 + 0.3	38.66	36
Bu ₂ PhPO	_	_	2.5	1.7 ± 0.5	43.0	43
BuPh ₂ PO	_	_	_	1.3 ± 0.1	4.31	30
PeMe ₂ PO	-0.75	_	2.9	1.0 + 0.1	0.92	26
HxMe ₂ PO	-0.75	_	2.8	1.4 + 0.2	4.16	30
HxEt ₂ PO	-0.73	_	2.4	$\frac{-}{1.2 + 0.3}$	120.4	38
Ph ₃ PO	-0.72	-5.85	2.65	_	_	_
EtPh ₂ PO	-0.75	5.95	2.93	_	_	_
MePh ₂ PO	-0.76	-6.00	3.22	_	_	_
Ph_3PO^c	-0.90	-6.40	2.36	_	-	_
EtPh ₂ PO ^c	-0.95	-6.90	2.66	_	_	_
MePh ₂ PO ^c	-1.02	-7.50	2.91	_	_	_

^aAqueous solution. Adsorption on Hg surface.

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 $^{^{}b}$ Pe = pentyl; Hx = hexyl.

^{&#}x27;Methanolic solution.

 $^{{}^{}d}\sigma_{M}^{M}$ = Electrode change.

 $^{{}^{}e}\Delta G_{A}^{\text{MO}}$ = Adsorption free energy change.

film pressure. There appears to be a surface reaction between adsorbed reactant and the electroactive species. Electrosorption of tri-*n*-octylphosphine oxide in methanol and methanol—water solutions has been examined at a polarized mercury electrode¹⁴⁸⁻¹⁵¹.

Several dithiophosphates and bis(diphenyldithiophosphine) disulphides exhibit catalytic currents due to their adsorption on mercury ^{151–153}. Trialkyl phosphine oxides, on the other hand, inhibit non-metallic reactions at the electrode ¹⁵⁴.

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CHAPTER 4

Photochemistry of phosphine chalcogenides

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I. INTRODUCTION

The number of publications in the field of preparative photochemistry has increased continuously. In 1958 Schönberg wrote one of the first systematic reviews on this topic, which was revised in 1968¹. The most important publications since then have been reviewed². The photochemistry of phosphine chalcogenides³ had its beginnings with the investigations of Niebergall⁴ concerning the addition of phosphine sulphides and allylsilanes. Selected results are published annually⁵. A recent review dealing with irradiation of organophosphorus(III) compounds by Dankowski appeared in Volume 1 of this series⁶. This chapter covers the photochemical reactions of phosphine chalcogenides, mainly the preparative aspects. Reactions concerning stabilizers, polymers and complexes are excluded.

II. PHOSPHINE DERIVATIVES

A. Molecular Reactions

1. Oxides

Photolysis of bridged phosphine oxide 1 in benzene through Pyrex glass yields, presumably by an intermediate 2, the phosphine oxide 3 and some cyclooctatetraene. A similar result has been achieved by irradiation in acetone. Irradiation of a mixture of

1, 2 and 4 in benzene-acetone through Corex glass also gives the oxide 3⁷. The difference in mechanism between this reaction and that of the corresponding phosphines lies in the singlet character of the former⁸ and the triplet character of the latter⁹, and naturally leads to different products.

Irradiation of 5-diphenylphosphoryl-3H-pyrazoles (5) generates the phosphorylated cyclopropenes 6 via ring fissure and N₂ loss, yielding as an intermediate the corresponding (diphenylphosphorylvinyl)carbene. The use of the 4,5-isomer results in a similar product¹⁰ (equation 1).

(1)
$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
R^{2} & h\nu \\
\hline
 & h\nu \\
\hline
 & henzene
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
\hline
 & R^{2} & R^{3}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
\hline
 & R^{2} & R^{3}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
\hline
 & R^{2} & R^{3}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
\hline
 & R^{2} & R^{3}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
\hline
 & R^{2} & R^{3}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
\hline
 & R^{2} & R^{3}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & PPh_{2} \\
\hline
 & R^{2} & R^{3}
\end{array}$$

Photolysis of a 3H-pyrazole with a phenyl group in the C_3 position leads to the indene derivative 7^{10} . 4,5-Bis(diphenylphosphoryl)-3H-pyrazoles $[R^1 = P(O)Ph_2]$ not only give the cyclopropene derivative but also a corresponding allene with geminal PO substituents (8). When $R^1 = Me$ and $R^2 = Ph$, the acetylene 9 is available by a 1,3-sigmatropic shift¹⁰. The fact that the allene 8 is equally produced by irradiation of the cyclopropene 6 proves that the mechanism involves ring fissure and a 1,2-shift of the diphenylphosphoryl group¹⁰.

$$R^{1} \qquad R^{1} = H, Ph$$

$$R^{2} = Me, Ph$$

$$R^{2} = Me, Ph$$

$$R^{3} = Me, Ph$$

$$R^{4} = Me, Ph$$

$$R^{1} = R^{2} = Me \text{ or } Ph$$

$$R^{1} = R^{2} = Me \text{ or } Ph$$

$$R^{1} = R^{2} = Me \text{ or } Ph$$

$$R^{2} = Me \text{ or } Ph$$

$$R^{3} = R^{2} = Me \text{ or } Ph$$

$$R^{4} = R^{2} = Me \text{ or } Ph$$

On irradiation of various pyridazines 10 in benzene or pentane, the extremely thermostable 1,2-dewar pyridazines 11 are formed by an electrocyclic ring closure between N_1 and C_4^{11} (equation 2). In the presence of Hg and UV light dimerization of phosphine oxide is observed 12. Measurements of the kinetics and quantum yield of the photoisomerization reaction have been performed with 4-diphenylphosphorylstilbenes using different substituents at the second aromatic ring 13. UV irradiation of tris-(trifluoromethyl)phosphine oxide for 200 h yields a mixture of carbonyl fluoride, hexafluoroethane and phosphorus trifluoride in addition to tris(trifluoromethyl)phosphine and some uncondensable material and the educt 14.

$$R^{1} = R^{2} = Ph, OMe, t-Bu$$

$$R^{1} = OMe, R^{2} = Ph$$

$$R^{1} = OMe, R^{2} = Ph$$

$$R^{1} = OMe, R^{2} = Ph$$

$$R^{2} = OMe, R^{2} = Ph$$

$$R^{3} = OMe, R^{2} = Ph$$

$$R^{4} = OMe, R^{2} = Ph$$

$$R^{5} = OMe, R^{2} = Ph$$

2. Sulphides

Investigations of the photochemical degradation of phenyl(diphenylthiophosphoryl)-methyl azide (12) showed that the formation of N_2 followed by benzylideneamino-diphenylthiophosphorane (13) and aminodiphenylthiophosphorane (14) takes place, analogous to the thermally induced reaction (equation 3). This reaction is the first example of a thiophosphorus group migration 15. Photolysis of 5-diphenylthiophosphoryl-3H-pyrazoles leads, like the oxophosphoranes, to the corresponding thiophosphoryl cyclopropenes (15) via ring fissure, N_2 elimination and ring closure of the resulting carbene 10.

Ph
$$\rightarrow$$
 Ph₂PN=CHPh + Ph₂PNH₂ (3)

PhCHN₃ (12) (13) (14)

$$R^{1}$$
 PPh

$$R^{1} = H, Me, Ph$$

$$R^{2} = R^{3} = Me \text{ or Ph}$$
(15)

B. Reactions with Carbonyl Compounds

1. Oxides

Diphenylphosphine oxide, formed by photolysis of benzoyldiphenylphosphines, generates the corresponding alcohols 16 and 17 by addition of a carbonyl^{16,17}. The reaction with phenanthrene quinone takes place analogously¹⁸. Formation of the reactive OPR₂ radicals is realized by H-abstraction from the corresponding phosphine oxides¹⁹. Irradiation of the entirely substituted phosphine oxide, however, leads to the phosphino radical PPh₂²⁰. These intermediates may be trapped by reactions with carbonyl compounds, e.g. quinones^{20,21}.

2. Sulphides

1,2-Dicarbonyl compounds, e.g. quinones and benzoin, sensitize the photooxidation of pentacovalent phosphine sulphides. Hence, photooxidative desulphurization of triphenylphosphine sulphide in the presence of benzil, biacetyl, acenaphthaquinone, pyruvic acid, methyl pyruvate, butyl pyruvate, benzoin, 2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano benzoquinone or 2,3,5,6-tetrachlorobenzoquinone results in conversion of the P=S group to a P=O group²². Whereas irradiation of phosphine sulphides in oxygenated solution in the presence of singlet oxygen sensitizers such as Rose Bengal and Methylene Blue does not lead to a reaction, the 1,2-dicarbonyl compounds do give the expected result²². 1,4-Quinone react with oxygen to form 1,4-biradicals which can be trapped by olefins^{22,23}. The reactivity of some phosphorus compounds with regard to this reaction increases in the following series²²:

$$S S S$$

$$\parallel Ph_3P = S > Ph_2POEt > PhP(OEt)_2 > (EtO)_3P = S$$

UV irradiation of benzoin (18) in the presence of oxygen leads via a Norrish type I fission process to give the corresponding peroxy radical. The latter reacts with triphenyl-

\$7. (E.). (1)

phosphine sulphide (19) with desulphurization to generate triphenylphosphine oxide (20) and sulphur^{22,24,25} (equation 4). Further investigations have led to similar results concerning the irradiation of acylphosphine oxides and acylphosphonates in the presence of triphenylphosphine sulphide as a photoinitiator²⁶.

C. Reactions with Unsaturated Compounds

1. Oxides

Phosphine oxides are easily and quantitatively added to vinyl- or allyl-silanes in a photochemical reaction. Polyvinylsiloxanes may be employed in the same way. For example, dibutylphosphine oxide reacts with divinyldichlorosiloxane in its hydrolysed and polycondensed form to give poly{bis-[2-(dibutylphosphonyl)ethyl]siloxane}⁴. Irradiation of the phosphorylated cyclopropene 21 in the presence of diphenylisobenzofuran (22) as a 1,3-diene leads to a Diels-Alder reaction forming the exo-configured adduct 23¹⁰ (equation 5).

Whereas the reaction of tris(trifluoromethyl)phosphine oxide with ethylene does not result in a well characterized product, the use of tetrafluoroethylene yields a mixture of carbonyl fluoride, phosphorus trifluoride and hexafluoroethane in addition to recovered educt and polytetrafluoroethylene¹⁴.

2. Sulphides

On irradiation, diethylphosphine sulphide (24) easily adds to the olefinic bond of triethoxyvinylsilane (25), generating 1-diethylthiophosphoryl-2-triethoxysilyl ethane (26)⁴ (equation 6). Photoreaction of diethylphosphine sulphide with acrylonitrile results quantitatively in the formation of cyanoethyldiphenylphosphine sulphide²⁷. Diphosphine sulphides of the general formulae 27 and 28 react in the same way. While experiments trying to add sec-phosphine sulphides to isocyanates or activated olefins under alkaline

conditions failed, this reaction proceeds well under UV irradiation²⁸.

R¹=alkyl or alkenyl, cycloalkyl or cyclolalkenyl or aryl group

R²=alkylene or arylene aroup

D. Reactions with Other Compounds

1. Oxides

Using chlorine as a radical initiator, cyclohexane reacts with phosphorus compounds having a coordination number of four and a H-substituent to yield the corresponding phosphoryl compounds²⁹. In a similar manner this reaction proceeds using phosphonic acid and phosphinic acid derivatives. Chlorohexane is formed as a by-product in all cases. An explanation is to be found on the one hand in the low selectivity of the chlorine atom and on the other in the similarity of the bond energies of the cyclohexyl C—H bond³⁰ and the P—H bond³¹.

sec-Phosphine oxide	Phosphine oxide	Yield (%)
Et ₂ P(O)H	$\mathrm{Et_2}(\mathrm{C_6H_{11}})\mathrm{PO}$	84
$(C_6H_{11})_2P(O)H$	$(C_6H_{11})_3PO$	80
Ph ₂ P(O)H	$Ph_2(C_6H_{11})PO$	30

2. Sulphides

UV-irradiation of tetraphenyldiphosphine disulphide (29) in the presence of methanol (30) under a nitrogen atmosphere using a mercury lamp leads to diphenylphosphine sulphide (31) and O-methyl diphenylphosphinothioate (32). The reaction mechanism is explained by a homolytic fission of the P(S)—P(S) bond³² (equation 7). A similar reaction of tetraphenyldiphosphine in alcohols is reported to occur both photolytically and thermolytically respectively⁽³³⁾.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
S & S \\
\parallel & \parallel & \parallel \\
Ph_2P - PPh_2 \xrightarrow{hv} [2Ph_2\dot{P} = S] \xrightarrow{MeOH} S & S \\
(30) & \parallel & \parallel & \parallel \\
(29) & Ph_2PH + Ph_2POMe
\end{array}$$
(7)

While the irradiation of tetraethyldisphosphine disulphide in carbon disulphide or methanol in the presence of Rosc Bengal as a sensitizer and oxygen does not lead to the insertion product 33, reaction in benzene does produce this product, sulphur and

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
S & S \\
\parallel & \parallel \\
Et_2 POPEt_2
\end{array}$$
(33)

diethylphosphinic acid. The last is generated by oxidative desulphurization of the P=S group³². Photoreaction of tetraethyldiphosphine disulphide with α,α' -azobisisobutyronitrile in benzene solution only yields IR and mass spectroscopically determined amounts of diethyl-1-cyano-1-methylethylphosphine sulphides (34)³².

Investigations of the photochemically induced transfer of oxygen atoms of heterocyclic N-oxides to phosphine sulphides have primarily been undertaken with P-substituted phosphine sulphides (35) and 3-methylpyridazine-2-oxides (36) yielding the corresponding P-oxides (37) and the pyridazine 38³⁴ (equation 8).

On photolysis of pyridazine oxides in the presence of *para*-substituted triarylphosphine sulphides, no significant dependence on substitution is shown in the formation of the resulting phosphine oxides³⁵. The lack of a substitution effect implies either that the oxygenating species is not a strong electrophile or, being an electrophile, that the reactivity towards thiophosphoryl species is very high and, therefore, the selectivity is low. A similar effect is known in carbene chemistry³⁶. Such oxidation reactions are presumably of high ecological importance for the use of organophosphorus insecticides in agriculture^{37,38}.

Photooxidation of dialkyl sulphides leads to the corresponding sulphur peroxidic species, which react with phosphine sulphides to give dialkyl sulphoxides³⁹.

3. Selenides

The oxidation desulphurization at pentacovalent phosphorus by photogenerated peroxidic species also proceeds as a deselenation, similar to the reaction of sulphides already described. The reaction mechanisms in equations 9 and 10 have been proposed³⁹. The reaction is not restricted to dialkyl sulphides but also finds applications in the photooxidation of diphenyldiazomethane with benzophenone as product instead of sulphoxides³⁹.

$$R_{2}S \longrightarrow R_{2}S \longrightarrow R_{2}S \longrightarrow R_{2}S \longrightarrow R_{2}S \longrightarrow R_{2}S \longrightarrow R_{2}S \longrightarrow R_{3}P \longrightarrow R$$

Photooxidation of triphenylphosphine selenide in the presence of Rose Bengal or polystyrene- and silica gel-supported Rose Bengal exhibits different reactivities in the formation of triphenylphosphine oxide in different solutes⁴⁰:

$$Me_2C = O < MeCN < MeOH < MeOH-CHCl_3$$

$$\bigcirc$$
 $-(CH_2)_3-RB$

$$MeOH < MeCN < benzene < CH2Cl2-MeOH < CHCl3 < CH2Cl2 < CCl4$$

RB = Rose Bengal; (P) = polystyrcne copolymer; (S) = silica gel

The formation of phosphine oxides is inhibited by the addition of a typical singlet oxygen quencher, 1,4-diazobicyclo[2.2.2]octane (dabco), especially in non-polar solvents⁴⁰.

E. Radiolysis

1. Oxides

Tetraphenylmethylenediphosphine dioxide (39) in CHCl₃ shows high stability to γ -radiation⁴¹.

F. Miscellaneous

1. Oxides

Numerous EPR-investigations have been performed concerning the formation of radicals, e.g. photochemical reactions of quinonoid compounds¹⁹, carbenes and ketones²¹,

3-methyl-3-nitrosobutan-2-one, nitroso-tert-butane, nitrosobenzene and α -phenyl-N-tert-butylnitrone⁴² with phosphine oxides. These have involved kinetic and spectroscopic characterization of the diarylphosphonyl radical⁴³. X-irradiation of phosphine oxides leads to phosphine radicals⁴⁴ or to phosphonyl radicals²⁰, whereas on using (chloromethyl)diphenylphosphine oxide at 3 K the chloro-anion 40 is formed, although the C-radical 41 is formed at $70 \, \text{K}^{44}$. Formation of the corresponding radicals on γ -irradiation has been investigated using the following substrates: triamylphosphine oxide⁴⁵, tri-n-butylphosphine oxide⁴⁶, trimethylphosphine oxide⁴⁷ and triphenylphosphine oxide⁴⁸.

2. Sulphides

Numerous EPR investigations provide proof of radical formation, e.g. diphenylphosphino radicals are generated on X-irradiation of single crystals of triphenylphosphine sulphide 20,44 . Diphenylphosphine sulphide gives the thiophosphonyl radical and tert-phosphine sulphides yield thiophosphonyl radicals instead of the corresponding phosphoranyl radicals 50 . Quantum chemical computations have been performed for the dialkylphosphine sulphide and the trialkylphosphine sulphide systems. Investigations have been published describing the generation of radicals by γ -irradiation of triphenylphosphine sulphide and tetramethyldiphosphine disulphide.

3. Selenides

Radical formation has been identified by single crystal EPR measurement, e.g. methylphenylpropylphosphine selenide gives a σ^* radical anion⁵⁰. The measurements provide detailed information about its geometric and electronic structure. After X-irradiation of trimethylphosphine selenide, two different phosphorus-centred radicals are observed in the EPR experiment⁵², similarly to the photolysis of tricyclohexylphosphine selenide⁵².

III. ACYLPHOSPHINE DERIVATIVES

A. Molecular Reactions

1. Oxides

Photolysis of acylphosphine oxides yields radicals via type I fission of their triplet states⁵⁵.

B. Reactions with Other Compounds

1. Oxides

Photoinduced α -fission of acylphosphine oxide 42 leads to the adducts 43 and 44 by radical intermediates which can be scavenged using 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-oxyl

(tmpo)⁵⁶ (equation 11). Chemical trapping experiments using tmpo have proved to be a valuable means for the elucidation of reaction mechanisms^{57–59}. Irradiation of trimethylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide leads, in the presence of N-methyldiethanolamine, to the corresponding ester and diphenylphosphinous acid⁶⁰. This can be explained by attack of the amino alcohol on the electron-deficient carbonyl group. The pentavalent form of the tautomeric pair diphenylphosphine oxide–diphenylphosphinous acid prevails because of the possibility of $d\pi$ – $p\pi$ bond formation. Nevertheless, the nucleophilic character of the phosphinous acid 45 is revealed by the Michael addition of methyl methacrylate (46) yielding 47⁶⁰ (equation 12).

The phosphonyl radicals 48 show high reactivity towards olefins such as methacrylonitrile, styrene, methyl methacrylate, acrylonitrile, methyl acrylate, butyl vinyl ether and vinyl acetate⁶¹. This can be ascribed to their tetrahedral structure. In the presence of

oxygen the radicals formed by a Norrish type I cleavage process cause oxidative desulphurization at pentacovalent phosphorus.

2. Sulphides

Acylphosphine sulphides react in a similar manner to their oxygen analogues. Compared with the phosphine oxides their reactivity towards olefins is about one order of magnitude lower⁶². Here, the reactive agent is the thiophosphonyl radical **49**.

C. Use as Polymerization Initiators

Oxides

The results of the investigations described in the last section point to the most important application of acylphosphine oxides as photoinitiators⁶³. Compared with acetophenones they show a red shift of the UV absorption maximum of about 50 nm⁶⁴. The first species to be investigated which were stable against solvolysis were phosphine oxides (50-53) prepared by Arbuzov synthesis⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶.

Reactions of acylphosphine oxides and also other photoinitiators are described phenomenologically⁶⁷. Trimethylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide promotes the cationic polymerization of butyl vinyl ether in the presence of diphenyliodonium ions. The reaction mechanism shown in equation 13 is proposed⁶⁸.

Although stable onium salts have been shown to be good photoinitiators for cationic polymerization⁶⁹, it has to be admitted that in the absence of acylphosphine oxide the reaction described above does not yield the polymer. Investigations of the mechanism have been performed similarly using tetrahydrofuran^{68,70} and (3,4-epoxycyclohexylmethyl)-3', 4' -epoxycyclohexane carboxylate⁷¹. The reactivity of several acylphosphine oxides is comparable to that of the corresponding acetophenone derivatives⁶⁵.

Photochemical polymerization yielding copolymers containing isocyanate groups can be achieved with acylphosphine oxides. For example, reaction of vinyl isocyanate, 2-ethylhexyl acrylate, methyl acrylate, methyl acetate and *tert*-butyl chloride in the presence of 2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide all lead to the corresponding polymers⁶³. Photopolymerization of acrylates is enhanced by the addition of a leuco dyestuff such as triphenylmethane rosaniline⁷². Photoinitiators are used in the production of acrylic resins in both non-pigmented⁷³ and TiO₂-pigmented systems⁷⁴. Different P=O and C=O units containing initiators have been compared by the method of thin-film polymerization of acrylates⁶⁶ and unsaturated polyesters⁷⁵ using laser nephelometry.

Acylphosphine oxides can be used as photoinitiators for unsaturated polyesters with 73,76,77 and without 76,78 using solvents. For example, a hardened film is developed by irradiation of a TiO₂ containing styrene solution of the unsaturated polyesters derived from tetrahydrophthalic anhydride, maleiic anhydride and diethylene glycol 79. Various useful phosphine oxides (54–70) have been synthesized and characterized 76,79,80. The sunlight-induced photohardening of some polymer systems can be achieved by using

additional initiators such as benzil dialkyl ketals and/or methylthioxanthone together with phosphine oxides 81 .

$$(64)$$

$$(65)$$

$$Me(CH2)4
$$Me = 0$$

$$(66)$$

$$Me(CH2)3
$$Me = Et$$

$$(68)$$

$$Me = 0$$

$$(69)$$

$$Me = 0$$

$$(69)$$$$$$

2. Sulphides

In the presence of acylphosphine oxides or sulphides, photopolymerization can be induced of oligomeric epoxyacrylates such as bisphenol A diglycidyl ether, trimethylpropane triacrylate, Michler's ketone (tetramethyl-p,p-diaminobenzophenone) and Victoria Blue⁷². The exposure times are as follows:

(70)

Initiator	Irradiation cycle
2,4,6-Trimethylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide	5
2,4,6-Trimethylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine sulphide	5
2,4,6-Trimethylbenzoylditolylphosphine oxide	5
2,4,6-Trimethylbenzoylditolylphosphine sulphide	7

The time of exposure required to obtain a sufficient degree of polymerization is extended in the absence of a sensitizer, e.g. Michler's ketone⁷². Acylphosphine sulphides can also be used as initiators in the polymerization of unsaturated polyesters⁷⁷.

D. Miscellaneous

1. Oxides

Kinetic and mechanistic aspects concerning the initiation of free radical polymerization by acylphosphine oxides have been reported^{82,83}. These compounds show relatively strong absorptions at $350-400 \,\mathrm{nm^{84}}$. Flash photolysis of *o*-methylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide indicates that α -fission competes with enolization (triplet state). A high quantum yield is found for the formation of the diphenylphosphonyl radical^{82,83}. The bimolecular rate constants for the reaction of phosphonyl radicals with several monomers in cyclohexane have been reported⁸³.

Absorption measurements of 2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide in dilute solutions of benzene, methanol and dichloromethane using 20-ns flashes of 347 nm radiation indicate the formation of phosphonyl radicals. The singlet and triplet lifetimes were estimated as $\tau < 1$ -ns, the singlet energy being around 288 kJ mol⁻¹. Rate constants for the reaction with olefinic compounds are 6.0×10^7 (styrene and methyl methacrylate), 2.7×10^7 (methylcrylate), 1.8×10^7 (acrylonitrile), 5.0×10^6 (tert-butyl vinyl ether) and 2.0×10^6 (vinyl acetate). The quantum yield of radical formation lies in the range $\phi = 0.5 - 0.7^{85}$.

The influence of methyl substitution in benzoyldiphenylphosphine oxides has been investigated under flash photolytic conditions⁸⁶ in addition to reactions of pivaloyldiphenylphosphine oxide⁸⁷. The use of Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy gave helpful hints in the determination of the photoinitiative efficiencies of acylphosphine oxides, e.g. 2,4,6-trimethylbenzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide⁸⁸. The flash photolysis ESR method together with chemically induced dynamic electron polarization (CIDEP) allowed the mechanism of photochemical reactions leading to the formation of radicals to be explained^{89,90}. After photolysis of 2,6-dimethoxybenzoylphosphine oxide (71) with a 308-nm laser, the ESR signals have been evaluated by time integration spectroscopy (TIS)⁹¹.

IV. PHOSPHENE DERIVATIVES

A. Sulphides

Reactions of phosphorus (III) compounds with $p\pi-p\pi$ double bonds have occasionally been investigated ^{92,93}. The sterically stable educt (*E*)-bis(2,4,6-tri-tert-butylphenyl)-diphosphene (72) readily reacts with elemental sulphur to give the monosulphide 73.

After UV irradiation in toluene solution, (E)-2,3-bis(2,4,6-tri-tert-butylphenyl)-1,2,3thiadiphosphirane (74) is formed quickly 94 (equation 14). Even in the solid state the sulphide 73 after irradiation gives the isomeric diphosphirane 74.

V. DIAZOPHOSPHINE DERIVATIVES

A. Molecular Reactions

1. Oxides

Diazo compounds produced in an aldol-like reaction of (diazomethyl)diphenylphosphine oxide with aldehydes show two competing reaction pathways after UV irradiation: H- and R-migration. For example, photolysis of (1-diazo-2-hydroxypropyl)diphenylphosphine oxide (75) yields the carbene 76 which undergoes H-shift predominantly to form (2-oxopropyl)diphenylphosphine oxide (77). In other cases the carbenes are less reactive and undergo R-migration to form (2-hydroxyvinyl)diphenylphosphine oxide (78)⁹⁵ (equation 15). This reaction occurs similarly to the copper(I) acetylacetonatecatalysed thermolysis 95.

HO
$$PPh_2$$
 N_2
 N_2
 N_2
 N_2
 N_2
 N_3
 N_4
 N_5
 N_5
 N_6
 N_6

R = Me, $4-MeC_6H_4$, Ph, $4-NCC_6H_4$, 2-naphthenyl, 2-thienyl

After irradiation of (diazomethyl)cyclopropene (79), the carbene 80 is obtained, which decays to give the acetylenes 81 and 82 in a sort of chelatropic reaction, whereas by widening of the ring the phosphorylated cyclobutadiene 83 is formed, which in turn dimerizes to give 8496 (equation 16).

(16)

B. Reactions with Carbonyl Compounds

1. Oxides

After irradiation with UV light (diazobenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxide yields the phosphorylcarbene with N_2 loss, showing a 1,2-phenyl shift from phosphorus to the carbene carbon atom^{97,98}. A short-lived intermediate is (diphenylmethylene)phenylphosphine oxide with the rare coordination number of 3. Isolation of the reactive 'phosphene' species has not been achieved in this system⁹⁹. With carbonyl compounds trapping of these phosphines is possible. For example, irradiation of (diazobenzyl)-diphenylphosphine oxide in the presence of benzaldehyde or 1-naphthaldehyde in benzene yields the corresponding 1,2-oxaphosphetanes 85 and 86 in addition to the cyclopropanated solvent by [2+2]-cycloaddition of the carbene with the aldehydes¹⁰⁰.

Irradiation of the (diazo)phosphine oxide 87 in the presence of α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds 88 yields 2-oxo-2,3,3-triphenyl-4-vinyl-1,2-oxaphosphetanes (89) via the intermediates described above. A subsequent cycloreversible reaction, such as an olefination, leads to butadienes or hexatrienes (90), respectively and dioxophenyl-phosphorane (91)¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰³ (equation 17). The carbene PhP(O)CPhBz, produced photochemically from the corresponding diazo compound, undergoes [4 + 2]-cycloaddition with aldehydes and ketons, e.g. BzPh, p-RPhBz (R = OMe, Me, Cl), AcMe, AcPh, cyclohexanone, AcCMe₃, AcH, BzH, Cl₃CCHO, crotonaldehyde and cinnamaldehyde. In the case of BzPh the heterocyclic 91–94 are obtained 104.

Triphenylphosphene 95, produced in a photoreaction, reacts with tropone⁹⁶ in an [8+2]-cycloaddition reaction to give $3,3\alpha$ -dihydro-2,3,3-triphenyl-2*H*-cyclohept[d]-1,2-oxaphosphole-2-oxide (97) (equation 18). The [2+2]-adduct is not obtained¹⁰⁵. Comparisons with the *C*-analogue diphenyl ketene have been published¹⁰⁶. The reaction of the carbene with tetracyclone yields the [6+2]-adduct 98 and the [12+2]-adduct 99¹⁰⁵; the structure of 98 is known from X-ray analysis.

 $R^1 = Ph$, p-MePh, H, Me, p-CH=CHPhOMe, CH=CMe3

 $R^2 = H$, Me

 $R^3 = H$, Ph, Me

 $R^4 = p$ -MeOPh, p-MePh, H, Ph, Me

C. Reactions with Other Compounds

1. Oxides

Photolysis of (diazobenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxide in benzene yields 7-(exodiphenylphosphoryl)-7-endo-phenylnorcaradiene as the adduct of the carbene with the solvent^{100,101}. After reaction of (diazomethyl)diphenylphosphine oxide (100) with ketene 101 in the presence of benzophenone in CH_2Cl_2 under nitrogen, two products showing a spiro structure are obtained, i.e. (E)-1-(diphenylphosphinyl)-5-oxo-4-oxaspiro[2.3]-hexane (102) and the corresponding Z-isomer 103¹⁰⁷ (equation 19). In a similar manner diketene reacts with α -diazoketones¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹⁰.

The carbene reactions of substituted (diazomethyl)diphenylphosphine oxide 104 in methanol proceed in a complex sequence. At the carbene stage (105), P/C—Ph shift competes with formation of the phosphinic ester 110 via the intermediate 106 and with

(20)

formation of the carboxylic ester 111 via C/C—R shift and the ketencs 109. OH-insertion yields the methoxy compound 107 and the acyl methane 109 is formed via reductive N₂ elimination¹¹¹ (equation 20). The methoxy compound 107 may undergo cyclomerization to the corresponding oxetanes by intramolecular reduction of the carbonyl group¹¹¹. This reaction should proceed via the diradical similarly to the formation of cyclobutanol^{112,113}. Presumably for steric reasons, only the *trans* isomers (P—/acyl group) of the resultant oxetanes could be detected¹¹¹.

(Diazobenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxide reacts with H_2O with OH insertion and via a Wolff rearrangement with H_2O addition to give the α -hydroxyphosphine oxide and the diphenylmethyl phenylphosphinic acid¹¹⁴. Using (diazomethyl)diphenylphosphine oxide it could be shown that the P/C—Ph shift product also reacts with other protic nucleophiles than H_2O and methanol, e.g. with isopropanol, morpholine and aniline¹¹¹. Photolysis of the (diazo)phosphine oxides 112 in dimethyl sulphide leads to a reaction similar to a radical trap reaction to form dimethylsulphonio methanides 113 and, sometimes, the methylene compounds 114^{115} (equation 21). The first ylide syntheses were performed using bis(phenylsulphono)diazomethane¹¹⁶, tetraphenydiazocyclopentadiene¹¹⁷ and diazomalonic esters¹¹⁸.

Ph P C C C R
$$\frac{hv}{Me_2S}$$
 Ph P C C C R + Ph P C C C R + Ph O C C C R (112)

(113)

(114)

R = Me, Ph, p -BrPh, p -Me₂NPh, OEt, NH₂

(21)

2. Sulphides

UV irradiation of benzoyldiphenylthiophosphoranyldiazomethane (115) in methanol yields the thiophosphinate 116 and the sulphides 117 and 118. In methanol-benzene mixtures also the phosphinate 119 and the thiophosphinate 120 are formed (equation 22).

Sulphur migration is observed in the photolysis of (diazobenzyl)diphenylphosphine sulphide in alcoholic solution¹²⁰. The mechanism can be explained by the formation of a three-membered ring intermediate. These thiirenes are found to be very reactive^{121,122}. The last step can be viewed as an intramolecular Arbuzov-type reaction. Analogously, N-methylanilinophosphonium iodide reacts with alkoxide and thiol¹²³. Consequently, in dioxane–water α -mercaptobenzyldiphenylphosphine oxide (121) is obtained whereas in methanol–xylene α -methylthiobenzyldiphenylphosphine oxide (122) is formed¹²⁰. Irradiation in pure xylene leads only to the carbene dimer¹²⁰. Analogously to the phosphine oxides, a 1,2-phenyl migration occurs, and phosphine sulphides yield the corresponding products to the oxides¹²⁰.

VI. PHOSPHOLE DERIVATIVES

A. Molecular Reactions

1. Oxides

When a solution of 3,4,5-triphenyl-4-phosphabicyclo[3.1.0]hex-2-ene-4-oxide in dry peroxide-free tetrahydrofuran is photolysed under a nitrogen atmosphere, orange crystals of 3,3',4,4',5,5'-hexaphenyl-4,4' -diphosphabi(cyclohexyl-2,5-dienylidene)-4,4'-dioxide are obtained in good yield¹²⁴. Irradiation of the structurally similar pyrazoline 123 leads to the same reaction product 124¹²⁴. Analytical data for the product 124 are similar to those of Märkl's compound¹²⁵.

Sensitized irradiation of 1-phenyl-3-phospholene oxide dimer (125) led to the cage product 126 in nearly quantitative yield 126 (equation 23). Analytical investigation of this

structure indicates a cage structure obtained by intramolecular [2+2]-cycloaddition of the *endo*-Diels-Alder product 125^{127} .

Photolysis of 3-phospholene-1-oxides yields stereoisomeric dienes depending on the substituents used only if the phenylphosphinidene oxide that is formed simultaneously is trapped ^{128,129}. Reaction of buta-1,3-diene with phenyldibromophosphine followed by bromination, dchydrobromination with triethylamine and [2+4]-addition with cyclopentadiene leads to the Diels-Alder adduct 127. Reacting as a dienophile, the cage product 128 is formed with photochemical initiation in acetone¹³⁰ (equation 24).

2. Sulphides

Irradiation of 3,4-dimethyl-1-phenyl-3-phospholene-1-sulphide in solutions of acetonitrile, diethyl ether, tetrahydrofuran or dioxane yields a polymer and the basic material. If, however, precautions are taken to ensure that the reactive phenylphosphinothiolidene intermediate is fully consumed, the corresponding dienes are obtained¹²⁸.

B. Reactions with Alcohols

1. Oxides

2-Phospholene oxide (129) is photochemically reduced in the presence of isopropyl alcohol to yield a mixture of isomeric phospholanes (130)^{131,132} (equation 25). After irradiation of 129 in methanol–xylene, the possible ROH adducts are not obtained^{131,132}. Photolysis of 1-phenyl-3-methyl-3-phospholene oxide in methanol yields methyl phenylphosphinate as the only isolable products, whereas some isoprene is detected in the reaction mixture¹³³. The existence of the presumed intermediate phosphinidene oxide is proved by the following method: photolysis of phospholene oxide in benzene, addition of methanol as a trapping agent in the dark and detection of 10% methyl phenylphosphinate¹³³. The reaction is assumed to proceed via a poly(phosphinidene oxide) intermediate¹³⁴.

Me
$$\frac{hv}{i-\text{PrOH}}$$
Ph
$$\frac{130}{}$$

Photolysis of 1-phenyl-3-phosphole oxide dimer (131) in methanol yields methyl phenylphosphinate (132); the expected dihydrophosphindole product 133 could not be isolated 126 (equation 26). However, after irradiation in methanol solution, the

STATE

adduct 134 from triphenylphosphole oxide¹³⁵ and cyclopentadiene leads to the phosphinate 135 and the dihydroindene derivative 136¹³⁰ (equation 27).

Photolysis of 2-diazo-4,4-dimethyl-1-phenyl- λ^5 -phospholane-1,3-diene (137) in methanol does not show a phosphorylcarbene-methyleneoxophosphorane rearrangement but formation of the carboxylic ester 138, presumably by solvolysis and Wolff rearrangement. Further, the cyclic α -oxophosphine oxide 139 is formed by reductive nitrogen elimination and the 1,2, λ^5 -oxaphosphorinane 140 by O/H insertion, ether cleavage and isomerization 137 (equation 28). This isomerization to 140 corresponds to the 'diphenyl reduction' of 2,3-dihydroxy-1,3-diphenylprop-2-en-1-one 138.

Me
$$N_2$$

Ne N_2

Ne N

2. Sulphides

UV irradiation of 3,4-dimethyl-1-phenyl-3-phospholene-1-sulphide in methanol yields 2,3-dimethylbuta-1,3-diene, *O*-methyl phenylphosphinothioate and *O*,*O*-dimethyl phenylphosphonothioate. The product ratio depends on the length of irradiation¹²⁸. Several methyl-substituted 3-phospholene sulphides have been investigated to determine their ability to generate dienes¹²⁸.

Different species 141–143 have been probed in relation to photofission of 7-phosphanorbornene in methanol¹³⁹. Likewise, investigation were undertaken to determine whether the very high strain existing in the 3-phospholene ring would improve the yield of the photoreaction. Thermolysis, however, shows loss to the RP=S bridge^{140–142}.

Me Me Me Me Me Me
$$CO_2R$$
 $R = Ph, n-Bu$
 $R = Ph, n-Bu$
 $R = Ph, n-Bu$
 $R = Me, H$

(141)

(142)

(143)

For example, photolysis of 7-(4-bromobutyl)-7-phosphanorbornene (144) leads to *O*-methyl (4-bromobutyl)phosphinothioate (145) in good yield, reacting after treatment with NaH-thf to give an interesting carbon phosphorus heterocyclic 1-methoxyphospholane sulphide (146)¹³⁹ (equation 29). This reaction sequence is also applicable to the production of ring systems such as phosphorinanes and phosphepanes¹³⁹. After irradiation in methanol, the adduct from triphenylphosphole sulphide and cyclopentadiene generates the corresponding thiophosphinate and diphenyldihydroindene¹³⁰.

3. Selenides

After UV irradiation in methanol, the phosphine selenide 147 reacts to give the selenophosphinate 148 via the intermediate phenyl selenoxophosphine PhP=Se¹³⁰. Photolysis of 5,6-dimethyl-8-anti-phenyl-3a,4,7,7a-tetrahydro-4,7-phosphinideneisobenzofuran-1,3-dione-8-selenide (149) in the presence of methanol leads, after a sufficient irradiation time, to the product *O,O*-dimethylphenylselenophosphinate (150) via the cor-

responding phosphinate ^{143,144} (equation 30). A similar mechanism is shown by 5,6-dimethyl-2, 8-anti-diphenyl-3a, 4, 7, 7a-tetrahydro-4, 7-phosphinideneisoindole-1, 3-dione-8-selenide ¹⁴⁴. The central point of the reactions described above is the intermediate PhP=X (X = Se, S, O) as a typical example of the very interesting compounds with $\lambda^3 \sigma^2$ -phosphorus ¹⁴⁵⁻¹⁴⁹.

C. Reactions with Other Compounds

1. Oxides

Photochemical initiation of a cycloaddition between 1-phenyl-3-phospholene-1-oxide (151) and dichloromaleimide (152) yields the two isomeric forms 153 and 154. Their structure follows from their chemistry and the stereochemistry of their fission products¹⁵⁰ (equation 31). Using these compounds, the synthesis of 1-phenyldihydrophosphepin-1-oxide and some other dihydrophosphepins can be realized¹⁵⁰.

In a similar manner, 1-methyl-3-phospholene-1-oxide, 1-ethoxy-3-phospholene-1-oxide and 1-chloro-3-phospholene-1-oxide react with dichlorovinylene carbonate. In the presence of acetophenone this addition is stereoselective. The adducts may be used as

educts for the synthesis of 3-phospha[3.1.0]bicyclohexanes¹⁵¹. The cyclic α -diazo- β -oxophospholane oxide 155 undergoes photolysis in aniline via N/H insertion to give the secondary amine 156. The difference to the reaction in basic methanol (methanolate ion) is due to the weaker nucleophilic character of the aniline¹³⁷ (equation 32).

Me
$$N_2$$
 N_2 N_2 N_2 N_2 N_2 N_3 N_4 N_4 N_4 N_5 N_4 N_5 N_4 N_5 N_5 N_6 N

D. Miscellaneous

The reaction rate and the stereospecificity of the photochemical extrusion of phosphinidene oxide from the excited singlet states of 3-phospholene oxides are dependent on the configuration of the asymmetric leaving group. Consequently a steric influence on the transition state exists 129.

An effect of the elements in the phospholene chalcogenide group during the photofragmentation of 3,4-dimethyl-1-phenyl-3-phospholene derivatives has been reported, as has a methyl substitution effect in the 3-phospholene-1-sulphide species¹²⁸. The rate of photochemical diene generation from 3-phospholene-1-sulphide is comparable to that from the corresponding oxides¹²⁸.

VII. PHOSPHORIN DERIVATIVES

A. Oxides

Although, strictly, the oxaphosphorin oxides are not phosphorus chalcogenides, they may be compared with the acylphosphine oxides because of the similarity of the reactive molecular site and the homologous reaction meachanisms. For example, the 6-acyl-(6H)-dibenz[c,e][1,2]oxaphosphine-6-oxides 157 are used as photoinitiators in polymerization¹⁵². Investigations performed on the effect of γ - and α -rays in the exatraction of americium(III) and curium(III) with tetraphenylmethylenediphosphorin dioxide in chloroform from aqueous nitric acid solution showed an unusually high resistance to radiation. Up to 15 kJ ml⁻¹ could be observed¹⁵³.

$$R^{2}$$
 P
 C
 Ar
 R^{3}
 R^{1} , R^{2} , R^{3} = halo, alkyl, alkoxy

(157)

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CHAPTER 5

Spectroscopy of phosphine chalcogenides

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I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with UV-visible, vibrational and magnetic resonance spectroscopic results available for RR'R"PX, where R,R' and R" are hydrogen atoms or substituents bonded to phosphorus via a carbon atom and X = O, S, Se or Te. We shall consider the spectroscopic techniques in descending order of energies for the transitions involved, which also corresponds to increasing numbers of published papers.

II. ULTRAVIOLET AND VISIBLE (ELECTRONIC) SPECTROSCOPY

Following early reports on UV absorptions of Ph₃PO by Jaffé and Freedman^{1,2} and Horner and Ödiger³, a more detailed listing of UV absorptions for Ph₃PO and related molecules was reported by Schindlbauer⁴. These are summarized in Table 1; the band

TABLE 1. UV absorptions of some phosphine oxides (band positions in nm with $\log \varepsilon$ values in parentheses)^a

Compound		UV abs		
Ph ₃ PO	225(4.30)	259(3.13)	264(3.22)	271(3.13)
(PhCH ₂) ₃ PO	219(4.26)	255(2.67)	261(2.78)	267(2.60)
Ph ₂ MePO	223(4.22)	259(2.96)	264.5(3.10)	271(3.13)
PhP(O)(CH ₂ CH ₂ CN) ₂	218(4.13)	259(2.81)	265(2.93)	272(2.86)
PhP(O)(CH ₂ CH ₂ COOH) ₂	218(4.51)	258(2.49)	264(2.63)	271(2.56)

^aAll data refer to solutions in ethanol.

intensities were found to increase with the number of PhP units, but the band positions depended on other substituents.

UV spectra of Ph₃PO, 1,4-phenylenebisdiphenylphosphine oxide, α-naphthyldiphenylphosphine oxide and several naphthylenebisphenylphosphine oxides show that the PO group effectively 'insulates' the ligands from one another, and there is little conjugation in the molecules⁵.

A Russian paper⁶ states that curve-fitting techniques can resolve the UV absorptions of Ph₃PO into no less than ten components, but no explanation was given as to the assignment of these.

The lack of change in λ_{max} for $(p\text{-}XC_6H_4)_3PE$, where X=H, Me or MeO and E=O, or X=Me or MeO and E=S, with changing solvent was ascribed to a dominant role for the ArP^+E^- form, rather than $ArP=E^7$.

UV spectra of arylphosphine oxides containing electron-donating para substituents show progressive shifts to longer wavelength with increasing substituent electron-donor ability. This is consistent with $d\pi-p\pi$ bonding between the PO group and the aromatic ring⁸. The UV absorption band of aniline is shifted to longer wavelength by para substituents containing phosphorus in a way typical of ^-M substituents, e.g. for $p-H_2NC_6H_4P(O)Ph_2$, λ_{max} is at 267.5 nm, with $\log \varepsilon = 4.32^{\circ}$. UV spectra of $Ph_nP(Z)(C_6H_4OMe-p)_{3-n}$, where Z=O or S and n=0-2, show no dependence of the electronic effect of P on the nature of the second substituent 10 . The UV spectra of 2-, and 4-picolyldiphenylphosphine oxides, such as 1, show that they exist in that form, with no evidence for the tautomeric 4-ylidene forms 11 .

$$Ph_{2}(0)P + P(0)Ph_{2}$$

$$Ph_{2}(0)P + P(0)Ph_{2}$$

$$(2)$$

Small bathochromic shifts were found, due to the $Ph_2P(O)$ groups, in the UV bands of the oligophenyls in 2, where $n=1-4^{12}$. Substitution of an NMe_2 group into the phenyl ring of bis(p-nitrophenylethynyl)phenylphosphine oxide gave rise to extra UV absorptions assigned to electronic transitions involving electrons delocalised through phosphorus¹³.

Other phosphine oxides and sulphides for which UV data have been reported are tris(n-methylphenyl)phosphine oxides, n=2, 3 or 4 ¹⁴; (p-XC₆H₄)Ph₂PE, X = H, Cl, OMc or NMc₂, E = O or S¹⁵; Ph₂EtPO¹⁶; (p-XC₆H₄)Et₂PE, X = H, Cl or OMe, E = O or S¹⁷; cis-4-Ph₂P(O)C₆H₄CH=CHC₆H₄R, R = 4-Me₂N, 3-Me₂N, 4-MeO-, 3-MeO or 2-MeO¹⁸; R₂P(O)Ph, RP(O)Ph₂, R₂P(O)C₆H₄NMe₂-p, R₂P(O)Et, R₃PO, R = PhC= C-¹⁹; (o-, m- and p-MeOC₆H₄)PhP(O)Me²⁰; (p-CNC₆H₄)P(O)R₂, R = Me or Ph²¹; (2,3,5,6-Me₄C₆H)₃P(O) and (2,3,5,6-Me₄C₆H)₂P(O)Ph²²; and Buⁿ₂P(O)CH=CH₂²³.

Changes in the luminescence properties of substituted triarylphosphine oxides with the nature of the substituent have been reported 24 . The fluorescence properties of 14 tertiary phosphine oxides showed that significant fluorescence only occurred if the substituent on phosphorus was itself fluorescent, e.g. ArPhP(O)Me, where Ar = isomeric naphthyl derivatives 25 . UV data on RPh_2PO , where R = l = naphthyl, 9-anthryl or 1-pyrenyl, all showed intense fluorescence in the blue region 26 .

The UV spectra of 3, where X = NR (R = H or Me), O or S, are indicative of strong $d\pi - p\pi$ bonding between PO and the ring^{27,28}. The UV spectra of 4 and its difference of analogue show very little π -electron donation from the ferrocenyl fragment to the

phosphorus²⁹. λ_{max} values have been listed for 5, where R, R' = Me or Ph³⁰.

I₂, IBr and ICl complexation with phosphine oxides, sulphides and selenides was followed by shifts in characteristic UV bands of the latter compounds³¹. The UV spectra of 6, where R = 7, with a range of substituents X, show that the P(O)Ph₂ group induces a bathochromic shift in the 1L_a and 1L_b bands of the styrene fragment³². The λ_{max} (and log ε) values for a range of P=Se compounds have been given, including the following data for Bu₃P=Se: $\pi \to \pi^*$ 195 nm (4.18); $n \to \sigma^*$ 208 nm (4.06); $n \to \pi^*$ 238 nm (3.53)³³.

III VIBRATIONAL SPECTROSCOPY

A. Phosphine Oxides

Values of vP=O in a wide range of phosphine oxides have been tabulated by Thomas³⁴. The parent oxide PH₃O was prepared by red-visible photolysis of PH₃-O₃ mixtures in matrices. All its vibrational modes were seen for H₃P¹⁶O and most of its other isotopomers (Table 2). Normal coordinate analysis gave the following force constant values: P=O stretch, $(9.53 \pm 0.16) \times 10^2 \,\mathrm{N\,m^{-1}}$; P H stretch, $(3.25 \pm 0.01) \times 10^2 \,\mathrm{N\,m^{-1}}$. ³⁵Ab initio SCF calculations gave calculated IR spectra of H₃PO, D₃PO and H₃P¹⁸O which were in good agreement with the above figures³⁶.

IR and Raman spectra of $Me_2P(H)=O$ were assignable under C_s symmetry, with vPH at 2333 cm⁻¹ (IR) and 2348 cm⁻¹ (Raman), and vP=O 1169 cm⁻¹ (IR) and 1155 cm⁻¹ (Raman). A normal coordinate analysis suggested that there was extensive mixing of all modes except for these two³⁷. Ranges of vPH wavenumbers were listed for RR'P(H)O (2294–2380 cm⁻¹) and $R_2P(H)S$ (2288–2299 cm⁻¹)³⁸. IR data were listed for $CH_3(CF_3)P(H)=O$ and $Mc_2(CF_3)P=X$, where X=O or S^{39} . vPH for (cyclo- $C_8H_{17})_2P(H)O$ showed that the P-H bond could take part in weak hydrogen bonding⁴⁰.

TABLE 2. Vibrational assignments for PH₃O (cm⁻¹)

	$H_3P^{16}O$	$H_3P^{18}O$	$D_3P^{16}O$	$D_3P^{18}O$
v_{as} PH	2371.5	2371.6	_	
v_s PH	2359.0	2367.0	1721.1	1720.0
$\nu P = O$	1240.2	1213.7	1217.3	1174.1
$\delta_{\rm s} {\rm PH_3}$	1143.5	_	843.6	840.5
$\delta_{\rm as} {\rm PH_3}$	1114.3	1114.3	_	
δ HPO	853.0	849.4	655.9	651.3

The intensity of vPH in R_2 P(H)=O, where $R = n \cdot C_6 H_{13}$, cyclo- $C_6 H_{11}$, Ph or PhCH₂, correlates with the electronegativity of the phosphorus substituents⁴¹.

A very thorough assignment of the vibrational modes of Me_3PO , Me_3PS and Me_3PSe and their perdeuteriated analogues has been made (Table 3)⁴²; values of the Me torsional modes had been proposed earlier⁴³, and there had been several other, incomplete, studies^{44–47}. There have also been a number of approximate or partial normal coordinate analyses of Me_3PO^{48-54} .

IR data have been collected for $Me_2P(O)CH_2X$, where X = Cl, Br or I. These show that there are equilibria between *trans* (C_s symmetry) and *gauche* (C_1) conformers in CCl_4 solution⁵⁵. ($ClCH_2$)₃PO has δCH_2 modes at 1391 and 1410 cm⁻¹⁵⁶. νPO (1327 cm⁻¹)

TABLE 3. Vibrational assignments (cm $^{-1}$) for Me₃PE, where E = O, S or Se (data for perdeuteriated analogues in parentheses)

		E	
	0	S	Se
A_1			
$v_1 vCH_3$	2974(2226)	2967(2219)	2958(2218)
$v_2 vCH_3$	2906(2126)	2895(2116)	2892(2117)
$v_3 \delta CH_3$	1408(1028)	1408(1020)	1400(1016)
$v_4 \delta CH_3$	1300(1021)	1306(1015)	1301(1016)
$v_5 \rho \text{CH}_3$	946(781)	951(782)	952(782)
$v_6 vPC_3$	667(597)	714(648)	689(619)
$v_7 vP = E$	1161(1165)	565(533)	441(414)
$v_8 \delta PC_3$	320(271)	282(270)	260(232)
E			
$v_{13} v CH_3$	2974(2226)	2976(2225)	2975(2230)
$v_{14} v CH_3$	2974(2226)	2967(2210)	2967(2224)
$v_{15} vCH_3$	2906(2126)	2895(2116)	2892(2117)
$v_{16} \delta CH_3$	1438(1040)	1429(1043)	1425(1027)
$v_{17}\delta CH_3$	1430(1028)	1424(1020)	1417(1023)
$v_{18} \delta CH_3$	1282(1021)	1287(1015)	1290(1016)
$v_{19} \rho \text{CH}_3$	962(701)	982(647)	978(695)
$v_{20} \rho \text{CH}_3$	867(797)	865(822)	862(805)
$v_{21} vPC_3$	741(625)	744(628)	748(627)
$v_{22} \delta PC_3$	250(224)	282(247)	271(232)
$v_{23} \rho PC_3$	360(226)	229(202)	202(180)

and other modes were assigned for $(CF_3)_3PO^{57}$. Detailed vibrational assignments have been proposed for $Me_2(R)P = O$, where R = decyl or dodecyl, which suggest that in the crystals the P = O bond is perpendicular to the plane of the hydrocarbon skeletal plane ⁵⁸.

Solutions of Ph₃P¹⁶O and Ph₃P¹⁸O in CCl₄ show vPO at 1202 and 1123 cm⁻¹ respectively⁵⁹. Several other papers have discussed the vibrational spectrum of

triphenylphosphine oxide, mostly relating to phenyl modes, however⁶⁰⁻⁶³.

[Me₃CC \equiv C]₃P \equiv O has $vP\equiv$ O at 1235 and vPC_3 at 576 and 610 cm $^{-1}$, together with ligand modes in the expected ranges. The P \equiv S analogue has $vP\equiv$ S at 689 and vPC_3 at 556 and 588 cm $^{-1}$ 64. $vP\equiv$ O assignments are summarized for $R_n(C_6F_5)_{3-n}$

P=O, where R = Me, Et or Ph and n = 0.1 or 2, in Table 4 65.

The vP=O wavenumbers in the IR spectra of $R^1R^2R^3PO$, where R^1,R^2 and R^3 are Ph or alkyl groups, are related by quadratic equations to the P-substituent bond energies and to the P(O)-M bond energies in their uranyl complexes⁶⁶. The vP=O wavenumbers of $R_3P=O$, where R=n-butyl, 2-ethylhexyl, n-octyl or phenyl, suggest that there is no fundamental theoretical justification for equations relating vP=O to π -parameters of substituents at the phosphorus⁶⁷. Two other reports have been made of vPO for tri-n-octylphosphine oxide ^{68,69}.

A linear dependence was found between vP = X in $R_3P = E$, where R = alkyl and X = O, S, S or Te, and the function $(\Sigma M/m_Pm_X)^{1/2}E_PE_X$, where M = total mass of the molecule, m_P , $m_X =$ masses of P and X and E_P , $E_X =$ Pauling electronegativities of P and

 X^{70} .

The IR spectra of Ph₃PX, where X = O, S or Se, suggest the following values for vP = X; 1191 (O), 637 (S) and 561 (Se)cm⁻¹. In each case $v_{as}PPh_3$ lay in the range 511–540 cm⁻¹ $^{-1}$. vPO of R₃PO, where R = phenyl, p-tolyl, o-tolyl, 2,4-xylyl, 2,6-xylyl, mesityl or duryl, were assigned. In the o-tolyl and xylyl species the wavenumbers were lowered owing to interaction between the ortho-Me proton and the oxygen atom. Additional lowering in the last three compounds was due to further steric crowding⁷². There has been an extensive series of papers on the IR spectra of substituted triarylphosphine oxides or sulphides, in many cases proposing empirical relationships between vP = E and the electronic parameters of the substituents⁷³⁻⁷⁹.

The IR intensity of vPO for Ph₃PO (1205 cm⁻¹) and other phosphoryl compounds shows no correlation with the band positions. The inductive effect of the substituents has the main influence on the intensity⁸⁰. There has been a further report of the absolute IR intensities for the vPO band of many phosphoryl compounds, including Ph₃PO⁸¹.

The P—Me rocking modes in (0-, m- or p-MeOC₆H₄)PhMePO were all in the range

 $863-902 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1.82}$.

IR intensities for the v_8 ring stretching mode (near $1600\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$) for $(p\text{-}Y\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{PO}$, where Y = OMe, Cl, Et, Mc or MeCO, and $(p\text{-}Y\text{C}_6\text{H}_4)_3\text{PS}$, where $Y = \text{NMe}_2$, OMe, Cl, Et, Me or MeCO, suggest σ_R^0 values for PPh₂O and PPh₂S of +0.07 and +0.06, respectively⁸³. The intensity of vCC in the IR spectra of Ph₂P(=O)C=CX, where X = H, Me, Ph or C(OH)Me₂, is greater than for the corresponding band in Ph₂PC=CX. There was an almost linear correlation between this intensity and the Taft coefficient σ^* X for X^{84} .

TABLE 4. vP = O assignments for $R_n(C_6F_5)_{3-n}P = O$

\overline{n}	νP=O (cm ⁻¹)			
0	1242			
1	1222 (R = Ph)	1223 (Me)	1221 (Et)	
2	1201 (R = Ph)	1193 (Me)	1205 (Et)	

The IR spectra of $Ph_2P(=O)CH=C=CR^1R^2$, where R^1 and $R^2=H$ or Me, show the presence of two conformational isomers. There is therefore restricted rotation about the P-C(allene) bond. The influence of the allenic group on the P=O bond suggests that the phosphorus is conjugated with the allene system⁸⁵. The value of $\nu CO(\text{aromatic})$ of $(p\text{-MeOC}_6H_4)P(X)Ph_2$, where X=O or S, shows that the phosphorus is acting as a proton acceptor⁸⁶.

The IR spectra of $R_3P=0$, where $R=C_1-C_{16}$ n-alkyl, show that there is a dynamic equilibrium between conformers in solution. In the crystalline state only one conformer was present each time⁸⁷. The IR spectrum of $Ph_2P(O)CH_2Ph$ shows that only the gauche conformation is present in the crystal. The liquid also contains a small amount of the trans conformer⁸⁸. There is IR evidence for the presence of two conformers of

Ph₂P(O)CH₂C(O)NHNH₂ in solution, in the crystal and in vitreous forms⁸⁹.

Ph₂P(=E)Ph₂, where E = O or S, have vP=E at 1180 cm⁻¹ (O) or 635 cm⁻¹ (S)⁹⁰. IR assignments have been made of vP=O modes for [Ph₂P(=O)]₂CH₂(1211, 1194 cm⁻¹) and [Ph₂P(=O)CH₂]₂P(=O)Ph (1215, 1192, 1163 cm⁻¹)⁹¹. vCC wavenumbers for Ph₂P(X)C=CP(X)Ph₂, where X = O (2143 cm⁻¹) or S (2150 cm⁻¹) are consistent with significant X \rightarrow P p π -d π back bonding, thereby raising the C=C bond order by P \rightarrow C d π -p π interaction⁹². vP=X modes were assigned for C[CH₂P(X)Ph₂]₄, where X = O (1187 cm⁻¹), S (625/613 cm⁻¹) or Se (588/540 cm⁻¹)⁹³.

Shifts of vPO for a range of phosphine oxides in the presence of I_2 , IBr, ICl or Br_2 show the coordination of halogen to the oxygen atom, e.g. for Bu_3^nPO , vPO decreases from 1169 to 1118 cm⁻¹ in the presence of I_2^{94} . Solvent effects on the IR spectrum of $(n\text{-}C_8H_{17})_3PO$ (vPO band) show that the PO bond behaves similarly to the C=O bond in the same solvents⁹⁵. There have been many reports on the effects of hydrogen bonding on the P=O stretching mode of phosphine oxides⁹⁶⁻¹⁰⁴. There is a linear correlation between $v_{\text{max}}(P=O)$ and $\Delta\delta^{31}P$ for Ph₃PO in a wide range of solvents. It is therefore possible to predict NMR chemical shifts from IR results¹⁰⁵.

B. Phosphine Sulphides

Values of vP = S have been tabulated for a wide range of phosphine sulphides¹⁰⁶. Some earlier assignments from the IR and Raman spectra of Me₂P(H)S¹⁰⁷ have been superseded by fuller data on the compound¹⁰⁸ and Me₂P(D)S¹⁰⁹. The IR and Raman data were assigned in terms of C_s symmetry, with vPH and vPD at 2350 and 1714 cm⁻¹, respectively. A normal coordinate analysis showed that, apart from vPH and vCH, all of the modes were extensively mixed. Earlier references has been made to vPH assignments for R₂P(H)S, where $R = alkyl^{38}$.

A detailed study has been made of the IR and Raman spectra of $(CH_3)_n(CD_3)_{3-n}PS$, where $n=0-3^{110}$. Assignments for the d_0 and d_9 molecules were consistent with C_{3r} symmetry and those for the d_3 and d_6 analogues with C_s symmetry. These assignments, together with a normal coordinate analysis, complement the data referred to above⁴²⁻⁴³. Some approximate force constant calculations on Me₃PS were also mentioned previously⁵¹⁻⁵⁴. Some partial resolution of gas-phase IR bands of Me₃PS has been achieved, with P, Q and R branches of the vPC_3 band at 575, 582 and 591 cm⁻¹, respectively¹¹¹. Some vibrational assignments were also given for R₃PS, where R = Me or Et^{112,113} or Prⁱ or Ph¹¹³. There has been a study of the dependence of vPS in R₃PS on the electronegativity of R⁷⁰.

The IR and Raman spectra of EtP(S)Me₂ in the liquid phase could only be assigned on the assumption that both *gauche* and *trans* conformers were present. Only the *gauche* form persists in the solid. The vibrational spectrum of the latter was assigned completely, including a value of $110 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ for the antisymmetric torsional mode¹¹⁴. Earlier reference was made to vCH and vCF assignments for Me₂(CF₃)P=S³⁹.

Durig et al.¹¹⁵ have also carried out a thorough investigation of the vibrational spectra of Et₃PE, where E = S or Se. In each case 60 of the 63 fundamentals were assigned, assuming C_3 symmetry. When E = S, but not when E = Se, there was strong coupling between vPE and vPC_3^{115} . vP=S or vP=Se modes were assigned for R₃PE, R = Me, Prⁿ, Prⁱ, cyclopropyl, cyclohexyl or Ph and E = S or Se. The values for R = Prⁱ and cyclopropyl were unusually high, presumably for steric reasons¹¹⁶. An early report listed vPS or vPS for 15 phosphine sulphides and 13 phosphine selenides¹¹⁷. vPS values were also tabulated for R_{3-n}(C₆F₅)_nPS, where R = Me, Et or Ph and n = 1 or 2^{118} .

vPS in Ph₃PS has been assigned by a number of workers to a value of 637 cm⁻¹ $^{71.119,120}$, with vPSe at 562 cm⁻¹ in Ph₃PSe¹²⁰. Other reports gave vPS in a wide range of substituted triaryl phosphine sulphides $^{73.74,79,83,86}$. It has been suggested that vPS in R₃PS, where R = Ph or Et, shows the presence of several rotamers 121 .

vC \equiv C in Me₂P(S)C \equiv CEt was assigned to 2212 cm⁻¹ ¹²². There has been disagreement about the assignment of skeletal stretches in Me₂P(S)P(S)Me₂ ^{123,124}. The more recent work suggests that v_s PS is at 610 cm⁻¹, v_{as} PS at 550 cm⁻¹ and vPP at 510 cm⁻¹ ¹²⁴. vC \equiv C in Ph₂P(S)C \equiv CP(S)Ph₂ is at 2150 cm⁻¹ ¹²⁵.

C. Phosphine Selenides and Tellurides

A detailed assignment for Me₃PSe has already been given (Table 3)⁴²⁻⁴³. ν PSe was also assigned for R₃PSe, where R = alkyl⁷⁰, or R = Me, Pr'', Pr', cyclopropyl, cyclohexyl or Ph¹¹⁶. In Ph₃PSe, ν PSe is at 561 cm^{-171,120}. The equivalent mode is at 544 or

574 cm⁻¹ in R₃PSe, where R = p- or m-MeC₆H₄, respectively¹²⁵.

A full assignment has been proposed for Me₃PTe and (CD₃)₃PTe, based on C_{3v} symmetry. A normal coordinate analysis suggested that there was extensive mixing of modes, with vPTe contributing significantly to bands at 226, 378 and (to a lesser extent) 674 cm⁻¹. The P-Te force constant was, as expected, smaller than that for the other PE systems¹²⁶. The results of this work throw into considerable doubt earlier reports of vPTe modes, e.g. of values between 400 and 518 cm⁻¹, for R₃PTe, where R = Prⁿ, Buⁿ, n-C₅H₁₁, cyclo-C₆H₁₁ or n-C₈H₁₇¹²⁷.

IV. MAGNETIC RESONANCE SPECTROSCOPY

The nuclei will be dealt with separately, in the following sequence: ³¹P, ¹H, ¹³C, ¹⁹F, ¹⁷O, ⁷⁷Se and ¹²⁵Te. Each paper will be referred to only once, dealing with all of the nuclei mentioned in that paper, and referring back, wherever necessary, for nuclei later in the order given above.

A. 31P

An extensive list of ^{31}P chemical shifts in R_3PE , where E=O, S or Se, has been published 128 . These were referred to an 85% aqueous solution of H_3PO_4 as standard, as will all subsequent references, unless mentioned otherwise. The ^{31}P spectrum of $\text{Me}_2\text{P(H)}=\text{O}$ consists of a doublet of septets, centred at -18.6 ppm, with $J_{\text{PH}}=456\,\text{Hz}$ and $J_{\text{PCH}}=14\,\text{Hz}$. The ^1H spectrum contained a doublet of septuplets ($\tau 2.5$; $J_{\text{PH}}=490\,\text{Hz}$, $J_{\text{PHCH}}=3.5\,\text{Hz}$), due to the unique proton, and a doublet of doublets ($\tau 7.89$, $J_{\text{PCH}}=14\,\text{Hz}$, $J_{\text{PHCH}}=14\,\text{Hz}$).

The ^{31}P spectrum of Ph₂P(O)H shows a 1:1 doublet, $\delta^{31}\text{P}-25.9\,\text{ppm}$, $^{1}J_{\text{PH}}$ 513 Hz, while for Ph₂P(O)D a 1:1:1 triplet is seen, with $\delta^{31}\text{P}-25.7\,\text{ppm}$, $^{1}J_{\text{PD}}$ $^{78}\text{Hz}^{130}$. A different report gives $^{1}J_{\text{PH}}$ as 493.3 Hz in Ph₂P(O)H¹³¹. CNDO/2 calculations of $^{31}\text{P}-^{13}\text{C}$ and $^{31}\text{P}-^{14}\text{H}$ couplings in a number of phosphine oxides and sulphides gave reasonable agreement with experiment. The results were consistent with a direct relationship between

 $^1J_{PC}$ and the percentage σ -character of the phosphorus hybrid orbitals 132 . ^{31}P and ^{13}C NMR spectra of triply labelled ^{13}C forms of Me₃PO, Me₃PS and Me₃PSe oriented in a nematic phase have been recorded. The ^{31}P chemical shift tensor has a large anisotropy in all cases, but decreases in the order O > S > Se, consistent with decreased π -bonding in that series 133 .

Ab initio M.O. calculations have been related to experimental values of $\delta^{31}P$ chemical shifts for a large number of trialkyl- and triaryl-phosphine oxides, sulphides and selenides $^{134-136}$. Principal components of the ^{31}P chemical shift tensor were determined by ^{31}P solid-state NMR for R₃PX, where X = O, S or Se and R = Me, C₆H₁₁ or Ph, X = O or S and R = Et or p-tolyl and X = S and R = o- or m-tolyl. The chemical shift anisotropy is greater for X = O than for X = S or Se¹³⁷. The ^{31}P magnetic shielding anisotropies $(\sigma_{\parallel} - \sigma_{\perp})$ were found to +210 and +127 ppm for Me₃PO and Me₃PS respectively. The calculated value for this anisotropy agrees very badly with this, however (+69 ppm) The anisotropy of the ^{31}P screening constant of Me₃PO was calculated by CNDO/2 M.O. methods. The contribution of the π -P—O bond order gave stronger shielding in the direction of the P=O bond The 140 . The ^{31}P magnetic shielding anisotropies were also found for Me₃PX, where X = O or S, in oriented liquid crystal media 141 .

The ³¹P spectra of Me₃PX, where X = O, S or Se, in liquid crystal phases gave values for the CPC angles which compared very well with those found from gas-phase electron diffraction ¹⁴². The ³¹P and ¹H lanthanide shifts in the NMR of MeR₂PO, where R = Et or Ph, suggest that they are mainly due to a contact interaction ¹⁴³. The upfield shift of the ³¹P NMR signal of Me₂PhP=O in the presence of cyclodextrins in water was interpreted in terms of inclusion complex formation between cyclodextrins and the phosphine oxide. The P=O group is closer to the solvent medium than to the interior of the hydrophobic cavity of the cyclodextrins ¹⁴⁴.

 $\delta^{31}P$ values were listed for Me_n(ClCH₂)_{3-n}PO, i.e. n=0, +39.5 ppm; n=1, +42.9 ppm; and n=3, +42.6 ppm¹⁴⁵. For the species with $n=2, ^1H$ chemical shifts are $\delta(PCH_2) + 3.60$ and $\delta(PCH_3) + 1.57$ ppm. The respective $^2J_{PCH}$ coupling constants are 8.6 and 14.0 Hz¹⁴⁶. ^{31}P and 1H NMR data were listed for (ClCH₂)₂P(Y)R, where Y = O and R = Et or Y = S and R = Me, Et or Ph¹⁴⁷.

$$P(=X)Me_2$$

The ³¹P chemical shifts for 8, where X = O or S, show that the *exo* species come to resonance at lower fields than the *endo* species¹⁴⁸. A list has been published of ³¹P chemical shifts for $R_2R'P(O)$, $R_2R'P(S)$ and RR'P(S)H, where R, R' = Me, Et, Pr^i or Ph^{149} . The $\delta^{31}P$ values for $Ph_2P(X)C_nH_{2n+1}$, where X = O or S and n = 1-20, show significant changes for n = 1-3, but then remain constant for the rest of the series. ¹H data were given on n = 1-4 only ¹⁵⁰. $\delta^{31}P$ values were listed for $(C_6F_5)_nR_{3-n}PO$, where R = Me, Et or Ph and $n = 1-3^{151}$.

Me₂PhP=O was found to be a useful standard for setting the magic angle in 31 P cross-polarization magic-angle spinning (CP-MAS) NMR of solid samples ¹⁵². Early results gave δ^{31} P for Et₃PO, Bu₃PO, Et₃PS and Et₃PSe¹⁵³. Lanthanide-induced ³¹P, ¹H and ¹³C NMR shifts for Et₃PO are dominated by the pseudo-contact effect ¹⁵⁴.

 $\delta^{31} P^V$, $\delta^{31} P^{III}$ and ${}^1J_{P^V}{}_{p}^{III}$ have been reported for 9, where $R = Pr^i$, Bu^n , Bu^i , Bu^i and Ph, e.g. for $R = Bu^i \delta^{31} P^V$ is -86.2 ppm, $\delta^{31} P^{III}$ is -49.7 ppm and ${}^1J_{PP}$ is $392 \, Hz^{155}$. Acceptor numbers of a wide range of alcohols were estimated from ${}^{31}P$ chemical shift

changes of Buⁿ₃PO in the presence of the alcohols¹⁵⁶. ³¹P chemical shifts were reported for the R,R/S,S and R,S/S,R forms of 10 and also for related systems¹⁵⁷. A linear correlation was found between shifts in $\delta^{31}P$ of R_3PO , where $R = C_4H_9 - C_8H_{17}$, on protonation and the sum of substituent constants ($\Sigma\sigma^{\Phi}$) on the phosphorus atom, and on the enthalpies of complex formation with phenol¹⁵⁸.

The solid-state CP-MAS ³¹P NMR for OPPh₃ shows that δ P is +29.2 ppm (cf. 23–27 ppm in a variety of solvents), whereas for $OP(C_{14}H_{29})_3 \delta P$ is +51.5 ppm (48.5 ppm in $CDCl_3$ solution)¹⁵⁹. ³¹P, ¹H and ¹⁹F chemical shifts and coupling constants were reported for $(CHF_2)_3PO$. The results show that δF is shifted upfield and δP downfield compared with the phosphine analogue, whereas J_{FCH} is about 2 Hz lower ¹⁶⁰. (CF₃)₃PO has $\delta^{31}P$ at -2.3 ppm and $\delta^{19}F$ at +66.2 ppm (the latter with respect to $CCl_3F)^{161}$.

³¹P chemical shifts were listed as follows: $Ph_3PO - 25$, $(PhC \equiv C)_3PO + 55.8$, Ph₃PS – 42.6, (PhC \equiv C)₃PS + 44.6, (PhC \equiv C)₂PhPS + 10.0 and (PhC \equiv C)Ph₂PS – 18.8 ppm¹⁶². δ ³¹P and δ ¹³C values were listed for triphenylphosphine oxide, sulphide and selenide, together with a range of alkyl-substituted diphenylphosphine oxides. The values were consistent with the theory of competitive $d\pi$ -p π overlap with the P=O bond 163 . 31 P chemical shift anisotropies were measured for Ph₃PX, where X = O, S or Se, oriented in liquid crystals. There was some evidence for delocalization of phosphorus electron density on to the phenyl ring¹⁶⁴.

 $\delta^{31}P$ of Ph₃PX in liquid HCl shows that for X = O, protonation occurs at the oxygen, but for X = S no protonation occurs¹⁶⁵. Ph₃P=¹⁷O has δP at +28.8 ppm and δO at +43.3 ppm (relative to H₂¹⁷O), with $J(^{31}P^{-17}O)$ at 160 ± 2.4 Hz¹⁶⁶. Relaxation times (T_1) and nuclear Overhauser effect (NOE) factors (η) were measured for Ph₃PO at 29 and $63 \,^{\circ}\text{C}^{167}$. ^{31}P chemical shifts and $^{1}J_{\text{PH}}$ were reported for Ph(R)P(=O)H, where R = Ph, Et, Prⁱ, Bu" or Bu^s (Table 5)¹⁶⁸.

³¹P, ¹H and ¹³C NMR data were listed for Me₃CCH₂(Ph)P(O)Me and related species and it was suggested that the changes could be related to conformational changes 169. It has been suggested subsequently, however, that such conclusions were erroneous 170.

Ph₃P^a=CHP^b(O)Ph₂ has δ^{31} P values of +18.4 ppm (a) and +23.4 ppm (b), with ${}^{2}J_{p^{a}p^{b}}$ of 19.0 Hz¹⁷¹. 31 P and 1 H NMR data were given for Ph₂P(O)CHRPPh₂, where R = H, Me or Prⁿ, for which $\delta_{p=0}$ were -27.7, -33.6 and -32.7 ppm, respectively (each

TABLE 5. ^{31}P chemical shifts and $^{1}J_{PH}$ coupling constants for Ph(R)P(=O)H

R	$\delta^{31} P (ppm)$	$^{1}J_{\mathrm{PH}}(\mathrm{Hz})$
Ph	-23.1	487
Et	-32.3	458
Pr^{l}	-36.1	458
Bu ⁿ	-29.0	467
Bu ^{s a}	-34.3/-32.2	457.5/458.2

^aA mixture of diastereoisomers.

one a doublet), and for Ph₂P(O)CHRP(O)PhR', where R = H, R' = Et or R = Me, R' = Ph¹⁷². ³¹P, ¹H and ¹³C NMR data were also given for Ph₂P(X)CH=CHR, where X = O or S and R = Me, Ph or P(X)Ph₂. The ³¹P results show that the *E*-isomer comes to resonance at higher field than the *Z*-isomer¹⁷³. Analysis of high-resolution ³¹P and ¹H NMR spectra for Ph₂P(O)CH=CHAr, where Ar = phenyl, 2- or 4-pyridyl or 2- or 4-quinolyl, was able to differentiate between isomers with the P and Ar *cis* or *trans*¹⁷⁴. Other diphenylphosphine oxides, sulphides or selenides for which NMR data have been given are Ph₂P(O)CH₂CH=CH₂ and Ph₂P(O)(CH₂)₂CH=CH₂ (³¹P and ¹H)¹⁷⁵, Ph₂P(O)CH₂CO₂H and Ph₂P(S)CH₂X (where X = H or CO₂H) (³¹P and ¹H)¹⁷⁶, Ph₂P(X)CH₂P(Y)Ph₂, where X, Y = O, S, Se or electron pair (³¹P, ¹H and ¹³C)¹⁷⁷, Ph₂P(O)CH=CHCH₂R (R = Pr or Bu) (³¹P, ¹H and ¹³C)¹⁷⁸ and Ph₂P(O)CH₂-CHRP(O)Ph₂ (R = Pr or Bu) (³¹P) (11 and 12), where R¹, R² = Mc, Ph, H, etc. (³¹P, ¹H and ¹³C)¹⁷⁹.

P-P nuclear spin-spin coupling was measured in Ph₂P(Y)XP(Z)Ph₂, where X is =CH₂, =C==CH₂, -CH₂CH₂—, trans-CH==CH—, cis-CH==CH—, -C==C— or -CH₂CH₂CH₂—, Y = Se or lone pair and Z = Se. ¹³C-{¹H,³¹P} and ³¹P-{¹H,⁷⁷Sc} magnetic triple resonance experiments gave the signs of these coupling constants ¹⁸⁰. δ_P (ppm) and ³J_{PP}(Hz) were reported for Ph₂P(O)CH₂CH₂P(O)PhR, where R = Me (-31.2, -36.9; 51), Et (-30.9, -40.9; 50) or Prⁱ (-31.4, -46.0; 49)¹⁸¹. Phosphorus-31 and proton chemical shifts were found for Ph₂P(X)CH₂C(OH)Ph₂, where X = O or S. The J_{PH} coupling constants were 10.2 Hz (X = O) and 9.6 Hz (S)¹⁸². δ_P values (ppm) were also given for Ph₂P(O)(CH₂)_nP(O)Ph₂, n = 1 (27.2) or 2 (36.7), P(O)Ph(CH₂CH₂P(O)Ph₂)₂ [33.4 (terminal), 42.9 (non-terminal)], P(S)Ph(CH₂CH₂P(S)Ph₂)₂ [42.9 (terminal), 49.9 (non-terminal)] and Ph₃PSe (33.1), and Ph₂P(Se)(CH₂)_nP(Se)Ph₂, where n = 1 (22.6), 2 (34.6) or 3 (32.5). The measured ¹J_{PSe} coupling constants were all in the range 646–694 Hz¹⁸³. δ_P values (ppm) for 13 were O 23.5, S 45.6 and Se 37.2¹⁸⁴.

The ³¹P chemical shifts for $(C_6F_5)_3$ PE, where E=O or S, show that there is much greater shielding of phosphorus by C_6F_5 than by $C_6H_5^{185}$. Spin-spin coupling constants have been measured for a large number of R_3 PX species, where X=O, S or Se and R= five- or six-membered heterocyclic aromatic group¹⁸⁶⁻¹⁸⁸. Changes in ³¹P chemical shifts have been used to study protonation in P=O and P=S compounds. ^{189-190 31}P and ¹³C chemical shifts and coupling constants have been tabulated for Me₃PS and Me₃PSe (Table 6)¹⁹¹. δ ³¹P were reported for Me₃PS (-59.1 ppm), Me₂EtPS (-57.0) and Et₂PhPS (-52.0)¹⁹².

³¹P NMR data for syn and anti isomers of norbornene with Me₂P(S) at the 7-position show deshielding of phosphorus on moving from the crowded anti to the less crowded

	Me ₃ PS	Me ₃ PSe
δ^{31} P(H ₃ PO ₄ ref.)(ppm)	-28.9	-87
δ^{13} C(CH ₃ COOH ref.)(ppm)	+150.4	+150.0
$^{1}J_{PC}(Hz)$	+ 56.1	+48.5
$^{2}J_{\rm PH}({\rm Hz})$	-13.0	-13.0
11 (Hz)	+1293	+130.5

TABLE 6. ³¹P and ¹³C NMR data for Me₃PS and Me₃PSe

TABLE 7. ^{31}P chemical shifts for Me(R)-P(=S)P(=S)(R)Me (ppm from 85% aqueous H_3PO_4)

R	$\delta^{31} P (ppm)$
Me	-34.7
Et	-42.1
Pr^n	-40.3
Ph	-37.0

syn position¹⁹³. Proton-decoupled ³¹PNMR spectra of cyclohexyl, cis- and trans-4-methyl- and cis- and trans-4-tert-butyl-cyclohexyl derivatives of P(S)Me₂ have been measured. The tert-butyl compounds are conformationally rigid, with greater shielding for the phosphorus group in the equatorial than the axial position¹⁹⁴.

The ³¹P chemical shifts were measured for RR'R"PS, where R = Me, R' = Et or Ph; R" = Ph; R = R' = Ph, p-MeC₆H₄, o- or p-ClC₆H₄¹⁹⁵; and for RR'PP(S)RR', where R = R' = Me or Et; R = Me, R' = Et or Ph¹⁹⁶. The ³¹P chemical shift of Et₃PS has been variously reported as -67.6^{197} or -54.5 ppm¹⁹⁸. For Ph₃PS the corresponding value is -42.6 ppm¹⁹⁹. The ³¹P chemical shifts for Me(R)P(=S)P(=S)(R)Me are listed in Table 7^{200} . Similar data were given for Et₂P(=S)(CH₂)_nP(=S)Et₂, where n = 1.3 or 4^{201} . ³¹P and ¹H chemical shifts have been measured for Ph₂P(X)CH₂P(Y)R₂, where X, Y = S or lone pair and R = Me, Prⁱ or Bu^{t202}.

The 31 P, 1 H and 13 C NMR data for Ph(H)P(E)(CH₂)_n(E)P(H)Ph, where E = S, n = 2-4 or 6; E = Se, n = 2, indicate that the 31 P chemical shifts show increasing differences between the *meso* and racemic forms for E = O < S < Se, for n = 2. There is little change in δ^{13} C between diastereoisomers, however. For all of the compounds the 1 H- $\{^{31}$ P $\}$

spectra are very different for the meso and racemic forms²⁰³.

180 G. Davidson

A heteronuclear magnetic selective triple resonance technique was applied to a range of organophosphorus selenides. The results suggested that both P^+Se^- and P=Se forms contributed significantly to the bonding. The $^{31}P^{77}Se$ coupling constants were shown to be negative, and they could be interpreted in terms of the inductive effects of the substituents on the phosphorus²¹⁰. The $^nJ_{PSe}$ coupling constants, where n=1-4, were measured from proton-decoupled ^{31}P spectra of several diphosphorus selenides and diselenides²¹¹. The ^{31}P NMR spectrum of Me₃P=Se oriented in liquid crystal media show that the $^1J_{PSe}$ spin-spin coupling is highly anisotropic²¹². Table 8 summarizes the ^{31}P chemical shifts and $^1J_{PSe}$ coupling constants for several alkyl- and aryl-phosphine selenides²¹³.

 31 P, 1 H, 13 C and 77 Se chemical shifts and coupling constants were recorded for Bu $_{3}^{t}$ PE, where E = Se or Te. The $^{1}J_{PE}$ coupling constants were found to be 711.6 Hz (Se) and 1600 Hz (Te). The δ^{77} Se value, with respect to di-*p*-tolyl diselenide, for E = Se is $-890.5 \, \mathrm{ppm}^{214}$. δ^{31} P(+ 36 ppm), δ^{77} Se (-278 ppm, with respect to Me₂Se) and $^{1}J_{PSe}$ (-759 Hz) have been measured for Ph $_{3}$ PSe $_{215}^{215}$. The values of δ^{31} P, δ^{77} Se and $^{1}J_{PSe}$ for several phosphorus(V) selenides shift in SO₂ solution in such a way as to suggest the formation of donor–acceptor complexes with the SO $_{2}^{216}$.

The $^{31}P^{-77}Se$ coupling constants in $(RC_6H_4)_3P^{-}Se$, where R=p-Cl, H, p-Me, p-OMe, o-Me or m-Me, show a linear correlation with substituent constants, in the range 752.8 Hz (p-Cl) to 726.3 Hz (m-Me) 217 . $\delta^{31}P$ and $\delta^{77}Se$ data were listed for $R_2R'PSe$, where R and R'=phenyl, 2- or 3-furyl, 2- or 3-thienyl or substituted aryl. Deshielding of selenium occurs on the introduction of ortho substituents into arylphosphine selenides, as it does on introducing 2-thienyl. The presence of 2-furyl, however, leads to increased shielding of the selenium 218 .

³¹P and ⁷⁷Se NMR data were tabulated for **16**, where R = Me, Et, Prⁱ, Ph, etc.^{219–220}, as were ³¹P, ¹H, ¹³C and ⁷⁷Se data for Ph₂P(Se)(CH₂)_nPPh₂ and Ph₂P(Se)(CH₂)_n(Se)PPh₂, where n = 1 or 2^{221} . Two-dimensional ³¹P NMR spectra of mixtures of selenides **17**, where E = lone pair or Se, led to assignments of resonances for a range of possible species²²².

TABLE 8. 31 P chemical shifts and $^{1}J_{PSe}$ coupling constants for phosphine selenides

Compound	$\delta^{31}P(ppm)$	¹ J _{PSe} (Hz)
Et ₃ PSe	-44.2	705
Ph ₃ PSe	-36.1	738
EtPh ₂ PSe	-37.4	722
Et ₂ PhPSe	-44.6	705
MeEtPhPSe	-29.8	693
MePr"PhPSe	-26.1	704
MeBu ^t PhPSe	-47.7	702
Bu ⁿ ₃ PSe	-36.4	693
H(Bu ^t)PhPSe	-37.9	656

$$\begin{array}{c} Ph_2(E)P \\ Ph_2(E)P \end{array}$$

$$Ph_2(E)P \\ Ph_2(E)P \end{array}$$

$$(17)$$

B. ¹H

Earlier reference has been made to a large number of papers containing ${}^{1}H NMR$ data on phosphorus chalcogenides: $Me_{2}P(H) = O$, $Et_{2}P(H) = O^{129}$; $Me_{n}(CICH_{2})_{3-n}PO$, $n = 1^{146}$ or n = 0, 2^{144} ; (ClCH₂)₂P(Y)R, where Y = O, R = Et, Y = S, R = Me, Et or Ph^{147} ; $Ph_2P(X)C_nH_{2n+1}$, where X = O or S, $n = 1-4^{150}$; $Et_3P = O$ [154]; $(CHF_2)_3PO^{160}$: $Me_3CCH_2P(=O)Ph(Me)^{169}$; $Ph_2P(O)CHRPPh_2$, where R = H, Me or Pr^n ; $Ph_2P(O)$ -CHRP(O)PhR', where R = H, R' = Et or R = Me, $R' = Ph^{172}$; $Ph_2P(X)CH = CHR$, where X = O or S, R = Me, Ph or $P(X)Ph_2^{173}$; $Ph_2P(O)CH = CHAr$, where Ar = Ph, 2- or 4-pyridyl, 2- or 4-quinolyl 174 ; $Ph_2P(=O)CH_2CH=CH_2$, $Ph_2P(=O)(CH_2)_2CH=CH_2$, $O = P[(CH_2)_2CH = CH_2]_3^{175}$; $Ph_2P(O)CH_2CO_2H$, $(n-C_6H_{13})_2P(O)CH_2X$, where X = Hor CO_2Me , $Ph_2P(S)CH_2X$, where X = H or CO_2H , $PhP(S)Me_2$, $PhMeP(S)CH_2CO_2H$, $(n-C_6H_{13})_2P(S)CH_2X$, where X = H or $CO_2Me^{1.76}$; $Ph_2P(X)CH_2P(Y)Ph_2$, where $X, Y = O, S, Se \text{ or electron pair}^{177}; Ph_2P(O)CH = CHCH_2R, where R = Pr \text{ or Bu},$ $Bu_2P(O)CH = CHCH_2R$, where R = Pr, Bu or $C_5H_{11}^{178}$; vinyl- and allyldiphenylphosphine oxides¹⁷⁹; Ph₂P(X)CH₂C(OH)Ph₂¹⁸²; Ph₂P(S)CH₂P(S)R₂, where R = Me or Pr¹²⁰²; Ph(H)P(E)(CH₂)_n(E)P(H)Ph, where E = S. $n = 2^{-4}$, 6 or E = Se, $n = 2^{203}$; $[R_2P(X)][R_2P(Y)][R_2P(Z)]CH$, where X = S or Se, Y, Z = lone pair, or X = Y = O, S or Se, Z = lone pair, X = S, Y = Se, Z = lone pair, X = Y = Z = S, R = Me or Ph^{206} ; $[Ph_2P(X)][R',P(Y)][R',P(Z)]CH$, where R'=R''=Ph, X=S, Y, Z=lone pair, X = Y = S, Z = 1 one pair, X = Y = Z = S; R' = R'' = Me, X = Y = Z = S, X = Y = S, Z = Oor lone pair; R' = Ph, R'' = Me, X = Z = S, $Y = lone pair^{207}$; polytertiary phosphine sulphides²⁰⁸; Me_nPh_{3-n}PSe, $n = 0-3^{210}$; Bu'₃PE, where E = Se or Te^{214} ; and $Ph_{2}P(Se)(CH_{2})_{n}PPh_{2}$ and $Ph_{2}P(Se)(CH_{2})_{n}(Se)PPh_{2}$, where n = 1 or 2^{221} .

¹H NMR studies, including double resonance, show that for Ph(Me)P(H)O, ¹ J_{PH} has a value of +467.8 Hz, whereas ² J_{PCH} is -13.6 Hz²²³. ¹ J_{PH} coupling constants were also measured for Bu₂ⁿP(X)H, where X = O (460 Hz) or S (431 Hz)²²⁴. The INDOR technique gave the following NMR parameters for Me (Bu¹)P(S)H: δ(PCH₃) 1.70, δ(PCCH₃) 1.21, δ(PH) 6.35, δ(P) -36.2 ppm; ¹ J_{PH} 434.5, ² J_{PH} 13.4, ³ J_{PH} 18.9, ³ J_{HH} 4.5-4.8 Hz²²⁵.

Proton chemical shifts and coupling constants have been reported several times for Me_3PX and Et_3PX , where X = O or $S^{226-229}$. For Me_3PO , δH was at 1.56 ppm and $^2J_{PH}$ 12.8 Hz. Laskorin *et al.*²³⁰ have developed empirical relationships between 1H NMR parameters and substituent constants for a range of P = O-containing compounds, including Me_3PO . M.O. calculations on Me_3PO and Me_3PS suggest that the dominant contribution to the proton shielding is made by the C - H bonds²³¹.

Methyl proton resonances for Me_2PhPO and Me_2PhPS are at 1.76 and 2.00 ppm, respectively. The corresponding $^2J_{PH}$ coupling constants are 13.0 and 13.2 Hz respectively. 232 p K_{BH} , values for $Ph_nMe_{3-n}P(E)$, where n=1 or 2 and E=O or S, were deduced from changes in the CH_3 ¹H chemical shift as a function of sulphuric acid concentration 233 . ¹H and ¹³C NMR data were listed for RR'P(O)CH₂Cl, where R=R'=Me or Ph; R=Me, R'=Ph, 4-Cl-, 4-MeOC₆H₄ or CH₂Ph, and related systems 234 . ¹H chemical shifts and $^2J_{PH}$ coupling constants were given for $(RC_6H_4)P(E)Me_2$, where R=4-MeO, 4-Me or H, 4-Cl and E=O or S, and $(RC_6H_4)_2P(E)Me$, where R=4-Me, H or 4-Cl and E=O or S²³⁵.

Methylene proton chemical shifts and ²J_{PH} coupling constants are listed in Table 9

TABLE 9. ¹H NMR parameters for (XCH₂)₃PO

X	$\delta \mathrm{CH_2} (\mathrm{ppm})$	$^2J_{\rm PCH}({\rm Hz})$
Cl	3.99	6.75
Br	3.76	6.25
1	3.58	6.87

for $(XCH_2)_3PO$, where X = Cl, Br or I. The methylene proton shielding increases with decreased electronegativity of X^{236} . A more recent paper on these compounds reveals that they possess three different conformers, with characteristic $^2J_{PH}$ coupling constants 237 . 1H shifts were found for a range of enantiomeric monophosphine oxides using (R)-(-)-N-(3,5-dinitrobenzoyl)- α -phenylethylamine as a chiral shift reagent 238 . Proton NMR data were listed for 18, where X = H, $R = Bu^t$, E = O; X = H or Br, R = Me, $E = S^{239}$.

 $\delta^1 H$ and other NMR parameters were given for acetylenic phosphine oxides, $R_2 P(O)C \equiv CH$, where R = Et, Bu^n , Bu^t , Ph or $C \equiv CH^{240-241}$ and $Ph_2 P(O)C \equiv CR$, where R = H or $Me^{242-243}$. 1H chemical shifts and coupling constants were given for the allenic fragment in $R_2 P(O)CH \equiv C \equiv CH_2$, where R = Et or Ph^{244} . The 1H data for the allenic phosphine oxides 19, where R = H or Me; R', R'' = H, R'' = H

 δ^1 H(aliphatic) and $^2J_{PCH}$ were reported for Ph₂P(O)CH₂X, where X = H, OH, Cl, NMe₂, OMe, SMe, Ph, CH=CH₂ or CH=C=CH₂, Ph₂P(O)CH(X)Ph, where X = OH or Ph, and some related molecules. There was no simple explanation of the observed trends in $^2J_{PCH}$ values²⁴⁷. 1 H NMR data were listed and assigned for Ph₂P(O)R, where R = CH₂Ph, CH₂CH₂Ph, CH₂C₆F₅, CH₂CF₃ and CH₂C₆H₄Cl- p^{248} , and for 21²⁴⁹. 1 H NMR spectra of 22 and 23 both show that there is severely restricted rotation about the C—C single bond²⁵⁰.

Para-substituted triarylphosphine oxides and sulphides have been the subject of very extensive ¹H NMR investigations²⁵¹⁻²⁵⁶. For example, (p-FC₆H₄)₃P=O (24) has $J_{12}(\text{PH})$ 10.87, $J_{13}(\text{PH})$ 2.54, $J_{23}(\text{HH})$ 8.97, $J_{24}(\text{HF})$ 5.83, $J_{34}(\text{HF})$ 9.03 and $J_{14}(\text{PF})$ 1.95 Hz and δ_2 (H) 7.70, δ_3 (H) 7.35 and δ_4 (F) 101.16 ppm. δ^1 H values were listed for (o-, m- and p-tolyl)diphenylphosphine oxides. The ortho isomer gave evidence for ⁴J(PCH₃) (ca 1 Hz). There was no evidence for analogous five- or six-bond coupling in the others²⁵⁷.

$$\begin{pmatrix}
H_3 & H_2 \\
H_3 & H_2
\end{pmatrix}_3 P_1 = 0$$
(24)

The temperature dependence of the ${}^{1}H$ NMR of $R_{3}P=X$, where X=O or S and R = 2,3,5-Me₃C₆H₂ or 2,3,5,6-Me₄C₆H, as used to determine free energies of activation for rotation of the rings²⁵⁸. ¹H NMR data were assigned for R_3PX , where X = O or Sand R = furyl, thienyl or ring-substituted derivatives of these^{259–263}. Double resonance experiments on the ¹H NMR spectrum of tris-2-pyridylphosphine oxide and sulphide gave the relative signs of ³¹P-¹H coupling constants. Thus the two four-bond couplings have opposite signs, whereas the three- and five-bond couplings have the same sign, implying a negative sign for ${}^4J_{HP}$ through the nitrogen 264 .

Table 10 summarizes the proton chemical shift values found for $Ph_2P(=X)(CH_2)_{n-1}(X=)PPh_2$, where n=1 or 2, X=O, S or Se^{265} . ¹H NMR data were also given for Ph₂P(O)CH₂(O)PPh₂, Ph₂P(X)CH₂CH₂(X)PPh₂ and cis- and trans-Ph₂P(X)CH=CH-(X)PPh₂, where X = O or S²⁶⁶, and for Ph(R)P(=O)(CH₂)₃(O=)O(R')Ph, where R = Ph, R' = Et or Bu; R = Bu, R' = Et, Prⁿ, Prⁱ, n-C₅H₁₁, n-C₆H₁₃; R = Me, R' = Et; and Ph₂P(=O)(CH₂)₄(O=)P(Et)Ph²⁶⁷. The ethylenic proton chemical shift in Ph₂P(O)-CH=CHP(O)Ph₂ is at 7.30 ppm, with ${}^{2}J_{PH}$ ${}^{46}Hz^{268}$.

The methyl proton chemical shift in Me₃PS is at 1.78 ppm ($^2J_{PH}$ 13.10 Hz), whereas that in Me₂P(S)P(S)Me₂ is at 1.96 ppm²⁶⁹. The methylene proton chemical shift in Bu₃'P=S is a doublet at 1.48 ppm (J_{PH} 14 Hz)²⁷⁰. ¹H NMR data were also given for Ph₂P(S)CH(CO₂H)C₆H₁₂- n^{271} . There is ¹H NMR evidence for the predominantly axial conformation of the P(=S)Ph₂ in 25²⁷². In 26, however, the Ph₂P(S) group was shown to have a strong equatorial preference²⁷³. The olefinic proton in 27 gives a triplet at 8.2 ppm, with ${}^2J_{\rm PH}$ 24 Hz²⁷⁴.

TABLE 10. Proton chemical shifts for $Ph_2P(=X)(CH_2)_n(X=)PPh_2(ppm)$

X	n = 1	n = 2
0	4.08	2.54
S	4.42	2.71
Se	4.83	2.87

$$P(S)Ph_2$$
 $P(S)Ph_2$
 $P(S)Ph_2$
 $Ph_2(S)P$
 $Ph_2(S)P$

C. 13C

The following earlier references have been made to 13 C NMR data: $(^{13}$ CH₃)₃PE, where E = O, S or Se¹³³; Et₃PO¹⁵⁴; Ph₃PE, where E = O, S or Se; Ph₂(R)PO, where R = Me, Et, Prⁱ, Bu^t, CH=CH₂, C=CH; PhMe₂PO, Bu₃ⁿPE, where E = O or S¹⁶³; Me₃CCH₂P-(=O)Ph(Me)¹⁶⁹; Ph₂P(X)CH=CHR, where X = O or S, R = Me, Ph or P(X)Ph₂¹⁷³; Ph₂P(O)CH=CHCH₂R, where R=Pr or Bu; Bu₂P(O)CH=CHCH₂R, where R = Pr, Bu or C₅H₁₁¹⁷⁷; vinyl- and allyl-diphenylphosphine oxides¹⁷⁹; Me₃PS, Me₃PSe¹⁹¹; Ph(H)P(E)(CH₂)_n(E)P(H)Ph, where E = S, $n = 2^{-4}$, 6; E = Se, $n = 2^{203}$; Bu^t₃PSe²¹⁴; Ph₂P(Se))(CH₂)_nPPh₂, Ph₂P(Se)(CH₂)_n(S)PPh₂, where n = 1 or n

The 13 C NMR spectrum of $HC_1 = C_2 P(O)Bu^n_2$ shows that $\delta^{13}C_1$ is 100.4 ppm and $\delta^{13}C_2$ 111.6 ppm (CS₂ as standard), with $^1J(HC_1)$ 266 Hz^{276} . $\delta^{13}C$ and various coupling constants were reported for $(C_8H_{17})_2P(=O)R$, where R = Ph, C_8H_{17} or Bu^t , and $(C_8H_{17})_2P(=O)R'P(=O)(C_8H_{17})_2$, where $R' = -(CH_2)_n$, $n = 1 - 6^{277}$. ^{13}C chemical shifts and J_{CP} coupling constants were recorded for a wide range of phosphorus heterocyclic oxides and sulphides, e.g. 28, where X, Y = O or S; Me, CH_2Ph, Bu^t , etc. The data are consistent with puckered conformations, which are mostly stereorigid on the NMR time scale²⁷⁸. ^{13}C chemical shifts and $^{13}C^{-31}P$ spin—spin coupling constants were given for 29, where n = 3-7, and for $Bu^n_2P(=O)Ph^{279}$.

$$(28)$$
 $(CH_2)_n - P$ Ph (29)

 $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR data were reported for 30^{280} . Axial preference is revealed by $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR to be $\mathrm{Ph_2P(S)} > \mathrm{Ph_2P(O)}$ in 31 and related heterocyclic derivatives 281 . (CF $_3$) $_3\mathrm{P} = \mathrm{O}$ has $\delta^{13}\mathrm{C}$ at 119.50 ppm (SiMe $_4$ standard), with J_{CP} 163.3 Hz, J_{CF} 316.9 Hz and J_{CPCF} 3 Hz 282 . $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR data for phP(O)Z $_2$ and PhP(S)Z $_2$, where Z = Me or Ph, were used to estimate substituent parameters for P(E)Z $_2$. The electron-attracting abilities are P(E)Me $_2$ > P(E)Ph $_2$ for both O and S compounds 283 .

TABLE 11. 13 C NMR data for Ph₃P=O

	Carbon No.			
	1	2	3	4
Chemical shift (ppm)	135.56	132.28	128.76	132.25
¹³ C- ³¹ P coupling constant (Hz)	104.4	9.8	12.1	2.8

$$\begin{pmatrix}
C_{(3)} & C_{(2)} \\
C_{(4)} & C_{(1)} \\
3
\end{pmatrix}$$
(32)

¹³C chemical shifts and ¹³C-³¹P nuclear spin coupling constants were obtained for Ph₃P=O (32) (Table 11)²⁸⁴. The ¹³C NMR spectra of Ph₃P=X, where X = O, S or Se, are all consistent with delocalization of π-charge from the phenyl groups to the $3d_{\pi}$ orbitals of the phosphorus²⁸⁵. δ ¹³C and J_{PC} were reported for unsymmetrical triarylphosphine oxides (2,4,6-Me₃C₆H₂)₂P(O)(4-XC₆H₄), where X = Me, MeO or PhCOO. The results were consistent with a propeller-like arrangement of the aromatic rings and non-equivalence of the two mesityl groups²⁸⁶.

MAS NMR data were listed for an extensive series of phosphine sulphides²⁸⁷. ¹³C MAS NMR of solid Me₃PS shows a doublet due to $^{1}J_{PC}$ coupling, with a coupling constant of 54 Hz, close to the solution-state value of 56.1 Hz²⁸⁸. δ^{13} C and $^{1}J_{PC}$ were measured for BuⁿP(S)RR', where R = R' = Me or Buⁿ; R = Me, R' = Buⁿ²⁸⁹. ¹³C NMR data for the *cis* and *trans* isomers of *tert*-butylcyclohexane with P(S)Me₂ at the 4-position show that the P(S)Me₂ group causes considerable ring distortion in the *cis* isomer²⁹⁰.

D. 19F

Earlier reference was made to ¹⁹F NMR data for $(CHF_2)_3PO^{160}$ and $(CF_3)_3PO^{161}$. The ¹⁹F chemical shift of $(CF_3)_2P(O)C(CH_3)_3$ is 64.7 ppm, with CCI_3F as standard. The ² J_{FP} coupling constant is 84.7 Hz²⁹¹. ¹⁹F NMR data for $(XC_6H_4)(C_3F_7)_2P=O$, where X=H, m-F or p-F, are shown in Table 12 $(\delta^{19}F)$ with respect to CF_3COOH as standard²⁹².

The ¹⁹F NMR spectrum of 33 shows that it adopts a chiral, propeller equilibrium conformation in solution²⁹³. ¹⁹F chemical shifts were given for several phosphine oxides and sulphides containing 3- or $4\text{-FC}_6\text{H}_4$ substituents^{294–298}. J_{PF} coupling constants were derived for $(C_6F_5)_n\text{Ph}_{3-n}\text{P}=\text{O}$, where $n=1-3^{299}$. Table 13 gives the ¹⁹F chemical shifts for $(C_6F_5)_3\text{P}=X$, where X=0 or S^{300}

TABLE 12. ¹⁹F chemical shifts for $(XC_6H_4)(C_3F_7)_2P=O$ (ppm)

X	$CF_2(\alpha)^a$	$CF_2(\beta)^a$	CF ₃	F_{arom}
H	- 39.9	- 45.0	- 2.4	_
m-F	- 39.8	-45.1	-2.8	-30.0
p-F	- 40.0	- 45.2	- 2.8	- 20.8

^aPCF₂(α)CF₂(β)CF₃.

TABLE 13. ¹⁹F chemical shifts for $(C_6F_5)_3P=X$ (ppm with respect to $CFCl_3$)

X	o-F	m-F	p-F
0	132.6	142.4	158.5
S	132.2	144.3	159.0

$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{CHF}_{2} \\
\text{CHF}_{2}
\end{array}$$
(33)

E. 17O

Earlier reference was made to $^{17}\text{O NMR}$ data for Ph₃P= $^{17}\text{O}^{166}$. $^{1}J_{PO}$ was found to be $120\pm15\,\text{Hz}$ from the natural abundance $^{17}\text{O NMR}$ spectrum of Me₃P=O. CNDO/2 FPT calculations of the analogous coupling constant in H₃P=O gave a value of 98.5 Hz³⁰¹. ^{17}O chemical shifts were found for a range of cyclic phosphine oxides, such as 34, where R = Me, Ph, etc. The values were found to be very sensitive to the ring size and to the presence of γ -interactions³⁰². $^{17}\text{O NQR}$ data were obtained for Ph₃PO: $\nu_{5/2-3/2}$ 1403 kHz, $\nu_{3/2-1/2}$ 708 KHz, e^2Qq_{zz}/h 4.683(2) MHz and η 0.085³⁰³. There was also evidence for substantial π -bond order in Ph₃PO and related species, in the sequence (PhO)₃PO > Ph₂SO₂ \approx Ph₃PO > Ph₂SO³⁰⁴.

F. 77Se and 125Te

Data on ⁷⁷Se NMR have been given for Me_nPh_{3-n}PSe, where $n = 0-3^{210}$; Bu¹₃PSe²¹⁴; Ph₃PSe²¹⁵; Ph₃PSe, $(p\text{-MeC}_6H_4)_3$ PSe, Et₃PSe, $[Ph_2P(Se)]_2$ CH₂, etc.²¹⁶; R₂R'PSe, where R,R' = Ph, 2-furyl or substituted analogues, ²¹⁸; RPh₂PSe, where R = Me, Et, Prⁱ, Ph, etc., and related heterocyclic compounds²²⁰; and Ph₂P(Se)(CH₂)_nPPh₂ and Ph₂P(Se)(CH₂)_n(S)PPh₂, where n = 1 or 2^{221} . Heteronuclear triple resonance techniques were used to obtain δ^{77} Se for Me₃PSe (-235 ppm) and Ph₂HPSe (-349 ppm), both with respect to Me₂Se as standard. The results were consistent with contributions from both $\equiv P^+$ —Se and $\equiv P$ —Se to the bonding³⁰⁵.

The $^1J_{\text{TeP}}$ coupling constant for Bu $^n{}_3$ PTe is 1720 Hz 306 . In Bu $^t{}_3$ PTe this coupling constant is 1600 Hz, with δ^{125} Te -480 ppm with respect to ditolyl telluride as standard 307 .

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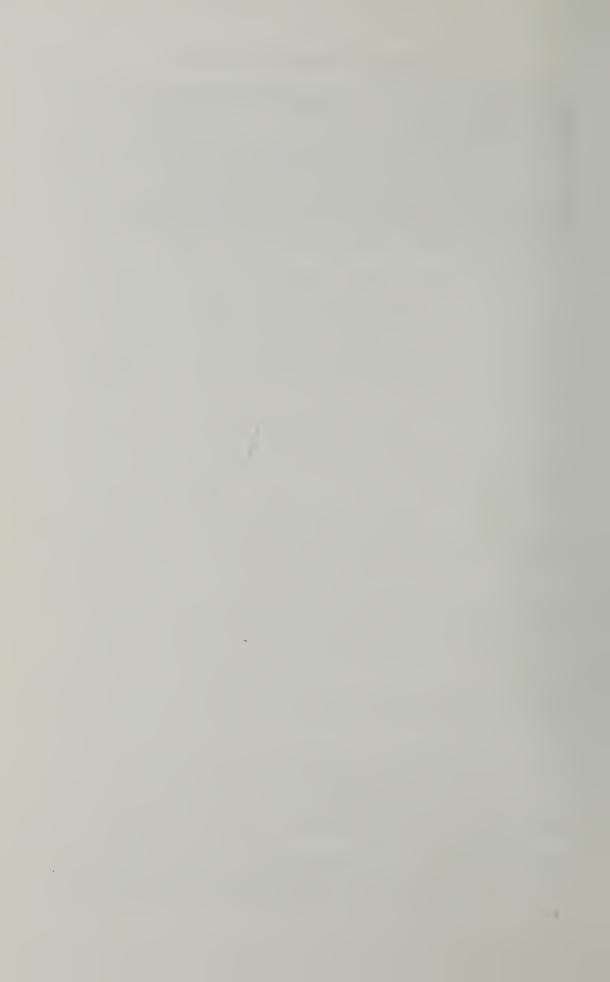
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CHAPTER 6

Methods of preparation of phosphine chalcogenides

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I. INTRODUCTION

Phosphine oxides are the most stable organophosphorus compounds and belong to an important class. The oxides and sulphides find extensive use as flame retardants¹, fire-proofing agents in polyurethane foams², as intermediates in catalytic reactions including carbon dioxide and nitrogen fixation³, as polydentate chelating legands⁴, as catalysts^{5,6}, in the chlorination of carbohydrates^{7,8}, in surface coatings⁹, as adhesives¹⁰, as fire retardants¹¹, as biologically active compounds^{12,13}, in inhibiting the precipitation of scale-forming salts¹⁴, as powerful sequestering agents^{15,16}, in the preparation of polyesters with improved properties¹⁷, as flotation reagents for minerals¹⁸, in the solvent extraction of precious metals^{16,19} and many more. Allylic phosphine oxides have also been used as precursors²⁰ of dienes of defined geometry, as in the synthesis of 3-deoxy-vitamin D₂.

Good reviews on the subject have been published by Hays and Peterson²¹. Maier²², several by Miller²³ and others^{24,25}. Older reviews include those by Maier²⁶, Berlin and Butler² and Sasse²⁸. Generally these reviews are more than a decade old and the list of new organophosphorus compounds has grown tremendously in the meantime. This review attempts to cover the literature for the last 20 years or so up to June 1990. The reader is recommended to refer to the older literature and texts for the earlier references.

II. SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Phosphine oxides. as their name implies, are derivatives of phosphine and hence their methods of preparation necessarily include the methods of preparation of phosphines. In some cases the reactants interact to give the oxides directly, whereas in other cases they have to be synthesized through the phosphines.

The phosphines have been dealt with in detail in the first volume of this series, including their methods of preparation. There is bound to be some overlap with the corresponding chapter of the previous volume, but the emphasis in this chapter is on the methods of preparation of the oxides and sulphides.

Organophosphorus chemistry has grown at a phenomenal rate in the last two decades or so, and a wide variety of analogous compounds are known. Thus:

For the purpose of this Chapter, the scope will be limited to the compounds as described in 1 above, i.e. with no P—alkoxy. S—alkyl or N—alkyl linkage. This automatically excludes the compounds represented by 2, 3 and 4 as they are discussed elsewhere in the series. However, the oxides of polyphosphines, which could have one or more P—P linkages instead of the usual P—C linkages, are included here.

III. METHODS OF PREPARATION OF PHOSPHINE OXIDES

A. Reactions Involving Conversion of P^{III} to P^{V}

1. Through oxidation of phosphines

a. By air oxidation. Tertiary phosphine oxides are prepared by refluxing the phosphine, $\mathbf{5}$ (R = octyl, hexyl, decyl, Ph. R' = Ph. X = nil or O), in air. Compounds $\mathbf{5}$ in turn were prepared by treating R'PCl₂ with sodium powder and then Rhal (hal = halogen) in an oxygenated atmosphere. Thus $35.8 \, \mathrm{g}$ of PhPCl₂ were refluxed for 6h in xylene with sodium powder and the resulting disodium derivative was further refluxed with 1-bromooctane in air to give the oxide $\mathbf{5}$ (X = O). Nickel(H) halides form complexes 6 with diphosphines, which are stable in the solid state but decompose slowly if heated above $220^{\circ} \, \mathrm{C}$, undergoing air oxidation to yield the diphosphine dioxide $7(\mathrm{X}^1 = \mathrm{X}^2 = \mathrm{O}; \mathrm{R} = \mathrm{R}' = \mathrm{Ph})$.

Phosphines on oxidation with air or oxygen in the presence of π -cyclopentadienyl- or π -indenyl-nickel catalysts give phosphine oxides in excellent yields 31 . e.g. Ph $_3$ P on stirring with nickelocene in benzene in the presence of oxygen gives Ph $_3$ PO in 90° $_0$ yield. Catalytic oxidation of phosphines using molecular oxygen has been reported 32 in the presence of (R $_2$ NCS $_2$) MoO $_2$ (R = Pr, Et). Thus R $_3$ P=O (R = Ph. Bu) is prepared by stirring a

benzene solution of R_3P (R = Ph) containing $(Pr_2NCS_2)_2 \cdot MoO_2$ under 1 kg cm^{-2} of

oxygen.

Ph₃P is reported to be converted³³ quantitatively into its oxide by treatment with oxygen in the presence of Ph₄P⁺Cl⁻, whereas in the absence of the catalyst the reaction failed. Mono-oxidation of methyl or ethyl derivatives of cyclopentaphosphine 8 is reported to occur³⁴ by treatment with dry atmospheric oxygen (R = Me, Et; X = nil, O). 2-Bis(diphenylphosphino)methylpyridine and its 6-methyl derivative 9 (X = nil), on aerial oxidation³⁵ followed by quaternization with Br₂ or warming with acetic acid, gave the monophosphine oxide 10 in 82% yield by the loss of one phosphine group, whereas oxidation with MnO₂ yielded the bisphosphine oxide 9 (X = O). Formation of 10 is unusual as RCH(PPh₂)₂ do not undergo similar loss of a phosphine group.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
X & P \\
R & P \\
P & P \\
R & R
\end{array}$$

$$(8)$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
Me & N \\
N & CH_2PPh_2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
O \\
X & Ph \\
Ph \\
N & CH_2PPh_2
\end{array}$$

$$(10)$$

$$(11)$$

Catalytic oxidation of phosphines, e.g. Bu_3P , in the presence of $[Pd\{Ph_2P(CH_2)PPh_2\}_2]$ at 25–45 °C with dry air is found to give the oxide³⁶. Il'yasov *et al.*³⁷ reported the oxidation of the phosphabicyclononane system 11 (X = nil) into its oxide (X = O) by reaction with oxygen. Compound 11 is prepared by reaction of β -diethylaminoethyl cyclopentenyl ketone with phenylphosphine.

Chloromethyldimethylphosphine 5 (R = Me; R' = CH₂Cl; X = nil) is oxidized³⁸ by oxygen to give the phosphine oxide 5 (X = O). Likewise, acylphosphine 12 (R = Ph; R¹ = Me; R² = COMe; X = nil) is oxidized to 12 (X = O) on treatment³⁹ with dry oxygen. Halogenated acylphosphines 12 (R = R¹ = Ph; R² = COCH₂Cl, COCH₂F, COC₂F₅, COC₃F₇, COC₆F₅) are also similarly oxidized⁴⁰, as are the diorganyltrifluoroacetyl-

$$R^{1} = X \qquad Me = P$$
(12)
$$(13)$$

phosphines⁴¹ 12 (R = Ph; R¹ = PhCH₂, cyclohexyl, Me₃C; R² = COCF₃). Aryldiphenyl-phosphines 5 [R = Ph; R' = COMe, COCF₃, COOMe₃, CO-(3,5-dinitrophenyl)] are known to react^{42,43} with oxygen if the latter is slowly introduced into a diethyl ether solution of the phosphine, to give the oxides 5 (X = O).

Ozone and m-chloroperbenzoic acid are also known⁴⁴ to oxidize phosphines and the oxidation proceeds with retention of configuration. 3-Phospholene derivatives 13 with cyclohexane or substituted cyclohexanes fused at the double bond, on ozonolysis at -78 °C, are reported⁴⁵ to offer a useful route for the synthesis of 3,8-phosphonanedioneloxide systems 14 (R = Me; X = O).

b. By peroxy compounds. Dimethylphosphine on oxidation⁴⁶ with 7% H_2O_2 at $20-30\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the presence of 4% HCl gives the oxide in 96% yield. The dioxide 7 is prepared⁴⁷ by oxidation of the phosphine with 100% H_2O_2 in acetone. H_2O_2 oxidation has also been used to oxidize⁴⁸ the phosphine 5 (R = n-octyl; R' = sec-butyl). Acetylenic phosphine⁴⁹ 15 (X = nil; Y = H, Cl, OMe, etc.) and trivinylphosphine⁵⁰ are also prepared by oxidation with dilute aqueous hydrogen peroxide at less than $100\,^{\circ}\text{C}$.

$$(p-NO_2C_6H_4C \equiv C)_2 - p - Y$$
(15)

King and Heckley⁵¹ have reported the H_2O_2 oxidation of the poly(tertiary phosphines) 16 (R = Ph; X = O) and 17 (X = nil), resulting in the oxidation of all the P^{III} present in the molecule. The preparation of poly(tertiary phosphines) is described in the literature (see Sections III.A and IV.B.1). Phosphines of the type 5 [R = CH₂OAc, CH₂CH(Me)OH] are also known^{52,53} to give, on H_2O_2 oxidation, the corresponding oxides (X = O) in 84–95% yield. Tetraaryl(alkyl)vinylidenephosphines 18 (X = nil) have been oxidized with H_2O_2 to give the *trans* isomer in 84% yield⁵⁴. Compound 18 was, in turn, prepared in 55% yield of the *trans* isomer, by treatment of bis-p-chlorophenyl-phosphine chloride 19 (R = p-ClC₆H₄; X = nil) with lithium in thf, followed by reaction with ClHC=CHCl for 1.5 h at -20°C.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & X & X \\ \parallel & \parallel \\ (p\text{-ClC}_6\text{H}_4)_2\text{PCH} = \text{CHP}(\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Cl-}p)_2 \\ & \textbf{(18)} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R & X & X & X \\
\parallel & \parallel & \parallel \\
P & - CI & (Me_3C)_2P & Me
\end{array}$$
(19)

 H_2O_2 oxidation of 20 (m-Me or p-Me) and 5 (R = Ph; R' = CH₂CH=CH₂) is reported⁵⁵ to give the corresponding oxides (X = O) in 91% and 82% yields, respectively. The oxide 5 (R = Ph; R' = CH₂CH=CH₂; X = O), obtained above, on nitration and reduction with Sn-HCl followed by diazotization and coupling with 2-naphthol, gives a phosphine oxide dye⁵⁶ (21).

The stereochemistry of the oxidation of phosphines with H_2O_2 has been described by Leuchenbach⁵⁷.

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 & & \\
 & & \\
 &$$

Diazaphosphorinanes 22 (R = Ph, p-MeC₆H₄, p-BrC₆H₄, H₂CPh; R' = Ph; X = nil) are known to be oxidized⁵⁸ to 5-oxo derivatives 22 (X = O) by H₂O₂. Similarly, cyclopropylidenebis(diphenylphosphine) 23 (X = nil) is reported⁵⁹ to be prepared in 91% yield by H₂O₂ oxidation. The phosphine 23 is prepared in 26% yield by cyclopropanation of (Ph₂P)₂C=CH₂ with Me₂SO(=CH₂) and is air and moisture stable. Tertiary phosphine sulphides also, on H₂O₂ oxidation, give the corresponding phosphine oxides (see Section III.B.4 for details). Iron-phosphole complexes 24 are known⁶⁰ to be oxidized by H₂O₂ to 25 (R = Ph; R¹ = R² = Me; X = O). The decomplexed products, 24, in turn,

SCHEME 1. Preparation of phosphole oxides.

were prepared by treating the iron phosphole complex with AlCl₃ and then with ammonia solution. Treatment of 24 with BzCl, Et₃N and water gave the ring expanded product 26 (Scheme 1).

 H_2O_2 oxidation of diphosphines 27 (R = Me, Bu, Ph; R' = Et, Bu, Pr, Me₂CH, pentyl, hexyl; X = nil) are known to give⁶¹ the oxides in 62–68% yields. Compounds 27, in turn, are prepared by ring opening of the diphosphacyclopentanes 28 with organolithium compounds, RLi, to give 29, followed by reaction of 29 with R'Br. Tertiary phosphines 1 (R = alkyl) on oxidation with H_2O_2 give⁶² the corresponding oxides. I(X = nil), in turn, are prepared by treatment of RMgBr with PCl₃ in thf. Allylic phosphine oxides are likewise formed by H_2O_2 oxidation⁶³ of 30 (R = H, Et), prepared by reaction of Ph₂PLi in thf with MeCR=CHCH₂COOC₆H₃Cl₂-2,6. Oxidation of the phosphonium salts 31 with H_2O_2 -MnO₂ is reported to give arylenebismethylenephosphine oxide⁶⁴ 32(X = O). Compounds 31 are prepared by reaction of Pr_2PCH_2OH with arylenebis(methyl halides).

 H_2O_2 is known to oxidize the leuko dyes 33 (R = Et, CMe₃, Ph; X = nil) to the phosphine oxides 33 (X = O). Polydentate ligands containing P of the type 34 (X¹ = O; X² = S; n = 1, 2, 3) are prepared 65 by H_2O_2 oxidation of 34 (X' = nil).

Olefinic phosphines, 35(X=nil), on oxidation with H_2O_2 , give⁶⁶ the phosphine oxides 35(X=O). These on further oxidation with ozone followed by a multiple aldol reaction on the product, gives the phosphaheterocycle 36. Phosphine oxide 5 (R=Ph; $R^1=2-MeOC_6H_4$; X=O) is prepared by H_2O_2 oxidation of the corresponding 5 (X=nil), which in turn is prepared by the reaction of Ph_2PCl with $2-MeOC_6H_4MgBr$. Similarly, $2-XC_6H_4X'$ (X=X'=halides) on reaction with 2 mol equiv. of $LiPPh_2$ in the presence of furan, followed by oxidation⁶⁸ with H_2O_2 , gives 5 (R=Ph, $R^1=2-ClC_6H_5$). Likewise, 50 g of 5 (R=CO-2, $6-Cl_2C_6H_3$; R'=2, 5-xylyl; X=nil) in MeCN, on treatment with 150 ml of 30% H_2O_2 at 60 °C, gives⁶⁹ the corresponding oxide (X=O).

$$S[OCH(CF_3)_2]_2 = \begin{cases} Ph_2PCH & Ph_2PCH \\ Ph_2PCH \\ Ph_2PCH \\ CH_2 \end{cases}$$
(38)

- c. By oxides of sulphur. Aqueous sodium sulphite has been used to oxidize⁷⁰ the phosphine-iodine complex R_3PI_3 (see Section III.C.1). Sulphoxylate 37 is known⁷¹ to oxidize Me_3P to its oxide. Recently Dziwok et al.⁷² have used $Me_2S(=CH_2)O$ to convert 2,3-(bisphenylphosphinyl)buta-1,3-diene 38 by double cyclopropanation and oxidation to the phosphine oxide 39 (X = O). SO_2 is reported to react with Me_3P to give³⁷ both Me_3PO and Me_3PS . ($Me_3SiO)_2SO_2$ is known⁷⁴ to react with $PhPCl_2$ at $PhPCl_3$ at $PhPCl_4$ at $PhPCl_5$ at
- d. By oxides of nitrogen. Hydroxylamine hydrochloride in refluxing pyridine has been used 57 to oxidize chiral cyclic tertiary phosphines stereospecifically. Reactions of nitrosyl fluoride, FNO, with dialkylphosphines R_2PH is reported to give 75 the corresponding oxide along with the substitution of H by F. Thus 0.026 mol of dibutylphosphine, on treatment with FNO at -50 to -68 °C, gave 40 (R = Bu, Me) in 7.3% yield.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \parallel \\ P - F \end{bmatrix} = X$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 40 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 41 \end{bmatrix}$$

Photochemical transfer of oxygen from heterocyclic N-oxides to phosphine sulphide has also been reported ⁷⁶ (see Section III.B.4). Enantiomeric phosphine 12 (R = Me; R' = Ph; $R^2 = Pr$; X = nil) and diastereomeric phosphorinanes are thus stereospecifically oxidized ⁷⁷ by tertiary amine oxides.

e. By other inorganic oxidants. Substituted phosphines and nickel halide complexes, e.g. [(Ph₃P)₂NiX₂](X = Cl, Br, I) are known⁷⁸ to be quantitatively oxidized to the corresponding oxides by sodium chlorite. Use of ClO₂ as the oxidizing agent led to the preparation of $(R_3P=O)_2$ ·NiCl₂ (R = Ph, cyclohexyl) and [{Ph₂P(=O)CH₂}₂NiCl₂]. Oxidation of triferrocenylphosphines 41 with MnO₂, KMnO₄ or oxygen over alumina gave the corresponding oxides⁷⁹ (X = O) in 83, 64 and 15% yields, respectively. KMnO₄ has also been used to oxidize^{80,81} oxaphosphabicyclodecanones 42 and 43 (X = nil, O).

Mercury(II) acetate has been used to oxidize 82 Me₃P, forming a 1:1 adduct Me₃PO·AcOH, which is also formed in 73–81% yield by reaction of Me₃PO with RCOOH(R = H, Me). This adduct on treatment with sodium methoxide gives Me₃PO·MeOH and sodium acetate.

Triphenylphosphine can be oxidized 83 with 2–3 mol equiv. of MnO₂ in kerosene. Thus Ph₃P(1 mol) was oxidized by MnO₂ (3 mol) in kerosene (1750 ml) at 140–150 °C for 5–6 h

to give $Ph_3P=O$ in 80% yield. R_3P is also oxidized⁸⁴ to its oxide with $KMnO_4$ in acetone, the product being obtained by repeated extraction of the black residue with chloroform. R_3P are oxidized with FSO_2Cl at room temperature to give⁸⁵ $R_3P=O$.

f. By miscellaneous oxidants. Tributylphosphine, on mixing with methyl pyruvate under nitrogen at 40-45 °C for 1 day, is reported⁸⁶ to give the oxide in 90% yield along with dimethylmethylene dicarboxylate. Diethyl mesoxalate also has been used as an oxidizing agent in the same reaction. A mixture of Ph₃P and ethyl pyruvate on heating for 1 h at 140 °C forms Ph₃P=O in 58.9% yield.

The anaerobic aqueous alkaline oxidation⁸⁷ of 44, (w = 0-2; y = 3-w) and $(p\text{-OHC}_6H_4)_3P$ gives a stoichiometric amount of hydrogen and the corresponding phosphine oxides. $(Y\text{-}C_6H_4)_3P$ reacts⁸⁸ with chloramine-T in ethanol to give 45 $(X = NSO_2C_6H_4Me-p)$, which on hydrolysis with water gives the phosphine oxide 45 (X = O) along with $H_2NO_2SC_6H_4Me-p$, together forming a strongly hydrogen-bonded adduct 46. $(Me_3Si)_2O$ is reported⁸⁹ to oxidize $C_6F_5PRF_3$ (47) to 48 (X = O). Compound 47 is prepared by the reaction of C_6F_5PRY $(Y = NEt_2)$ with HCl or HBr, thus forming the halides (Y = Cl, Br), which in turn react with NaF in MeCN to give the fluoro derivative (Y = F). This on further reaction with AsF₃ gives 47. $C_6F_5PRNEt_2$ was prepared by reaction of $Et_2NP(R)Cl$ $(R = Me, Et, CMe_3, Ph)$ with C_6F_5MgBr .

Tertiary phosphines 5 (R = Me, Et; R' = octadecyl, octyl, dodecyl, hexadecyl, hexyl, tetradecyl; X = nil) on oxidation with *tert*.-butyl peroxide give the oxides 5 (X = O). The phosphines 5 are prepared by treatment of dialkylphosphines with an alkene⁹⁰.

(49)

Tetrakis(diphenylphosphino)allenes 49 (X = nil) were oxidized with bistrimethylsilyl peroxide, (Me₃SiO)₂, to give the corresponding oxide^{91.92} 49 (X = O) (see Section III.A.2.b for the preparation of the phosphine 49).

Trimethylsilyl *tert*.-butyl peroxide, Me₃CSiOOSiCMe₃, is known to react^{93a} with Ph₃P to give the oxide (itself being converted to Me₃SiOCMe₃ in the process). Bis(trimethylsilyl) peroxide is a versatile^{93b} reagent for the selective generation of the oxyphosphoryl group. It oxidizes phosphines to the oxides with retention of configuration at phosphorus. It also converts the thiophosphoryl function to the oxophosphoryl function with inversion of configuration at phosphorus.

Et₃P is known to be converted into its oxide by reaction⁹⁴ with dimethylacetylene dicarboxylate in presence of water, forming dimethyl pyruvate along with other products. The tricyclic phosphine 50 (X = nil) is reported⁹⁵ to be oxidized (X = O) by treatment with Me₃COOH. Compound 50 (X = nil) was in turn prepared by the reaction of the phosphinous chloride of the phosphine 50 (R = Cl; X = nil) with PhMgBr. Haloalkylphosphine oxides are prepared⁹⁶ by oxidative halogenation of tertiary hydroxyalkyl phosphines. Thus 1 [R = HO(CH₂)₃; X = nil] on treatment with HCl gives 5 [R = HO(CH₂)₃; R' = H; X = O).

2. Through reaction of organometallics with P^{III} compounds

a. With $P^{\rm III}$ esters. 2-Phenylisophosphindoline-2-oxide (51) is prepared ⁹⁷ by reaction of phenylphosphinic acid esters with o-xylene dibromide in the presence of NaAlH₂-(OCH₂CH₂CMe)₂ through a Michaelis–Arbuzov rearrangement. The cyclization can also be brought about by treatment with HSiCl₃. The reaction of MeMgBr and (EtO)₂POH with RI is reported ⁹⁸ to give the oxide $\mathbf{5}$ [R = Me; R' = \mathbf{F}_3 C(CF₂)₇CH₂, \mathbf{F}_3 C(CF₂)₅(CH₂)₂, \mathbf{F}_3 C(CF₂)₃(CH₂)₃, \mathbf{F}_3 C(CF₂)₉(CH₂)₂]. The reaction of PhRPOH (R = Bu, PhCH₂, n-hexyl) with R'Br(R' = Ph, o/p-tolyl, p-AcC₆H₄, p-AcNC₆H₄, p-Me₂NC₆H₄, p-PhC₆H₄, 2-naphthyl, p-NCC₆H₄) in the presence of [Pd(PPh₃)₄] and Et₃N gives ⁹⁹ phosphine oxides of the type 12 (R² = Ph).

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{OEt} & & & \\ \text{OEt} & & & \\ \text{OEt} & & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Br} & & \\ \text{OEt} & & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_2\text{Br} & \\ \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Cyclization} & \\ \text{CH}_2\text{Br} & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Cyclization} & \\ \text{CH}_2\text{Br} & \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Cyclization} & \\ \text{CI)} & \\ \end{array}$$

Biphosphine oxide ligands 52 (X = O) for transition metal complexes have been prepared 100 by reaction of o-difluorobenzene with $R^{T}R^{2}P(O)M^{+}$ (M = alkali metal). The

latter is prepared in situ by treating R^1R^2POH with an alkali metal hydride. Compound 52 (X = O) on reduction with PhSiH₃ at 120 °C gives the phosphine (X = nil). Tertiary phosphine oxides are prepared ¹⁰¹ by reaction of primary aliphatic or aromatic halides with activated sodium phosphinates, which in turn are prepared by treating dialkylphosphine oxide with complex bases NaNH₂-tert-BuONa. Ph₂POH reacts with R'hal (R' = PhCH₂, Et, Me₂CH, cyclohexyl, menthyl; hal = Cl, Br, I) in the presence of NaAlH₂(OCH₂CH₂CMe)₂ to give¹⁰² phosphine oxides of the type 5 (R = Ph).

Alkylarylphosphine oxides of the type 5 (R = Me, $R' = CH_2C_6H_3Cl_2-3,4$) can be prepared ¹⁰³ by the addition of sodium hydride to a cooled solution of 50% Me_2POH in isobutyl alcohol and 3,4-dichlorobenzyl chloride in toluene at 20–45 and 50–55 °C.

b. With $P^{\rm III}$ halides. PCl₃ is reported to react¹⁰⁴ with trialkylaluminium under nitrogen at 120–145 °C to give alkyldichlorophosphines, which on treatment with earbon in the presence of Et₃N at high temperature and pressure, followed by oxidation, give the corresponding oxides. Phenylphosphine dichloride reacts¹⁰⁵ with sodium acetylide to yield the phosphine, 5 (X = nil; R = —C = CH; R' = Ph) in 52% yield, which is then oxidised (X = O) to give the oxide in 80–90% yield. Grignard reaction of arylphosphinyl halides Ph_{3-n} PCl_n with aryl halides, BrC₆H₄Et, followed by oxidation with H₂O₂ gave^{19b} phosphine oxides of type 5 in 21–89% yield. As a variation of this reaction, Baudler et al. ¹⁰⁶ obtained 1,2,4,5-tetraphenylcyclo-3,6-dicarba-1,2,4,5-tetraphane (54) in 19% yield by metallation of the phospholane 53 and subsequent reaction with CH₂Cl₂.

Aryl-substituted P^{III} halides on reaction¹⁰⁷ with aryl-substituted copper acetylides in the ratio 1:2, e.g., p-O₂NC₆H₄C \equiv CCu in thf, containing catalytic LiCl or LiBr, gave, on oxidation with H₂O₂, the oxide **55**. A similar reaction with PCl₃ gave (p-O₂NC₆-H₄C \equiv C)₃P, which polymerized during recrystallization.

$$(O_2N \longrightarrow C \Longrightarrow C)_2P \longrightarrow Y$$

$$Y = H, CI, OMe, NMe_2$$
(55)

Ph PC
$$\equiv$$
 CCH₂Li $\stackrel{R}{\underset{R}{\longrightarrow}}$ $\stackrel{P}{\underset{R}{\longrightarrow}}$ $\stackrel{R}{\underset{R}{\longrightarrow}}$ $\stackrel{R}{\underset{R}{\longrightarrow}}$ (56) (58)

Tetrakisdiphenylphosphinoallenes 49 (X = nil) were prepared⁹¹ in 56% yield by reacting the lithium derivative of the acetylenic phosphine 56 with diphenylchlorophosphine 19 (R = Ph; X = nil).

Cyclopentadienylthallium is allowed¹⁰⁸ to react for 1 h at room temperature with P^{III} halides such as R₂PCl or RPCl₂(R = Ph, Me) in diethyl ether, yielding 40–100% CpPR₂ 57 (X = nil) and Cp₂PR 58 (X = nil), respectively, which on H₂O₂ oxidation gave the corresponding oxides (X = O). Reaction of P^{III} dihalides with organometallics has been used to prepare phosphine oxide dyes⁵⁶. Thus reaction of 59 with PhMgBr, followed by oxidation, gives the phosphine oxide 5 (R = Ph; R' = CH₂CH = CH₂; X = O; see Section III. A. 1.b for its conversion to an azo dye, 21). Compound 59 was prepared by the reaction of Et₃SiCH₂CH=CH₂ with PCl₅ in benzene at -15°C when an adduct was formed which was decomposed with phosphorus and CS₂ at -20°C.

In a variation of the reaction of organometallics with P^{III} halides, phosphorus heterocycles are prepared by the reaction of unsaturated compounds with a complex of a P^{III} halide with $AlCl_3$, e.g. addition of 60 ($R = CH = CH_2$; R' = Me) to the dichlorophenylphosphine. $AlCl_3$ complex in CH_2Cl_2 at room temperature followed by quenching with aqueous $NaHCO_3$ gives the phosphabicyclo[3.1.0]hexane 61 and the vinylphosphetan 62 ($R = CH = CH_2$; $R^1 = Me$; $R^2 = Ph$). Reaction of 60 (R = Ph) with $PhPCl_2$. $AlCl_3$ complex resulted in the formation of 62 ($R = R^2 = Ph$; $R^1 = CH = CH_2$), whereas with $PhPBr_2$. $AlCl_3$ in dichloromethane a mixture of 61 and 62 was obtained. Use of dibromomethane in the above reaction, however, resulted in the formation of the open-chain derivative 63. A similar reaction of $MePCl_2$. $AlCl_3$ with camphene gave after hydrolysis the phosphetane oxide 110 64 and the chlorophosphetane oxide 65.

Phosphine oxides of the type 12 (R^1 and R^2 = substituted phenyl; R = tert.-alkyl) are prepared ¹¹¹ by alkylation of the AlCl₃ complex of the corresponding 19 (R = aryl; X = nil) at 20–160 °C. Diaryl(tertiaryalkyl)phosphine oxide 5 (R = unsubstituted Ph; R' = alkyl; X = O) can be prepared likwise ^{112,113} by reacting a complex of 19 (R = aryl; X = nil) with AlCl₃.HCl and an alkylating agent in diethyl ether and heating.

Alkoxymethylphosphine oxides are prepared in 35-80% yields by reaction 114 with Grignard reagents, e.g. (EtOCH₂)₃P=O was prepared in 44% yield by reaction of $Cl_2P(O)CH_2OEt$ with EtOCH₂MgCl. Bis(p-chlorophenyl)methylphosphine oxide is prepared 115 by reacting p-chlorophenylmagnesium bromide with phosphine dichloride in thf. Alkyl(di-tert.-butyl)phosphine oxide 5 (R' = Me, Et) is formed by refluxing 116 19 (R = Me₃C; X = nil) with R'ONa in MeOH for 1 h. Tertiary phosphine oxides of the type 5 (R = R') or 1 (R = R' = C_{1-12} -alkyl or aryl; X = O or S) are obtained 117 by refluxing 19 with a mixture of the halo derivative of the hydrocarbon in the presence of a metal, generally magnesium. Grignard reaction of tert-butylphosphinic dichloride with Me₃CCH₂MgBr, followed by oxidation 118 , gives oxide 5 (R = Me₃CCH₂; R' = Me₃C; X = O) together with diphosphine dioxide 66. The phosphine oxides 67 (R = Me₃C, Me₂CH, Me₂CHCH₂, Bu, Ph; R' = Me₃C; X¹ = nil; X² = O) are prepared 119 by the reaction of Me₃CPRCl with Me₃CPRONa.

3. Through Michaelis-Arbuzov rearrangement

A convenient method for preparing tertiary phosphine oxides consists in the reaction of phosphinite esters 68 [(a) R = R'; (b) $R \neq R'$] with alkyl halides (reaction 2). The rearrangement offers a very facile pathway for the formation of a C—P bond and has been reviewed elsewhere¹²⁰. Compound 68 is obtained as in reaction 3. Thus methyl iodide reacts¹²¹ vigorously with 68 (R = R' = Et) at room temperature to yield 5 (R = Et; R' = Me; X = O). Alkyl halides seem to be more reactive than aryl halides, in keeping with the general reluctance of the aryl groups to undergo nucleophilic substitution.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R \\
POR^3 & R^2hal \\
R' & R^2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
R \\
R^2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
P = 0 \\
\end{array}$$
(2)

Hal = Cl, Br, I; α -halocarbonyl compounds, etc.

$$R_{2}NPCI_{2} \xrightarrow{R'_{3}AI} R_{2}NP \xrightarrow{R'} \xrightarrow{R^{3}OH} R^{3}OP \xrightarrow{R'} R'$$
(68)

Ethyl diphenyl phosphinite reacts on refluxing 16a with 1,2-dichloro-3,3,4,4,5,5-hexafluorocyclopentene to give perfluorocycloalk-1-enyl-1,2-ylenediphosphoryl compounds **69**, useful as metal extractants and sequestering agents. Some phosphinite esters undergo self-isomerization to the oxides, even in absence of any alkyl halides. Thermal isomerization is also fairly common, e.g. methylphosphine oxides can be prepared in 77.8% yield by the thermal rearrangement 122 of **70** (R = R = Me) in phenyl cyanide at $130\,^{\circ}$ C in 8 h. Toluene, xylene, octane, decalin and o-dichlorobenzene have also been used as solvents in the reaction.

Tetramethylphosphonium halides 71 also undergo rearrangement 123 on heating at $190\text{--}200\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ in presence of HCl gas to give 70 (R = CH₂OH; R' = Me; X = O). Me₃P or (AcOCH₂)₃P, on heating at $160\text{--}180\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the presence of HCl gas with simultaneous removal of the low-boiling products by distillation, yields 124 the phosphine oxide 5 (R = ClCH₂; R' = Me; X = O). Irradiation of hydroxymethylphosphines 70 (R' = CH₂OH; X = nil) in an inert gas is also known 125 to give the rearranged product, e.g. hydroxymethyldimethylphosphine (108 g) when irradiated for 8 h at 25 °C under nitrogen gives 79% of 70 (R = R' = Me), which on further irradiation at 30 °C in dichloromethane for 9 h under argon gives trimethylphosphine oxide in 91.85% yield.

Dichlorophosphines undergo rearrangement on reaction with paraformaldehyde¹²⁶, e.g. 2-thienyldichlorophosphine on heating at 135 °C for 4 h gives 72 in 33% yield. The

yield of **72** is further increased to 74.5% by heating with additional paraformaldehyde. Likewise, chlorodimethylphosphine on treatment with formaldehyde in dry benzene is known to give¹²⁷ chloromethyldimethylphosphine oxide.

Arbuzov reaction of (S)-(-)-2,2'-bis(bromomethyl)-1,1'-binaphthyl (73) with Ph₂POMe results in the formation¹²⁸ of the corresponding oxide 74. R₂NPRR' on reaction with α,ω -alkanediols, followed by reaction with alkylene dibromide, rearranges¹²⁹ to form the phosphine oxide 75 (X = O).

Phosphine oxides containing upto four phosphorus atoms (16) have also been prepared from the phosphinites $68 \, (R=R')$, by reaction with trischloromethylphosphine. Triphenylphosphine oxide 76 has been synthesized starting from $68a \, (R=R'=PhCHBr; R^3=Ph)$. Addition of 1,5-diazabicyclo [4.3.0] non-5-ene to a benzene solution of 68a gave the phosphacyclopropene 76, which at $120 \, ^{\circ}C$ gave $PhC \equiv CPh$. Addition of aqueous NaOH to 76 gave(cis-1,2-diphenylvinyl)phosphinic acid. The preparation of oxaphosphirane phosphine oxides has also been reported 131b .

Some specific phosphine oxides (77), useful as flame retardants in polyurethanes, are prepared ¹³² by reaction of phosphinite **68a** (R = R' = Ph, tolyl; $R^3 = Me$, Et) with $p\text{-Cl/BrCH}_2C_6H_4CH_2Cl/Br$, which was further reacted with glycerol or glycols to give 78. Thus a mixture of methyldiphenyl phosphinite (216.2 parts) and aryl halide (175.1 parts), when stirred for 1 h at 90–100 °C followed by 1 h at 120–130 °C, gives 77 (R = Ph), which on stirring with glycerin (138.1 parts) and sodium carbonate (58.0 parts) for 2 h at 100–130 °C gives 78 (440.1 parts).

$$\begin{array}{c|c} R & O \\ P & H_2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} C & H_2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

The reaction of α -halo compounds with phosphinites also leads to the formation of phosphine oxides 79 (R, R', R² = H, Ph; R³ = Ph; R⁴ = Et, Me₂CH) (reaction 6). Tris(chloroethyl)phosphine oxide and 80 underwent Michaelis–Arbuzov rearrangement on heating at 170 °C with triethyl phosphite to give the oxides 81 and 82 (R = OEt) in high yield. Compound 80 is, in turn, prepared by the chlorination of tris(hydroxyethyl)phosphine oxide and 5 (R = HOCH₂CH₂; R' = CH₂OH; X = O). Tris(chloroethyl)phosphine oxide also undergoes an Arbuzov reaction 134 with butyldiphenyl phosphinite to give the tetra(tertiary phosphine) oxide 82 (R = Ph; X = O).

Acyl-substituted phosphine oxides 83 are prepared \$^{135,136}\$ by treating the phosphinite 68b (R = aryl; R' = C_{1-16} -alkyl, cycloalkyl, aryl, S- or N-heterocycle) with R²COhal (hal = Cl, Br, I; R² = C_{1-16} -alkyl, cycloalkyl) as in equation 2. Thus, 2,6-MeOC₆H₃COCl is heated for 3h at 50 °C with methyldiphenyl phosphinite to give 83 (R' = R² = Ph; R³ = 2, 6-MeOC₆H₃). Arbuzov reaction or Mannich-type condensation of Ph₂POH with aldehydes or secondary amines results in the formation 137 of the phosphine oxides 84 (R = H, alkyl, Ph, CH=CHPh, CH=CHMe, SMe, SPh, cyclohexyl).

Condensation of R_2POH (R = Et, Ph) with unsaturated halides or 1,3-dienes, in the presence of a phase-transfer catalyst, results in the formation of a phosphine oxide containing β,γ -unsaturated groups. Thus $BrCH_2CH = CH_2$ reacts with Et_2POH in the presence of KOH and Katamin AB to give¹³⁸ 5 ($R = Et; R' = CH_2CH = CH_2; X = O$). Similarly, the alkyl(tetraphenylethylene)diphosphine dioxide 85 is prepared¹³⁹ by reaction of Ph_2POH with $CH_2 = CHCHBr$, which gives $Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH = CH_2$. The latter on further reaction with Ph_2POH gives 85.

Reaction of Ph₂POH with Ph₂P(O)CH=CHCOR at 100–150 °C under an inert gas gives ¹⁴⁰ the oxide **86** whereas reaction ¹⁴¹ with BzCH₂CH₂NMe₂HCl at 100–110 °C for 3 h in MeOH gives the oxide **5** (R = Ph; R' = CH₂CH₂Bz) in 80% yield. Alkylation of R₂POH with R'hal gives ¹⁴² phosphine oxides of the type **5**. Thus, [Me(CH₂)₇]₂POH, on reaction with PhCH₂Cl in the presence of (Bu₄N)₂SO₄, gives the oxide **5** [R = Me(CH₂)₇; R¹ = CH₂Ph].

Addition of Et₂POH to p-R²C₆H₄N=CHPh gives **5** (R = Et; R' = p-R²C₆H₄-NHCHPh, where R² = COOMe/Et; X = O) in 20.5% yield¹⁴³; Et₂POH is prepared by the hydrolysis of Et₂PCl. Likewise, the reaction¹⁴⁴ of R₂POH (R = pentyl, hexyl, heptyl) with hal(CH₂)_nCOOH (hal = Cl, Br, I; n = 1,2) or with hal(CH₂)_nCOOR²(R' = alkyl) gives the oxide **5** [R' = (CH₂)_nCOOR², where R² = H or alkyl]. Reaction of (Me₃C)₂POLi with Me₃CCOCl gives¹⁴⁵ **5** [R = Me₃C, R' = C(O)CMe₃; X = O].

 $Ph_2P(O)CH_2Cl$, prepared from Ph_3P and $ClCH_2OMe$ in four steps, reacts¹⁴⁶ with cyclopentadienyllithium in benzene on refluxing for 4–5 h to give a mixture of $Ph_2P(O)CH_2R$ (R=1- or 2-cyclopentadienyl). These oxides react with $[CpFe(CO)_2]_2$ and $[Mn_2(CO)_{10}]$ to give ferrocene and cymantrene complexes 87a and 87b.

4. Through reactions of halophosphines

Chlorodimethylphosphine reacts with methanol at 20–30 °C with the elimination of methyl chloride, removed at 50 °C, and the mixture neutralized at 20 °C with 50% NaOH, followed by distillation, to give dimethylphosphine oxide in 90% yield¹⁴⁷.

A general method for preparing tertiary phosphine oxides of the type 5 is by the reaction ¹⁴⁸ of dimethylchlorophosphine with $Y(CH_2)_nR'(Y=Cl, Br; R'=alkyl, alkenyl, benzyl, functionally substituted alkyl; <math>n=0-9$; X=nil), followed by treatment with an appropriate oxo or hydroxy compound. Secondary chlorophosphines 19 (X=nil) react with cyclic ketones ¹⁴⁹ at $100-120\,^{\circ}C$ in a sealed system to give the oxide 5 (R'=cycloalkyl). Reaction of diethylchlorophosphine with α -halo ketones ¹⁵⁰ gives 88 (R, R'=H, Me or Me, Et). Chlorodiphenylphosphine on treatment with benzyl alcohol ¹⁵¹ gave phosphinate esters, which rearranged to give the phosphine oxides 89 (R=H, Me, MeO, Cl).

Compounds 19 (R = Ph; X = nil) are reported to react with diol ethers¹⁵² in the presence of a tertiary amine. Thus a mixture of $(HOCH_2CH_2)_2O$ (1.2 mol) and pyridine (2.4 mol) in diethyl ether, on treatment with Ph₂PCl, gives 90 (R = Ph; X = O) in 52% yield. Treatment of a diarylphosphine halide with lithium, followed by reaction with trans-ClCH=CHCl for 1.5 h at $-20\,^{\circ}$ C and then oxidation, gave the trans isomer of the phosphine⁵⁴ 18 (X = O; for details see Section III. A.1.b). Reaction of dichloro-2-thienylphosphine with acrylic acid at 60 °C for 3h yielded¹⁵³ the corresponding oxide 91 in 74.5% yield; 2- and 3-thienylphosphine oxides 92 are also known¹⁵⁴. Reaction of 2,2'-methylenebis(cyclohexanone) with PH₃ in dioxane containing HCl results in the formation¹⁵⁵ of the 10-oxo-10-phosphaperhydroanthracene system 93. Addition of RPX₂ (R = Ph, Me; X = Br, Cl) to cyclohepta-1,3-diene led to the

formation¹⁵⁶ of bicyclic phosphine oxide epimers 94 [(a) X = R; Y = O; (b) X = O; Y = R]. Reaction of 19 (R = Ph; X = nil) with trifluoroacetic acid at 160–170 °C is known to give¹⁵⁷ 95 in 92% yield. Reaction of 19 (R = aryl, alkyl) with enylols 96 is reported¹⁵⁸ to give eneallenes 97, whereas a similar reaction with allenols 98 produces 99, involving a [2, 3]-sigmatropic reaction at phosphorus.

Reaction of 19 with α,β -dicarbonyl compounds also gives ¹⁵⁹ the oxide, e.g. the reaction of chlorodiethylphosphine with MeC(O)R results in the formation of 100. Alkyl(β -cyanoalkyl)chlorophosphines, on heating at 100 °C with amides of α,β -unsaturated carbocyclic acids in an atmosphere of nitrogen or carbon dioxide, yielded ¹⁶⁰ alkylbis(β -cyanoalkyl)phosphine oxide 101.

$$R = COMe, CH_{2}COMe, CH_{2}CO_{2}Et$$

$$(100)$$

$$R = COMe, CH_{2}COMe, CH_{2}CO_{2}Et$$

$$(100)$$

$$R = COMe, CH_{2}CO_{2}Et$$

$$R = CO$$

Bifunctional oxides 102 are formed in reaction 7 on heating 161 the corresponding chlorophosphine in an inert atmosphere. Compound 102 (R' = H) on hydrolysis gave the acid 103, which on reaction with PCl₅ was converted into the chloride. Pyrolysis of 103 with Ba(OH)₂ gave the phosphorinane 104 on cyclization.

The reaction of an olefinic phosphine with acrylic acid, followed by esterification, gives 105 by equation 9.

$$R'$$
 $CH_{2}CHCN$
 $CH_{2}CHCN$
 $CH_{2}CHCN$
 R'
 R'
 $R = Et$
 $R = Me, Et; R' = H, Me$
(103)

$$103 \xrightarrow{\Delta} \xrightarrow{\text{Ba(OH)}_2} \xrightarrow{\text{Ef}} 0 \tag{8}$$

McCormack cycloaddition of dichloromethylphosphine to 1-vinylcyclohexenes, 105a, are known to give¹⁶² hexahydrophosphindole oxide 106 in 49.6–72.7% yield. Phosphindoline (107) and phosphinoline (108) systems have also been conveniently prepared by E1-Deek *et al.*¹⁶³ in 40–70% yield in a one-step cyclization reaction of diphenylalkenylphosphine oxides 5 (R = Ph; R' = $CH_2CH = CH_2$) by heating at 180 °C in the presence of polyphosphoric acid.

$$R = O(CH_2)_2O$$
, OCH_2Ph
 $R = OCH_2Ph$, OMe
 $R = OCH_2Ph$, OMe

The phosphole 109, on reaction¹⁶⁴ with benzyl chloride in triethylamine and water, gives 6-phenyl-5-phosphaphenanthrene (110) in 90% yield. Baudler and Reuschenbach¹⁶⁵ reported the synthesis of tetraphenylcyclotetraphosphine 112 by the cyclo-condensation of 111 with phenyl-tert-butylphosphine. Compound 112 (R = Ph)

was unstable at room temperatures in solution and rearranged to oligomeric pentaphenylcyclopentaphosphine, whereas $112 (R = Bu^t)$ was remarkably stable (for oxidation³⁴ of 112, see Section III.A.1.a).

Dihydrophenophosphazines 113 are prepared ¹⁶⁶ by the interaction of diarylamines with PCl₃, resulting in cyclization (reaction 10). Reaction of AlCl₃ complexes of cyclobutadienes 114 with R'PCl₂ (R' = Ph,Me) in CH₂Cl₂ at $-50\,^{\circ}$ C gave ¹⁶⁷ the phospholium salts 115, which, on aqueous NaOH work-up, gave the phosphole oxides 116 in 78% and 66% yields.

Kukhar et al. 168 reported the synthesis of 2-phenyl-2-phosphaadamantane-4,8-dione-2-oxide 120 in 28% yield by hydrolysing the bisiminium salt 119, followed by its oxidation. Compound 119 in turn is prepared by treating bicyclononanedione 117 with morpholine and cyclizing the resultant bicyclononadiene 118 with dichlorophenylphosphine, followed by oxidation (Scheme 2). The reaction of 19 (R = Et; X = nil) with cyclohexanone 169 in

the presence of butanol, butanethiol or AcOH gives a multi-component mixture. The reaction in the presence of butanol thus gives 121.

SCHEME 2. Preparation of phosphaadamantane-2-oxide.

Cycloaddition of dichloroalkylphosphine to butadiene and isoprene yields¹⁷⁰ dichlorophospholines **122**, which are hydrolysed to give phospholinones **123** in 43–95% yield. Cyclocondensation of dichlorophenylphosphine with two equivalents of enamines

at room temperature has been reported 171 to give 2-amino-1-phenylphosphole in 30-35% yield, which on oxidation gives the oxide 124 (R = piperidino, R' = Me, Et; R = pyrrolidino, R' = Et; X = nil, O). Application of pressure to the cycloaddition of dibromophenylphosphine to buta-1,3-dienes reduces the reaction¹⁷² time from days to hours, giving phospholinium bromide 125, which readily undergoes elimination to produce phosphole 126 (X = nil) in 75-77% yield, which could be oxidized to the corresponding oxide.

5. Through hydrolysis of R₂PNR₂ compounds

Secondary phosphine oxides are prepared in 90–100% yield by hydrolysis of $R_2PNR'_2$ in presence of HCl, H_2SO_4 or H_3PO_4 at 30°C (reaction 11). In a variation, dimethylphosphine oxide is prepared in 80–95% yield by hydrolysis of $R_2PNR'_2(R=Me, Et, Ph; R'=Me, Et, H)$ with water in benzene at -20 to 100°C under an atmosphere of nitrogen. In another variation 175, the hydrolysis of Me₂PR [R = Cl, OPh, NMe₂, NEt₂, N(CHMe₂)₂, NHPh] also yields the above phosphine oxide in 45–97.5% yield. Secondary phosphine oxides 127 (R^1 and $R^2 = C_{1-6}$ -alkyl) are prepared in high yields and high purity by acidic hydrolysis ¹⁷⁶ of dialkylchlorophosphines or their HX addition products with aqueous non-oxidizing mineral acids. Thus, 19 (R = Me; X = nil) in concentrated HCl was poured steadily at -5 °C under nitrogen into water and the mixture was adjusted to pH 6.5 with aqueous NaOH at 20-30 °C, to give the oxide in 97.5% yield.

$$R = Me, Et, Ph; R^{1} = Me, Et, Pr', Bu, Ph$$

$$R^{2} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{1} \longrightarrow R^{1} = Me, Et, Pr', Bu, Ph$$

$$R^{2} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{2} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{2} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{3} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{4} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{2} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{2} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{3} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow O$$

$$R^{4} \longrightarrow$$

(128)

Dimethylphosphine halides are known¹⁷⁷ to react with sodium methoxide to give Me₂POMe, which rearranges to trimethylphosphine oxide in presence of methyl iodide or is hydrolysed to 127 ($R^1 = R^2 = Me$) via intermediate 128.

6. Through reaction of P^{III} compounds with reactive groups

3-Aminopropylphosphines 129 on cyclization¹⁷⁸ with R¹C(O)R² give 1,3-azaphosphinanes 130. Both 130 (X = nil) and 131 (X = nil), on H_2O_2 oxidation, give the oxide (X = O). Compounds 130 (X = nil) and 131 (X = nil) are prepared by heating PhPH₂ and H₂C=CHCH₂NHR in the presence of azobisisobutyronitrile (AIBN). The reaction of diarylaminomethyl-substituted tertiary phosphines with primary or secondary phosphines causes cleavage¹⁷⁹ of the P—C bond, to form a new P—P bond. Thus, treatment of Ph₂PCH₂NEt₂ with Ph₂PH yields 132 (R = R' = Ph) and HNEt₂. Similarly, reaction of PhP(CH₂NEt₂)₂ and PhPH₂ gives novel cyclic phosphines 8 and 53 (R = Ph; X = nil), together with HNEt₂ and MeNEt₂ (see Section III.A.1.a. for oxidation of 8 and 129).

Ph P(CH₂)₃NHR R¹
$$(CH_2)_3$$
NHR (CH₂)₃NHF (CH₂

C—P bond cleavage is known in the reaction ¹⁸⁰ of tertiary phosphine oxides substituted at the α -carbon by electronegative functional groups such as ethers, thioethers and carbonyl with BCl₃ to give high yields of secondary phosphine oxides. BF₃ and BBr₃ are also known to react but with a lower yield of the C—P bond cleavage products. Substituents with β -carbons also reacted but with a lower yield.

1,3-Azaphospholanes 134 are synthesized ¹⁸¹ by the addition of Schiff bases, semi- or thiosemi-carbazones, to PhPHCH₂COOH followed by intramolecular condensation resulting in the formation of 133, which on treatment with LiAlH₄ (\nearrow C=O \rightarrow \nearrow CH₂) followed by oxidation gives 134. Base-catalysed addition of P—H bonds to vinyl double bonds has been used by King and Cloyd ¹⁸² to prepare methylated poly-tertiary phosphines 136 (reaction 11a). Thus, addition of a primary or secondary phosphine to

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135, followed by desulphurization with LiAlH₄ in boiling dioxane solution, produced 136 (R = Me; R' = Ph; X = nil) (reaction 11a). Similarly, 135 reacted with $PhPH_2$ to give 17 (X = nil). Using this method, linear P-6 polyphosphines 137 and polyphosphine oxides with up to ten phosphorus atoms have been prepared. All the phosphines 17, 136 and 137 (X = nil) have been oxidized⁵¹ to the corresponding phosphine oxides (X = O; see Section III.A.1.b for details). P—H bonds are reported¹⁸³ to add to the vinyl derivatives under mild conditions in presence of free radicals. Di-, tri- and tetra-(tertiary phosphines) have been synthesized by this method.

Diphenylphosphine is known to react¹⁸⁴ with acrylonitrile in two different ways, depending on the conditions (Scheme 3). The reaction of phenylphosphine with acrylonitrile gives¹⁸⁵ 139, which on treatment with Me₃COK cyclizes to give 140. This, on refluxing with 6M HCl followed by oxidation, gives 1-oxo-1-phenyl-4-phosphorinanone 141 (R = H).

SCHEME 3. Reaction of diphenylphosphine with acrylonitrile.

$$PhP$$
 $(CH_2)_2CN$
 Ph
 $(CH_2)_2CN$
 Ph
 $(CH_2)_2CN$
 Ph
 $(CH_2)_2CN$
 $(CH_2)_2$

Reaction of $[Ph_2P(O)]M$ (where M = Na, MgCl or ZnCl) with aromatic carbonyl compounds gave¹⁸⁶ different phosphine oxides 142 or 143 depending on the metal used. Compound 142 was produced with M = Na or ZnCl, whereas with M = MgCl 143 was produced along with benzoin and benzil. Reaction of $Ph_2P(O)M$ with p-benzoquinone gives the phosphine oxides 144 (X = O) and 145 (X = O).

Dihydrophosphorin systems 26 are formed ¹⁸⁷ by ring expansion of phospholes 25 (R = Ph) on reaction with R'COCl (R' = Ph, o-, m-, p-MeC₆H₄, p-anisyl, p-chlorophenyl, p-F/NO₂-C₆H₄ and 2/3-thienyl) and water. Phosphorinane oxides 146 are obtained by cyclization ¹⁸⁸ of 1,5-diketones with PH₃ (reaction 12). Phosphorinane ring systems 141 (R = Me) are also formed by the reaction ¹⁸⁹ of phenylphosphine with 1,4-dienes (reaction 13). Reaction of R'P(CH₂OH)₂ with propylene oxide in triethylamine yielded ⁵³ the phosphine oxides 5 [R = CH₂CH(Me)OH] in 41.6–47.8% yield (see Section III.A.1.b for their oxidation).

$$R^{1} = R^{5} = Ph, R^{2} = R^{3} = R^{4} = H;$$

 $R^{1}R^{2} = (CH_{2})_{4}, R^{3} = R^{5} = Ph, R^{4} = H;$
 $R^{1}R^{2} = H_{2}CC(Me_{2})OCH_{2}, R^{3} = R^{5} = Ph, R^{4} = H;$
 $R^{1}R^{2} = (CH_{2})_{4}, R^{3} = R^{4} = H, R^{5} = Ph;$
 $R^{1}R^{2} = R^{4}R^{5} = (CH_{2})_{4}, R^{3} = Ph;$
 $R^{1}R^{2} = (CH_{3})_{4}, R^{3} = R^{4} = H, R^{5} = Ph$

Multi-membered oligophosphacycloalkanes 147 wcrc prepared by Horner *et al.*¹⁹⁰ in a five-step synthesis starting from $Bz(CH_2)_nBz$ and appropriate phosphorus compounds. Reaction of cycloocta-2,7-dienone with phenylphosphine, followed by oxidation, leads to the formation of phosphabicyclo [3.3.1] nonan-3-one-9-oxides 148 [(a) syn isomer, X = O, Y = Ph; (b) anti isomer, X = Ph, Y = O].

$$R \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow (CH_{2})_{n} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow R$$

$$| (H_{2}C)_{n} \qquad (CH_{2})_{n}$$

$$| R \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow (CH_{2})_{n} \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow R$$

$$| X \qquad X$$

$$R = Ph, CH_{2}Ph; x = nil, 0; n = 3, 4$$

$$(147)$$

Reaction of alkenes **60** (R = R' = Me) with phosphorus trihalides in the presence of a catalyst results in the formation of a phosphetan ring, which on hydrolysis gives 1-chloro-2,2,3-trimethylphosphetane **62** (R = R' = Me; R^2 = Cl). 1,3-Azaphosphatidine systems **150** were synthesized in 20–85% yield by the reaction of **149** with RNH₂ (R = Ph,PhCH₂, Br/Me-C₆H₄) or in 34% yield by refluxing in 34% bis (anilinomethyl) phenyl-phosphine [PhP(CH₂NHPh)₂] in ethanol for 3 h. Reaction of 1,4-diketones **151** with phenyl-phosphine on cyclization gives the phospholanes 194 **152** in 23–50% yield.

$$R^{1} - CH - CH - R^{2}$$

$$R - C = 0 C - R^{3}$$

$$R^{1} = R^{2}R^{3} = (CH_{2})_{4};$$

$$R = Ph, R^{1} = H, R^{2}R^{3} = (CH_{2})_{4}, (CH_{2})_{3}$$
(151)
(152)

Phosphole complexes 153 (R = Ph) have been directly converted ¹⁹⁵ into phosphirene complexes 154 by reaction with methylacetylene dicarboxylate, followed by decomplexation of 154 with iodine and N-methylimidazole to form 155, which reacted with $Me_3O^+BF_4^-$ sluggishly to yield 156. This was cleaved instantly at room temperature with neutral phosphine to give the corresponding vinyl phosphine oxide 157. Oxaphosphabicyclodecanones (42; X = nil) are prepared ⁸⁰ in 29% yield by cyclizing pyran 158 with phenyl phosphine, which on oxidation gave the oxide (X = 0). Use of cyclohexenyl vinyl

ketone 159 (in place of 158) in ethanol containing NaOEt gave⁸¹ 43 (X = nil) in 49% yield, which when oxidized with $KMnO_4$ in acetone gives the oxide (X = O).

Reaction of but-2-ene and PH₃ in presence of AIBN has been reported⁴⁸ to give secbutylphosphine, which is further alkylated with oct-1-ene at 80 °C in the presence of AIBN to give sec-butyldi-n-octylphosphine, oxidized by $\rm H_2O_2$ to its oxide. Robertson and Gallivan¹⁸ have synthesized 1,4-disubstituted 2,3,5,6-tetrahydroxy-1,4-diphosphorinanes 160 by reaction of propylphosphine in thf with 40% aqueous glyoxal, followed by oxidation with 30% $\rm H_2O_2$. Weichmann et al.¹⁹⁶ have reported the formation of 1-organo-4,4'-dimethyl-1,4-phosphastanninanes 161 (X = O) by the hydrostannylation of the alkyldivinylphosphine RP (CH=CH₂)₂ with Me₂SnH₂, followed by oxidation.

HO P OH Me Sn P R

$$R = C_{1-12} - alkyl, C_{5-7} - cyclaalyl,$$
 $C_{8-12} - aralkyl, C_{6-12} - aryl; X = nil, O \text{ or } S$
(160)

Condensation of glycollic and pyrocatecholic esters of arylphosphonous acids (162) with 1,3-diene hydrocarbons is reported 197 to give the phospholanes 163. Heating 163

 $(Z = o - C_6 H_4)$ with water gave the partial ester 164, which with excess of acetyl chloride gave the phospholane 165.

$$Z = o - C_6H_4, CH_2CH_2;$$

$$R = H, CI, Me$$

$$(162)$$

$$R = H, Me$$

$$(163)$$

$$R = H, Me$$

$$(163)$$

$$R = H, Me$$

$$(164)$$

B. Reactions Involving Conversion of an Already Present P^V Nucleus

1. Through reactions of phosphine oxides.

A variety of 1-(tert-alkynyl)-1-phosphine oxides 5 (R' = alkynyl; X = O) can be reduced 198 to trans- β -substituted vinylphosphine oxides, employing NaBH₄ as a reducing agent (reaction 15). Highly pure phosphine oxides of type 5 were prepared in high yields and short reaction times by the reaction 199a, b of secondary phosphine oxides with α -olefins at 130–200 °C without catalytic action, with UV irradiation or in the presence of catalysts such as tert-butyl peroxide (TBP) or azobis(isobutyl)diacetate (ABD) under an inert atmosphere. Thus octadec-1-ene (326 g) and TBP (0.3 g) were added within 3 h to dimethylphosphine oxide at 145 °C under nitrogen and heated for 5 minutes at 160 °C to give 5 (R' = n-C₈H₁₇) in 94% yield. Phosphine oxides of the type 5 have recently been prepared 200 by the reaction of R₂P(O)H (R = alkyl, aryl) with R'hal (R' = alkyl, alkenyl, PhCH₂; hal = Cl, Br, I) in the presence of alcohols R'OH at 90–210 °C.

Diphenylphosphine oxide is known to react²⁰¹ with tertraphenylcyclopentadienone in the presence of dimethylamine with a 1,6-addition in which phosphorus is attached in the α -position to the carbonyl group, to give 166. Phosphine oxides 7 (See Section III.B.3 for preparation), having an active methylene group, react²⁰² with unsaturated compounds to give new phosphine oxides 167 (R = R' = Ph; X = O) (reaction 16). Similarly 7 (R = R' = Ph; X = O) reacts with ethyl acrylate followed by alkaline hydrolysis to yield 168.

Oxidative coupling with $CuCl-CuCl_2$ of the 1,4-dicarbanions obtained from lithiation of 75 (R = R' = Ph; X = O; n = 4) gives 203 (\pm)-trans-bis(1,2-diphenylphosphinyl)cyclobutane (169). Thus, BuLi (70 mmol) in 15% hexane is added to the phosphine oxide 75 (R = R' = Ph; n = 4) (25 mmol) in thf with cooling, then CuCl (5 mmol) is added, followed by CuCl₂ (55 mmol), and oxygen is passed through the system to give 169 in 37% yield. These compounds are useful as ligands in metal complexes.

Me
$$Ph$$
 Ph $C \equiv CR$ $R = Ph$ (171)

The lithium derivatives of 1-oxo-3-phospholane systems 123 ($R' = R^2 = Me$) are reported to react²⁰⁴ with benzonitrile at $-70\,^{\circ}$ C with the formation of a seven-membered ring, which on hydrolysis yielded azaphosphepine oxide 170 (X = O) in 42% yield. Diacetylenic phosphine oxides 171 (R = Ph; X = O) could be converted into 172 in 82% yield by reaction¹⁰⁵ with isopropylamine followed by acidic hydrolysis. Addition of H_2S , H_2Se , H_2Te , H_2O or H_2NEt to 171 under nucleophilic conditions also gives rise²⁰⁵ to new ring systems 173 ($R = H; R^1 = H, Me, Me_3C; R^2 = Ph$, cyclohexyl; Z = S, Se, Te, O or NEt) by cyclization. Compounds 172 could also be cyclized¹⁰⁵ with sodium methoxide to give oxaphosphorinanes 173 (X = O) in 86% yield. Dibenzooxaphosphorinane derivatives 174 are also known²⁰⁶.

Treatment of tris(chloroethyl)phosphine oxide with tertiary amines gives trivinyl-phosphine oxide 1 ($R = CH = CH_2$) in high yields²⁰⁷, whereas its reaction with 5 (R = Ph, R' = Bu; X = O) gives the tetraoxide 16 (R = Ph; X = O). Likewise, 5 ($R = ClCH_2CH_2$; $R' = ClCH_2$; X = O) on treatment with triethylamine yields²⁰⁸ chloromethyldivinyl-phosphine oxide 5 ($R = CH = CH_2$, $R^1 = ClCH_2$; X = O). Partial anhydrides of alkylidenephosphonylphosphine oxides (176), used as calcium-sequestering agents, were prepared¹⁵ from the complete anhydrides 175 by addition of sodium hydroxide solution (final pH 7.6), yielding 176 as the trisodium salt.

(174)

Dialkylhaloalkylphosphine oxides 177 were prepared²⁰⁹ by reaction of 178 (X = O; Y = OH) with COCl₂ or BrCOCOBr. Thus, 178 (R = Me; Y = OH; n = 1) on treatment with COCl₂ in CH₂Cl₂ at ca 30 °C yielded the oxide (Y = halogen; R = Me; n = 1) in 96% yield. Tris(chloromethyl)phosphine oxide 1 (R = ClCH₂; X = O) was prepared²¹⁰ by hydrolysis of tris(acetoxymethyl)phosphine oxide 1 (R = CH₂OAc).

Asymmetrically substituted ethylenebis(phosphine oxides) 90 (R = Bu) were synthesized in 74% yield by reaction of the halide 178 (R = Ph; n = 2; Y = Cl) with dibutylphosphine oxide in the presence of butyllithium²¹¹. The halide 178 in turn was prepared in 88.5% yield by refluxing the hydroxyethyl compound 178 (R = Ph; n = 2; Y = OH) with PCl₅ for 10 min in benzene; the hydroxyethyl compound was prepared in 59.5% yield by hydrolysing the phosphonium salt 179 with KOH.

Oligomeric phosphine oxide ethers 180 or 181 are reported to be prepared²¹² by polycondensation of equimolecular amounts of methyl- or ethyl-dichloromethylphosphine oxide and disodium bisphenolates in water or xylene. Phosphine oxide ethers with terminal OH groups (182) were obtained by using excess of bisphenolates in the above reaction.

$$A_{r} = \rho - C_{6}H_{4}CMe_{2}C_{6}H_{4} - \rho,$$

$$\rho - C_{6}H_{4}CH_{2}C_{6}H_{4} - \rho,$$

$$(180)$$

$$A_{r} = A_{r} = A_{r} + A_{r} +$$

Vinyl phosphine oxides of the type $5 (R' = CH = CH_2) \operatorname{react}^{213}$ with dithiophosphonic acids on heating at 45-75 °C in an organic solvent to give 183 (R = R' = alkyl, aryl;

X = O) (equation 17). Heterocyclic phosphine oxides, i.e. 1,4-thiaphosphorinanes 185 (Z = S), were formed in 60-63% yields by cyclizing²¹⁴ 184 with P_2S_5 .

$$R = Me_{3}C, Ph$$

$$R = Me_{3}C, Ph$$

$$(183)$$

$$R = Me_{3}C, Ph$$

$$(184)$$

$$R = Me_{3}C, Ph$$

$$(185)$$

3-Phospholenes 123 are reported to react²¹⁵ with RCN to give 1-aza-2-phosphacyclohepta-4,6-dienes 169 (X = O), which undergo ring contraction to 186 (R = Me, R¹ = Ph; R^2 = Ph, $C_6H_4NMe_2$, C_6H_4N , Et_2) on treatment with HSiCl₃. 4-Phenylperhydro-1-4-azaphosphorinane-4-oxides 187 (X = O) are synthesized²¹⁶ in almost quantitative yields by refluxing divinylphosphine oxide with a 20% excess of MeNH₂ or aqueous alkylamine for 6 h. Divinylphenylphosphine oxide in turn was prepared in 72% yield by the reaction of 2 mol of vinylmagnesium bromide with dichlorophenylphosphine in thf at $-70\,^{\circ}$ C. Seagull et al.²¹⁷ have prepared dibenzophosphorins 188 (R = Ph) starting from the phosphine oxide 5 (R = Ph, R' = o-tolyl; X = O) (Scheme 4).

Phosphine oxides 189, containing a dithiophosphoric acid moiety, were prepared ²¹⁸ either by the reaction of alkyldithiophosphoric acid with 5 (R = alkyl; R¹ = vinyl; X = O) or by the reaction of the potassium salt of dialkyldithiophosphoric acid with 178 (R = Et, Ph; n = 2; Y = Cl). Bilithiation of di-3-thienylphosphine oxides 190 gave 2,2-dianions, which on treatment with esters cyclized ²¹⁹ to give 1,4-dithieno-1,4-dihydrophosphorin systems 191. Tris(trifluoroalkyl)phosphine oxides were prepared ²²⁰ by electrochemical fluorination of 1 (R = C₅₋₈-alkyl) in anhydrous hydrofluoric acid. The above phosphine oxides 1 were first brominated in HF and then electrolysed in another procedure. Thus, tri-n-octylphosphine oxide (145 g) in HF (40 g) and bromine (180 g) on electrolysis gave tris(n-perfluorooctyl)phosphine oxide ^{220b}.

SCHEME 4. Synthesis of dibenzophosphorin-10-ones.

Bisphosphine oxides 136 (R = alkyl; R' = ethyl; X = O) were prepared 221 in 43-92% yields by heating the oxide 5 (R = alkyl; R' = vinyl; X = O) with diethylphosphine oxide in absolute xylene for between 1.5 and 5 h at 140 °C. Chloroalkylphosphine oxides 178 (Y = Cl; R and n = Me, 1; Me, 3; Me₂CH, 1) are prepared 222 by chlorination of the hydroxy derivative 178 (Y = OH) with HCl. Bis(chloromethyl)methyl- and trichloromethyl-phosphine oxides and oxide 192 were prepared similarly.

Me
$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ \parallel \\ PCH_2CH \\ CH_2CI \\ \end{array}$$
 $\begin{array}{c} Ph \\ PCHRCH_2R' \\ \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} O \\ PCHRCH_2R' \\ \end{array}$

Davidson and Warren²²³ used the diphenylphosphine oxide Ph₂P(O) group in organic synthesis by activating a series of C—C bond-forming reactions from successive carbon

atoms by migration along a developing carbon framework. Thus, 193 reacted with R^2CHO in the presence of BuLi to give 194, the tosylate of which solvolyses in carboxylic acids, with migration of the $Ph_2P(O)$ group to give 195, which, in turn, further increases the carbon chain by reaction with BuLi and R^3CHO to give 196.

Benzylbis(α -hydroxybenzyl)phosphine oxide 197 is known to react²²⁴ with benzal-dehyde to give 5-benzyl-2,4,6-triphenyl-1,3,5-dioxophosphorinane-5-oxide (198) (both dl-and meso-epimers). The lithio derivative of phospholene oxides 199 (R = Li) are reported²²⁵ to be readily carbonated to the corresponding carboxylic acid 199 (R = COOH). Dialkylphosphine oxides react with oxazolidine derivatives 200 to give²²⁶ the tertiary phosphine oxides 201. Thus, 200 (30 g) was added dropwise to diethylphosphine oxide (28 g) and the mixture was heated for 1 h at 50–60 °C to give 201 (R = Et) in 98% yield. Bodalski et al.²²⁷ have synthesized 2-phospholene-1-oxide (199) derivatives by heating equimolar amounts of secondary benzylphosphine oxides with α,β -unsaturated compounds in thf. The reaction occurs via a 1,4-adduct, which rearranges to a carbonium ion, followed by cyclization to give the product.

Cyclohexyldiphenylphosphine oxide is reported to react²²⁸ with acetaldehyde to give **202** in which the cyclohexyl group has migrated to the carbonyl carbon, followed by elimination of water. The same product was also obtained by the reaction of 5 (R = Ph; R' = Et; X = O) with cyclohexanone (reaction 20).

Tris(β -cyanoethyl)phosphine oxide 203 (Y = CN) is reported²²⁹ to be hydrolysed by heating in water at 90–95 °C in the presence of strongly acidic cation exchangers, e.g. KU-1 or KU-2, giving 203 (Y = COOH). However, hydrolysis at 60–65 °C in the presence of strongly basic anion exchangers, e.g. AB-17, gave 60-80% 203 (Y = CONH₂) (reaction 21).

$$O = P[(CH_2)_2Y]_3 \stackrel{AB-17}{\longleftarrow} O = P[(CH_2)_2Y]_3 \xrightarrow{KU-1 \text{ or} \atop KU-2} O = P[(CH_2)_2Y]_3 \qquad (21)$$

$$Y = CONH_2 \qquad Y = COOH \qquad (203)$$

Dehydrohalogenation of **204** with KOH in hexametapol or dmf is reported ²³⁰ to give oxirenes **205** in 65–70% yields, which rearrange to **206** in presence of F_3CCOOH . Reaction of phosphine oxide **207** with RCHO is known²³¹ to give 12-50% α -phosphinyl-substituted stilbenes **208** (R = Ph, 2,4-pyridyl,1,2,4-quinolyl) and diphenylphosphoric acid, the size of R determining whether the product is the *cis* or the *trans* isomer. Thus, with R = Ph or pyridyl the *trans* product predominates, whereas with quinolyl the *cis* isomer is the major product.

Transition metal-catalysed cyclization of 209 with tolane resulted in the formation²³² of conformationally isomeric tribenzo[b, d, f] phosphine oxides 210 and 211.

Dibenzylphosphine oxide is reported²³³ to react with formaldehyde and aniline to give 212 by heating at 60-70 or 100-110 °C, the yield depending on the ratio of the reactants and the temperature. On raising the temperature to 160-170 °C, 213 was formed, which was also obtained by the reaction of aniline with 212 at 160-170 °C. Conversion of (2-hydroxyalkyl)diphenylphosphine oxides into allyl phosphine oxides by acid-catalysed migration is also known²³⁴. Thus, 214 on refluxing in benzene for 6 h with *p*-tolylsulphonic acid gives 215 in 90% yield.

O O
$$\parallel$$
 $(PhCH_2)_2PCH_2OH$ $(PhCH_2)_2PCH_2NHPh$
(212) (213)

Ph O Me P C CHOH
Ph C C CHOH
Et Me Ph (215)

Siele²³⁵ prepared the derivative of 1,3,5,7-triazaphosphocine (217) by nitration, nitrosation and acetylation of 1,3,5-triaza-7-phosphaadamantane-7-oxide (216). Oxidation of 3-phospholines with H_2O_2 in the presence of potassium osmate is known²³⁶ to give the 3,4-dihydroxy derivative 218 (R = Me). The cycloaddition of 5 (R = Ph, R' = propynyl; X = O) with diazoalkanes is known²³⁷ to give diphenylphosphoryl-3*H*-

pyrazole 219 (X = O), which on heating in toluene or treating with chloroform at room temperature, rearranges to give 220 ($R^1 = Me$, $R^2 = Ph$; $R^1 = R^2 = Ph$). Cycloaddition of phenyl azide with diphenylpropenylphosphine oxide leads to the formation²³⁸ of triazoles 221.

Quin and Middlemas²³⁹ prepared large-ring compounds by ozonolysis of 3-phospholene derivatives **222**, bearing a cyclohexane ring fused at the double bond, when 7-9-membered heterocyclic P-rings **223** (R = Me, Ph; n = 0-2) were obtained.

$$(CH_2)_n$$
 P O $(CH_2)_n$ P R $(CH_2)_n$ P R (222)

The 5,6-double bond of phenanthrene fused to a 3-phospholene oxide ring was likewise cleaved by ozone to yield a dibenzo derivative 224 of 223 (R = Ph; n = 2). This ring is non-planer and rigid. Reduction of 224, followed by dehydration, yielded the first reported example of a phosphonin oxide, 225.

The α -hydroxy group of a phosphine oxide can be deoxygenated²⁴⁰ by reaction with diphosphorus tetraiodide, giving 226 [R = H, Me; R' = Me, Et; RR' = (CH₂)₅] in

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
Ph & O & R & & Ph & O \\
Ph & COH & P2I_4 & PCHR' & PCHR' \\
R' & R & R
\end{array}$$
(22)

73–100% yield. The annelation reaction between 1,2,3,6-tetrahydro-1-phenyl-4-(1-pyrrolidinyl)phosphorin-1-oxide (227) and (BrCH₂) CHCOOEt resulted²⁴¹ in a mixture of two stereoisomers of the 3-phosphabicyclo[3.3.1]nonane derivative 228. The keto function in 228 was reductively removed to give the —CH₂OH group, which on cyclization followed by hydrolysis gave 230 (Scheme 5).

SCHEME 5. Synthesis of 1-phosphaadamantane.

Cycloaddition of diphenylnitrilimine to phosphindole oxide 231 (R = Me, Ph) proceeds regio- and stereo-specifically to give²⁴² pyrazolophosphindoles 232 in 90–95% yield. Further oxidation with CuCl₂–LiCl gives the oxidation product 233 quantitatively. The fulvalene ylide 234 is known to undergo²⁴³ a Stevens rearrangement on refluxing in toluene to give the spirophosphine 235 (X = nil) in almost quantitative yield. On oxidation this gave the oxide 236 (X = O). Long-chain phosphine oxides of the type 237 were prepared²⁴⁴ in 80% yields by treating chloromethyldimethylphosphine oxide with the sodium salt of 70 (R = R' = Me; X = O, n = 0–2).

 Δ^3 -Phospholenes 123 (R' = H) are known²⁴⁵ to be isomerized to Δ^2 -phospholenes by heating at 160–200 °C in the presence of catalytic amounts of base such as alkali or alkaline earth metal oxides, hydroxides or carbonates. Thus, 123 (R' = Me, R² = H) (300 g) was heated for 4 h at 180 °C in the presence of 1.0 wt% CaO to give 54% 199 (R = COOH). Secondary phosphine oxides react with triazolyl and imidazolyl ketones 238 to give phosphorylated alcohols 239 (R² = Me, CH₂Ph, Ph; X = O) having fungicidal activity¹³. Reaction of dialkyl(4-methylaryl)phosphine oxide with paraformaldehyde or CH₂(OMe)₂ in concentrated HCl at 70–90 °C leads to the formation²⁴⁶ of 5 [R = alkyl, R' = 3-(chloromethyl)-4-methoxyaryl; X = O]. It has been shown²⁴⁷ that chloromethylation is dependent on the substitutents present in the phenyl ring. β -Carboxyethylphosphine oxides are prepared by hydrolysis²⁴⁸ of β -carbalkoxyethylphosphine oxides at 90–95 °C in the presence of a strongly acidic ion-exchange resin.

$$Z \longrightarrow N \longrightarrow CH \longrightarrow CH \longrightarrow CH \longrightarrow CH \longrightarrow CH \longrightarrow CH \longrightarrow R^{2}$$

$$R = H, F, CI; R' = H, Ph, 1, 2, 4 - triazolyI;$$

$$Z = N, CH \longrightarrow R^{2}$$

$$(238)$$

$$(239)$$

m-(Nitroaryl)dialkylphosphine oxides on reduction with PhNHNH₂ at 115–160 °C produce²⁴⁹ 5 [R = alkyl; R' = m-(aminoaryl); X = O]. Reaction of 5 (R = Ph; R' = OMe; X = O) with acetyl chloride under a nitrogen atmosphere gives²⁵⁰ the oxide 5 (R = Ph, R' = Acetyl; X = O). Reaction of 177 (R = Bu, octyl; n = 1; Y = Br) with aldehydes produces²⁵¹ the α -hydroxy-substituted phosphine oxides 5 [R' = CH(OH)Z, where Z = H, Ph or substituted phenyl]. Reaction of phosphine oxides 5 (R' = CHBr-CR¹R²OAc) with an alkali metal alcoholate in an aliphatic alcohol leads to the formation²⁵² of epoxyalkylphosphine oxides 240.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^1 & 0 & 0 \\
R^2 & P & R
\end{array}$$
(240)

Tertiary phosphine oxides of the type 12 [R and R¹ = linear or branched C_{1-18} -alkyl, Ph; $R^2 = CH(R^3)OCH_2R^5$, where $R^3 = H$ or CH_2R^4 ($R^4 = H, C_{1-11}$ -alkyl, Ph) and $R^5 =$ alkyl] are obtained by reaction 253 of the phosphine oxide 12 [$R^2 = CH(R^3)OH; R, R^1$ and R^3 as above] with halomethyl derivatives in the presence of phase-transfer catalysts. Thus, reaction of dioctylphosphine oxide with HCHO in the presence of a base gives hydroxymethyldioctylphosphine oxide. Likewise, treatment with BuBr in presence of tetrabutylammonium sulphate gives dioctyl(butoxymethyl)phosphine oxide. Diarylvinylphosphine oxides 12 ($R, R^1 = Ph$, tolyl) are formed by dehydrochlorination 254 of 12 [R and R^1 as above; $R^2 = CH(Cl)Me$; X = O] with alkali at $20-100\,^{\circ}C$, in a two-phase system containing 5-40% aqueous alkali in $CHCl_3$ or CCl_4 . Similarly, oxide 5 ($R = Ph, R' = CH = CR^2R^3; X = O$) can be prepared 255 by condensing 178 (R = Ph; n = l; Y = Li) with $R^1R^2CO(R^1 = R^2 = Me, p-anisyl; R^1 = Ph, R^2 = H, Me, Ph)$ followed by treatment with $SOCl_2$ -pyridine.

The cyclopropane ring in the dichlorocarbene adducts of alkylmethylphospholene oxides 241 (R = Me, Bu) can be opened up with mercury acetate—acetic acid²⁵⁶ to form the tetrahydrophosphorin oxide diastereoisomers 242 and 243. Dibenzophosphole-5-

oxides containing an α -carbonyl group (244) [R¹ = Me, Et, (CH₂)₂OH; R¹ = Me, Ph, (CH₂)_nOH with n = 2, 3, 5 and R² = (CH₂)₃OSiPh₂CMe₃,2-furyl,2-pyridyl,cyclohexyl,3,4-methylene, dioxyphenyl], on reduction²⁵⁷ with NaBH₄, give *threo*-alcohols 245, whereas reduction with NaBH₄, CeCl₃ or Zn(BH₄)₂ gives the *erythro* form of 245.

Boratadioxaphorinanes 246 (R = H; X = O) are prepared²⁵⁸ by the reaction of $Ph_2BOCH_2CHMe_2$ with 5 (R = $CH_2OH,R'=Ph; X=O$) in the presence of amines A (A = Pr_2NH , p-Me C_6H_4,NH_2). Methylphospholene-l-oxide 123 (R = Ph, R'=Me) reacts²⁵⁹ with dichlorocarbene in the presence of triethylbenzylammonium chloride and NaOH to give dichloromethylphosphabicyclo[3.1.0]hexane-1-oxides (247), which react under the same conditions to give the dihydrophosphorins 248 and phosphacycloheptatrienes 249.

β-Hydroxyalkylphosphine oxides on acid-catalysed dehydration initially give allyl- or vinyl-phosphine oxide, which cyclise to give five- or six-membered rings. Thus, dehydration of $5 [R = Ph; R' = CH_2C(Me)_2OH; X = O]$ with H_3PO_4 (98%) initially gives the oxide $5 [R = Ph; R' = CH_2C(Me) = CH_2; X = O]$, which cyclizes to give 250. Chloromethyldimethylphosphine oxide (200 g) reacts slowly 261 at 140 °C with MeP(OEt)₂ (215 g) to give the dioxide 251. Reaction of the former with the amine 252 (R = H) on heating at 100 °C for 20 h in dmf containing K_2CO_3 gives 262 the oxide 252 [R = $CH_2P(O)Me_2$].

β-Nitrostyrenes react with diphenylphosphinite esters **68** (R = R' = Ph; R³ = Me, Et, CHMe₂) in MeCN below 0 °C to form 1,2-bis(phenylphosphinyl)arylethanes usually as the major product²⁶³ together with trans-β-styryldiphenylphosphine oxide. Thus, p-Me₂NC₆H₄CH=CHNO₂ produces 0.3% trans-253 and 66–85% 254. The phosphine oxide 255, prepared by treating chloromethyldimethylphosphine oxide with the corresponding sodium carboxylate in dmf at 150 °C, has anti-inflammatory properties²⁶⁴.

Me N CHCH₂P Ph
$$CF_3$$
 COOCH₂P Me (254) (255)

The photochemical ring opening of **219** (X = O) gives diphenylphosphorylvinyl-carbenes via diazomethane intermediates²⁶⁵. These carbenes cyclize to give good yields of phosphorylated cyclopropenes **256**. Thus, **219** $(R^1 = H; R^2 = R^3 = Me; X = O)$ produces **256** in 97% yield. Photolysis of **219** $[R^1 = P(O)Ph_2; R^2 = Me, Ph; R^3 = Me; R^2 = R^3 = Ph)$ gives **257** in addition to cyclopropenes **256**, whereas when $R^2 = Me$ and $R^3 = Ph$ it rearranges to **258**.

Diazomethylphosphoryl compounds 259 (R = OEt, Y = H) on lithiation give the lithiated product (Y = Li), which after acylation and silylation was transformed ²⁶⁶ with PhCHO and chloral into an aldol-like product 260. Bromination or iodination of 259

(R = alkyl, aryl; Y = Ag) with BrCN or iodine gives the halo derivative (Y = Br, Cl), which on acylation with R'COCl (R' = Me, CMe₃, Ph, β -anisyl, P-BrC₆H₄) gives the acyl derivative of 259 [Y = C(O)R']. Cyclopropenylphosphine oxides 261 [R = H, Me, Ph, P(O)Ph₂] undergo regiospecific reaction²⁶⁷ with diazoalkanes R'₂CN₂(R' = Me, Ph; R'₂ = 9-fluorenylidene) to give 262. Treatment of the cycloadduct 262 with ethanolic KOH resulted in isomerization to give 1,4-dihydropyridazines 263 and 264.

Intramolecular cycloaddition of 5-(diazomethyl)-5H-benzocycloheptenes 266 leads to their isomerization²⁶⁸ to 267, which by thermal elimination of nitrogen are converted into the tetracycles 268. Compounds 266 are prepared by electrophilic substitution by diazoalkane of 7-alkoxybenzocycloheptenylium perchlorate 265 (R' = Me, CHMe₂, CH₂Ph) (Scheme 6).

$$(265)$$

$$R_{2}PCHN_{2}$$

$$(266)$$

$$N_{2}CP$$

$$R$$

$$(266)$$

$$V_{2}CP$$

$$R$$

$$OR'$$

$$V_{2}$$

$$elimination$$

$$R$$

$$R$$

$$(267)$$

SCHEME 6. Intramolecular cycloaddition of 5-(diazomethyl)-5H-benzocycloheptenes.

Phosphine oxides $5 [R = Ph, R' = CH(R^2)OMe$, where $R^2 = H, Me]$, on reaction with LiN(CHMe)₂, give the lithium derivative $[R' = C(Li)(R^2)OMe]$, which reacts with aldehydes and ketones to give separable diastereoisomeric adducts. Treatment of these diastereoisomers with base gives the vinyl ether geometrical isomers, e.g. reaction of $5(R = Ph, R' = CH_2OMe, X = O)$ with LiN(CHMe)₂ followed by reaction with aldehydes gives²⁶⁹ the adducts **269**. Phosphine oxide **270** $(R = H, Me; R^1 = H, Ph; R^2 = Me, Et, Ph, hexyl, cyclopropyl) undergoes acyl transfer²⁷⁰ when treated with <math>(Me_2CH)_2NLi$ to give 73-96% **271** $[Y = C(O)R^2]$, which on reduction with NaBH₄ gives *threo*-alcohol **271** $[Y = CH(OH)R^2]$. Horner's reaction of the dioxide **272** with $RC_6H_4CHO(R = H, m-, p-NMe_2, o-, m-, p-OMe)$ produces²⁷¹ 24–93% *trans*-oxide **273**.

Carbonyl alkenylation of 5 [R = Ph, R' = CH(Li)R², where R² = SnPh₃, PbPh₃, SbPh₂, TePh; X = O] by reaction²⁷² with aldehydes proceeds readily to give diphenylphosphoryl-substituted alkenes in high yields. Thus, benzaldehyde on reaction with 5 [R = Ph, R' = CH(Li)SnPh₃; X = O] at -70 °C in thf gives 274 in 92% yield. Reaction of oxide 5 (R = Ph, R' = CH=CHCOMe; X = O) with isoprene and acetic acid gives²⁷³ adducts 275 and 276.

Phosphine oxides of the type 12 (R, R^1 and R^2 = hydrocarbyl; X = O, S) are prepared²⁷⁴ in two steps by the reaction of dihydrocarbylphosphine oxides (or sulphides) with alkali metal (M) amides to give $R(R^1)PXM$, followed by treatment of the latter with organic halides R^2Y . Thus, reaction of dioctylphosphine oxide with $NaNH_2$ - $NaOCMe_3$

followed by treatment with PhBr gives 5 (R = octyl, R' = Ph; X = O). Triphenyl- and tribenzyl-phosphine oxides have been reported recently to react²⁷⁵ with alkali metals in liquid ammonia to give diphenyl- and dibenzyl-phosphinite ions, respectively, in high yields. These react under photostimulation with aryl halides by the $S_{RN}1$ mechanism to produce aryldiphenyl- and aryldibenzyl-phosphine oxides of the type 5. Tribenzyl-phosphine oxide, on consecutive debenzylation with alkali metals followed by photostimulated reaction with aryl halides, could part with all the aromatic moieties and produce unsymmetrical triarylphosphine oxides of the type 12. 1,4-Azaphosphorin oxides 278 (R = Ph, -C = CPh) are prepared²⁷⁶ by cyclizing the halovinyl phosphine oxide 277 [R = Ph(Cl)C = CH, Ph] with ammonia in dmf.

Reaction of 5 (R = Ph, R' = Et; X = O) with BuLi and PhCHO in thf-hexane at between -78 °C and room temperature over 24 h forms (1RS, 2SR)- and (1RS, 2RS)-oxide 5 [R = Ph; R' = CH(Me)CH(Ph)OH], respectively²⁷⁷. Stereoselective peracid epoxidation of allylic and 6-hydroxyallylic diphenylphosphine oxides has been studied by McElroy and Warren²⁷⁸. Thus (E)-5-oxide [R = Ph; R' = CH(R²)C(R³)=CHR⁴, where R² = pentyl, Me, Pr; R³ = Me, Et, H and R⁴ = Me, Me₂CH] on epoxidation with m-chloroperbenzoic acid gives 279. Similarly, the hydroxyallyl compound produces 280.

Friedrichsen and Whitlock²⁷⁹ have prepared some macrocyclic phosphine oxides (281 and 282) starting from the reaction of tris(4-hydroxyphenyl)phosphine oxide with propargyl bromide in acetone in the presence of K_2CO_3 . The tris(4-propargyloxyphenyl)phosphine oxide thus obtained cyclizes in the presence of $Cu(OAc)_2 \cdot H_2O$ in pyridine to give the macrocycle 281 together with its exo-endo isomer. On hydrogenation, 281 gives the macrocycle 282 in 47% yield whereas the exo-endo isomer of 281 gives the exo-endo isomer of 282 on hydrogenation in 53% yield.

2. Through decomposition/hydrolysis of phosphonium salts

Hexaalkyliodobis(phosphonium)pentaiodide 283a on hydrolysis at room temperature in benzene for 1 h yields a 1:1 complex of the resultant phosphine oxide. Hydrolysis²⁸⁰ for 10 h gives 283b in 80% yield. Oxidative degradation of the phosphonium chloride 284a with chlorine at pH 5-7 is reported²⁸¹ to give tris(hydroxyethyl)phosphine oxide,

whereas at pH 1-3 284b is obtained.

$$[R_{3}P - PR_{3}]I_{5}^{-} [R_{3}P = O]_{2} \cdot HI_{3}$$

$$R = octyl, cyclohexyl$$

$$(283a) (283b)$$

$$[HOCH_{2}CH_{2})_{3}PCH_{2}OH] HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

$$HOCH_{2}CH_{2}$$

POCl₃ reacted with triethylphosphine to give the dichlorophosphoryl phosphonium ²⁸² salt **285** in 80–90% yield, which on alkaline or aqueous hydrolysis was converted into the triethylphosphine oxide. Compounds **75** (R' = Ph; X = S) and **286** were similarly prepared. However, this procedure could not be applied to Ph₂PPPh₂ because of steric hindrance. The phosphonium bromide obtained by heating ²⁸³ the phosphine **123** (R = Ph, R¹ = H, R² = Me; X = nil) with alkyl bromide (R = octadecyl) at 105–115 °C for 2 h under nitrogen, on treatment with aqueous Na₂CO₃ for 5 min, yielded the oxide **12** (R = methylbutenyl, R¹ = Ph, R² = octadecyl) by cleavage of a P—C bond.

$$[Et_{3}\overset{+}{P}PCl_{2}]Cl^{-}$$

$$O$$

$$MeC(CH_{2}PPh_{2})_{3}$$

$$O$$
(286)

The steric course of the alkaline cleavage of phosphonium salts has been described by Luckenbach²⁸⁴. The cleavage results in more or less complete inversion of configuration at the phosphorus atom depending on the nature of the R group.

4-Phosphoniapyran salts 287 (Y = Br, ClO₄) on basic hydrolysis 285 with NaOH, Ag₂O or KOH yielded 4-oxo-4-phenyloxaphosphorin systems 173 (R = Ph, p-NO₂C₆H₄; R' = PhC=C, MeC=C, Ph; R² = H, Me, Ph; Z = O). Compound 287, in turn, was prepared in 55% yield by the cycloaddition 286 of diacetylenic phosphines with α-halo ketones by stirring them together for 96 h at room temperature in the presence of Et₃N (reaction 23).

$$R^{1} - C$$

$$R - CHBr$$

$$R^{3} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{1} - C$$

$$R^{1} - C$$

$$R^{2} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{1} - C$$

$$R^{1} - C$$

$$R^{2} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{3} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{2} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{3} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{3} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{3} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{4} - C = CPh$$

$$R^{5} - C = CPh$$

Decomposition of the phosphonium salt 288 containing a γ -methylallyl or γ,γ -dimethylallyl group results in anomalous cleavage²⁸⁷ yielding the phosphine oxide and isomeric alkenes, e.g. decomposition of 288 by aqueous KOH gave 65% of a mixture of alkenes and 70% of Ph₃PO. Analogous decomposition of 288 (R = Bu) gave 60%

$$[R_{3}\overset{+}{\mathsf{PCH}_{2}\mathsf{CH}} = \mathsf{CMe}_{2}] \mathsf{CI}^{-} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{KOH}} \mathsf{Ph}_{3}\mathsf{P} = \mathsf{O} + \begin{cases} \mathsf{Me} \\ \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{C} = \mathsf{C} \\ \mathsf{Me} \\ \mathsf{H} & \mathsf{C} = \mathsf{CH} \\ \mathsf{H}_{2}\mathsf{C} = \mathsf{CH} \\ \mathsf{CHMe}_{2} \end{cases}$$

$$[R_{3}\overset{+}{\mathsf{PR}'}]\mathsf{X}^{-} \qquad \qquad R_{4}\overset{+}{\mathsf{PCI}^{-}}$$

$$R = \mathsf{Ph}, \mathsf{X} = \mathsf{OH}, \mathsf{Br};$$

$$R = \mathsf{Bu}, \mathsf{X} = \mathsf{OH};$$

$$R = \mathsf{Bu}, \mathsf{X} = \mathsf{OH};$$

$$R' = \mathsf{CH}_{2}\mathsf{CH} = \mathsf{CH}_{2}$$

$$(289)$$

Bu₃PO and 61% of a mixture of alkenes. Similar alkaline cleavage²⁸⁸ of **289** yielded trialkylphosphine oxide and propene. Hydroxymethylphosphonium chloride **290** (R = CH₂OH) on reaction with aniline gave²⁸⁹ **290** (R = CH₂NHPh), which on treatment with Et₃N, followed by oxidation, yielded diazaphosphorinane oxide **22** (R = H, R'CH₂-NHPh; X = O). 1,3-Oxaphospholene oxide **294** was prepared²⁹⁰ in 61–96% yield from the oxaphospholene salt **293** by dehydrochlorination (Scheme 7); **293** in turn was prepared by treating aryl dioxaphosphabicycloheptenes **291** with chloramine-T for 2 h at 20 °C, followed by treatment of the resultant **292** with 1% HCl in benzene for 24 h.

SCHEME 7. Synthesis of 1,3-oxaphospholene oxide.

The stereochemistry of the cleavage of phosphocane derivatives 295 by alkaline hydrolysis has been shown by Marsi and Burns²⁹¹ to proceed predominantly with inversion of configuration at phosphorus to give 296.

Thermal decomposition of $\{R_2P(CH_2OH)_2\}C1^-$ is known²⁹² to give phosphine oxide, e.g. dimethylbis(hydroxymethyl)phosphonium chloride gave 74.3% Me₃PO. Similarly, **290** (R = Me) on heating in a stream of air^{293a} at 80 °C gave 1 (R = Me; X = O) in 83% yield. Compound 1 (R = Me; X = O) can also be obtained^{293b} by the alkaline hydrolysis of **290** (R = Me) with two mol equiv. of 50% aqueous NaOH. Likewise, the salts **289**

(R = Ph, Bu; $R' = OCH_2CH_2Br$) on hydrolysis with water or alcohol give the corresponding²⁹⁴ oxides. The phosphonium salts **289** (R = Ph; R' = 2-pyridyl, 2-quinolyl, 2-benzothiazolyl) on hydrolysis²⁹⁵ give 1(R = Ph; X = O). Compound **289** in turn is prepared by heating Ph_3P with R'X (R' = 2-pyridyl, 2-quinolyl, 2-benzothiazolyl, 2-benzoxazolyl; X = Br, Cl, I). Compound **289** [R = Ph; $R' = -C(R^2) = CHR^3$, where R^2 , $R^3 = (CH_2)_n$; $X = ClO_4$] on hydrolysis gives²⁹⁶ I0 (I1) with I2 (I3) with I3 (I4) with I5 (I4) with I5 (I4) with I5 (I5) with I6 (I6) with I7 (I8) with I8 (I8) with I9 (I9) with I9 (I9

Alkylation of the phosphine 75 (R = R' = Ph; X = nil; n = 1) with $PhCH_2Br$ in toluene at 80 °C gives the phosphonium salt, which on hydrolysis with aqueous alkali produces²⁹⁷ the phosphine oxide 75 (X = O). Hydrolysis of a solution of the phosphonium salt 297 (4 mmol) with NaOH (4 mmol) in MeOH-H₂O (2:3) for 5 h gave 1-cyclobutylphosphine oxide 298 in 80% yield²⁹⁸.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \downarrow \\ \uparrow \\ PPh_3 \end{bmatrix} CIO_4^- \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ Ph \\ Ph \end{bmatrix}$$
(298)

1-Phosphabicyclooctane phosphine oxides 300 are formed²⁹⁹ by treatment of the methiodide of the phosphonium salt 299 with KOH. Methane is eliminated from the molecule. Owing to the constraint of the bridgehead structure, nucleophiles attack the methiodide of 3,4-benzo derivative 299 to displace the p-methyl group in preference to the benzylic moiety. Such displacement of a methyl group in preference to a benzylic group is very unusual and is due to the influence of the cage structure on the reactivity at phosphorus.

Diphenylbis(β -hydroxyethyl)phosphonium chloride (301) cyclizes during alkaline cleavage³⁰⁰ with NaOH to give oxaphosphorinane 302 in 75% yeild. The hydroxyphosphonium salt 304, obtained by the reaction of acids with tris(2,6-dimethoxyphenyl)phosphine oxide 303, is fairly stable and forms (with ClO_4^- salts) stable 1:1 adducts with various amines. An unexpected property of 303 is that it is highly soluble in water and reacts³⁰¹ with acids to give 304. The phosphine oxide 303 is prepared by the oxidation³⁰² of the corresponding phosphine with H_2O_2 ; on treatment with $HClO_4$, 303 gives 304 (Y = ClO_4).

OMe
$$P=0$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
OMe \\
OMe
\end{array}$$

$$Y = CIO_4, BF_3$$

$$(304)$$

3. Through hydrolysis of dihalophosphoranes/imines/P=N bonds

Tetraphenylmethylenediphosphine bis(N-phenylimine) 7 (R = R' = Ph; X^1 , X^2 = NPh) on reaction³⁰³ with p-nitrobenzaldehyde in refluxing xylene for 11 h gave the corresponding phosphine oxide 7 (X = O) in 81% yield. Thermolysis of o-nitroaryliminophosphole 305 at 150 °C was reported³⁰⁴ to give 1,2,5-triphenylphosphole oxide 306 and the benzofuran. The N-phenyl derivatives 305 in turn were prepared from the corresponding phospholes.

$$\begin{array}{c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & &$$

4. Through oxidation of phosphine sulphides/selenides

Phosphine sulphides are known⁷⁶ to be oxidized to oxides through the photochemical transfer of oxygen from heterocyclic *N*-oxides. Thus, triaryl sulphides 1 ($R = p-R'C_6H_4$, where R' = H, Me, Cl, MeO, MeOOC; X = S) were converted into the corresponding oxides (X = O) in 29–38% yields on irradiation with 3-methylpyridazine-2-oxide in dichloromethane.

A general method for conversion of thiophosphoryl and selenophosphoryl groups into phosphoryl groups is available³⁰⁵ through ozone oxidation. For example, 12 $(R = R^1 = R^2 = Et, Ph; X = S, Se)$ is quantitatively oxidized to the oxide by ozone at -75 °C. The reaction is stereoselective and proceeds with retention of configuration at the phosphorus atom.

Phosphine oxides are prepared by the reaction of dimethyl sulphoxide with phosphine sulphides in acidic solution 306,307 . These conversions proceed with complete inversion of configuration at the central phosphorus atom. Thus, (R)-(+)-methylphenylpropylphosphine sulfide gives the (S)-(-)-oxide. Similarly, (S)-(-)-benzylmethylphenyl and (S)-(-)-methylphenyl-t-butyl phosphine sulphides yield the corresponding (R)-(+)-oxides. The dmso oxidation is catalysed by iodine 308 . Dimethyl selenoxide is also known 309 to oxidize the thio- and seleno-phosphoryl compounds to the phosphoryl analogues. Phosphine oxides have also been prepared by the oxidation of phosphine

sulphides with $\rm H_2O_2$. The oxidation is carried out³¹⁰ at 40–80 °C in at least 20–50 wt% of a $\rm C_{1-6}$ -carboxylic acid or anhydride. Thus, bis(p-(chlorophenyl)phenylphosphine sulphide (18.16 g) in acetic acid (50 ml) was treated with 35% $\rm H_2O_2$ (4.51 ml) at 70 °C for 30 min to give the corresponding oxide in 97% yield. The same reaction takes 12 h in methanol. $\rm H_2O_2$ oxidation of sulphides can also be carried out³¹¹ in a solution containing 2–20 wt% of an optionally halogenated aliphatic carboxylic acid, e.g. when 12 (R = Me, $\rm R^1$ = Et, $\rm R^2$ = Ph; X = S) (25 g) is dissolved in methanol (50 g) and acetic acid (6.3 g) is added to the solution at 45–50 °C, subsequent treatment with 35% $\rm H_2O_2$ (11.7 ml) gives the oxide 12 (X = O) in 90% yield.

Tertiary aryl phosphine oxides 5 (R = p-FC₆H₄, R' = Ph; X = O) are also prepared by the H₂O₂ oxidation³¹² of the corresponding sulphides (X = S); see Section IV.B.2 for the preparation of 5 (X = S). The oxidative desulphurization by H₂O₂ is also aided by the presence of inorganic acid catalysts³¹³. Thus, a refluxing mixture of phenylbis(p-chlorophenyl)phosphine sulphide (0.01 mol) and 32% HCl (25 ml) on treatment with 30% H₂O₂ (3.4 ml) followed by refluxing for 5 h gives the corresponding oxide in 81% yield. The stereochemistry of the oxidation of thiono- and seleno-phosphoryl compounds with H₂O₂ has been described by Stec *et al.*³¹⁴ They proceed with net retention of configuration at the phosphorus atom.

Phosphine sulphide to phosphine oxide exchange reactions are also known³¹⁵. Thus, treatment of the sulphide 307 (X = S, Z = O) with polyphosphoric acid at 140–150 °C for 4 h gives the oxide 308 (X = O) on cyclization, in 47% yield. Under milder conditions, i.e. on reaction with MeSO₃H-P₂O₅ at room temperature, the sulphide alcohol 307 (X = S; Z = O) gives the oxide thiol 307 (X = O; Z = S), which cyclizes to 308 (X = O) on heating with polyphosphoric acid at 145 °C.

Oxidation of phosphine sulphide is also carried out using sulphuric acid or sulphonic acid at 70–200 °C in an inert aprotic solvent³¹⁶, e.g. Ph₃PS (5 g) on heating with 96% H₂SO₄ (15 ml) for 9 h at 140–150 °C and cooling, followed by extraction, gave Ph₃PO (3.8 g). Metalloporphyrins are known to catalyse³¹⁷ oxidative desulphurization/deselenation at pentavalent phosphorus. Manganese(III) mesotetraphenylporphyrin chloride in the presence of Bu₄N⁺ 10₄⁻ helps in the oxidative desulphurization, which is further aided by the presence of imidazole. Thus, Ph₃PS reacts with periodate to give the corresponding oxide in 33% yield. Addition of the manganese(III) complex increases the yield to 59% and addition of imidazole gives Ph₃PO in 81% yield. Cumyl hydroperoxide in the presence of magnesium and iron mesotetraphenylporphyrins also have been reported³¹⁸ to catalyse the oxidative desulphurization of the phosphine sulphides.

Oxidative desulphurization/deselenation at P^V is also known to be carried out with photogenerated peroxide species³¹⁹ such as those obtained from the photooxidation of dihexyl sulphide and diphenyldiazomethane. Thus, Rose Bengal-photosensitized oxidation of dihexyl sulphide in methanol-chloroform in the presence of Ph₃PSe or Ph₃PS gave

Ph₃PO in 100% and 37% yield, respectively. Baxter *et al.*³²⁰ have reported the oxidative desulphurization of Ph₃PS to Ph₃PO by irradiation in the presence of the photoinitiator $RC(O)P(O)R'_2$ in acetonitrile and oxygen for 10 h. Oxidative desulphurization of 1 (R = Ph, Bu; X = S) has also been carried out by reaction³²¹ with COCl₂ in MeCN for 24 h, to obtain the corresponding oxides (R = Ph, Bu) in yields of 95 and 99%, respectively. Use of $CSCl_2$ in the above reaction reduced the yields to 74 and 95%, respectively.

5. Through reduction of phosphonates and phosphinates

Phosphine oxides are reported³²² to be formed by the reduction of phosphonates, phosphinates and phosphate esters, with sodium bis(2-methoxy ethoxy)aluminium hydride, followed by the addition of either primary or secondary alkyl halides (reaction 26). Sodium aluminiumdiethyldihydride has also been used for the reduction of phosphorus esters³²³, followed by reaction with alkyl halides. The yields are generally comparable to those obtained by using a Grignard reaction, but the procedures involved in reaction 26 are much simpler.

$$R^{1} = 0 \qquad \frac{\text{NaAIH}_{2}(\text{OCH}_{2}\text{CH}_{2}\text{OMe})_{2}}{\text{R halides}} \qquad R_{3}P = 0 \qquad (26)$$

$$R^{1}, R^{2} = \text{alkyl}, \text{alkoxy}$$

Reduction of phosphonates with LiAlH₄ is known³²⁴ to give phosphines, which could be oxidized to the oxides (reaction 27).

6. Through reaction of organometallics/reactive species with P^{V} halides/oxyhalides

The reaction of Grignard reagents containing tertiary aliphatic radicals with phosphonic dichlorides yields phosphine oxides 5, 67 or 309 (X = O), depending on the nature of the reactants³²⁵. Tertiary phosphine oxides based on organomagnesium compounds can be prepared³²⁶ by the reaction of organomagnesium compounds with PCl_5 or its organic derivatives at 20-80 °C in an inert solvent such as benzene, followed by treatment with aqueous NH_4Cl .

Kormachev et al.³²⁷ converted dialkylaryl-, arylalkyl- and arylalkynyl-phosphine oxides 5 (X = O) into quinolinylphosphine oxide derivatives 311 (X = O) by a series of

reactions involving nitration with a 26.3:71.7:2. HNO₃-H₂SO₄-H₂O mixture at 60-90 °C, followed by reduction of the nitro group to an amino group and Skraup's synthesis (Scheme 8). The starting oxide 5 in turn is prepared by the reaction of alkylmagnesium bromide with 310 (X = O), in 74.1% yield.

SCHEME 8. Preparation of phosphine oxides involving Skraup's synthesis.

A Grignard reaction of 312 ($R^1 = Ph; X = O$) with o-bromotoluene yields³²⁸ the starting phosphine oxide (see Scheme 4: synthesis of dibenzophosphorins), which on oxidation followed by cyclization with polyphosphoric acid gives 188. Phosphine oxides of the type 5 are prepared¹¹⁷ by treating 312 ($R^1 = R^2 = C_{1-12}$ -alkyl or aryl; X = O) with alkyl halides and metals, preferably magnesium, in a refluxing organic solvent, 80-90% (by volume) of hydrocarbon with b.p. > 110 °C and 10-20% (by volume) of ether with b.p. > 64 °C as a mixed organic solvent (reaction 28). The addition of alkyl halides and phosphorus(V) chlorides to magnesium in the organic solvent gave improved yields.

Reaction of $(BrCH_2CH_2)_2POCl$ in benzene with R'MgBr (1 mol) in diethyl ether at 0–5 °C (for R' = Et) or 30 °C (for R' = Ph) gave the oxide 5 (R = CH_2CH_2Br; X = O), which on heating in presence of Et₃N gave the vinyl derivative (R = CH=CH₂) by elimination of HBr from 5, with 50–98% yield³²⁹. Phosphine oxides of the type 1 were prepared^{19a} by Grignard reaction of POCl₃ with RCl or RBr [R = C₅₋₁₂-alkyl, PhCH₂CH₂, Ph(CH₂)₃, cyclohexyl]. Thus, magnesium in diethyl ether was treated with octyl chloride in xylene for more than 1 h, followed by refluxing the product with POCl₃ for 2.5 h and hydrolysis with water, to give trioctylphosphine oxide in 80% yield.

Reaction of alkylmagnesium and lithium derivatives with PCl_5 in the ratio of 3:1 has been reported to give $R_3PO(R=Bu,Ph)$, whereas when they are in the ratio 1:4 the product is R_3P . Treatment of Ph_2PCl_3 with R'Li is known to give $Ph_2PR'Cl_2(R'=Et,Pr,CHMe_2,Bu,CMe_3Ph,p-tolyl)$, which on hydrolysis yields the oxide 5. Tertiary phosphine oxides 315 of acetylenic and diacetylenic series containing an α -epoxy ring are prepared by epoxidation of 314, which in turn is prepared by the reaction of sodium acetylide with the vinylphosphine oxide dichloride 313.

RO C = CHP CI RO C = CR'
$$C = CR'$$
 $C = CR'$ $C = CR'$

Reaction of divinyl sulphide with PCl₅ at 0-5 °C in dry benzene yielded³³³ 173 (R = R' = H; R² = Cl; Z = S) in 33.6% yield as a crystalline product, together with 10.2% of 316 and 27.8% of 317. The reaction of 2-furyllithium 318 (R = H, Me, NO₂; R' = Li) with dialkyl chlorophosphates (RO)₂P(O)Cl is known to give tris(2-furyl)phosphine oxide³³⁴ 319 (X = O).

H₂C=CHSCH=CHP
$$\stackrel{O}{\subset}$$
 $\stackrel{Me}{\subset}$ CHSCH=CHP $\stackrel{Cl}{\subset}$ Cl (316) (317)

C. Miscellaneous Reactions

1. Reaction of elemental phosphorus with alkyl halides

Electrochemical reduction of yellow phosphorus in the presence of alkyl halides is reported³³⁵ to give phosphine oxides, usually mixed with other products. Thus, electrolysis of a mixture of ethyl iodide (250 g) and white phosphorus (in 150 ml of methanol) in the presence of KOH in methanol (at 60 g l⁻¹ concentration) as anolyte gave 44% Et₃PO together with ethane and hydrogen. The use of sodium methoxide in place of KOH improved the yield of the oxide to 46.2%. Electrochemical reduction of phosphorus evidently occurred first, followed by reaction of the product with alkyl halide and proton.

Octyl iodide and red phosphorus is known to give³³⁶ trioctylphosphine oxide in 89% yield in trituration with iodine followed by heating for 1.5 h at 210–215 °C, cooling and

treatment with aqueous Na₂SO₃. Tris-cyclohexyl-, -hexyl-, -heptyl- and -nonyl-phosphine oxides were similarly prepared in 72, 81, 96 and 95% yields, respectively. Kirsanov *et al.*³³⁷ prepared the oxides by alkylation of red phosphorus with alkyl iodides in presence of catalytic amounts of iodine, resulting in the formation of a complex R₃P.I₃, which was oxidized on decomposition with alcohol to give the R₃PO.I₂ complex. This was then decomplexed by treatment with aqueous Na₂SO₃ (see also Section III.A.1.c).

Tertiary phosphine oxides with dissimilar alkyl groups have been prepared³³⁸ by treating white phosphorus with a mixture of metallic magnesium and alkyl iodides and (or) chlorides at 130–170 °C. When alkyl chlorides were used solutions of white phosphorus in these halides were added to a mixture of magnesium and alkyl halides. When alkyl chlorides with up to five carbon atoms were used, the reactions were carried out in the presence of 5 mol% of the corresponding alkyl iodides. Polyphosphine oxides have been prepared³³⁹ by treating white phosphorus at 170–200 °C with a mixture of alkyl halides or alkylene dihalides and magnesium, followed by treatment of the reaction mixture with alkali at 300 °C. In another variation of the above procedure, secondary alkylphosphine oxides were prepared by treating³⁴⁰ white phosphorus with the respective alkyl halides and magnesium or zinc at 120–210 °C, followed by alkaline hydrolysis at 270 °C.

Malovik et al. 70a have reported details of the commercial production of the oxides 1 (R = isopentyl, $C_7H_{15}-C_9H_{19}$, sec-octyl; X = O) by treatment of PI₃ with ROH. Treatment of alkyl iodides with phosphorus, catalysed by iodine, gave the intermediate R₃P.I₂, which yielded 1 (X = O) on treatment with Na₂CO₃. The iodine was regenerated from the aqueous solution of sodium iodide obtained from the decomposition of R₃P.I₃ with Na₂SO₃ in the final step of the production. This regeneration 70b was achieved by either oxidation with NaNO₂ or reduction with sulphonates or methyl sulphate.

One-pot synthesis of phosphine oxides has also been carried out by Bornancini et al.³⁴¹ by reaction of elemental phosphorus with sodium in liquid ammonia when ionic species were formed, which reacted with alkyl halides (hal = Cl, Br,I) under irradiation to form

1 (X = O) by an S_{RN} 1 mechanism, in 40-75% yield.

Trialkylphosphine oxides R_3PO ($R=C_{1-6}$ -alkyl) have also been prepared³⁴² by the reaction of red phosphorus with alkyl iodide in presence of $[IR_3PEt_3]^+I_5^-$ or I_2 as catalyst. Thus, Et_3PO is formed³⁴³ by heating a mixture of red phosphorus, EtI and $[IEt_3PPEt_3]^+I_5^-$ at 200°C for 8 h. This process can be further simplified³⁴⁴ by decomposing hexaalkylphosphoranephosphonium pentaiodide, with alcohol, followed by treatment with 40–50% alkali in the presence of 0.2–0.4 wt% of an inorganic oxidizing agent. Phosphorus and dimethyl ether, on reaction at 200–400°C, are reported to produce³⁴⁵ Me₃PO.

2. Photophosphorylation reactions

Irradiation of hydroxymethylphosphines 70 (R' = CH_2OH ; X = nil) under an inert gas is reported¹²⁵ to give phosphine oxides of the type 5 or 1 (see section III.3 for details).

Trapping reactions³⁴⁶ of α -benzoylbenzylidenephenylphosphine 321, generated photochemically from the diazophosphine oxide 320, with aldehydes and ketones, e.g. with benzophenones, are known to give cyclic phosphine oxide 322 formed by [4+2] cycloaddition, together with 323 and 324.

1,3,4-Triphenyl-3-phospholene oxide 123 ($R = R^1 = R^2 = Ph; X = O$) on photocyclization³⁴⁷ formed the phenanthrophospholene derivative 325, which on ozonolysis²³⁹ yielded the nine-membered ring diketone 224. This was reduced by NaBH₄ to the diol and then dehydrated with $POCl_3$ -pyridine to give *cis-trans*-dibenzophosphonin oxide 326, the first known example of a phosphonin oxide.

Photochemical transfer of oxygen from heterocyclic N-oxides to phosphine sulphides

Ph PC
$$= N_2$$
 $= N_2$ $= N_2$

have been reported 76 , e.g. the sulphides 1 (R = p-R'C₆H₄, where R' = H, Me, Cl, MeO, MeOOC; X = S) were converted to the corresponding oxides in 29–38% yields on irradiation with 3-methylpyridazine-2-oxide in CH₂Cl₂. Diphenylphosphide ions react 348 photochemically with *gem*-dibromocyclopropanes 327 in liquid ammonia or dmso to give the phosphine oxide 328 in 38–49% yield.

$$R^{2}$$
 R^{2}
 R^{2

3. Polymerization of unsaturated phosphine oxides

Vinylphosphine oxides 5 (R' = CH=CH₂, R = H, Me; X = O) are polymerized³²⁹ in the presence of an organomagnesium catalyst to give mouldable polymers¹⁰ with high stability. Thus, 5 (R = OCH₂CH₂Cl; R' = CH=CH₂; X = O) was polymerized under

nitrogen in toluene at O°C in the presence of BuMgCl to yield a film which strongly adhered to glass. In a similar manner, $\mathbf{5}$ (R = Bu, R = CH=CH₂; X = O) was polymerized in the presence of EtMgCl, Bu₂Mg or CH₂CHMgCl. Similarly, $\mathbf{5}$ (R = Ph; R' = CH=CH₂; X = O) and styrene react together on heating in benzene^{11a} for 6 days at 60°C in a 1:1 ratio in the presence of catalytic amounts of Me₂C(CN)N=N(CN)CMe₂ in an evacuated tube. After filteration and treatment with MeOH, a polymer was precipitated which did not burn in the open. A dark-coloured solid polymeric product with unit formula (329) was prepared⁹ by treating 5,5'-bisbenzimidazole with diimidazole-1-ylphenylphosphine oxide or dipyrrol-1-ylphenylphosphine oxide. These polymers are good adhesives, giving tough surface coatings. The synthesis of oligomers and polymers from phosphine oxides has been reviewed by Borisov *et al.*³⁴⁹.

Some heterocyclic phosphines are mentioned in the literature for which the corresponding phosphine oxides have not been reported. These phosphines are listed in Table 1. They should give the oxides on oxidation.

TABLE 1. Some phosphines, the oxides of which have not been reported

Name	Structure	Reference
Bieyelie phosphine	0 0 Me	350
Phosphor-III adamantane	$(CH_2)_n$ $(CH_2)_n$ $(n = 0, 1, 2, 6)$	351
Tetraphenyleyclotetraphosphine	Ph — P — P — Ph	165
	R = (a)Ph; (b)Bu'	
1.2-Diphosphacyclobut-3-enc	Me ₃ SiO	352
6-Phenyl-5-phosphaphenanthrene	Ph	164

(continued)

TABLE 1. (continued)

Name	Structure	Reference
	R 	
1,5-Diaza-3,7-diphosphacyclooctane	R'—— N—— R'	353
	R R Me Me	
1,5-Diaza-3-phosphacycloheptane	PhHC — N — CHPh	354
	 R	
Azaphosphetane	Ph—P N—R	193
Bicyclic C-P heterocycles	Me Me Me	355
	R	
	Ř [']	
3-Keto-5-phenylphosphabenzenes		356
	CMe ₃	
Phospha-heterocycle	Ph—P—Ph	357
	[Ph]	
1,2-Bis(di- <i>tert</i> -butylcyclotriphos-	CMe ₃	
phinyl)-3,4-di- <i>tert</i> -butylcyclotetra- phosphine-P ₁₀ R ₆ type	Me ₃ C—PPPPCMe ₃	358
	Me ₃ C—P—P—CMe ₃	
Polyphosphine-P ₁₂ R ₄ and-P ₁₃ R ₅	Me ₂ HC P P CHMe ₂	2.50
structure type	Me ₂ HC P P CHMe ₂	359
	R P P	
Octa-tert-butyldodecaphosphine(8)P ₁₂ R ₈ structure type	R P P P R	360
	R= <i>tert</i> -butyl	

IV. METHODS OF PREPARATION OF PHOSPHINE SULPHIDES

This subject has been reviewed previously²¹⁻²⁴. Many of the general methods of preparation are common with those used to prepare the oxides. Usually the sulphides are produced more easily.

A. Reactions Involving the Conversion of P^{III} to P^{V}

1. Through sulphurization of phosphines

a. Through addition of sulphur. Poly(tertiary phosphine) sulphide 16 and 17 (X = S; see Section III.A.1.b) are prepared ⁵¹ by reacting the phosphines 16 and 17 (X = nil) with sulphur in boiling benzene. Mathey and Lampin ¹⁰⁸ prepared the diarylcyclopenta-dienylphosphine sulphide 57 (X = S; R = Ph) by boiling the corresponding phosphine 57 (X = nil; see Section III.A.2.c) with sulphur in a suitable solvent. The sulphide, on treatment with BuLi followed by treatment with ethyl methyl ketone, yielded the corresponding fulvene 330 in 20-70% yield (reaction 28a).

57
$$\frac{\text{(i) BuLi}}{\text{(ii) ethyl methyl ketone}}$$
 $S = P R$ (28a)

Some phosphines react with sulphur to produce the sulphide, as shown in Table 2. Incidentally, these phosphines, on oxidation, give phosphine oxides also. Reaction of alkylidenetriphenylphosphoranes 331 with sulphur is known³⁶⁴ to give the phosphine sulphides. When R = H and R' = Ph in 331, reaction with sulphur gave the triphosphine sulphide and 1,2,3,4,6-pentathiepane (332).

$$Ph_{3}P = C R Ph S Ph$$

$$S S S$$

$$S S$$

Reaction of silylated iminodiphosphanes 333 (X = nil) with sulphur³⁶⁵ yielded the sulphide 333 (X = S), which, on hydrolysis gave the secondary phosphine sulphide 309 (X = S; $R^1 = R^2$) and R_2POONH_4 . Compounds 333 (X = nil) were prepared by the reaction of 67 (R = R'; $X^1 = X^2 = nil$) with Me₃SiN₃ together with 334.

TABLE 2. List of phosphines sulphurated by reaction with sulphur

				1	
Name	Structure of the phosphine $(X = nil)$, sulphide $(X = S)$	Formula No. in text	Section in text	References	Remarks
2-Bis(diphenylphosphino)methylpyridine	Me N CH PPh2	6	III.A.1.a	35	
N,N-Disubstituted-5-phenyldiazaphosphorinane	× , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	22	III.A.1.b	28	
Cyclopropylidenebis(diphenyl-phosphine)	X PPh ₂	23	III.A.1.b	59	Sulphide obtained in 88% yield
Tetrakis(diphenylphosphino)allene	Ph2Ph2 Ph2PX X PPh2	49	III.A.1.f	91,92	
2-Phenyl-2-phosphabicyclo[4.3.0]- nonan-5-one	o ×	=	III.A.1.a	37,36	Reaction at 40–60 °C with sulphur
Tricyclic phosphine	Me NR2	20	III.A.1.f	95	

Oxaphosphabicyclodecanone 1,4-Diphosphorinane	New Me	42,43	III.A.6 III.A.6	18,08	
1,4-Phosphastanninane 3,4-Dialkylphospholc	M S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S	161 116	III.A.6	196	
Tris(trichloromethyl)phosphine	$(ClCH_2)_3P = X$		III.A.3	362	Heating with S at 60–80 °C in the presence of 0.2–0.6% of active carbon
Pentaethylcyclopentaphosphine	F E T	∞	III.A.1.a	363	
1,1-Bis(diphenylphosphino)- bicyclopropyl	×=dd dd x=dd x=dd x=x	33	III.A.1.c	72	The oxide $(X = 0)$ on reduction with HSiCl ₃ -NEt ₃ gives the phosphine $(X = nil)$ which on treatment with sulphur gives the sulphide $(X = S)$

Reaction of acetylcnic phosphines 336 (X = nil) with sulphur leads to the formation 366 of the sulphides 366 (X = S); 336 (X = nil) in turn were prepared in 33-57% yield by the reaction of chlorodiphenyl phosphines 312 (R' = R² = Ph; X = nil) with the lithium derivative 335 at $-10\,^{\circ}$ C in diethyl ether under nitrogen. Reaction of 336 with R²SOON₃ in chloroform led to the formation of a crystalline equilibrium mixture of 337 and 338 (X = S) by diazo group transfer.

R
$$R = Et$$
, Me, CH₂Ph, Ph;
 $R' = Et$, Ph
 $R' = Et$, Ph

(Phosphinomethyl)phosphine sulphides 339 ($X^1 = S$; $X^2 = nil$) on reaction 367 with sulphur give the disulphide 339 ($X^1 = X^2 = S$; R^1 , $R^2 = Me$, Et, Ph, PhCH₂). The sulphide 339 ($X^1 = S$, $X^2 = nil$), on reaction with Group VI metal carbonyls, gives a complex 340 (M = Mo, Cr, W), with phosphorus and sulphur bonded to the metal in a six-membered chelate ring. On heating, the sulphur transfers to the more basic phosphorus atom, forming 339 ($X^1 = nil$, $X^2 = S$). Disecondary phosphine sulphides 75 (R = Ph; R' = H; R = 2, 4 and 6; R = N were prepared R = N by treating the corresponding bisphosphine 75 (R = N) with sulphur. The disulphide 75 (R = N) on treatment with lithium gave the lithium derivative, which on reaction with dimethylthiophosphoryl chloride 19 (R = N) gave a novel mesomeric stabilized carbanion R = N0 the tris(dimethyl thiophosphinyl)methanide 341. Diastereoisomerically pure (-)-(R = N0-menthyl methyl phenylphosphinite and R = N1 to give chiral tertiary phosphines with very high optical purity. These phosphines on sulphuration R = N2 with R = N3 gave(-)-S-methyl propyl phenylphosphine sulphides. Similar sulphuration was obtained with other chiral phosphines. Reaction of adamantylphosphine 342 (R = N1) with sulphur

at 85-90 °C gives the corresponding sulphide³⁷¹ 342 (X = S). Acylphosphine sulphides 343 (X = S), used as photoinitiators, are formed by the reaction³⁷² of sulphur with the phosphine 343 (X = nil; R = MeO; R' = H).

75
$$\frac{\text{(i) Li}}{\text{(ii) Me}_2 PSCI}$$
 Me P CH (29)

1-tert-Butylphosphinoethanc derivative 345 (R, R'=Ph; X=nil) and bis-tert-butylphosphinoethane 345 (R = Bu'; R'=H; X=nil) on reaction 373 with sulphur give the corresponding sulphides 345 (X = S). The bisphosphine 345 (R = Bu'; R'=H; X=nil) is prepared by the reaction of tert-butylmagnesium chloride with halophosphine 344 (R'=Cl; n=2; X=nil), when one chlorine on each phosphorus is replaced by a CMe₃ group. This on reduction gives 345 (X=nil; R=CMe₃; R'=H). The diphenylphosphinoethane derivative 345 (R=R'=Ph; X=nil) is prepared by treatment of the lithium derivative of the tert-butylphosphine LiP(H)CMe₃ with 178 (x=nil; R=Ph; n=2; Y=Cl).

The sulphides 346 (X = S), produced in 53-59% yield by reaction of sulphur on the phosphine 346 (X = nil), showed triad thiophosphorylmercapto ylide tautomerism (S=P-CH \rightleftharpoons HS-P=C) on reaction³⁷⁴ with halogen acids HY (Y = Cl, Br), yielding the corresponding phosphonium salt. The above tautomerism is dependent on the nature of the substituents on the central carbon atom.

The methylene phosphine 348 (X = nil) is smoothly oxidized 375 by elemental sulphur to the three-membered ring sulphide 349 (X = S). The phosphine 348 (X = nil) is prepared 376 by dehydrohalogenation of 347 (R = mesityl) with 1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]-undec-7-ene. Alcaraj and Mathey 377 prepared a bicyclic C-P heterocyclic phosphine sulphide (351) by the reaction of 2-phenyl-4,5-dimethylphosphorin (350) with S₈, followed by cycloaddition with 2,3-dimethylbutadiene.

5-Phenyl-1,3-dioxaphosphorinane systems 352 (X = nil), on reaction with sulphur³⁷⁸, gave the 5-thio derivatives 352 (X = S). The phosphines 352 (X = nil; R = furyl, Me, Ph) were prepared in 7.3–41% yield³⁷⁹ according to equation 30. Alkyl bis(trifluoromethyl)-phosphine sulphides of the type 5 (R = CF₃; X = S), used as reference standards in gas chromatography, are prepared by sulphuration³⁸⁰ of the corresponding phosphines (R = CF₃; R' = C₁₋₃₀-alkyl; X = nil). These in turn may be prepared by the reaction of halobis(trifluoromethyl)phosphine with RMgBr.

$$PhP \xrightarrow{CH_2OH} + EtO \xrightarrow{R} CH_2OH \qquad EtO \xrightarrow{R} CH_2OH \qquad (30)$$

$$(R'=H) \qquad (352)$$

2-Thio-2-phosphabicyclo[4.4.0]decanone sulphide 354 (X = S) is formcd³⁸¹ by reaction of the phosphine 354 (X = S) with sulphur. The phosphine in turn is prepared by cycloaddition of phenylphosphine with furan derivative 353. Progressive reaction of bis2,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethylphenylphosphine 356 (X = S) with sulphur gives³⁸² the corresponding sulphide 356 (X = S). The phosphine, in turn, is prepared in 85% yield, through the potassium *tert*-butoxide-catalysed reaction of the phosphine 355 with phenylphosphine. 1,4-Dihydroazaphosphinine sulphides 358 (X = S) are formed on reaction of S_8 with the phosphinincs 358 (X = S). These in turn are synthesized³⁸³ in

75–85% yield by the cyclocondensation of dichlorophenylphosphines with 2-aza-1,3-dienes 357 (R' = Ph; $R^2 = Me$, Et, Pr) in hexane followed by hydrolysis. Thus, reaction of 357 (R' = Ph; R = Me) with PhPCl₂ in the presence of Et₃N gave 1,4-dihydro-³-azaphosphinines 358 (X = nil).

(353) (354)

$$Ph_{2}P$$
 $Ph_{2}P$
 $Ph_{2}P$

b. Through addition of sulphides/ SO_2 . Chan and Goldwhite³⁸⁴ reported the formation of trimethyl sulphide from the corresponding phosphine by reaction with SO_2 . However, some phosphine oxide is also produced in the reaction. Generally, fully oxidized acid is formed when the primary and secondary phosphines react with SO_2 . Thus, phenyl- and diphenyl-phosphines give $PhP(O)(OH)_2$ and $Ph_2P(O)OH$, respectively.

POCl₃ adducts of R_3 PO (R = alkyl, aryl), on reaction with Ag_2S at 120–150 °C, give the corresponding tertiary phosphine sulphides³⁸⁵. The adducts are formed by reaction

of POCl₃ with R₃PO in the molar ratio 1:2-3.

c. Through sulphur transfer agants. Trialkyl- and triaryl-phosphines 1 (R = Et, Ph; X = nil) and bisphosphines 75 (n = 0, 1, 2; R' = Ph; X = nil) are known to be converted into the corresponding sulphides (X = S) in yields of 70–90%, through direct sulphur transfer by reaction with PSCl₃. The 1:1 adducts with thiourea diethylazodicarboxylate are also known to convert Ph₃P to its sulphide (in the process being itself converted to carbodiimides).

 ω -Mercaptoalkylphenylphosphines, e.g. 359 and 360, on reaction with oxygen gave ³⁸⁷ alkylphenylphosphine sulphides 361. Compounds 359 and 360 were prepared by the reaction of Ph(H)PNa with Cl(CH₂)_nSH (n=2,3) and cyclohexene sulphide. In the sulphides 359, 360 and 361, the hydrogen bound to sulphur is more acidic than that bound to phosphorus, as is evident by its preferential reaction with BuLi and Na and

its reaction with ethylene and propylene oxide.

Phosphine sulphides are also obtained by reaction 388 of tertiary phosphine dihalides with $(Me_3Si)_2S$ (reaction 31). $Me_2P(S)Cl$ is also known to act as a sulphur transfer agent 389 in converting tributylphosphine to its sulphide. $(Bu_3Sn)_2S$ is known to be unreactive to Ph_3P in thf, MeCN or hydrocarbon solvents. However, it reacts at room temperature with CCl_4 to give the intermediate adduct 362, which then reacts with $(Bu_3Sn)_2S$ to give Ph_3PS together with Bu_3SnCl and a phosphorus-containing resinous product derived from 363. Sulphonium dicyanomethylides 364 (where R = R' = benzyl or alkyl) react with Ph_3P to give the corresponding sulphides 389 . However, when R = R' = aryl the transylidation reaction yields 365 according to equation 32.

$$\begin{array}{c}
R \\
R
\end{array}
PCI_{2} \xrightarrow{\text{(Me}_{3} \text{Si})_{2} \text{S}} R_{3}P = S$$
(31)

$$Ph_{3}^{\dagger}PCCl_{3}Cl^{-}$$
 $Ph_{3}P=CCl_{2}$ (362) (363)

$$R = C + Ph_3P \rightarrow Ph_3P = C + R$$

$$CN + Ph_3P \rightarrow Ph_3P = C + R$$

$$CN + R'$$

$$(364)$$

$$(365)$$

1 +
$$\frac{\Delta,100^{\circ}C}{N_2}$$
 1 + (X=S)

$$Ph_{3}P + Ph \longrightarrow Ph_{3}P = S + Ph_{3}P = S$$

2-Oxo-1, 3-dithio-1,3-diphenylpropane (369) is also known to convert Ph_3P into Ph_3PS . However, some Ph_3PO is also formed in the reaction³⁹³. Diethyl dithiophosphorochloridite converts³⁹⁴ Ph_3P into Ph_3PS in 61% yield. Lowesson's reagent (370) has also been used³⁹⁵ for sulphurization of R_3P (R=P, Ph, Me_2OH), by refluxing them together in benzene. Phosphorus-containing polysulphides are also reported to convert³⁹⁶ phosphines into phosphine sulphides as in equation 35.

$$Ph_{3}P + (RO)_{2}P S_{(n)} \longrightarrow Ph_{3}P = S + (RO)_{2}P S_{(n-1)}$$

$$(RO)_{2}P S_{(n-1)} (RO)_{2}P S_{(n-1$$

2. Through reactions of P^{III} compounds

Phosphine sulphide 371 has been prepared by the reaction³⁹⁷ of an alkylthiophosphonous acid with acrylic acid derivatives in the presence of sodium ethoxide in alcohol as a catalyst (equation 36). Dimethylphosphine halides, on reaction with methanethiols (and thier sodium salts), give Me_2PSMe . The latter, on reaction¹⁷⁷ with MeI, gives the phosphonium salt $Me_3P^+SMeI^-$, which on melting at 170 °C gives the sulphide 1 (R = Me; X = S).

The Friedel–Craft's reaction of benzene, sulphur and PCl₃ is reported to give 398 Ph₃PS in good yields. The thiovinyl esters of P^{III} are known to give phosphine sulphides on rearrangement 399 . Thus, thermal rearrangement of 372 gives the phosphine sulphide 373 in 26–43% yields. Compounds 374 (R = Et; R' = Me, Et) are prepared in $^{42-87}$ % yields by the reaction of dialkyl chlorophosphines with Me₂CHC(S)SR' in the presence of Et₃N in diethyl ether.

$$R_2PS$$
 $C \longrightarrow CMe_2$
 $R'S$
 R_2P
 $C \longrightarrow CMe_2$
 $R'S$
 $R'S$

S-Acetyl thiophosphinites 374 are known⁴⁰⁰ to rearrange to phosphine sulphides 12 (R' = Et, Ph; $R^2 = Ac$; X = S). Compounds 374 were prepared by the reaction of phenylalkylchlorophosphines 312 (X = nil; R' = Et, Ph) with AcSH in the presence of Et₃N. The reaction of bis(α -hydroxyalkyl)phenylphosphines 375 (X = nil) and isobutyl-diphenyl borate 376 in the presence of a tertiary amine A, such as pyridine, and sulphur, is reported⁴⁰¹ to give dioxaboratophosphorinanes 246 (R = H, Me₂CH; X = S) in 25–45% yield. Thus, 246 exists in equilibrium with its open-chain form 377 (R = H, X = S; Y = NEt₃; R = Et, Me₂CH, X = S, Y = NEt₃) which is formed in 66% yield, by the treatment of phenylphosphine with CH₂O followed by reaction with 376 and pyridine, and then with sulphur (R = H, X = S, A = pyridine).

X CHOH Ph BOCH₂CHMe₂ pyridine sulphur 246 (37)

R

(375) (376)

Ph BOCH₂CHMe₂ OBPh₂
R

$$X$$
 Ph R

 X Ph Ph R

 X P

Sequential arylation of PCl₃ in the presence of AlCl₃ is also known⁴⁰². Thus, PCl₃, AlCl₃ and benzene were heated at 80 °C for 6 h, followed by reaction with fluorobenzene and sulphur for 20 h to give 5 (R' = Ph; R = o-, m-, p-FC₆H₄; X = S), para isomer 70%, ortho isomer 4.0% and also 5 (R = Ph, R' = p-FC₆H₄) 2.2% together with 1 (R = p-FC₆H₄; X = S) in 5.4% yield. A similar reaction of P(S)Cl₃ with PhF and AlCl₃, followed by reaction with benzene, gave 5 (R' = Ph; R = p-FC₆H₄; X = S) in 80% yield together with its ortho-isomer in 0.7% yield, and 1 (R = p-FC₆H₄; X = S) in 2.3% yield. MeP(S)Cl₂ likewise, when treated with AlCl₃ and PhF followed by treatment with benzene, gave sulphide 12 (R = Ph, R¹ = Me, R² = o-, m, p-C₆H₄), para isomer in 94.3% together with the ortho isomer in 3.8% yield.

1,4-Cycloaddition⁴⁰³ of alkylthiophosphines 378 (R = Me, Ph; X = nil), by heating them with 1,3-dienes at $70-100\,^{\circ}$ C gave 3-phospholene sulphides 25 (R = Me, $R^1 = R^2 = Me$; $R^1 = Me$, $R^2 = H$; R = Ph, $R^1 = R^2 = Me$). The reaction proceeds via [1+4]cycloadducts, which in some cases were isolated. Compounds 378 (R = Me, Et,

Ph) were prepared in 65-78% yield by methylthiolation of RPCl₂ with MeSH in the presence of trimethylamine.

B. Reactions Involving the Conversion of an Already Present PV Nucleus

1. Through reactions of phosphine sulphides

Reduction of a variety of diaryl- and dialkyl-alk-1-ynylphosphine sulphides $\mathbf{5}$ (R = aryl, alkyl; R' = alkynyl; X = S) by LiAlH₄ leads to the formation of *trans-\beta*-substituted vinyl sulphides ¹⁹⁸ (see equation 15). The phosphol-3-enes **123** (R = Me; R¹ = R² = Ph; X = S) react²¹⁵ with R³CN (R³ = Ph, substituted Ph, 2-furyl,2-thienyl,4-pyridyl) to give 29-62% **170** (X = S), which on reaction with HSiCl₃ underwent ring contraction to **186** (X = S) (see also Section III.B.1). Diphenylphosphine sulphide on reaction ⁴⁰⁴ with BuLi gives the lithium derivative, which on reaction with MeI gives $\mathbf{5}$ (R' = Me; X = S). Reaction of **19** (X = S; R = Ph) with magnesium yielded Ph₂P(S)MgCl, which on further reaction with **19** (R = Ph; X = S) yielded **67** (X = S) through the formation of a P-P bond.

Reaction of $Ph_2P(S)M$ (M = Li, MgCl, Al) with p-benzoquinone¹⁸⁶ yielded 144 together with 145 (X = S). However, with M = FeCl in $Ph_2P(S)M$, the products were phosphinothioate 145 (X = S) (see also Section III.A.6). Quinolyl derivatives of phosphine sulphides 311 (X = S) can be prepared by a series of reactions³²⁷, as detailed in Scheme 8, starting from dichlorophenylphosphine sulphide 310 (X = S) (see Section III.B.6).

The [3+2]cycloaddition of alkynyldiphenylphosphine sulphides with substituted diazoalkanes yield²³⁷ thiophosphorylpyrazoles **219** (X = S) (see also Section II.B.1). Secondary phosphine sulphides **309** (R' = R²; X = S) are known to react with triazolyl and imidazolyl ketones **238** to give thiophosphorylated alcohols **239** (X = S), having fungicidal activity¹³ (see also Section III.B.1).

The addition of dialkylamines to vinylphosphine sulphides 5 (R = Ph; R' = CH=CHR²; X = S) leads⁴⁰⁵ to the formation of 379 (R² = H, Me; NR₂ = Et₂N,1-pyrrolidinyl, piperidino; X = S). Compound 379 (X = S; R² = Me) was also prepared by reduction of the oxide 379 (X = O) with Cl₃SiH to phosphine 379 (X = nil), followed by its reaction with sulphur. Base-catalysed 1:1 addition of dimethylvinylphosphine sulphide 5 (R = Me) to phenylphosphine and to alkyl- and dialkyl-phosphines^{406,407} gives crystalline sulphides 380 (X = S), which undergo desulphurization with LiAlH₄ in boiling dioxane to give the phosphines 380 (X = nil). Similar base-catalysed 1:1 addition of PhPH₂ to 5 (X = S; R = R' = Ph) gives 380 (R = Ph). Sulphurization of phosphines has been used as a means of protecting the trivalent phosphorus in the synthesis of methylated poly(tertiary phosphines)^{182,183,324}. 1-Phenyl-3,4-dimethylphosphole sulphide 25 (X = 5) reacted with *tert*-butyllithium at $-170\,^{\circ}$ C under argon, to give an anion which reacted⁴⁰⁸

with aldehydes and ketones to give the corresponding derivatives, e.g. reaction with acetophenone gave 381 in 10% yield. Reaction of 25 (X = S) with excess of Me₃CLi gave a 3-tert-butylated derivative 382 [R = CMe(Ph)OH].

Tetraalkyldiphosphine disulphides 67 (R = R' = Me, Et, Bu; X = S), on reaction with alkyl halides R^2Y give phosphine sulphides 5 (X = S; R = Me, Et, PhCH₂; Bu) in 73–90% yield, by cleavage⁴⁰⁹ of the P—P bond. (Diphenylphosphinothioyl)phenyl diazomethane (383) on thermolysis in refluxing xylene gave the phosphine sulphide (carbene dimer) 384 in 88% yield⁴¹⁰, whereas refluxing in aqueous dioxane produced 384 together with 385 in 8% and 72% yield, respectively. Compound 384 was prepared in 37% yield by treating⁴¹¹ benzyldiphenylphosphine sulphide 5 (R = Ph; $R' = CH_2Ph$; X = S) with PhLi followed by its reaction with p-MeC₆H₄SO₂N₃.

The facile transformation, via a pinacol rearrangement, of butadienylphosphine sulphide 387 into β -ketophosphine sulphide 388 (Scheme 9), has been reported⁴¹². Compound 387 is produced in 70% yield by the reaction of 312 (R = Ph, R' = PhCH₂; X = S) with the lithium derivative 386. Phosphine sulphides of the type 389 (n = 3,4), on reaction with Me₂NSiMe₃, are known to cyclize⁴¹³ to form the monosulphides 390 (n = 1,2) of 1,2-diphospholenes or 1,2-diphosphinanes. Akhmetova *et al.* reported⁴¹⁴ the synthesis of 7-(methoxycarbonyl)-3-phenyl-3-phosphabicyclo[3.3.1]nonan-9-one-3-

312 +
$$H_2C$$
 CH_2 C

SCHEME 9. Conversion of butadienylphosphine sulphide.

sulphide (392) in 30% yield by treating phosphorinane sulphide (391) with pyridine, followed by cyclization of the enamine with $(BrCH_2)_2CHCOOMe$. 1,3-Diborane-1,3,2,5-diazoboraphosphorinane sulphide (394) are prepared in 86% yield by cyclizing⁴¹⁵ 393 with B_2H_6 .

Stereoselective ethynylation of the *trans* isomer of phosphorinan-4-one (395) with 396 in the presence of KOH or NaNH₂ gave⁴¹⁶ the alcohol 397 and glycol 398 in the ratio 85:15 in liquid ammonia–NaNH₂ (Scheme 10).

SCHEME 10. Reaction of trans-thioxophosphorinan-4-one with p-diethynylbenzene.

2. Through reactions of PV halides

Reaction of dichlorophenylphosphine sulphide 310 (X = S) with 2 mol equiv. of vinylmagnesium bromide in the at $-70\,^{\circ}$ C gave divinylphenylphosphine sulphide 5

 $(R = CH = CH_2; R' = Ph; X = S)$, which on refluxing with a 20% excess of methylamine or aqueous alkylamine, afforded almost quantitative amounts of azaphosphorinane-4-sulphide 187 (X = S). Treatment of 187 (X = O; see Section III.B.1) with P_2S_5 in hot benzene also gave the sulphide 187.

The reaction of 2-furyllithium 318 (R' = Li) with dialkyl chlorothiophosphates is reported³³⁴ to give, through successive replacements of OR groups, the tris(2-furyl)sulphide 319 (X = S; see Section III.B.6). Phenylthiophosphoryl dichloride 310 (X = S), on Friedel-Craft's reaction with halobenzene, gives the sulphide 5 (R' = Ph), e.g. a mixture of the above chloride (2 mol), AlCl₃ (5 mol) and fluorobenzene (12 mol) was refluxed for 18 h under nitrogen to give the sulphide 5 (R = p-FC₆H₄, R' = Ph).

Tertiary phosphine sulphides and organic halides have been coproduced to be heating a thiol or dithiol, preferably in an inert solvent, with tertiary phosphine dihalide (reaction 38). Thus, Ph_3P (0.01 mol) in dry MeCN (60 ml) was stirred well at 0 °C whilst bromine (0.01 mol) was added over a period of 15–20 min. This was followed by the rapid addition of decane-1-thiol (0.01 mol) to the reaction mixture. The solvent was distilled off at 81 °C, accompanied by evolution of HBr. 1-Bromodecane was finally distilled at 138–139 °C/30 mmHg in 76% yield. The residue was then triturated with diethyl ether–pentane, followed by recrystallization from absolute alcohol to obtain Ph_3PS . Chlorophosphines 312 (X = nil) on reaction with the lithium derivative of methyl-diphenylphosphine sulphide the prepared by reaction of Ph_3PS with methyllithium, gave phosphinomethylphosphine monosulphide 339 ($X^1 = S$; $X^2 = nil$; $R^1 = Me_2CH$, Ph; Ph, Ph,

$$Ph_{3}P \xrightarrow{Y} + RSH \xrightarrow{\text{inert solvent}} Ph_{3}P = S + RY$$

$$Y = Cl, Br$$

$$R = \text{decyl, hexyl, cyclohexyl}$$
(38)

3. Through sulphurization of phosphine oxides

The trans isomers of tetraaryl- and -alkyl-vinylidenediphosphine dioxides 18 (X = O), on heating 54 for 2 h at 120 °C with sulphur, give the disulphide 18 (X = S) in 86% yield (see also Section III.A.1.b). The phosphaphenanthranone 110 is reported 164 to react with P_4S_{10} to give the isomeric phenanthrene thione 399 (R = α - or β -Ph; see Section III.A.4). Nickel-catalysed thermolysis of 399 at 275 °C gave 6-phenyl-5-phosphaphenanthrene 400. Dialkylphosphine oxides $R_2P(O)H$ on reaction with P_4S_{10} at -30 to 20 °C in CH_2Cl_2 under nitrogen yielded 419 the corresponding sulphides 309 (X = S) in 55.5-62% yield. Phosphabicyclooctadiene oxide 402 (X = O) on sulphurization with P_4S_{10} yielded 420 the corresponding sulphide 402 (X = S). The oxide 402 was prepared, in turn, by Diels-Alder reaction of the phosphorin-1-oxide 401 with dimethylacetylene dicarboxylate.

The sulphide 402 (X = S) on refluxing with toluene generated the C-unsubstituted methylenephosphine sulphide 403, which was trapped by methanol or 2,3-dimethylbutadiene to give 404 or 405.

Reaction of sulphur with phospholes 25 (R = R' = Me; X = O) led to the formation⁴²¹ of the sulphides 25 (X = S). Phospholes 25 (X = II) were prepared by the cyclization of alkyl- or aryl-halophosphines in the presence of a tertiary amine with pK_a 5-11, e.g. treatment of a mixture of $PhPBr_2$ and $PhPCl_2$ with $H_2C = C(Me) = CH_2$ in CH_2Cl_2 in the presence of α -picoline gave 25 (R = R' = Me; X = III) in 83.5% yield.

Optically active phosphine oxides of the type 12, on reaction with boron trisulphide, give the corresponding sulphides⁴²² with high stereospecificity and net retention of configuration at phosphorus, e.g. (+)-(R)-cyclohexylmethylphenylphosphine oxide gave 76% of the corresponding sulphide with 95% optical purity.

4. Through reaction of P_2S_5/P^{V} sulphur halides with organometallics or alkyl halides

Grignard reaction of PSCl₃ with alkyl halides yielded ^{19a} phosphine sulphide 1 (see also Section III.A.2.b). Phosphine sulphides of the type 5 (X = S) are prepared by the reaction ⁸⁵ of 12 ($R^1 = R^2$; X = S) with alkyl halides in the presence of magnesium (see Section III.B.6). Phosphorus thioxychloride reacts ⁴²³ with cyclohexylmagnesium chloride to give 309 (X = S), 67 (R = R'; X = S) and 1 (X = S; X = S) and 1 (X = S) and 1 (X = S) with 406 (reaction 39).

Dialkyl- and diaryl-phosphonothioic halides of the type 312 (X = S) and alkyl- and aryl-phosphinothioic dihalides 310 (X = S) are prepared by reaction⁴²⁵ of alkyl halides

with P_4S_3 at 250–339 °C. Thus, P_4S_3 (0.02 mol) and methyl chloride (0.118 mol) on heating at 235–240 °C for 12 h gave 312 (R¹ = R² = R; X = S) and 310 (R = Me, Bu, Ph, C_{1-20} -alkyl, C_{5-6} -cycloalkyl; halide = Cl, Br). Compounds 312 (X = S) are used for increasing the effectiveness of flotation of copper ores.

The reaction of thiophosphoryl chloride with PhLi gives the corresponding phosphine sulphides⁴²⁶ of the type 1. Thus, P(S)Cl₃ on reaction with PhLi gives Ph₃PS in 80% yield. The reaction proceeds via a metal-halogen exchange reaction, e.g. the reaction of PSCl₃ and BuLi gives, after hydrolysis, several products such as Bu₂P(S)H, Bu₃PS and

Bu₄P₂S₂.

The (dialkylphosphino)diphenylphosphinomethane monosulphides 67 ($X^1 = S$, $X^2 = nil$; R = tert-butyl) were prepared 427 in 43% yield by treating $Ph_2P(S)CH_2Li$ with 312 ($R^1 = R^2 = tert$ -butyl; X = nil). A similar reaction 428 of the lithium derivative of methyldiphenylphosphine sulphide with 312 ($R^1 = R^2 = Ph$; X = nil) gave 407 in 66% yield. Grignard reaction of 312 ($R^1 = R^2 = Me$, Et; X = S) with 408 (R = OMe, $OSiMe_3$) gave 429 the phosphine sulphide 409. Fiaud 430 reported a stereoselective synthesis of allylicdiphenylphosphine sulphide (410) in high yields by the palladuim-catalysed substitution of allylic carboxylates with lithium diphenyl thiophosphides in the containing $[Pd(PH_3)_4]$ at room temperature, with an overall retention of configuration (equation 40). Kyba and Liu^{431} prepared the P_3 macrocylic phosphine-6-sulphide 415 by the reaction of bis(3-chloropropyl)-1-naphthylmethylphosphine sulphide (412) with bis(lithiophenylphosphino)benzene (413) to give 414, followed by quantitative removal of 1-naphthylmethyl moiety with potassium naphthalenide (Scheme 11). 1-Naphthylmethylphosphine sulphide has been used as a protecting group for a P—H bond in a secondary phosphine and to convert 1-naphthylmethylphosphine (411) into 412.

Ph PPh2 BrMg
$$\rightarrow$$
 (CH2)_nR \rightarrow (CH2)_nR \rightarrow

Polydentate phosphorus-containing ligands of the type 34 and 416 can be prepared from their neutral precursors by proton abstraction with LiOMe. Phosphine sulphides of the type 5 (R = halogen, Me, MeOC₆H₄; R' = lower alkyl, aryl, X = S), useful in the preparation of fire-resistant polyoxyphenylenes, are prepared from aryl- and alkyl-thiophosphoryl dihalides (310) and halobenzenes in the presence of Friedel–Craft's catalysts. Thus, refluxing PhP(S)Cl₂ (0.3 mol) with chlorobenzene (2 mol) and anhydrous AlCl₃ (1.6 mol) for 8 h gave bis(p-ClC₆H₄)phenylphosphine sulphide in about 80% yield. Similarly, stirring P(S) Cl₃ (0.1 mol) and AlCl₃ (0.5 mol) with 417 (0.7 mol) at 150 °C for 6 h gave a polymer in 36% yield. Compound 5 (R = p-ClC₆H₄; R' = Ph; X = S) is also prepared by two variations of a Friedel–Craft's reaction involving either treating

SCHEME 11. Synthesis of 11-P₃ macrocyclic phosphine sulphide.

benzene with PCl_3 and then the resulting unisolated intermediate with sulphur and halobenzene (halo = F, Cl, Br) (> 2 mol), or heating halobenzene with $P(S)Cl_3$ and then the unisolated intermediate with benzene. In both cases the reaction mixture is heated between 70 and 150 °C in the presence of an Al(hal)₃ catalyst. Thus, benzene (0.1 mol) and $PCl_3(0.1 \text{ mol})$ were heated for 6 h at 80 °C under nitrogen in the presence of AlCl₃ (0.22 mol) and the resultant mixture was treated with sulphur (0.1 mol) and chlorobenzene (0.6 mol) and a refluxed for a further 6 h to give bis(p-chlorophenyl)phenylphosphine sulphide in 65% yield.

An efficient Friedel–Craft's-type preparation of Ph₃PS and its derivatives was reported by Olah *et al.*⁴³⁵, involving AlCl₃-catalysed reactions of benzenes (or substituted benzenes) with P₄S₁₀. Tertiary halogen (X = F, Cl, Br)-substituted phenylphosphine-sulphides 5 are prepared by heating⁴³⁶ a mixture of PSCl₃ with halobenzene, followed by addition of substituted benzene and continued heating. Thus, a mixture of PSCl₃(0.75 mol) and AlCl₃ (1.34 mol) in cyclohexane was refluxed for 8 h, followed by addition of toluene (3 mol) and refluxing for a further 5 h, when 5 (R = p-F-C₆H₄; R' = p-MeC₆H₄; X = S) was produced in 85% yield. Tertiary phosphine sulphides of the type 1 (R = Me, Et, Bu, Ph; X = S) are also prepared⁴³⁷ by the reaction of phosphorus with alkyl sulphides R₂S at 200–400 °C.

V. METHODS OF PREPARATION OF PHOSPHINE SELENIDES AND TELLURIDES

Selenophosphines and related compounds have been reviewed 22,23,438 . Some phosphine selenides have novel inclusion properties and act as highly selective hosts, e.g. 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphinoselenoyl)ethane 90 (R = Ph; X = Se) acts very selectively for p-xylene 439 . Thus, 90 (R = Ph; X = Se) formed stable inclusion compounds when crystallized from various pure solvents. However, when 90 (X = Se) was crystallized from certain solvent mixtures, there was remarkable guest selectivity. The preference shown for 90 (X = Se) is general for para-disubstituted mononuclear aromatics of similar size. The sulphide analogue of 90 also exhibited significant inclusion properties. Compound 90 (R = Ph; X = Se) (3 g) was dissolved in a mixture (25 ml) of equal volumes of o-, m-, p-xylene and ethylbenzene at 100 °C and the solution was cooled at 0.5–1 °C min $^{-1}$ and inoculated with p-xylene crystals at 360 K to give the p-xylene adduct (2.9 g), which was thermally decomposed to give a product containing 95.5% p-xylene, 2.5% ethylbenzene, 1.2% m-xylene and 0.8% o-xylene. The crystal structure of the inclusion compound contains three host and one guest molecule in a unit cell. The adduct is of true clathrate type, with the highly ordered p-xylene guest being accommodated in an effectively closed case.

Brown et al.⁴⁴⁰ measured the exchange of selenium between tertiary phosphine selenides and analogous tertiary phosphines and found it to be fairly fast on the NMR time scale at elevated temperature. In this it resembles the phosphine tellurides, where rapid tellurium transfer⁴⁴¹ has been observed in R₃PTe-R₃P. The corresponding sulphide derivatives redistribute themselves in analogous systems much more slowly.

Phosphine tellurides have been used recently for the chemical transport⁴⁴² of tellurium under very mild conditions, i.e. they find application in the preparation of semiconductor materials.

A. Reactions Involving Conversion of P^{III} to P^{V}

Diphenylphosphine selenide was prepared⁴⁴³ by heating red selenium suspended in benzene with diphenylphosphine for 10 min at 70 °C. Dibutylphosphine selenide was obtained by passing H₂Se into a benzene solution of dibutyl(diethylamino)phosphine.

 $Ph_4As^+Te^-CN$, on treatment with excess of Ph_3P in MeCN containing LiClO₄, is known to give $Ph_3PTe.PPh_3$ in which the P-Te-P configuration could be regarded as one in which there is normal bond between tellurium and one of the phosphorus atoms, whereas the interaction between tellurium and the other phosphorus atom is weak. Tertiary phosphine selenides are also formed through selenium abstraction the reaction of diethyl diselenide with tertiary phosphines. Thus, photochemical deselenation of Et_2Se_2 by diphenylmethylphosphine gave Et_2Se_2 in high yield together with Et_2Se_2 .

CSe₂ also is known⁴⁴⁶ to react with Ph₃P in the presence of metal carbonyls to give Ph₃PSe. Aryl phosphines of the type 1 (R = Ph, p-ClC₆H₄ or o-, m-, p-MeC₆H₄) react with SeO₂ suspended in benzene–ethanol solution to give R₃PSe together with R₃PO in different proportions depending on the phosphine, the relative proportions of the reagents and the solvent⁴⁴⁷. Similar reaction of SeS₂ with Ph₃P gave a solid solution of Ph₃PS and Ph₃PSe on refluxing⁴⁴⁸ for 2 h in excess of benzene. Insertion of tellurium⁴⁴⁹ into 418 (X = nil) gave 418 (X = Te), which, however, disproportionated to give 419 and (Me₃Si)₂Te. Alkenebis(monophenylphosphine chalcogenides) 75 (R = Ph; R' = H; X = Se; n = 2) were prepared by treating the corresponding phosphine 75 (X = nil) with selenium³⁶⁸. Reaction of 420 (X = nil) with selenium in benzene leads to the formation of stable p-2,6-dimethylphenyl-C-C-diphenylselenophosphine⁴⁵⁰ 420 (X = Se), which is stable at room temperature but decomposes on heating with partial regeneration

of the starting materials. No reaction, however, was observed between 420 (X = nil) and tellurium. The reactions of tri-*tert*-butyl phosphine with selenium and tellurium proceed quantitatively with formation 451 of the corresponding selenide and tellurides. The lithium derivatives of 7 (R = R' = Ph; $X^1 = X^2 = nil$) on treatment 452 with elemental selenium or tellurium give the mono-selenium or tellurium derivatives 421. Reaction of acetylenic phosphines 336 (X = nil) with selenium leads to the formation 366 of the selenide 336 (X = Se, see also Section IV.A.1.a). Tetrakis(diphenylphosphino) allene 49 (X = nil), 2-phosphabicyclononanone 11 (X = nil), phosphastanniananes 161 (X = nil), 3,4-dialkylphosphole 116 (X = nil), and pentaethylcyclopentaphosphine 8 (X = nil) (see Table 2 for further details) are all converted into their selenides (X = Se) by reaction with selenium. Likewise, dioxaphosphorinanes 352 (X = nil) also gave the selenide 378 (X = Se), as did 2-phosphabicyclodecanone 354 (see section IV.A.1.a), phosphabicyclodecanone 81 43 (see Section II.A.1.e) and oxaborataphosphorinanes 246 (X = nil) (see Section IV.A.2), on reaction with selenium.

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc}
Me_3C & & & & & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & & & \\
Me_3C & & & \\
Me_3C & & & \\
Me_3C & & & \\
Me_3$$

The exchange reaction of tetramethyl bisphosphines 67 (R = R' = Me; X = nil) with dimethyl dichalcogenides Me_2Z_2 (Z = S, Se, Te) leads to the formation⁴⁵³ of the corresponding methyl chalcogenides Me_2PZMe . These on reaction with MeI give the phosphonium salt (see also ref. 177), which is converted to the corresponding chalcogenide on heating (reaction 41).

A simple and efficient method of preparing aromatic tertiary phosphine selenides is through the reaction of phosphines with potassium selenocyanate in acetonitrile (reaction 42)⁴⁵⁴. The reaction is specific for selenium and does not occur with the oxygen or sulphur analogues.

$$Ph_3P + KSeCN \longrightarrow Ph_3PSe + KCN$$
 (42)

B. Reactions Involving Conversion of an Already Present PV Nucleus

Phenylselenophosphoryl acid chloride 310 (R' = Ph; X = Se) on Friedel-Craft's reaction with halobenzenes³¹² gives the selenide 5 (X = Se; R' = Ph) (see Section IV.B.2 for details). Phosphine selenides of the type 1 and 5 (X = Se) were prepared by the reaction⁴⁵⁵ of organomagnesium compounds with selenophosphorus acid chlorides. Thus, the reaction of diethylselenophosphoryl chloride with R'MgBr gave 61.8-72.9% of 5 (R = Et, R' = Et, Ph; X = Se) and the reaction of PhMgBr with PhP(Se)Cl₂ gave Ph₃PSe in 35.4% yield. Grim and Walton prepared⁴⁵⁶ variously substituted 416 (X¹, X² = Se, S or O and X³ = nil; X¹ = Se, S and X², X³ = nil; X¹ = Se, X² = S and X³ = nil) by reaction of Ph₂P(Z)CH₂Li with Ph₂P(X)Cl(Z = Se, S, O or nil).

Stereospecific interconversion of chiral thiophosphines into selenophosphines has also been reported⁴⁵⁷. Thus, the conversion of chiral methylpropylphenylphosphine sulphide into the selenide and *vice versa* were accomplished by treatment of 422 (X = Se, S) with NaSeH or NaSH, respectively. Both reactions occur with retention of configuration at phosphorus and high stereospecificity. (2-Hydroxyphenyl)diphenylphosphine selenide 423 (X = Se) has been prepared⁴⁵⁸ in 77% yield by heating the corresponding oxide 423 (X = Se) with selenium. The selenide 423 (X = Se) forms complexes 424 with metals M (X = Se) in 72–85% yields.

$$\begin{bmatrix} Me \\ Pr \\ Ph \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{\dagger}{P} = XMe$$

$$\bar{O}_3SCF_3$$

$$\begin{array}{c} SH \\ Ph \\ Ph \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ M/z \\ Se \\ Ph \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} A \\ Ph \\ Ph \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ M/z \\ Se \\ Ph \\ \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} A \\ Ph \\ \end{array}$$

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CHAPTER 7

Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides

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I. INTRODUCTION

Tertiary phosphines, R_3P , and their chalcogenide derivatives, (1) (X = O, S, Se or Te), have been known since the early days of organophosphorus chemistry. The latter group is characterized by the possession of three, formally single, phosphorus—carbon bonds, in addition to the bond between the phosphorus and chalcogen atom, and whose character may vary considerably depending on both the group(s) R and the element X. The series of so-called tertiary compounds is thus clearly distinguishable from similar derivatives of secondary and primary phosphines which possess one and two phosphorus—hydrogen bonds, respectively.

$$R_3P = X$$
 $R_2P = XH$ $R_2P - XH$ $RP = XH_2$ $RP = XHH$
(1) (2.1) (2.2) (3.1) (3.2)

An important feature of the chemistries of the secondary and primary phosphine chalcogenides, where these compounds actually exist, is their participation in the dyad prototropic equilibria 2.1=2.2 and 3.1=3.2. The secondary and primary phosphine chalcogens are thus each able to form two series of derivatives based on tri- or

tetra-coordinate geometry. Those derivatives having tricoordinate structures are not the direct concern of the present chapter, which, in addition to describing the reactions of the tertiary phosphine chalcogenides, also reviews briefly reactions of the secondary and primary phosphine derivatives, particularly those which directly involve the phos-

phorus—hydrogen bond itself.

The tertiary phosphine oxides were, for a long time, considered to be amongst the most stable organophosphorus compounds with regard to both thermal stability and the action of common chemical reagents. Thus, triphenylphosphine oxide is thermally stable up to about 450°C, although the higher chalcogenides are less so. The oxides are now known, however, to be more reactive than was at one time thought. The chemical reactivity of a tertiary phosphine chalcogenide is a function of the particular chalcogen present, in addition to the nature of the organic ligands attached to phosphorus. Indeed, part of the usefulness of many such compounds depends on the ease of cleavage of a phosphorus—carbon bond.

The nature of the P=X bond is not a subject of detailed discussion in this chapter, although a very brief general consideration is perhaps desirable. Although widely represented as a phosphorus-to-chalcogen double bond, the true nature of the bond depends on the individual element X, and also on the nature of the electronic interactions between phosphorus and the ligands R, e.g. whether these are halogen atoms or organic groups. It has been suggested, for instance, that the phosphoryl bond in a simple

trialkylphosphine oxide has almost triple bond character.

Whatever the true nature of the P=X bond in any particular phosphine chalcogenide, such compounds are well known to form complexes through the atom X with an extremely wide range of compounds, including oxides, halides and other derivatives of both metals and non-metals. Phosphine oxides, in particular, form strong hydrogen bonds with carboxylic acids, phenols, alcohols and even more weakly bonding species such as CHCl₃, to yield complexes of various stoichiometries, mostly detectable spectroscopically, but sometimes isolable; triphenylphosphine oxide forms isolable hydrates. With strong mineral acids, the structure of the complex may lie between that of a simple hydrogen-bonded species and a fully protonated ion (Scheme 1). Hydrogen bonding, normally intermolecular, as in the cases just mentioned, and for appropriately separated groups as in the oxide $Ph_2P(O)(CH_2)_nOH$ when n=4, is intramolecular for $n=1-3^1$.

$$R_3P = O + HX \Longrightarrow R_3P = O \cdots H \cdots X \Longrightarrow R_3P^+OHX^-$$

SCHEME 1

The basicity of a tertiary phosphine oxide is due to the nucleophilic character of the phosphoryl group and its desire to protonate; as a class, such oxides are weaker bases than the corresponding tertiary amine oxides, but are stronger bases than similar carbonyl

compounds.

Organic derivatives of the phosphinoyl* group, H₂P(O)—, exert an electron-attracting effect by induction or mesomerism, in appropriate environments, to an extent dependent on the attached organic groups. This electronic influence leads to enhanced acidity of compounds having hydrogen atoms on carbon bonded directly to phosphorus, and a greater potential for tautomerism. Thus, 1-(diphenylphosphinoyl)propan-2-one,[†]

^{*}This terminology is becoming more widely accepted (IUPAC) than the term phosphinyl, although the latter is used by *Chemical Abstracts*; for further discussion of terminology, see Chapter 1 of Volume 1.

[†]This compound might also be termed (2-oxopropyl)diphenylphosphine oxide. Both types of nomenclature will be used interchangeably in this chapter.

Ph₂P(O)CH₂COMe, contains about 2% of an enol (i.e. oxygen acid) form, an enol content very much greater than that in acetone itself or even in benzyl methyl ketone².

Evidence for prototropy involving the phosphoryl group in tertiary phosphine oxides seems to have come to light only recently. Diphenylphosphinoylbis(phenylsulphonyl)methane normally exists in the CH form (4.1) and is a relatively strong acid with pK_a 3.27 in 95% aqueous EtOH. The rapid acidification of a solution of its sodium salt leads to samples enriched in the form 4.2, as evidenced by the presence of two signals in its ^{31}P NMR spectrum, and the formation of an O-Me derivative on reaction with MeI, Me_2SO_4 or CH_2N_2 . The ylide form reverts to the CH acid form when such samples are recrystallized^{3,4}.

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH(SO_{2}Ph)_{2} \Longrightarrow Ph_{2}P(OH) \Longrightarrow C(SO_{2}Ph)_{2}$$

$$(4.1) \qquad (4.2)$$

There is also some evidence for the limited occurrence of 'ring-chain' tautomerism involving the phosphoryl group as exemplified in Scheme 2. Although the equilibrium between structures 5 and 6 lies well over to 6, the equilibrium between 7 and 8 is strongly biased towards the pentacoordinate form 7⁵.

The chemical reactions of phosphine oxides^{6,7} and sulphides, selenides and tellurides^{8,9} have been reviewed; the reader should consult those sources for most literature references published before about 1965. The emphasis in this chapter is on those reactions discovered or developed during the last two to three decades, and the scope covers reported developments up to the end of 1990, with *Chemical Abstracts* surveyed to the end of Volume 113.

The chemistry of phosphine chalcogenides is discussed here in terms of the properties of the P=X bond and the reactions of the organic ligands attached to phosphorus. Included is a special section dealing with phosphine oxide carbanions and the special role they play in organic synthesis (the Horner reaction). Other sections deal with the

stability of the intervening phosphorus—carbon bond and the chemistry of secondary and primary phosphine chalcogenides, treated separately because of the special properties endowed on these compounds by the phosphorus—hydrogen bond.

II. REACTIONS OF THE CHALCOGENIDE GROUP

This section is intended as an outline of those reactions by which the chalcogenide group, P = X (X = O, S, S or Te) can be removed so as to leave the corresponding phosphine, and also the various reactions by means of which one such group may be converted into another or to yet other groupings. Both types of sequence are of importance in synthetic organophosphorus chemistry.

A. Reduction of Quinquevalent Tetracoordinate Compounds to Tervalent Tricoordinate Compounds

The removal of the P=X bond from phosphine chalcogenides can be achieved through the use of a wide variety of types of reagents acting under very varied conditions. Not all of the reactions described would necessarily be considered as being of value for synthetic purposes, since it has often been found that slight variations in experimental conditions may lead to an unexpected outcome with respect to either the nature or the stereochemistry of the reaction product(s).

1. Phosphines from phosphine oxides

The potential for the use of simple metal hydrides in reductions of phosphine oxides to phosphines has not been fully explored. Successful reductions of simple trialkyl- and triaryl-phosphine oxides to the respective phosphines have been performed with the hydrides of calcium or aluminium. CaH₂ reduces Ph₃PO to Ph₃P, the yield of the latter decreasing with increase in reaction temperature, but some cleavage to benzene and Ph₂PH, which may be accompanied by the liberation of diphenylphosphinic acid, is also observed¹⁰. AlH₃ is a better reagent for the reduction of the oxides 9 (X = H or

OR; R = H, Me, Et or Bu')¹¹. $Ph_3P(O)$ has also been reduced by trialkylboranes, dimeric dialkylboranes and borane-trialkylamine complexes, and even by a triphenylphosphine-borane complex at $120-150\,^{\circ}C^{12}$, but the reduction may also be achieved by the use of SmI_2 in thf-hmpa at lower temperatures¹³. Oxides with at least one P-aryl grouping are reduced in moderate yield by a stoichiometric amount of $[Cp_2TiCl_2]-Mg$ in thf, and the yields for the series $Ph_nP(O)Me_{3-n}$ increase as n increases; other tertiary phosphine oxides, e.g. Bu_3PO , may not be reduced by this reagent¹⁴.

Much more attention has been focused on the use of LiAlH₄ and other complex hydrides. Ca(AlH₄)₂ is useful for the reduction of trialkylphosphine oxides but not for the triaryl analogues. On the other hand, LiAlH₄ reduces Ph₃PO satisfactorily in diethyl ether, but reactions in solvents with higher boiling points are again accompanied by fission to Ph₂PH; nevertheless, several successful reductions with LiAlH₄, with yields in the range 60–80%, have been reported^{15,16}. Neither LiAlH₄ nor LiAlH(OBu')₃ was of value in attempted reduction of phosphine oxides at the low temperatures necessarily required to prevent valence isomerization of phosphonin 1-oxides¹⁷, and attempted reduction of a bridged phosphine oxide (10) also failed because of the elimination of the phosphorus bridge and the formation of 1,2,3,4-tetraphenylnaphthalene¹⁸.

Although the use of LiAlH₄, with its known ability to reduce a wide range of functional groups, might thus seem to have distinct disadvantages for synthetic purposes, one of its main drawbacks is, without doubt, the possibility of reduction accompanied by racemization. Some optically active phosphine oxides, e.g. (S)-(-)-Bu^tMePhPO, have been reduced with little loss of optical purity¹⁹, whereas for other compounds, e.g. 5-phenyl-5*H*-dibenzophosphole-3-carboxylic acid 5-oxide (11), reduction to the phosphine is accompanied by reduction of the COOH group and by complete racemization.

In 1969, Mislow and coworkers²⁰ reported that phosphine oxides may undergo stereomutation in the presence of LiAlH₄ even before the actual reduction process has commenced. In thf at room temperature, (+)-MePhPrPO is almost completely racemized before 10% reduction has occurred; similar observations were made with the *cis* and *trans* forms of 1-phenyl-2,2,3,4,4-pentamethylphosphetane 1-oxide, stereomutation being completed within 10 min. Complexes of the type Li[Al(OHPR₃)₄] may play a role in such stereochemical changes²⁰.

The addition of CeCl₃ to mixtures of triarylphosphine oxides and LiAlH₄ in the results in much increased yields of the phosphines, although again this may be accompanied by complete racemization, a feature found for (S)-(2-An)MePhPO²¹. Reduction of phosphine oxides with NaBH₄ occurs only in the presence of CeCl₃; initially this reaction yields the phosphine–BH₃ complex (60–90%) from which the borane may be removed, with retention of configuration relative to the starting oxide, by treatment with Et₂NH²².

Reduction of phosphine oxides with simultaneous asymmetric induction has been observed following the use of the chiral aminoalanes 12 and 13 (where R* represents a chiral organic group). Reduction of racemic MePhPrPO with the alane 13 derived from methyl-(S)-2-phenylethylamine afforded a 30% yield of the phosphine possessing about 20% induced optical activity. Potential difficulties in the widespread use of the procedure are well illustrated by the reduction of 3-methyl-1-phenyl-3-phospholene 1-oxide (14), when both the extent and the sign of the induced optical activity are dependent on the presence of Et_3N , and also the reaction temperature within fairly narrow limits²³.

Far more extensively used than any of the hydride or other metal reagents hitherto mentioned have been a variety of silicon compounds. A mixture of methylchlorosilanes reduces Ph₃PO in very high yield but the scope of this reduction procedure has not

[†]Such compounds may also be referred to (and currently are in *Chemical Abstracts*) as 2,5-dihydro-1*H*-phospholes.

7. Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides

been explored²⁴. Polysiloxanes, (OSiHMe)_n, may be employed in the presence or absence of a solvent, but higher temperatures are required for the reduction of triarylphosphine oxides; yields of about 60–90% have been achieved using diethylene glycol dimethyl ether as solvent, and the reagent has been used successfully with the cyclic oxides 15 and 17¹⁰.

Much attention has been focused on the use of trichlorosilane and the phenylsilanes, Ph_nSiH_{1-n} . Advantages in the use of the phenylsilanes as reducing agents include their ready availability, either commercially or through the reduction of the corresponding chlorides with LiAlH₄, and the high reaction yields coupled, under appropriate circumstances, with very high stereospecificity with retention of configuration. Phenylsilane has been used for the reduction of allylic phosphine oxides (20) and the phosphine oxide moiety $R_2P(O)$ (CH₂)_n— bound to a solid support²⁵, and also phosphine oxides having the general structures $Ar_2P(O)Me^{26}$ and $RMeP(O)Ph^{27}$. Indeed, phenylsilane has been described as the reagent of choice for the reduction of phosphine oxides²⁸.

$$Ph_2P(O)CR^1R^2CH = CH_2 Ph_2P(O)(CH_2)_nCN$$
(20) (21)

Diphenylsilane reduces the α -(diphenylphosphinoyl)alkyl cyanides 21 (n = 1,3 or 4)²⁹, and both mono- and di-phenylsilane reagents have been employed in the reduction of *P*-oxides of phospholenes, e.g. 15, 18 and 19¹⁰, 16 and 22³⁰, phospholanes, e.g. 23 and 24^{31,32}, epoxides of types 25-27³³ and simple phosphorinanes and phosphepanes 28-30^{28,34}.

Phenylsilane deoxygenates (R)-(-)- $(PhCH_2)MePrPO$ to the (S)-(+)-phosphine of comparable optical purity, and a similar result is observed for (S)-(-)- $(PhCH_2)MePhPO$, i.e. reaction with retention of configuration³⁵; by contrast, the same reagent reduces (R)-(menthyl)MePhPO to a 9:1 mixture of the (S)-(R)

Trichlorosilane (silicochloroform), SiHCl₃, has been the most widely examined of all the silicon hydrides for the deoxygenation of phosphine oxides. It is a powerful reagent, capable of reducing many types of phosphine oxides; at the same time, however, it is one which has to be used with some caution, particularly with regard to the assignment of configurational changes at phosphorus, and it is recommended that such assignments in the product phosphines be checked by re-oxidation with H₂O₂ (retention of configuration) or by spectroscopic means, e.g. ¹³C NMR spectroscopy.

In a pioneering study, Horner and Balzer³⁷ showed that trichlorosilane reduced

In a pioneering study, Horner and Balzer³⁷ showed that trichlorosilane reduced phosphine oxides with retention of configuration; however, reduction in the presence of Et₃N or, even better, Bu₃N, resulted in inversion of configuration at phosphorus, whereas the use of pyridine or N,N-diethylaniline brought about no such change. In practice, the reagent is employed with or without added base in a solvent (CHCl₃, benzene or a higher boiling aromatic), generally under reflux conditions. Phosphine oxides so reduced include trialkyl³⁸, dialkylaryl^{39,40}, alkyldiaryl^{41,42} and triaryl^{38,43} derivatives, in which several functional groups, including CN, COOH, COOR, NO₂,

$$(n=2 \text{ or } 3)^{52} \text{ and } 37^{53}$$
 Cy_2P
 Cy_2P

NR₂, NR₃⁺ or OMe, particularly when attached to aromatic rings, are unaffected by the reagent. Other phosphine oxides of some special interest and which have been successfully reduced include 2-(dicyclohexylphosphinoyl)-4-[(dicyclohexylphosphinoyl)-methyl]pyrrolidine (31)⁴⁴, 4,5-bis[(dicyclohexylphosphinoyl)methyl]-2,2-dimethyl-1,3-dioxolane (32)⁴⁵ and the diphenylphosphinoyl compounds $9^{11,46,47}$, 33 ($n = 0^{48}$ or 1^{49}), the enantiomers of methylnorphos dioxide (34)⁵⁰, 35⁵¹, racemic 36.

Other applications include the syntheses of optically active forms of the binaps ligands 38 (X = lone pair; Ar = Ph, 4-tol, or 4-Bu t C $_{6}$ H $_{4}$) from the resolved forms of the binaps dioxides 38 (X = O) 54 , and of the ligands 39 and 40 (using N,N-diethylcyclohexylamine as base in MeCN) 55 , during which inversion at phosphorus was assumed to have taken place. In the presence of Et $_{3}$ N, the reagent reduced (R)-(menthyl)methylPhPO to a 4:1 mixture of (R) $_{P}$ and (S) $_{P}$ phosphines, i.e. with largely, but by no means exclusively, inversion 36 .

The many types of cyclic phosphines oxides possessing the phosphorus atom in a non-bridging position, which have been reduced to the corresponding phosphines by trichlorosilane, in the presence or otherwise of added amine, include phospholes and their benzo derivatives, e.g. 41^{56} ; phospholenes and their benzo derivatives, e.g. 42^{57} , 43^{58} , 44^{59} , 45 and 46^{60} , 47^{61} , 48 and 49^{62} ; 17^{37} ; 5,10-dihydrodibenzo [b, e]phosphorins,

e.g. 50^{63} and 51^{64} ; 5-phenyl-5*H*-dibenzo[*b*, *f*] phosphepin 5-oxide 52^{65} ; the phosphetanes 53 (R¹-R⁵ = H or Me)⁶⁶; phospholanes, e.g. 54^{67} and 55^{68} ; phosphorinanes 56 (R = Et or Ph)⁶⁹; 57 (R = H or Ph)^{70,71}; the large-ring compounds 58^{72} ; and the phosphacyclophane 59^{73} . Within these systems, OAc, OMe, Br, CH₂OH, CR₂OH and COOMe groups appear to tolerate the reagent.

$$(58) n = 8 \text{ or } 10 ; m = 8, 10 \text{ or } 12$$

A few examples exist for which unfortunate side-reactions become prominent. Thus, attempted reduction of the oxide 60 yields the phosphine 61, also obtained when 62 is similarly reduced. In the presence of pyridine, 60 is simply deoxygenated⁷⁴.

Horner and Balzer³⁷ rationalized their original observations on the trichlorosilane reduction of phosphine oxides, with net retention, with an explanation (Scheme 3)

involving complexation and a hydride shift followed (route a) by direct loss of silicon; later authors raised the possibility of the intermediacy of pentacoordinate species (route b), possibly resulting from a rearrangement of structure 63⁷⁵.

To rationalize the net inversion observed when the oxides are reduced in the presence of $\rm Et_3N$, Horner and Balzer stressed the importance of complexation between the reagent and the added tertiary base (and certainly such complexation is well known to occur), but this consideration has been shown to be unimportant ⁷⁵. More striking is the possible relevance of base strength. When a base with $pK_B < ca 5$ ($\rm Et_3N$, pK_B 3.26) is used, largely inversion of configuration is observed. Largely retention of configuration is to be noted using those bases with pK_B of $\geq ca 7$ (pyridine, pK_B 8.81; $\rm Et_2NPh$, pK_B 7.44). Moreover, the type of base is also of some importance; the use of primary or secondary amines can lead to results entirely different from those observed with tertiary amines. A further complicating feature is the dependence of the final stereochemical outcome on the nature of the reaction solvent; $\rm HSiCl_3$ with $\rm Et_2NPh$ in benzene or dibutyl ether reduces (PhCH₂)MePhPO largely with retention of configuration, but in acetonitrile the reaction proceeds with predominant inversion. A mechanism proposed later ⁷⁵ for the inversion process is oulined in Scheme 4, but here again there remains the question as to the possible participation of pentacoordinate intermediates in the later stages.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{HSiCl}_3 + \text{R}_3\text{N} \\ -\text{Cl}_3\text{Si}^- \\ \text{R}^2 \text{NH} \\ \text{R}^3 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{R}^1 \\ \text{R}^2 \text{NH} \\ \text{R}^3 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{R}^1 \\ \text{R}^3 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{Cl}_3\text{Si}^- \\ -\text{OH}^- \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{Cl}_3\text{Si}^- \\ \text{R}^3 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{R}^1 \\ \text{HO}^- \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{R}^1 \\ \text{R}^3 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{R}^1 \\ \text{R}^1 \\ \text{R}^3 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}$$

SCHEME 4

The potential usefulness of disilane derivatives with Si—halogen bonds as reducing agents was suggested by two features of silicon chemistry: the known reducing power of such compounds, and the fact that the freshly prepared adduct from HSiCl₃ and Et₃N liberated hydrogen when placed in aqueous base. Thus, the oxides MePhP(O)R (R = allyl, PhCH₂ or 4-An), each of 100% optical purity, were reduced to the corresponding phosphines of 67, 95, and 94% optical purities, respectively, and with inverted configurations, when treated with Si₂Cl₆, similar results being obtained with the use of Si₃Cl₈⁷⁵. Configurational inversions were also noted in the reductions of (R)-Bu^tMePhPO⁷⁶, and both (R)_P and (S)_P-(menthyl)MePhPO³⁶. Extensive inversion also occurred in the reduction of a 95:5 cis: trans mixture of 3-methyl-1-phenylphospholane 1-oxides (64) (Scheme 5)³².

7. Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides

The lack of stereospecificity in reductions by Si₂Cl₆ has been attributed to the formation of SiCl₄ and the stereomutation that this compound is known to cause^{77,78}. When the phosphine 65 was treated with SiCl₄, the *cis:trans* composition ratio 20:80 became 45:55³². At room temperature, SiCl₄ causes complete stereomutation of (PhCH₂)MePhPO in MeCN during 20 min, and the degree of stereomutation increases if the contact time between substrate/product and Si₂Cl₆ reagent (and thus also SiCl₄) is greater than about 5 min.

A proposed mechanism (Scheme 6) for reductions with S_2Cl_6 accommodates the formation of $SiCl_4$, and the sequence probably proceeds via the intermediate $R^1R^2R^3P(OSiCl_3)SiCl_3$, which is unlikely to undergo isomerization since the more electronegative groups are already in the apical positions of a trigonal bipyramid.

Phosphetane 1-oxides are reduced by silicon reagents under conditions significantly milder than those normally required for unbranched acyclic phoshine oxides, although the outcome of such reductions may be less predictable. There appears to be no stereospecificity dependence on the presence, or otherwise, of a tertiary base (Et₃N, pyridine) for reductions with SiHCl₃ which, for this group of substrates, has been used with 66,79,80 or without base 79.81; in the presence of Et₃N, SiHCl₃ reduces hexamethyl-

$$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Osicl}_{2} \end{bmatrix} + \operatorname{Cl}_{3} \\ = 0$$

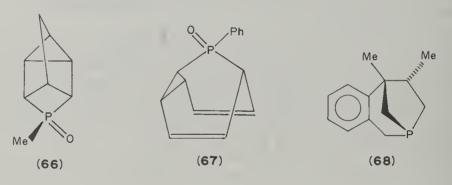
SCHEME 6

phosphetane 1-oxide with retention of configuration, and although the same reagent in the presence of pyridine also reduces 2,2,3-trimethyl-1-phenylphosphetane 1-oxide stereospecifically, the reduction of the latter phosphetane oxide by SiHCl₃ in the presence of Et₃N depends on the ratio of substrate to reagents for the stereochemical outcome. Other reagents which have been used with phosphetane substrates include 'silicone fluid'⁸¹, PhSiH₃⁸² and Si₂Cl₆⁷⁸. 4-Methyl-4-phosphatetracyclo[3.3.0.0^{2,8},0^{3,6}]octane 4-oxide (66) is reduced, with 100% yield, to the *endo* phosphine (inversion) with SiHCl₃ alone⁸³ but to a mixture of *endo* and *exo* products in the ratio 2:1 when pyridine is present⁷⁹.

As the severe angular constraint present in the phosphetane ring is relaxed, as it is in the monocyclic phospholane and larger saturated ring systems, reduction of the oxides to the parent phosphines by silicon reagents proceeds more predictably with retention

of configuration.

A structural feature which has been shown to have a pronounced effect on the final reaction outcome is the constraint imposed by phosphorus at a bridgehead position. When the phosphorus bridge produces no particular strain, reductions of *P*-oxides proceeds normally, as has been found for compounds 67 with SiCl₆¹⁸, endo-3-phenyl-3-phosphabicyclo[3.2.1]octane 3-oxide (30) with PhSiH₃ and compound 68 with SiHCl₃ alone^{34,84}, the phosphines being obtained essentially with retained stereochemistry and no loss of phosphorus bridge.



Many compounds in the 7-phosphanorbornene system, of which 10 is one, behave unusually towards silicon reducing agents. Thus, with Si₂Cl₆, ⁷⁹ 10 loses the phosphorus bridge to yield 1,2,3,4-tetraphenylnaphthalene, as it does when treated with LiAlH₄¹⁸. Initially, the *syn*-1,4,7-triphenyl-7-phosphabicyclo[2.2.1]hept-5-enes 69 and 70 with SiHCl₃-pyridine yield the corresponding *syn*-phosphines, but for each the main isolable product is (PhP)₄. With SiHCl₃ alone, 9-phenyl-9-phosphatricyclo[4.2.1.0^{2,5}]nona-3,7-diene 9-oxide (71) is reduced but the product rapidly loses bridgehead phosphorus as PhPH₂ to give cyclooctatetraene; addition of pyridine to the initial reduction mixture allows the isolation of the expected *anti*-phosphine in ca 80% yield.

The most unusual results relate to the 3a,4,7,7a-tetrahydro-4,7-phosphinidine-1H-phosphindoles 72-76, recognizable as phosphole 1-oxide dimers. When treated with SiHC1₃ in boiling benzene, these compounds lose the bridging phosphorus as R^1PH_2 and the 1- R^1 -cis-3a,7a-dihydrophosphindoline (78, R^1 = Me or Ph) co-products are isolable 59,79 . The presence of pyridine, although not always required, as, for example, for 74 and 75, certainly allows normal reductions to proceed with high yields and with retention of molecular geometry. Reductions of the same compounds with PhSiH₃ consistently afforded the bisphosphines with inverted geometry at the bridgehead phosphorus atom as the main products (6270%), together with the isomer with retained syn geometry as the minor products (8-27%).

(69)
$$R^1 = CN$$
; $R^2 = H$
(70) $R^1 = R^2 = COOMe$

(72)
$$R^1 = Me$$
; $R^2 = R^3 = H$

(73)
$$R^1 = Ph; R^2 = R^3 = H$$

(74)
$$R^1 = R^2 = Me$$
; $R^3 = H$

(75)
$$R^1 = Ph; R^2 = Me; R^3 = H$$

(76)
$$R^1 = R^2 = R^3 = Me$$

(77)
$$R^1 = Ph; R^2 = R^3 = Me$$

The fragmentations with loss of bridgehead phosphorus are examples of retrocycloaddition reactions (in this case retro-McCormick reactions) and they do not occur for fully saturated analogues. The 7-phosphanorbornane 79 and 1-syn-8,8-dimethyl-2,3,3a,4,5,6,7,7a-octahydro-4,7-phosphinidine-1*H*-phosphole (80) are reduced by SiHCl₃ with configurational retention in 93% and 30% yields, respectively. The cage compound 81 is reduced by SiHCl₃ alone with inversion of P* stereochemistry, but, in the presence of pyridine, or when PhSiH₃ is employed, the stereochemistry is retained at both phosphorus centres.

Angular constraint can be relieved by enlarging the component rings of such molecules. Both 8-phosphabicyclo[3.2.1]octcnc 82 and its homologue 83, as mixtures of syn and anti isomers, afford mixtures of the phosphines of comparable stereochemical content

when deoxygenated with SiHCl₃ irrespective of the presence, or otherwise, of pyridine; interestingly, the 9-phosphabicyclo[4.2.1]nonatriene 84 with SiHCl₃ alone gives only phosphine with retained geometry.

Compound 85 behaves even more unusually when treated with SiHCl₃. In the presence of Et₃N at ambient temperature, cleavage occurs at one of two possible positions to give the bisphosphindoline monoxide (86.1). Loss of PhPO from a bridging position evidently does not occur, nor does reduction to the bisphosphine 86.2 unless the reaction temperature is raised to 60 °C; both products may be oxidized to the bisoxide⁸⁴.

Ph X Ph
$$|| H || Ph ||$$

There are thus many opportunities to make erroneous predictions about the stereochemical outcome of reductions of phosphine oxides with silicon-containing reagents; nevertheless they are powerful reagents. The existence of isomerization and retro-cycloaddition processes calls for the participation of pentacoordinate intermediates.

2. Phosphines from phosphine sulphides, selenides and tellurides

Several types of tertiary phosphine sulphides have been desulphurized successfully by a wide variety of reagents under conditions which have ranged from mild to severe. Iron powder, NaH at 250–300 °C or Na with naphthalene⁸⁵ were amongst the earliest reagents used. Sodium under boiling toluene has been the reagent of choice for alkyldiarylphosphine sulphides; specifically, this reagent has used in the synthesis of (S, S)-phellanphos (87) (X = lp) and norphos (88) (X = lp) by the removal of the thiophosphoryl sulphur from the corresponding sulphides, in turn obtained from phellandrene and nopadiene, respectively⁸⁶. Unlike oxygen from a phosphine oxide, sulphur is removable from a phosphine sulphide under Birch conditions [Li–NH₃ (l)]. By contrast to the high reactivity shown towards Ph₃PS, sodium with naphthalene fails to desulphurize Me₂P(S)CH₂CH₂P(S)Me₂, a compound also unreactive to LiAlH₄ in thf⁸⁷. Nevertheless, LiAlH₄ in dioxane has proved popular as a desulphurizing agent. Luchenbach⁸⁸, using

[†]lp = Lone pair of electrons.

(R)-(+)-MePhPrPS showed that, in either thf or dibutyl ether at 65 °C, LiAlH₄ removed the sulphur with complete retention of configuration at phosphorus. The 1,2-dihydrophosphorin 1-sulphide 89 was desulphurized by nickel powder at high temperature, but also suffers debenzylation to 2-phenyl-4,5-dimethylphosphorin⁸⁹.

In studies on poly(tertiary phosphine) ligands, King and coworkers resorted to their synthesis through the corresponding sulphides, since this obviated the need to work with more volatile and obnoxious phosphines; the synthesis of the target compounds was completed by the removal of sulphur with LiAlH₄ in boiling dioxane. In this way the phosphine sulphides $Me_nP(S)$ (CH=CH₂)_{n-3} proved more attractive staring materials than the corresponding phosphines. An example of their use is illustrated in Scheme $7^{90.91}$.

$$\label{eq:polynomial} \begin{split} \text{Me}_2\text{P(S)CH} = \text{CH}_2 & \xrightarrow{\text{Ph}_2\text{PH}} \text{Ph}_2\text{PCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{P(S)Me}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{LiAlH}_4} \text{Ph}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{PMe}_2 \\ & \text{SCHEME 7} \end{split}$$

Amongst the more recent developments in desulphurization processes is the use of metal complexes. Mathey found that the slight reduction to the phosphine when 3,4-dimethyl-1-phenyl-3-phospholene 1-sulphide was treated with nickelocene at 110 °C for 20 h increased if the reaction was carried out in diglyme^{92,93}. Most of the product phosphine was evidently incorporated into a complex, but could be liberated from that with NaCN in MeOH, or by N-methylimidazole⁹⁴ or (MeO)₃P⁹⁵. The treatment of a tertiary phosphine sulphide with [Fe(CO)₅] at 130–150 °C yields the complex [R₃PFe(CO)₄] which, with CuCl₂ in MeOH, gives [(R₃P)₂Fe(CO)₂Cl₂]; when heated, or when treated with N-methylimidazole, such complexes release the phosphine in a process compatible with the presence of alcohol and carbonyl functions. This procedure appears to have the advantage over the nickelocene process in being less sensitive to steric hindrance around phosphorus⁹⁶.

Other reagents which have been explored for the purpose of removing the higher chalcogens are compounds of tervalent phosphorus, including trialkyl phosphites and hexamethylphosphorous triamide for triarylphosphine sulphides^{97,98} and tris(2-cyanoethyl)phosphine⁹⁹ and tributylphosphine for phosphole 1-sulphides¹⁰⁰. The bicyclic phosphorin sulphide 90.1 suffers fragmentation when treated with Bu₃P in benzene at 150 °C, but it is unclear whether the fragmentation occurs before, or after, elimination of sulphur¹⁰¹.

Phosphine selenides and, even more particularly, tellurides, are notoriously unstable and lose the chalcogen spontaneously¹⁰².

Of greater interest are those occasions on which the P = X bond finds itself near to a tervalent phosphorus atom in the same molecule. Does chalcogen transfer occur spontaneously? When 91.1 is heated at 160 °C in ethylene glycol dimethyl ether the sulphur is transferred to the more basic, tervalent, phosphorus atom to give 91.2 to the extent of about 85%; during the course of the reaction the disulphide 91.3 and the diphosphine 91.4 were identified as intermediates¹⁰³. The extent of the transfer depends on the basicity of the phosphine moiety and, for example, does not occur cleanly for the di-tert-butylphosphine 92¹⁰⁴. In addition, mixtures of disulphides 93.1 and diphosphine 93.2 equilibrate to the monosulphide 93.3 when n = 2 but not when n = 1. The transfer of selenium or tellurium to the phosphine phosphorus is fast on the NMR time scale; mixing 93.4 (n = 1) and the corresponding diphosphine results in the immediate formation of the monoselenide 93.5 (n = 1), in a process faster than that for the analogous sulphides¹⁰⁵. In the case of tellurium, Te-bridged species may be formed as indicated in Scheme 8¹⁰⁶.

Additional to its use for the deoxygenation of tertiary phosphine oxides, Si₂Cl₆ has also been employed for the removal of sulphur from phosphine sulphides¹⁰⁴. The use of chiral phosphine sulphides has demonstrated the stereospecificity of the reaction with

retention of configuration at phosphorus¹⁰⁷.

A well characterized indirect method for the removal of sulphur or selenium from a tertiary phosphine sulphide or selenide consists in the formation of a quaternary salt (Section II.C) with subsequent removal of the chalcogen as a disulphide or deselenide. Thus, electrolysis of the salt $Ph_3P^+SMe\ MeSO_4^-$ yields 69% Ph_3P . The cleavage of the salts is also accomplished when they are treated with sodium ethylthiolate, as exemplified in equation 1^{108} . That cleavage of the quaternary salts occurs with retention of configuration is shown by the formation of (R)-(+)-Bu'EtPhP from the (S)-(+)-sulphide via the (S)-(-)-methylthiophosphonium triflate (S)-(-)-methylthiophosphonium trifl

$$Ph_3P^+SMeCF_3SO_3^- + EtSNa \longrightarrow Ph_3P + Me_2S_2 + Et_2S_2 + MeSSEt$$
 (1)

In the case of particularly reactive compounds, e.g. tris(2,6-dimethoxyphenyl)-phosphine sulphides, a solution of an alkyl- or aryl-thiol (rather than its sodium salt) in MeOH is sufficient to complete the reaction 109 . Other quaternary salts of the same type have been cleaved by KCN in the presence of 18-crown-6 in $\mathrm{CH_2Cl_2}^{110}$.

B. Interconversions of Quinquevalent Tetracoordinate Compounds

1. Phosphine sulphides, selenides or tellurides from phosphine oxides

Early reports indicated that tertiary phosphine sulphides could be prepared from the corresponding phosphine oxides by simply heating them with elemental sulphur at a moderate to high temperature, but such reports appear not to have been substantiated. Triarylphosphine oxides yield the corresponding sulphides when heated with $P_4S_{10}^{98,111}$ and enantiomers of MePhPrPO yield the racemic sulphide with the same reagent lit2, although optically active sulphides do not racemize under the same conditions. The fused-ring tetrahydrophosphorin 1-oxide 90.2 has been converted into the sulphide lot, while the dihydrophosphorin 1-oxide 94 suffered dehydration and rearrangement during the sulphurization reaction with the same reagent to give 95 and 96 loss.

It is perhaps surprising that 2,4-bis(4-methoxyphenyl)-1,3,2,4-dithiadiphosphetane 2,4-disulphide (Lawesson's reagent), generally thought to be sulphurization reagent superior to P_4S_{10} , appears to have been used very seldom, a rare example of its use being in the conversion of the *endo*-dimeric phosphole dioxide 77 into the corresponding disulphide¹¹⁴.

An unusual sulphurization reagent is B₂S₃ which, within the narrow range of substrate compounds examined, affords moderate conversions of phosphine oxides into the sulphides; stereospecificity was 65% with predominant retention of configuration for acyclic oxides, with some slight loss of optical purity, but with the loss in the latter for

isomeric phosphetane oxides115.

The reported formation of 5-phenyl-5*H*-dibenzophosphole 1-selenide, and of Ph₃PSe, by treatment of the corresponding oxides with Se-KH₂PO₄ at 270-370 °C, is possibly no more than sequential deoxygenation and selenation ¹¹⁶.

2. Phosphine imides from phosphine oxides

The first observations on the catalytic role of tertiary phosphine oxides on the formation of carbodiimides from isocyanates appear to have been made by Monagle and coworkers¹¹⁷, who, from a study of the kinetics of the liberation of CO₂, recognized that the interaction occurred in two distinct stages. The first stage leads, via a four-membered ring pentacoordinate intermediate or transition state (97), to a phosphine imide as in Scheme 9. The sequence is reversible; phosphine imides are known to react with carbonyl compounds, including CO₂, when, in the latter case, isocyanates are formed.

$$R^{1}_{3}P = 0 + R^{2}NCO \longrightarrow R^{1}_{3}P = 0$$

$$R^{2}_{N} = 0$$

$$R^{2}_{N} = 0$$

$$R^{1}_{3}P = 0$$

The second stage, as in the Scheme 10, consists in the interaction of the imide and a second mole of isocyanate in a rapid process also proceeding through a similar type of intermediate or transition state. The overall reaction is that represented in equation 2.

SCHEME 10

$$2R^2NCO \longrightarrow R^2N = C = NR^2 + CO_2$$
 (2)

The first stage (Scheme 9) is rate determining, the reactions of phosphine imides with R^2NCO being 10^5-10^7 times faster than those of, for example, the oxides $Ph_nP(O)Et_{3-n}$. 1-Phenylphospholane 1-oxide is 10^3 times more reactive than $PhP(O)Et_2$ as a catalyst, whereas the ratio of catalytic power of the imide is only ca 10^{118} . The most effective catalyst is 3-methyl-1-phenyl-3-phospholene 1-oxide.

The formation of an imide from an isocyanate and a phosphine oxide (reaction 3) has since been demonstrated by other workers, but in this case the reaction proceeds no further¹¹⁹.

Me +
$$FSO_2NCO$$
 Ph NSO₂F (3)

The results of a study on the liberation of ¹⁸O (as CO₂) from an oxide enriched at the phosphoryl group were also consistent with the overall picture represented in Schemes 9 and 10¹²⁰ but, because of difficulties in the interpretation of the kinetic results, Aksnes and Frøyer¹¹⁸ proposed the participation of betaine intermediates which cyclize to give **97** and **98**.

Hall and Smith¹²¹ investigated the stereochemical course of the reactions between cyclic phosphine oxides, as exemplified by the geometric isomers of phosphetane 1-oxides, and the isocyanates RSO₂NCO (R = Cl or 4-tol). Both *cis*- and *trans*-2,2,3,4,4-pentamethyl-1-phenylphosphetane 1-oxide gave imides with retention of configuration at phosphorus (Scheme 11).

The proposed mechanism takes into account the types of betaine suggested by Aksnes and Frøyer¹¹⁸, and which lead to pentacoordinate species of undetermined structure, although 101 is thought to be more probable than 100. The reaction for the corresponding sulphide (99, X = S) was slower and 2 mol of TsNCO were required for each mole of sulphide, leading to 102 together with TsNCS via 99 (X = O). The formation of diphenylcarbodiimide from PhNCO and Ph₃PS at 165 °C had already been noted in 1964 by Maier⁸.

In a second study, the reactions of acyclic phosphine oxides were shown to be slower than those of the phosphetane oxides; optically active oxides, e.g. enantiomers of (PhCH₂)MePhPO, are racemized faster (half-life ca 40 min) than the rate of formation of the imides (half-life ca 36 h). Three possible mechanisms were considered for the formation of a monocyclic phosphorane intermediate after initial betaine formation but, unfortunately, computer simulation of the kinetics failed to distinguish conclusively between them¹²².

The feature distinguishing between the results of these two studies is clearly the constraint placed on stereomutational processes within any intermediate(s) by the presence of the phosphetane ring; this must occupy an equatorial-axial position in any pentacoordinate intermediate, and its formation would be followed by a collapse to give 102 with retention of configuration.

3. Phosphine methylenes (ylides) from phosphine oxides

Scheme 12 summarizes the remarkable interaction between triphenylphosphine oxide and acetylenes containing electronegative groups in a retro-Wittig reaction. The reactions between Ph₃PO and the acetylenes RC \equiv CR', where R = R' = CF₃ or COOMe, and R = CN, R' = H, occur in the temperature range 120–200 °C¹²³.

NCC
$$\equiv$$
 CCN + Ph₃P(0) \Rightarrow NC \rightarrow C \Rightarrow CCN \Rightarrow NC \rightarrow C \Rightarrow CCN Ph₃P \rightarrow O Ph₃P \rightarrow O Ph₃P \Rightarrow C(CN)COCN SCHEME 12

4. Phosphine oxides from phosphine sulphides, selenides or tellurides

Tertiary phosphine sulphides are relatively stable compounds which undergo atmospheric oxidation only on prolonged exposure, and they are therefore unlike the corresponding selenides and tellurides, which are much more readily oxidized and which also liberate the chalcogen on exposure to light and particularly on contact with surfaces 102

Many of the more powerful oxidizing agents not only convert the P=X grouping (X = S, Se, or Te) into P=O, but also bring about additional, perhaps unwanted, reactions. Thus the action of nitric acid on Ph₃PS yields tris(3-nitrophenyl)phosphine oxide, also obtainable by the direct nitration of Ph_3PO ; other dialkylarylphosphine sulphides behave analogously¹²⁴. The treatment of (R)-(+)-MePhPrPS with HNO₃ at room temperature yields the (S)-(-)-oxide in a highly stereospecific reaction with inversion; when N2O4 is used, there is marked racemization in addition to retention of configuration¹²⁵. KMnO₄ or acid dichromate readily convert P=S into P=O, but simultaneously bring about the oxidation of, for example, alkyl groups attached to aromatic rings. MePhPrPS is oxidized by KMnO₄-pyridine with predominant inversion of configuration at phosphorus. The same phosphine sulphide is oxidized by H₂O₂, and unlike the case of the corresponding selenide, the stereospecificity is here unaffected by experimental conditions such as change of solvent and reaction temperature 126.

$$R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}P = S \xrightarrow{H^{+}} R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}P^{+}SH \xrightarrow{dmso} Me_{2}S - O - P - SH$$

$$R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}P = S \xrightarrow{H^{+}} R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}P^{+}SH \xrightarrow{dmso} Me_{2}S + O = PR^{3}R^{2}R^{1} + S + H^{+}$$

$$SCHEME 13$$

Following earlier proposals by Miko/ajczyk in 1966, Luchenbach also suggested the use of dmso under acidic conditions, and showed that with tertiary phosphine sulphides and, incidentally, tertiary arsine sulphides also, the oxidation proceeded with predominant inversion of configuration (Scheme 13)^{127,128}. This stereochemical outcome was also recognized by Miko/ajczyk in a revision of the earlier conclusions, the reactions being catalysed by acid or iodine (5%)¹²⁹. The reaction, equally applicable to tertiary phosphine selenides^{129,130}, is also catalysed by metalloporphyrins aided by added imidazole¹³¹. Tertiary phosphine selenides are oxidized in high yield by selenoxides (equation 4)¹³² with retention of configuration accompanied by some racemization¹³³.

$$R^{1}Se(O)R^{2} + R^{3}{}_{3}PSe \longrightarrow R^{3}{}_{3}PO + R^{1}SeR^{2} + Se$$
(4)

By contrast to the reactions involving tertiary phosphine sulphides, the stereochemical course of the oxidation of the phosphine selenides with H_2O_2 depends on the solvent system. Net retention of configuration is observed for solutions in MeOH or EtOH, but the introduction of thf to methanolic solutions, or the use of entirely different solvents, e.g. acetone, pyridine, nitromethane or even Bu'OH, leads to inversion of configuration. The effect of reaction temperature then depends, in the case of selenides only, on the particular solvent; stereospecificity for reactions in MeNO₂ is independent of temperature, but for ethanolic solutions a rise in reaction temperature improves the stereospecificity. This is possibly the result of a lowering of the stability of a pentacoordinated intermediate so reducing the time available for stereomutation; the net retention of configuration observed for reactions in primary alcohols has been explained by assuming direct participation of the solvent (Scheme 14)¹²⁶.

SCHEME 14

Other peroxidic substances useful for the oxidation of tertiary phosphine sulphides and selenides include dioxiranes¹³⁴ and bis(trimethylsilyl) peroxide¹³⁵; reactions with the latter reagent are catalysed by AlCl₃ and occur at room temperature, when they are relatively quick for the selenides but slow for sulphides. Photogenerated peroxides oxidize both sulphides and selenides in the presence of Rose Bengal in yields which depend appreciably on the solvent^{136,137}. Ozone, successful in the oxidation of Ph₃PS and Ph₃PSe, reacts with MePhRPS (R = Pr or PhCH₂) with essentially complete retention of configuration^{138,139}.

The synthesis of thiiranes and their selenium analogues from oxiranes also represents the conversion of R_3PX (X=S or Se) into the corresponding oxides; reactions, with high yields, are conducted in the presence of trifluoroacetic acid. By using a variety of oxiranes and Bu_3PSe , evidence has been collected to suggest the intermediacy of pentacoordinate compounds (Scheme 15). Selenium is retained in combined form for reactions involving epoxycyclohexane, and for those with 2-hexyloxirane selenium is liberated only on warming the reaction mixtures 101,140 .

$$\begin{array}{c}
R^{0} \\
R^{0} \\
R^{0}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
R^{1} \\
R^{0} \\
R^{0}
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
R^{0} \\
R^{0} \\
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
R^{0} \\
R^{0} \\
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
R^{0} \\
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c$$

The oxidative removal of sulphur or selenium from the phosphine chalcogenide is also achievable using (CF₃CO)₂O in CH₂Cl₂, in a reaction accelerated by the presence of pyridine. Optically active sulphides suffer complete racemization, selenides with net inversion and a high degree of racemization; however, optically active oxides are also racemized. Pentacoordinate species of the type R₃P(OCOCF₃)(SCOCF₃) are thought to be involved^{141,142}.

The treatment of triarylphosphine sulphides with SOCl₂ at room temperature can give large yields of the phosphine oxide accompanied, in the case of Ph₃PO itself, by ca 25% of Ph₃PCl₂; under different conditions (Section II.D), the latter may be the main product, but even so its formation allows an indirect means of reaching the oxide which may be obtained through several reactions of the dichloride¹⁴³. An additional, but again indirect, procedure for chalcogen interchange consists in the decomposition of quaternary salts R¹₃P⁺SR² X⁻ (Section II.C) with alkali, a reaction explored originally as early as 1907 by Hantzsch⁶⁻⁹.

C. Quaternary Phosphonium Compounds from Phosphine Chalcogenides

Early work by Mann and Watson¹⁴⁴ demonstrated that the treatment of pyridinyl-phosphine sulphides, $Ph_n(2-pyr)_{3-n}PS$, with MeI under sealed-tube conditions (no reaction occurring in boiling benzene) resulted in complete fragmentation of the phosphine sulphide; the products included 2,2'-bipyridinyl bismethiodide together with trimethylsulphonium iodide, when n=2; the former bis(methiodide) was also obtained from $(2-pyr)_3PO$. When n=O, the products were 2,2'-bipyridinyl monomethiodide and trimethyl(2-pyridinyl)phosphonium iodide¹⁴⁴.

In general, alkoxy- and related phosphonium salts of the type 104 are obtainable by either of the two reactions indicated briefly in Scheme 16. Because of the lower nucleophilic power of the P=O group, phosphine oxides would be expected to be the least reactive of the chalcogenides in reaction (a). Normally, reactions of the oxides with simple alkyl halides do not occur, or the resultant salts are unstable, but some others, e.g. $R_3P^+(OSiMe_3)I^-$, from R_3PO (R=Et, Ph, or Me_3SiCH_2) and Me_3SiI , are isolable. Route (b) also generally fails to give isolable products, but such salts with X=O are assumed to have been formed early during the course of Arbuzov reactions. The use of trialkyloxonium salts (Meerwein's salts) $R_3O^+Y^-$, where R is Me or Et and Y^- is PF_6^- , $SbCl_6^-$ or PF_4^- , is advantageous for trialkylphosphine oxides PF_6^- , triarylphosphine oxides PF_6^- or cyclic phosphine oxides PF_6^- , less where, dimethyl sulphate or sulphonic acid esters, e.g. PF_6^- OR (PF_6^- OR), have been employed.

$$R_{3}^{1}PX + R_{2}^{2}Y \xrightarrow{(a)} R_{3}^{1}P_{X}^{2}X^{2}Y^{-} \xleftarrow{(b)} R_{2}^{1}PXR_{2}^{2} + R_{1}^{1}Y$$
(104)

SCHEME 16

Not surprisingly, the formation of similar quaternary phosphonium salts from phosphine sulphides or higher phosphine chalcogenides is easier. Although Ph₃PS does not react with alkyl halides under normal conditions, it does so with trialkyloxonium salts^{109,150}. In the case of more highly 'activated' phosphine sulphides, e.g. tris(2,6-dimethoxyphenyl)phosphine sulphide, direct reaction is feasible with alkyl bromides or iodides in benzene at room temperature to give isolable salts which are thermally stable¹⁰⁹. The phosphole sulphide 105 undergoes slow intramolecular quaternization¹⁵¹. Unusually, Ph₃PS reacts with NO⁺ BF₄⁻ to give the poorly stable salt Ph₃P⁺SSP⁺Ph₃ (BF₄⁻)₂¹⁵². Tertiary phosphine tellurides also react directly with MeI to give isolable methiodides of reasonable thermal stability¹⁵³.

The crystalline salts isolated from reactions between phosphine oxides and phosphoryl or thiophosphoryl halides are thought to have the structure $R_3P^+OP(Y)X_2X^-$ (Y = O or S, X = Cl or Br)¹⁵⁴.

Alkaline hydrolysis of alkoxy- or alkythio-phosphonium salts may, or may not, provide phosphine oxides with retained configuration at phosphorus; the phosphonium salts themselves retain the configuration of the chalcogenide from which they are prepared 107,108 . (S)-(+)-Me(2-Np)PhPO and (S)-(-)-MePhPrPS yield (ethyl)phosphonium salts which, on alkaline hydrolysis, give oxides in which the configuration at phosphorus has been retained; on the other hand, similar treatment of the (ethyl) quaternary salt from (R)-(+)-Bu^tMePhPO affords the oxide with inverted configuration 76 .

D. Quinquevalent Pentacoordinate Compounds (Phosphoranes) from Phosphine Chalcogenides

Like the corresponding oxides, tertiary phosphine sulphides may be converted into the dichlorophosphoranes R₃PCl₂ by the action of hot SOCl₂¹⁴³; other reagents which have been used for the oxides include oxalyl chloride¹⁵⁵, phosgene¹⁵⁶, methyl chloroformate¹⁵⁵ and PCl₅¹⁵⁷.

The analogous difluorophosphoranes have been obtained from the phosphine oxides with SF_4 or EF_3 (E = As or Sb) and by the use of the latter reagents with trialkylphosphine sulphides¹⁵⁸. The reaction shown in equation 5 is also known¹⁵⁹. Difluorophosphoranes are also obtainable from the sulphides by the action of sulphuryl chloride fluoride (Scheme 17)¹⁶⁰.

$$3(C_6F_5)_3P(S) + 2MF_3 \longrightarrow 3(C_6F_5)_3PF_2 + M_2S_3$$
 (5)

The reactions between tertiary phosphine oxides and certain sources of iodine are complicated by the known propensity of phosphorus to form ionic polyhalides. The reactions between PI₅ and tricyclohexyl- and triphenyl-phosphine oxides have been investigated in some detail¹⁶¹. Tricyclohexylphosphine oxide yields Cy₃PI₂ together with POI₃ on the pathway to Cy₃P⁺I I₃⁻, and futher reaction between the latter and POI₃ furnishes more of the diiodophosphorane. Polyiodides up to and including the heptaiodide have been identified in the product mixtures the compositions of which depend on the ratios of reactants (equations 6 and 7).

$$R_{3}P(S) + SO_{2}FCl \longrightarrow R_{3}P^{+}SCl SO_{2}F^{-} \xrightarrow{-SO_{2}} R_{3}P^{+}F SCl^{-}$$

$$\xrightarrow{SO_{2}FCl} R_{3}PF_{2} + SCl_{2} + S + SO_{2}$$
SCHEME 17

$$2Ph_3P(O) + PI_5 \longrightarrow 2Ph_2PI_2 + 1/n(PO_2I)_n$$
 (6)

$$2Ph_3P(O) + 3PI_5 \longrightarrow 2(Ph_3P^+I)I_3^- + 2PI_3 + 1/n(PO_2I)_n$$
 (7)

A simple dioxyphosphorane has been identified spectroscopically as a product from the interaction of tris(trifluoromethyl)phosphine oxide and hexamethyldisiloxane (Scheme 18). Chemical identification followed from its ready transformation into trimethylsilyl bis(trifluoromethyl)phosphinate¹⁶².

$$(CF_3)_3P(O) + (Me_3Si)_2O \longrightarrow (CF_3)_3P(OSiMe_3)_2 \longrightarrow (CF_3)_2P(O)OSIMe_3$$

SCHEME 18

The formation of other oxyphosphoranes depends on the proximity of the phosphoryl bond to other oxygen-containing functions, generally carboxyl or hydroxyl. Such appropriate closeness can arise when suitable phosphines are oxidized, as in Scheme 19 where, for the phosphine 106, O-protection in the aromatic substituents prevents the formation of a phosphorane, and in Scheme 20, where acidification of the salts 108 leads, by spontaneous dehydration of the liberated dicarboxylic acid, to the oxyphosphorane 109163 165

SCHEME 19

(109) R=Me, Ph or 2-HOOCC6H4

SCHEME 20

The conversion of a phosphine oxide into an oxyphosphorane by dehydration may be spontaneous, or it may be brought about in the ways shown in reactions 8¹⁶³ and 9¹⁶⁴.

The reaction between methyl 2-(diphenylphosphinoyl)benzoate and MeMgI (Scheme 2) yields the tertiary alcohol 6 which, when treated with NaH, yields the alkoxide 8, which exists largely in the pentacoordinate form, 7. On the other hand, the alcohol 6 is the main tautomer in the equilibration with the cyclic form 55.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & OH \\
 & OH \\
 & -H_2O \\
 & OH
\end{array}$$

$$(8)$$

Acidification of the lithium salt obtained (Scheme 21) from the treatment of 5-(2'-bromobiphenyl)yl-5*H*-dibenzophosphole 5-oxide with BuLi fails to liberate a free hydroxyphosphorane, yielding instead a symmetrical phosphonium salt¹⁶⁶.

SCHEME 21

In an example of the formation of a pentacoordinate compound from a phosphine oxide, the oxide 110 when acted upon by SOCl₂ yields a mixed P^V-quaternary ammonium salt possessing a 'butterfly' structure (111)¹⁶⁷. Finally, the reader is reminded that pentacoordinate species based on the 1,3,2-oxaselenaphospholane system have been detected spectroscopically during the reactions between tertiary phosphine selenides and epoxides (Section II.B).

7. Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides

III. REACTIONS OF THE ORGANIC LIGANDS

A. Oxidation

Amongst the oxidation processes associated with the organic ligands of tertiary phosphine chalcogenides, four are recognized as being of significance. They are (1) oxidative cleavage of carbon—carbon multiple bonds, (2) oxidation of groups attached to aromatic nuclei, (3) epoxidation and (4) oxygen insertion.

The oxidative cleavage of carbon—carbon multiple bonds is well illustrated by the use of KMnO₄-NaIO₃ to oxidize allyldiphenylphosphine oxide to diphenylphosphinoylacetic acid, and the use of ozone followed by H₂O₂ to cleave diallylphenylphosphine oxide to PhP(O)(CH₂COOH)₂¹⁶⁸. A similar oxidation of diphenyl(phenylethynyl)phosphine oxide yields benzoic acid and diphenylphosphinoylformic acid, the latter then being rapidly cleaved to diphenylphosphinic acid 168. A useful extension in the process is the cleavage of carbon—carbon double bonds bridging large rings systems as represented in equation 10; in this way, derivatives of even larger phosphacycloalkanes can be obtained 169.

$$(\bigcirc_{n})_{\text{Me}})_{\text{Me}})_{\text{Me}}$$
 (10)

The oxidation of alkyl, and related, substituents on aromatic rings may be carried out successfully using KMnO₄-pyridine; when the resultant carboxyl groups are situated ortho to the phosphoryl group, mutual interaction might occur to afford products of a pentacoordinated nature (Scheme 20). When the substituents are situated para to a phosphoryl group, cyclization does not occur. Oxidation of alkyl substituents has also been carried out with derivatives of, for example, the 5H-dibenzophosphole and dibenzo[b,e]phosphorin systems.

Normally, when similar phosphine sulphides are so treated, the resultant products are essentially phosphine oxides, but one example, viz. 4-diphenylphosphinothioylbenzyl alcohol, has been recorded for which oxidation by CrO₃-pyridine afforded the aromatic aldehyde with no attack on the thiophosphoryl group¹⁷⁰.

Epoxidation accompanies oxidative cleavage when the 2-(diphenylphosphinoyl)phospholene 1-oxide 112 is treated with aibn⁶⁰. Some early observations on the epoxidation process itself are of interest. Initial success in the first reported epoxidation of a 3-phospholene, using peroxyacetic acid or monoperoxyphthalic acid, was not matched with examples of 2-phospholenes^{171,172}, although these findings have since been challenged³³. A possibly related phenomenon is the finding that diphenylvinyl-

$$H_2C$$
 Me
 $P(O)Ph_2$
 Ph
 $P(O)Ph_2$
 Ph
 Ph
 Ph

phosphine oxide is resistant to peroxy acids¹²⁶ whereas oxides substituted on the vinyl group are readily epoxidized (equation 11)¹⁷³.

Ph₂P

$$R^1$$
 R^2
 CF_3COOOH
 CH_2CI_2
 R^1
 R^2
 R^2
 R^1
 R^2
 R^2
 R^2
 R^1
 R^2
 R^2
 R^2
 R^3
 R^2
 R^3
 R^2
 R^3
 $R^$

The epoxidation of allylic phosphine oxides by mCPBA is thought to proceed in a manner summarized in Scheme $22^{174,176}$. The stereochemistry of the process is thought to be controlled by the chiral centre at the carbon α to phosphorus, and rationalized by the transition state; the yields are very high, with stereospecificities of from 4:1 to 10:1. For δ -OH homoallylic oxides, the stereochemical control originates in the hydroxyl group with the stereoisomeric ratios being greater for one diastereoisomer (10–13:1) as opposed to the other (1.3–2.7:1); equations 12 and 13 indicate the main products of the reactions. The stereochemistry of the epoxides has been confirmed by X-ray diffraction studies 175.

$$\begin{array}{c} Ph_2P \\ R^3 \\ R^4 \\ R^5 \\ R^6 \\ R^6$$

SCHEME 22

The stereochemistry of epoxidation has also been investigated using a series of 2- and 3-phospholenes³³. 3-Methyl-3-phospholene 1-oxide itself, and 3-phospholenes fused to cyclopentano or cyclohexano rings on the b or c bonds, are epoxidized with mCPBA stereospecifically. When the cycloalkano group is fused to the b bond of a 2-phospholene, the epoxidation reaction also occurs readily but the orientation of the epoxide ring relative to the phosphoryl group is opposite to that experienced for the 3-phospholanes (Scheme 23).

Epoxidation of the 8-phosphabicyclo[3.2.1]oct-6-enes (113) (R = Me or Ph) with mCPBA is slow and yields the β -epoxides 114 accompanied by other products identified as oxygen insertion compounds (cyclic phosphinic esters) 115 and the α -epoxy compound 116 when R = Ph. Epoxidation of the phosphorus epimer of 113 (R = Me) is faster, taking place effectively at room temperature with an identical relationship between epoxide group and geometry of ring fusion 117,178.

Phosphorus-containing ring systems in which the internal CCC angles are particularly constrained, e.g. the phosphetanes, undergo a Baeyer-Villiger-like insertion of oxygen between phosphorus and the carbon atom carrying fewer substituents (Equation 14a); here, 117 is the main product. The reaction occurs in the four-membered ring rather than in the less constrained five- or six-membered ring; thus 118 is obtained from 66, and 119 reacts sequentially as indicated in equation 14b¹⁷⁹.

The oxygen insertion has been formulated mechanistically in Scheme 24^{179} . Scheme 25 outlines an application of the reaction which yields products having synthetic usefulness (Section V); cycloalkanones yield lactones and again the stereochemical control appears to depend on the stereochemistry at the α -carbon¹⁸⁰.

SCHEME 25

In the 7-phosphanorbornadiene system, oxygen insertion occurs readily and regiospecifically at the phosphorus bridge to give the compounds 123. When the carbon skeleton is fully saturated, as in 124, the insertion occurs non-regiospecifically to give a 1:1 mixture of the isomeric phosphinic ester 125 and 126. Kashman and Awerbouch¹⁷⁸ were unable to carry out the insertion reaction with the saturated compound 127 and they also failed with examples of the 8-phosphabicyclo[3.2.1]octane series. 4-Methyl-4-(diphenylphosphinoyl)pentan-2-one also fails in the Baeyer-Villiger process¹⁸¹.

Other oxidation processes have received much less attention, but there are no apparent reasons why such processes should not occur in any manner other than that expected; thus, the secondary OH function in 3-hydroxy-2-phospholene 1-oxides is readily oxidised to the carbonyl group by CrO_3 -pyridine with retention of optical activity¹⁷², and the Jones reagent has been used for the same purpose for compounds in the 8-phosphabicyclo[3.2.1]octane series¹⁷⁷.

B. Reduction

Hydrogenation of isolated double bonds in acyclic compounds such as diphenyl-(2-phenylethenyl)phosphine oxide or in cyclic systems, e.g. 8-methyl-8-phosphabicyclo-[3.2.1]octene 1-oxide¹⁷⁷, or in the tricyclic system 128¹⁸² occurs readily in the presence of ruthenium, palladium or platinum catalysts. In the case of the last compound, the dihydro compound has *cis* geometry at the ring fusion; further reduction of the methoxyphenyl group in 129 is possible under Birch conditions, when the phosphoryl group remains unchanged.

Hydrogenolysis at 100–200 atm and 100 °C in the presence of platinum reduces phenyl compounds to the cyclohexyl analogues, for example tribenzylphosphine oxide yields tris(cyclohexylmethyl)phosphine oxide^{45,183}; a potential drawback to the process is the possible elimination of halogen from the initial aromatic ring. Polarographic reduction of phosphorylvinyl groups is accompanied by dimerization, and diphenylvinyl-phosphine oxide itself afford 1,4-bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)butane.

Ketone groups in ring systems containing phosphorus atoms can be reduced by conventional means, e.g. through a dithioketal intermediate. Partial reduction of carbonyl

(ketone) groups to secondary alcohol functions is readily achieved using NaBH₄ and is of importance in the Horner reaction (Section V). The phosphoryl group is stable to the action of borohydride during the reduction of ring carbonyl groups in the preparation of the dialcohol 130, which is of interest since it is a precursor to the unusual dibenzophosphonin ring system¹⁸⁴.

The widespread use of LiAlH₄ for the modification of organic ligands is rendered complicated by its ability to also remove the phosphoryl oxygen and give the parent phosphine although this could then be re-oxidized. The extent of its success in the reduction of the C=C bond in 3-methyl-1-phenyl-2-phospholene 1-oxide without at the same time removing P=O depends on the experimental conditions; relatively lower temperatures favour selective, but by no means specific, reduction of the C=C bond¹⁸⁵.

When treated with LiAlH₄, diaryl- and dialkyl-(alkynyl)phosphine sulphides yield the 1-alkenylphosphines in the *trans* form, which then undergo isomerization to the *cis* form. Deutcriation experiments demonstrate the initial addition of H^- (or D^-) to $C_{(2)}$ in a normal Michael fashion. Such phosphine sulphides are stable to NaBH₄, even in boiling thf, but the corresponding oxides are reduced to the *trans* olefinic phosphine oxide¹⁸⁶.

C. Dehydration: Phosphinoyl Carbocations

The diphenylphosphinoyl group appears to activate a process of spontaneous dehydration under appropriate conditions; thus the diketone Ph₂P(O)CH(COPh)CH₂COPh, presumably through its dienol, dehydrates to 2,5-diphenyl-3-diphenylphosphinoylfuran during crystallization. Dehydration of 1-(diethylphosphinothioyl)-1-hydroxycyclohexane has been reported to occur during its distillation¹⁸⁷. Powerful dchydrating agents such as KHSO₄ and P₄O₁₀ fail to dehydrate Bu₂P(S)C(OH)Me₂, and the compound readily dccomposes into its precursors, dibutylphosphine sulphide and acetone.

The diol 130 is dehydrated when treated with POCl₃-pyridine and affords cis, trans-1-phenyldibenzophosphonin 1-oxide; although dehydration of the 1-methyl compound may similarly be achieved, the stereochemistry of the product appears, as

yet, to be unknown¹⁸¹.

Extensive investigations have been carried out by Warren¹⁸⁸ into the dehydration of phosphinoylated alcohols in which the phosphinoyl group is placed β to the OH group, and hence to the site of cation formation under acidic conditions. Onc of the more important reactions accompanying the dehydration of the alcohol, or the solvolysis of an ester, e.g. a sulphonate, with tosOH or tfa in a solvent at either ambient temperature or at the boil, consists in the migration of the diphenylphosphinoyl group from the α -carbon atom (the migration origin) to an adjoining carbocationic site (the migration terminus). The roles of the two sites and their influence on the migrating ability of the phosphinoyl group, or indeed of any other nearby group, have been explored in a systematic manner. Although, in some cases, quenching of the reaction mixtures allows the isolation of an isomeric alcohol, the product(s) normally isolated consist of alkenes. Subject to the availability of an appropriately sited proton, these are either vinyl- or allyl-phosphine oxides; in practice the former are obtained comparatively rarely.

An example of the migration from a tertiary carbon origin to a primary carbocationic site occurs during the solvolysis, using formic acid at 120 °C, of the tosylate 131 of a primary alcohol, and which proceeds through a 'low-energy' cation. Here, the unstable primary cation does not isomerize through methyl group migration (Scheme 26), (132 to 133), but rather by phosphinoyl migration, (132 to 134), the product being the vinylphosphine oxide 135. On the other hand, presumably the same, or a very similar, carbocation is formed when the primary amine 137 is diazotized, but the eventual products then consist of mixtures of the vinyl- and allyl-phosphine oxides 135 and 136,

together with some of the alcohol 138 and traces of the cyclopropylphosphine oxide 139¹⁸¹.

Scheme 27 depicts migrations from a substrate possessing a tertiary migration origin coupled with a secondary migration terminus. Essentially, dehydration or solvolysis of

140 provides the initial carbocation 141, which can isomerize by phosphinoyl migration to the relatively unstable carbocation 143 (positive charge adjacent to the electronegative phosphinoyl group) leading to products B, or it can isomerize by methyl

migration to the isomeric cation 142 to give products A.

Not surprisingly, it has been argued that the choice, or balance, between the two routes represented in Scheme 27 will depend on electronic factors, in particular the relative stabilities of the carbocations 142 and 143 (and indeed 141)¹⁸⁹. For the solvolysis of the ester 140 ($X = R^1 = Me$; Y = tos), the preferred choice is the formation of the cation 143, with the observed formation of the allylic phosphine oxide 144 (R = Me) rather than a vinylic isomer. However, a conformational argument based on the preferred antiperiplanarity of the relatively large $Ph_2P(O)$ and OTos groups in the most highly populated conformer (with a resultant boost to phosphinoyl migration) cannot be excluded. This latter argument has received some indirect support from the observation that the tosylate of 3-methyl-3-(methylphenylphosphinoyl)butan-2-ol undergoes solvolysis in acetic or formic acid with retention of configuration at phosphorus but with inversion of configuration at the migration terminus; the migration is thus pictured as a concerted process (Scheme 28) with very little epimerization 190 . The structure of the final olefinic product was confirmed by an X-ray crystallographic investigation.

When, in 140, $X = CH_2R^2$ ($R^2 = Me$ or Bu) and $R^1 = Me$ or Ph, acidolysis of the alcohol (Y = H) yields a mixture of the E and Z forms (in a ratio >9:1) of the allylic phosphine oxide 146 via the carbocation 145, but none of the allylic isomer 147 nor of an isomeric vinylphosphine oxide, was obtained 191. When, however, $X = Pr^i$, acidolysis then afforded the allylic phosphine oxide 148, i.e. a phosphine oxide of type 147, although for $R^1 = Me$ prolonged treatment with tosOH led to some isomerization to the more highly substituted alkene 149¹⁹¹. However, when the was used as the acid catalyst, a further complicating feature then arose, viz. a double migration; this, consisting of a phosphinoyl migration followed by a hydride shift, led, following quenching, to the isomeric tertiary alcohol 150 (Scheme 29).

SCHEME 29

Tfa also brings about rapid dehydration of the secondary alcohols 140 (X = Me; Y = H) to give the allylic phosphine oxides 144, which then isomerize to the more highly substituted alkene, in this case of the vinylic type. Dissolution of 140 (X = Me; R = Ph; Y = H) in 98% H₂SO₄, followed by quenching, yields 150 (R = Ph). With a primary alkyl group at the migration terminus, as in 140 (R = Me, Et or Pr), tosOH yields 150 as the only products¹⁹².

The picture regarding the migratory abilities of the diphenylphosphinoyl and alkyl(methyl) groups begins to change with an increase in the complexity of the alkyl group R^1 in 140 (X = Me; Y = H). Thus, acid-catalysed dehydration of 151 (R = H) (i.e. 140, $R^1 = Pr^i$; X = Me; Y = H) yields only 154 (Scheme 30). Scheme 30 also indicates the various possible products which may be obtained from 151 (R = Me) (i.e. 140; $R^1 = Bu^i$; X = Me; Y = H); treatment of the latter alcohol with H_3PO_4 at ambient temperature affords 90% of the isomeric alcohol 153 (R = Me)¹⁹³. When 151 (R = Me) is treated with tosOH in benzene, there are produced 50% 155 (R = Me) and 27% 153 (R = Me), both obtained through the carbocation 152 (R = Me) and Me migration, in addition to 18% of the alkene 154 (R = Me), the product of phosphinoyl migration. Thus, for the alcohol 140 ($R^1 = Bu^i$, X = Me, Y = H), Me migration more than satisfactorily competes with phosphorus migration P^1

In an attempt to obtain a truer comparison of the migrating abilities of the Me and $Ph_2P(O)$ groups, Howells and Warren¹⁹³ prepared the two bis(diphenylphosphinoyl) compounds 151 [R = Ph_2PO or $Ph_2P(O)CH_2$]. When acidolysed in buffered acetic acid, the mesylate of the former gave 155 (R = Ph_2PO and 153 (R = Ph_2PO) in the ratio 9:1;

7. Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides

SCHEME 30

the latter alcohol dehydrates rapidly at ambient temperature to give the corresponding 156. Under the same conditions, the second mesylate gave 70% of 154 (R = Ph₂PO) by phosphinoyl migration and 25% 157 (R = Ph₂PO) by Me migration¹⁹³.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & \text{Me} \\
 & \text{Ph}_2P \\
 & \text{Me} \\
 & \text{H}_2C \\
 & \text{PPh}_2 \\
 & \text{O} \\
 & \text{(157)}
\end{array}$$

$$Ph_2P$$
 Ph_2P Ph_2

Tfa dehydrates the alcohol 158 (R = Ph) to give only 159 (R = Ph), but with tosOH a 1:9 mixture of 159 and 160 (R = Ph) is formed. The alcohol 158 (R = Me) is similarly dehydrated to a mixture of 159 and 160 (R = Me) in the ratio 2.5:1. The formation of the compounds 160 represents one of the comparatively few examples of the formation of vinylphosphine oxides from β -hydroxyalkylphosphine oxides by dehydration. The cyclobutane derivatives behave similarly, and the proportion of vinylphosphine oxide increases with the duration of the reaction contact time¹⁹².

Within this group of substrates in which phosphinoyl migration from a tertiary origin centre to a secondary site might occur, evidence has been obtained which certainly points to the existence of conformational control. The isomeric tosylates 161 when solvolysed yield the isomeric phosphinoyl cyclohexenes 162 and 163 with no evidence for either Me or Ph₂PO migration.

The presence of other functional groups is not restrictive to the migration of the diphenylphosphinoyl group. When treated with tfa, the alcohol 140 ($R^1 = Ph$; X = OMe; Y = H) yields the methyl ketone 164 (R = Ph) only. 3-(Diphenylphosphinoyl)butan-2-one (164; R = Me) is the only product obtained from 140 ($R^1 = Me$; X = OMe; Y = tos-p); on the other hand, when $R^1 = Pr^i$, both 164 and 165 ($R = Pr^i$) are formed in the reaction in buffered acetic acid 194.

Slight structural modifications also bring about changes to the dehydration reaction course for the sulphides 166 (Scheme 31). Phosphinoyl migration appears to be the sole pathway for 166 ($R^1 = Me$; $R^2 = R^3 = Ph$), with 167 being the product, whereas the allylic olefins 168 and 169 are obtained from 166 ($R^1 = R^3 = Me$; $R^2 = Ph$) through migration of the PhS group, a process which also has useful synthetic potential Migrations of the MeS group have also been recorded 188,194.

A special case exists when both migration origin and migration terminus are tertiary units (Scheme 32). The use of a deuterium-labelled substrate (170) has demonstrated equilibrium between the two carbocations 171 and 172, and the overall reaction is very fast, occurring even during acylations under very mild conditions ^{191,195}.

Reactions 15 and 16 exemplify phosphinoyl migrations from secondary carbon origins 191 . Here in reaction 15, the vinylphosphine oxide is not obtained when for 173 $R^1 = R^2 = Me$, but both vinyl- and allyl-phosphine oxides are obtained, in equal amounts, when $R^1 = Et$. A similar situation is found for reaction 16^{196} . In neither of these reaction systems is phosphinoyl migration observed.

Warren's group also examined the behaviour of several silicon-containing phosphinoylated alcohols under acidolysis conditions; such substrates would be of interest since the silyl group can effectively act simply as a protecting group (Scheme 33)¹⁹¹. Following the action of tfa on the alcohol 174, the nature of the product(s) is dependent on the reaction conditions. At ambient temperature phosphinoyl migration is followed

SCHEME 31

SCHEME 32

$$Ph_{2}P$$

$$HO X$$

$$Y = H \text{ or } SPh$$

$$V = SPh$$

$$V = SPh$$

by desilylation, whereas at the higher temperature, desilylation to 175 evidently precedes phosphinoyl migration, and the product is an isomeric allylphosphine oxide (compare Scheme 27).

SCHEME 33

The group R in structure 176 is a controlling feature for the reactions of such compounds (Scheme 34), a single alkene being obtained when R = Me or Ph, but when R = Et a mixture of 177 (R = Et) and 178 is obtained in the ratio 2:1¹⁹¹.

D. Halogenation

The reaction between benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide and tert-butyl hypochlorite affords 36°_{o} of the α -chlorobenzyldiphenylphosphine oxide in what is, presumably, a free-radical process; the α -bromo compound is similarly prepared and is also obtainable from α -diazobenzyldiphenylphosphine oxide and HBr in benzene. Other reported brominations of acyclic phosphine oxides using the same reagent include that of diphenyl-(2-phenylethyl)phosphine oxide in which substitution evidently occurs on $C_{(2)}$. The same mixture of stereoisomeric 4-bromo-1-phenyl-2-phospholene 1-oxides is obtained from isomeric 1-phenylphospholene 1-oxides (Scheme 35)¹⁹⁷.

Direct bromination of the dihydrophosphepin 1-oxide 179 evidently occurs at the two allylic methylene positions to yield an unstable intermediate which extrudes phosphorus as PhPO and leaves dimethyl 3,4-dibromophthalate (Scheme 36)¹⁹⁸. In the presence of dibenzoyl peroxide, nbs brominates 2-phenylisophosphindoline 2-oxide (180); the products (equation 17) consist of a mixture of isomeric and stereoisomeric mono- and di-bromo derivatives of which the monobromo compound 181, following dehydrobromination, serves as the precursor in the synthesis of bridged compounds in the 7-norbornene series by cycloaddition reactions (Section III.H.3)¹⁹⁹. Stereoisomeric α -mono- and α,α' -dibromo derivatives of dibenzylphenylphosphine oxide (182) (R¹ = R² = Ph)²⁰⁰ and of 182 (R¹ = Ph, R² = SOPh)²⁰¹ have been obtained following bromination with bromine/nbs in pyridine or with bromine in CCl₄ at 150 °C. Analogous chloro derivatives of the oxides 182 (R¹ = Bu^t or Ph, R² = Bu^t) may be prepared by reaction with BuLi followed by CCl₄^{200,202}.

3-Oxo-1-phenylphospholane 1-oxide is brominated by nbs in a process akin to that encountered for acetone, and the brominated enol form, 2-bromo-3-hydroxy-1-phenyl-2-phospholene 1-oxide, is obtained²⁰³. Other halogenation and related reactions occurring by addition mechanisms are described later (Section III.H).

SCHEME 36

E. Dehydrohalogenation

Standard 1,2-elimination reactions have been performed on a variety of halogenated phosphine oxides using sodium alkoxides, thioalkoxides or, better, tertiary amines, to yield *trans*-alkenes (Scheme 37)²⁰⁴. Similar products have been obtained by the pyrolysis of acetate esters (equation 18).

$$(CICH_{2}CH_{2})_{3}PO \xrightarrow{3 \text{ NaOEt}} (H_{2}C=CH)_{3}PO \xrightarrow{NaOEt} H_{2}C=CHP(O)(CH_{2}CH_{2}CI)_{2} + (H_{2}C=CH)_{2}P(O)CH_{2}CH_{2}CI$$

$$(CICH_{2}CH_{2})_{2}P(O)CH_{2}CI \xrightarrow{\text{NEt}_{3}} CICH_{2}P(O)(CH=CH_{2})_{2}$$

$$SCHEME 37$$

$$(AcOCH_{2}CH_{2})_{2}P(O)CH_{2}OAc \xrightarrow{\text{heat}} (H_{2}C=CH)_{2}P(O)OAc$$

$$(18)$$

Other dehydrohalogenation reactions may be followed by rapid modification of the product, e.g. by the dimerization of the benzo[c]phosphole oxide (183) to give 85 (X = O), and the same reactive species can also be trapped by other dieneophiles^{84,159} or through non-cycloaddition processes (equation 19)⁷⁴.

In the dehydrobromination of the dibromophosphonanedione oxides 184 (R = Me or Ph) with Et₃N, a normal 1,2-elimination is accompanied by a transannular process to give the fused system 185¹⁸¹. The elimination of hydrogen halide from monohalogenated

but otherwise symmetrical phosphine oxides leads to phosphiranes together with acyclic elimination products (equation 20)^{201,202}. Here, the choice of base is critical. The best yields in the cyclization are achieved by the use of LiNEt₂ in Et₂O at -60 to +10 °C, and with the minimum of elimination to alkenephosphine oxide and reductive dehalogenation. By contrast, little if any phosphirane is obtained when lithium 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidide in Et₂O or thf at -78 to +35 °C is used, and when reductive dehalogenation is at a maximum.

F. Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution

An early demonstration of the position that an electrophile occupies on entering an aromatic ring directly attached to the phosphoryl group in a phosphine oxide, was made

by Challenger and Wilkinson who, in 1924, showed that the product from the nitration of triphenylphosphine oxide was tris(3-nitrophenyl)phosphine oxide, obtained originally by the same process by Michaelis in 1885, although without characterization 6-9. The later identification consisted of reduction to tris(3-aminophenyl)phosphine oxide followed by diazotization and a Sandmever conversion into tris(3-chlorophenyl)phosphine oxide, identified by alternative synthesis. We thus have an early indication of the electronwithdrawing activity of the phosphoryl group. Similar procedures have been followed to show the marked preponderance of meta substitution during the nitration of bis-(chloromethyl)phenylphosphine oxide and methyldiphenylphosphine oxide. Appreciable ortho substitution may also occur during conventional nitration. Thus, for the oxides $R_2P(O)Ph$, when R = Me. Et or Pr^i , the ratios of meta to ortho substitution are 90:10, 93:7 and 99:1, respectively: when R = CH₂Cl, only meta substitution was observed (see above)²⁰⁵. Russian workers obtained similar results with other simple oxides and noted that the corresponding phosphine sulphides gave the same products and product ratios. However, as might be expected, nitration of dialkyl(benzyl)phosphine oxides gave the dialkyl(4-nitrobenzyl)phosphine oxides¹²⁴.

Elsewhere, meta substitution has been assumed in nitration, sulphonation²⁰⁶ and chloromethylation²⁰⁷. A recent study has demonstrated meta-sulphonation when triphenylphosphine oxide, or the sulphide, is dissolved in oleum, although in the case of the oxide the actual meta-directing group might then be P^+ — OH^{208} .

Although chloromethylation appears to be the only example thus far recorded of intermolecular alkylation of an aromatic ring directly attached to the phosphoryl group, and thus far to be of little interest, intramolecular alkylation is a process important in the synthesis of polycyclic phosphine oxides²⁰⁹. The alkylating function may consist, initially. of an olefinic bond or a hydroxyl group. In the reactions exemplified in Scheme 38 the cyclizations were achieved using polyphosphoric acid at 150–200 °C²¹⁰.

Two groups have synthesized tricyclic phosphine oxides using the methodology. Warren and coworkers started with 186 ($R^3 = H$), which yields the phosphindoline oxide 187 when treated with 98% H_3PO_4 ; further metallation, treatment with isobutyraldehyde and cyclization afforded 188 ($R^3 = H$)²¹¹. A similar sequence starting with 186 ($R^3 = Me$) proceeds through an inseparable mixture (189) of intermediates, although this provides no obstacle to the successful synthesis of 188 ($R^3 = Me$)⁵⁷.

SCHEME 38

The phosphine sulphide 190 is acted on by ppa at $140-150\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ to give a 3:1 mixture of the phosphindoline oxide 191 and the corresponding sulphide. The phosphine oxide 192, obtained through the isomerization of 190 with MeSO₃H-P₄O₁₀ at ambient temperature, loses H₂S when heated with ppa, and affords 191 only²¹².

Acidity data for ω -phosphinoyl-alkanecarboxylic acids²¹³⁻²¹⁵ and -benzoic acids²¹⁶, and also for other compounds, demonstrate the strong electron-withdrawing ability of the R₂P(X) group (X = O or S), also proved by the course of electrophilic aromatic substitutions. If, in the latter, a carbocationic site is generated near to an aromatic ring distant from the phosphinoyl group, then it is that aromatic ring which will, in preference, react with the carbocation (Scheme 39)²¹¹. The deactivation is such that even an isolated carbon—carbon double bond will react in preference to the phosphinoyl-deactivated benzene ring (reaction 21).

Friedel-Crafts arylation of phospholene derivatives has been accomplished readily (Scheme 40) using AlCl₃ as catalyst, although such reactions fail to occur in the presence of BF₃, SnCl₄, HCl or H₃PO₄²¹⁷.

G. Nucleophilic Substitution

Hydroxymethylphosphine oxides are converted into the corresponding chloromethyl compounds through reaction with SOCl₂ or PCl₅. The chloromethyl group is then reactive towards a wide range of nucleophiles. Reaction with dialkylamines is straightforward²¹⁸, as is that with the sodium salt of imidazole, or other azoles in the presence of KOBu^t, although tautomerism may then be the cause of mixed product formation (reaction 22)²¹⁹.

Reactions involving thiolate anions²¹⁸, alkoxide anions²¹⁸ or azides²²⁰ are also without apparent problems. The chloromethyl group undergoes Arbuzov reactions with suitable esters of tervalent phosphorus acids as exemplified by reaction 23²²¹; tertiary phosphines yield (phosphinoylmethyl)phosphonium salts²²². The chlorine is replaceable by certain carboxylate (generally aromatic) anions (reaction 24) and in some cases straightforwardly by aryloxide anions (equation 25)^{223,224}.

$$(PhCH2)2P(O)CH2Cl + (PhCH2)2POEt \longrightarrow (PhCH2)2P(O)CH2P(O)(CH2Ph)2 (23)$$

$$(ClCH_2)_3PO \xrightarrow{PhCOONa} (PhCOOCH_2)_3PO$$
 (24)

$$MeP(O)(CH2CI)2 ONo ONo Me$$
(25)

$$(PhCH2)2P(0)CH2CI \xrightarrow{PhO^{-}} PhCH2$$

$$PhCH2P(0)CH2CI + (PhCH2)2P(0)CH2OPh$$

$$PhCH2PhO^{-} PhCH2PCH2CHPh$$

$$OPh$$

$$PhCH2PCH2CHPh$$

$$OPh$$

$$ROH$$

PhCH2P(O)(OR)CH2CH2Ph

SCHEME 41

Other displacements by aryloxide anions may result in complications with the formation of 'normal' and rearranged products (Scheme 41)²¹⁸. A novel reaction between bis(chloromethyl)phosphine oxides and Me₃SiONa has been afforded a similar interpretation involving initial deprotonation (Scheme 42)²²⁵.

$$(CICH2)2P(0)R$$

$$(R = CICH2 or Ph)$$

$$O$$

$$R$$

$$CICH2CI$$

$$R$$

$$CH=CH2CI$$

$$Me3SiO$$

$$CH=CH2CI$$

$$Me3SiO$$

$$R$$

$$SCHEME 42$$

The halogen in 2- and 1-chloroethyl groups can be replaced directly (reaction 26)²²⁶ or by consecutive elimination—addition processes as in reactions 27²²² and 28²⁰⁴. The results of an investigation¹⁹⁷ into displacements of a halogen attached to a phospholane ring are summarized in Scheme 43; the type of product depended on the nature of the attacking nucleophile. Observed nucleophilic displacements have not been restricted to those of halogen from sp³ carbon, but include those of other groups, e.g. sulphonate anions (reaction 29)²²⁷.

$$R_2P(O)CH_2CH_2CI + (EtO)_2PSSNa \longrightarrow R_2P(O)CH_2CH_2SP(S)(OEt)_2$$
 (26)

$$Ph_2P(O)C_6H_4CHClMe-4 + MeOH \longrightarrow Ph_2P(O)C_6H_4CHMe(OMe)-4$$
 (27)

$$(ClCH2CH2)2P(O)CH2Cl \xrightarrow{2RXNa} (RXCH2CH2)2P(O)CH2Cl$$
(28)

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}Otos + Ph_{3}P \longrightarrow Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}P^{+}Ph_{3}tosO^{-}$$
(29)

Reactions in which the functionalized phosphine oxide itself acts as the nucleophile include those reactions of hydroxyalkyl- and aminoalkyl-phosphine oxides towards acylating agents. Tris(hydroxymethyl)phosphine oxide is best acylated with the acyl chloride in PhNO₂, and attempts to acetylate tris(2-hydroxyethyl)phosphine oxide with ketene, acetyl chloride or acetic acid all failed, although the use of acetic anhydride was successful²⁰⁴. Aminoalkylphosphine oxides form the customary derivatives in their interactions with acyl halides, ureas, isocyanates²²⁸ and ketenes²²⁹. Cyclic phosphaketones can be acylated on oxygen through their enol forms²⁰³ or on carbon through an enamine intermediate (Scheme 44)²³⁰.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
O & O & O \\
\hline
N & (RCO)_2O \\
\hline
R = Me, Et
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
O & O \\
\parallel CR \\
\hline
CR \\
Ph
\end{array}$$

SCHEME 44

Tris(4-chlorophenyl)phosphine oxide is unreactive towards aqueous or ethanolic alkali, ammonia or aniline, but the positioning of NO₂ groups *ortho* to Cl renders the compounds increasingly reactive to these and similar nucleophiles^{206,231}. Aromatic halogen (Cl, F) para to a phosphinoyl group is displaceable by MeO⁻ and the kinetics of the process for a series of 4-(dialkylphosphinoyl)-1-halogenobenzenes have been determined^{222,232}. Methoxy groups in several 3- and 4-methoxyphenylphosphine oxides have been demethylated using 48% aqueous HBr, 50% aqueous HI or HBr in acetic acid.

MeNH₂ displaces only a para fluorine atom from either diphenylphosphinoyl- or diphenylphosphinothioyl-pentafluorobenzene in EtOH; in benzene, ortho substitution also occurs when, for the oxide, the ortho:para ratio is 46:54, whereas for the sulphide it occurs when the ratio is 82:18. With NaOMe in MeOH, ortho and para substitution again both occur for both oxide and sulphide; additionally, however, the sulphide undergoes phosphorus—carbon bond cleavage to give methyl diphenylphosphinothioate^{233,234}.

Phosphinoyl-substituted benzoic acids, conveniently obtained by the permanganate oxidation of tolylphosphine oxides, can be transformed via the acid chlorides into amides, aldehydes and alcohols¹⁷⁰. Phosphinoylarylamines provide phosphinoyl isocyanates and thus phosphinoyl-ureas and -urethanes²³⁵. Bis(carboxyphenyl)phosphine oxides in their reactions with α,ω -alkanediamines yield phosphine oxide-based polyamides of type 193, and the related polyamides (194) are obtainable from bis(aminophenyl)phosphine oxides and dicarboxylic acids and their derivatives. The condensation of bis(chlorocarbonyl)phenylphosphine oxide with diphenylolpropane yields a polymeric ester 195⁶.

...HN(CH₂),NHCO
$$\longrightarrow$$
 P \longrightarrow CONH(CH₂),NHCO \longrightarrow P \longrightarrow ...

(193)

...
$$CO(CH_2)_n CONH$$
 P NHCO $(CH_2)_n CONH$ P

H. Addition Reactions

Unsaturated phosphine oxides undergo addition reactions with electrophiles, nucleophiles, free radicals and other species, with cycloaddition reactions playing a prominent role. Of particular interest is the involvement of the phosphinoyl group in such reactions, both indirect in its influence on the course of such reactions, but also by direct involvement in bond formation.

1. Electrophilic additions

The reaction of chlorine or bromine with either vinyl- or allyl-phosphine oxides yields products the natures of which are consistent with a *trans* addition shown for both acyclic and cyclic (phospholenes) phosphine oxides according to equations 30¹⁷⁷ and 31²³⁶.

$$\begin{array}{c} Ph \\ Ph \\ Br_2-HOAc \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} Ph \\ Br \end{array} \qquad (30)$$

The addition of chlorine to allenephosphine oxides is a particularly interesting case of electrophilic addition. Although not so extensively examined as the additions of halogens and other electrophiles to structurally similar phosphonic esters, one notable feature is the fact that (3-methylbuta-1,2-dienyl)diphenylphosphine oxide adds the

halogen to the terminal double bond whereas (3-methylbuta-1,2-dienyl)dimethylphosphine oxide yields a cyclic phosphonium salt (Scheme 45)²³⁷.

SCHEME 45

The addition of bromine to the phosphine oxide 196 is also unusual. Normal electrophilic attack is initiated but a faster phosphinoyl migration (Section III.C) occurs within the intermediate carbocation, and the product, isolated in quantitative yield is the monobromo compound 197^{193,195}.

The formation of phosphinoylated bromohydrins when acyclic vinylphosphine oxides (equation 32)²³⁸ and 2-phospholenes (equation 33)⁷⁴ react with nbs under aqueous conditions is probably the result of nucleophilic participation by the solvent. Diphenylvinylphosphine oxide itself fails to react²³⁸. Addition of a phosphorodithioic acid to a vinylphosphine oxide takes place under moderate conditions of heat in a suitable solvent (equation 34). Additions to vinylphosphine sulphides occur more slowly and even then only under more forcing conditions²²⁶.

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH = CR^{2}R^{1} \xrightarrow{\text{nbs or nba}} Ph_{2}P(O)CHBrC(OH)R^{1}R^{2}$$
(32)

$$R_2^1P(X)CH = CH_2 + (R^2O)_2P(S)SH \longrightarrow R_2P(X)CH_2CH_2SP(S)(OR^2)_2$$
 (34)

The addition of hydrogen halides to acetylenic phosphine oxides has also been investigated to only a limited extent, but agreement seems to have been reached that both HCl and HI react, the latter faster, in a *trans* fashion to yield a *cis*-olefinic phosphine oxide, through a pseudophosphonium intermediate (depending on reaction solvent), and that isomerization may occur during final distillation (Scheme 46)^{239,240}.

2. Nucleophilic additions

Reported Michael additions of carbanions to alkenephosphine chalcogenides include that of diethyl malonate (equation 35); equation 36 illustrates addition followed by alkylation with organolithium cuprates, LiCuR₂²⁴¹. A similar addition to an allenephosphine oxide affords a mixture of products (reaction 37)²⁴². Organometallic reagents have been used to effect anionic polymerization, with Grignard reagents acting on diphenylvinylphosphine oxide to obtain polymers with molecular weights of around 10 000. Zinc-copper couple promotes the addition of alkyl halides to vinylphosphine oxides in an aqueous ethanolic medium; the scope of the reaction includes the use of sterically hindered alkyl halides²⁴³.

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH = CH_{2} + CH_{2}(COOEt)_{2} \xrightarrow{Na} [Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}CH_{2}]_{2}C(COOEt)_{2}$$
 (35)

$$PhMeP(O)CH = CH_2 \xrightarrow{(i) \ LiCuBu_2} (ii) \ CH_2 = CHCH_2Br Me$$

$$Me \qquad (36)$$

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH = C = CH_{2} \xrightarrow{LiCuMe_{2}} Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}CMe = CH_{2} + Ph_{2}P(O)CH = CMe_{2}$$

$$70-93\%$$

$$7-30\%$$
(37)

Acetylenic phosphines, R¹₂PC=CR², cannot be alkylated by nucleophilic additions of Grignard reagents, whereas the corresponding reactions of the oxides and sulphides take place readily in the presence of a trace of copper(I) halide (equation 38) in high yields; the stereochemistry of addition appears, as yet, to be undecided. Further addition to the alkene products also does not take place²⁴⁴.

$$R_{2}^{1}P(X)C = CR^{2} + R^{3}MgY \xrightarrow{X = O \text{ or } S} R_{2}^{1}P(X)CH = CR^{2}R^{3}$$
 (38)

$$R^1 = Me$$
 or Ph; $R^2 = R^3 = Me$, Et or Ph

The additions of protic substances possessing the X—H bond, where X = N, O, S or P, have been investigated far more extensively than those of active methylene C—H acids. In general, the additions reactions involving vinylphosphine oxides are much faster than those of the parent phosphines, if indeed the latter react at all, but they are slower than those same reactions of esters of vinyl-phosphonic or -phosphinic acids. The additions take place in a manner contrary to the Markownikoff rule and the heteroatom adds to the β -carbon atom. There is the direct analogy between the modes of additions to C=CP=O and C=CC=O²⁴⁵.

Successful addition of an amine to a vinylphosphine oxide requires that for the amine pK_B be less than 3^{246} and in the case of primary amines a two-stage process is possible (Scheme 47). From the phosphorus reactant point of view, the addition of amines to vinylic or allylic diphenylphosphine oxides succeeds when substituents on the sp^2 carbon are lacking or when there is only one substituent on $C_{(2)}$, but the presence of one substituent α or two β to phosphorus prevents addition. Benzamide also adds to diphenylvinylphosphine oxide in the presence of NaH under thf^{247,248}. Additions have been carried out with optically active chiral phosphine oxides²⁴⁹ and with optically active amines, e.g. L-prolinol²⁴⁶.

$$\begin{array}{c} Ph_2P(O)CH = CH_2 \xrightarrow{RNH_2} Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2NHR \\ \xrightarrow{Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2} [Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2]_2NR \\ \hline \\ SCHEME_{47} \end{array}$$

Conclusions differ as to the stereospecificity of additions of amines to acetylenic phosphine oxides (but again, additions to acetylenic phosphines do not occur), but do agree on regiospecificity. Additions to 198 (R¹ = Ph; R² = H, primary alkyl, cyclohexyl, Bu' or Ph) have been stated to occur in a *cis* fashion to yield *trans*-enamine products which do not then isomerize to the *cis* forms (Scheme 48)^{250,251}. The enamines are hydrolysable (aqueous oxalic acid) to β -ketoalkylphosphine oxides. On the other hand, further studies using 198 (R¹ = Me or Bu) have suggested that the stereospecificity of addition depends on the experimental conditions but appears to be initially *trans* followed by isomerization to the *cis* form: at $-20\,^{\circ}$ C Et₂NH adds to 198 (R¹ = Bu) to give the *cis*-enamine, but at 60 C the product has *trans* geometry. When Me₂NH is used, a mixture of *cis* and *trans* products is formed even at $-20\,^{\circ}$ C²³⁹.

$$R^{1}_{2}P(0)C \equiv CR^{2} \xrightarrow{R^{3}NH_{2}} R^{1}_{2}P \xrightarrow{R^{3}H} R^{2}_{NR^{3}H} \xrightarrow{H_{3}O^{+}} R^{1}_{2}P(0)CH_{2}COR^{2}$$
(198)

SCHEME 48

Additions to bis(acetylenic)phosphine oxides are of particular interest and value since they provide an acceptable route to several heterocyclic systems, as exemplified in Scheme $49^{252,253}$. The regiospecificity of addition of amines can be modified by the presence of appropriate substituents at the acetylenic $C_{(2)}$ and also by change in experimental conditions (equation 39)²⁴⁰.

$$R^{1}P(C = CR^{2})_{2} \xrightarrow{BuNH_{2}} R^{1}PC = CR^{2} \longrightarrow R^{1}P(CH = CR^{2}(NHBu))_{2}$$

$$CH = CR^{2}(NHBu)$$

$$R^{1}PC = CR^{2}$$

$$CH_{2}COR^{2}$$

$$AI_{2}O_{3}$$

$$R^{2}P(CH_{2}COR^{2})_{2}$$

$$R^{3}NH_{2} \text{ or } (NH_{4})_{2}CO_{3}$$

$$R^{2}$$

$$R^{2}$$

$$R^{3}$$

$$R^{2}$$

SCHEME 49

$$Et_{2}P(0)C = CSMe \xrightarrow{Me_{2}NH} Et_{2}P + Et_{2}P(0)CH = C(SMe)NMe_{2}$$

$$SMe + Et_{2}P(0)CH = C(SMe)NMe_{2}$$

$$(39)$$

The additions of primary or secondary phosphines to vinylphosphine oxides or sulphides constitute well authenticated reactions for the synthesis of polyphosphine chalcogenides (e.g. reaction 40)²⁵⁴ and thus polyphosphines themselves following deoxygenation or desulphurization (Section II.A.1.2)^{90,91}. Phosphines which have been examined in connection with reaction 40 include phosphine itself, RPH₂ (R = Me or Ph), R₂PH (R = Me or Ph), H₂PCH₂CH₂PH₂ and Ph(H)PCH₂CH₂P(H)R (R = H or Ph). The additions of phosphines to acetylenic phosphine oxides (equation 41)²⁵⁵ and dialkyl phosphonates to unsaturated phosphine oxides (e.g. reaction 42) have also been recorded.

$$Ph_{2}PCH = CH_{2} + PhP(H)CH_{2}CH_{2}P(H)Ph Ph_{2}P Ph$$

$$Ph_{2}P Ph_{2}P Ph_{$$

$$Bu_2P(0)C \equiv CH + Bu_2PH \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow H$$

$$H \longrightarrow PBu_2$$

$$(41)$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
O & O & O \\
\parallel & \parallel & \parallel \\
Ph_2PCH = CH_2 + (EtO)_2P(O)H \longrightarrow Ph_2PCH_2CH_2P(OEt)_2
\end{array} (42)$$

The addition of alcohols to vinylphosphine oxides and sulphides occurs regiospecifically with the RO group adding to $C_{(2)}^{238,239}$; reactions have been carried out with chiral phosphine oxides²⁷ and with optically active alcohols such as borneol and menthol²⁵⁶, but the reaction may be complicated by nucleophilic substitution at phosphorus. Thus, the products from the interaction of $Bu_2P(O)C \equiv CH$ and NaOEt in EtOH for 2h at 75 °C include both *cis*- and *trans*- $Bu_2P(O)CH \equiv CH(OEt)$ together with $Bu_2P(O)CH_2CH(OEt)_2$ (the total yield of the three products was 30%) and $Bu_2P(O)OEt$ (47%) and acetylene²³⁹. Both mono- and bis-addition, as well as cleavage, have also been observed in the reaction between NaOMe and $Me_2P(O)C \equiv CSMe^{240}$. Hydration of vinylphosphine oxides has been achieved by exploiting the hydroboration process; the stereochemistry of reaction for rigid cyclic systems is unaffected by the stereochemistry at phosphorus¹⁷⁷.

In competition experiments, thiols have been shown to be more selectively reactive in additions to diphenylvinylphosphine oxide than are either primary alcohols or amines²⁵⁷; the additions are regiospecific with the sulphur adding to $C_{(2)}$, but a mixture of (E)- and (Z)-vinylic thioethers results from acetylenic phosphine oxides^{239,240}. Additions have also been observed to occur slowly under free-radical conditions.

3. Cycloaddition reactions

Acyclic unsaturated phosphine oxides are able to react as either dienes or dieneophiles in intermolecular Diels-Alder reactions. The complexity of such reactions ranges from the very straightforward, such as the addition of diphenylvinylphosphine oxide to cyclopentadiene, through to reactions which build up phosphorus-containing analogues of well known natural product molecules. A selection of reactions which illustrate the dieneophilic behaviour of vinylphosphine oxides and sulphides is given in equations 43-49. Reference has already been made to the removal of the chalcogen from 34, 87 (X = S) and 88 (X = S) to give the tervalent phosphorus compounds, useful as chiral ligands (Section II.1.2). The reaction represented by equation 47 is a complete reversal of the usual reaction direction, and is the result of the negation of the influence of the carbonyl group by the diphenylphosphinoyl group. Reaction 48 illustrates the instability of the initial Diels-Alder adduct, always a possibility, and which, by the rapid loss of CO₂ in a retro-reaction, affords ultimately 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)benzene. Reaction 49 exemplifies the synthesis of a 17-phosphasteroid analogue; a similar reaction with 1-phenyl-2-phospholene 1-oxide and 2,3-disubstituted buta-1,3-dienes yields hexahydro-phosphindolines as their oxides⁷⁷.

$$+ 199(X=S) \xrightarrow{(ref. 86)} 87(X=S)$$
Me Me

+ 199 (X=S)
$$\xrightarrow{\text{(ref. 86)}}$$
 88 (X=S) (46)

Me
$$CH_2$$
 + Ph_2P Me $(ref. 258)$ Me (47)

$$+ Ph_2PC = CPPh_2 \xrightarrow{\text{(ref. 259)}} -CO_2$$

$$+ Ph_2PC = CPPh_2 \xrightarrow{\text{(PPh}_2} (48)$$

Thermolysis of 1-(diphenylphosphinoyl)cyclobutene affords the very reactive 2-(diphenylphosphinoyl)buta-1,3-diene (200), which acts as an activated diene and can be trapped with the customary dieneophiles in reactions illustrated in Scheme 50²⁶¹. Monomeric phospholes can also act in the dual capacity as either dienes or dieneophiles. The 1-oxides and 1-sulphides of phospholes exhibit a marked propensity to dimerize, although there are some exceptions to such behaviour, and they include 1,2,5-triphenylphosphole 1-oxide, penta-substituted phosphole 1-oxides, including the pentaphenyl derivative, and 3,4-dimethyl-1-phenylphosphole 1-sulphide. When operational, the dimerization process yields the *endo* isomer products. Scheme 51 illustrates the ready formation and dimerization of a highly reactive phosphole, which can also be trapped by added dieneophiles^{262,263}.

Reactions which illustrate the intermolecular diene behaviour of phosphine chalcogenides are illustrated in equations 50–53. The reactions indicated in Scheme 52 illustrate the diene behaviour of 1,2-dihydrophosphorin 1-oxides and their value in syntheses of 2-phosphabicyclo[2.2.2]oct-5-enes²⁶⁷ and -octa-5,7-dienes²⁶⁸. Once again, the initial [4 + 2] adducts often break down when heated gently.

The capacity of phosphole 1-chalcogenides to act as dieneophiles is illustrated by reactions 54-56. Reaction 56 results in a 15-phosphasteroid analogue. The reaction with tropone should be considered as [2+4] rather than a [4+6] addition. Thioacetophenone undergoes a [4+2] cycloaddition to give 203; other examples of compounds possessing the same bicyclic system have been obtained by the interaction of phosphole oxides or sulphides with oxyallyl cations, when the coproducts are 8-phosphabicyclo-[3.2.1] octanes 265 .

A useful study²⁷¹ has demonstrated the catalytic activity of Lewis acids in reaction systems comprising vinylphosphine oxides and dienes. In the absence of catalyst, diphenylvinylphosphine oxide and cyclopentadiene react to give a 19% yield of a 42:58 mixture of *endo* and *exo* products. With the addition of 10 mol% of catalyst the yields of mixed adducts ranged from 23% (with SnCl₄) to 47% (using TiCl₄), but with generally little change in the stereochemical ratios, which ranged from 48:52 {for [Cl₂Ti(OPrⁱ)₂]} to 60:40 (using TiCl₄), with AlCl₃, FeCl₃ and SnCl₄ producing intermediate effects. More notable, however, were the significantly higher yields with *endo:exo* ratios of 3:1

(202)

202 +
$$Bu'C \equiv P \xrightarrow{\text{(ref. 266)}} P \xrightarrow{\text{Me}} P \xrightarrow{\text{Me}} P \xrightarrow{\text{Bu'}} P$$
(53)

SCHEME 52

Me Me
$$X = 0 \text{ or } S$$
 $X = 0 \text{ or } S$
 $X = 0$

to 4:1 when 1 mol equiv. of catalyst (AlCl₃, FeCl₃ or TiCl₄) was employed. The same Lewis acids also produced worthwhile changes in the diastereoisomer ratios for the products from (2-methoxyphenyl)phenylvinylphosphine oxide and cyclopentadiene, and for which titanium-containing reagents were particularly valuable for obtaining more of the *endo* products.

Some interesting activation effects have been found in connection with the unusual intramolecular Diels-Alder reaction of the allene phosphine oxides 204^{272} . Relative to the reaction rate observed for 204 (n=0; m=1; R=H), substitution by alkyl groups increased reaction speeds by factors of 4.6 (R=Me), 21.1 (R=Et) and 27.8 (R=Pr). On the other hand, increasing n from 0 to 3 (with m=1) produced relatively little change in reactivity. Much more pronounced was the effect of change in stereochemistry, as

demonstrated by 205 and 206, which showed accelerations of 70 and 205 times that of 204 (n = 0; m = 1; R = H); increasing m from 1 to 2 in 204 (n = 0; R = Me) caused a decrease in the rate of cyclization by a factor of 850. The diphenylphosphinoyl group (and also the diphenylphosphino and analogous diphenylarsino and diphenylarsinoyl groups) activates ethene to cycloaddition with the lithium derivatives of Schiff bases as in reaction 57^{273} .

Vinylphosphine chalcogenides react with dipolar ophiles in [2+3] cycloadditions with nitrones, nitrilimines, nitrile oxides, azides and diazoalkanes; such reactions result in the synthesis of diphenylphosphinoylated heterocyclic systems, but they appear to take place more slowly than those reactions for similar vinylphosphinic and vinylphosphonic acid derivatives.

In the reactions of vinylphosphine oxides or sulphides with nitrilimines, Kolokol'tseva et al. 274 have argued that the resultant pyrazolines are phosphinoylated at $C_{(2)}$ (equation 58) but this conclusion regarding regiospecificity has been disputed by other workers, e.g. for reaction 59^{275} .

$$+ PhC \equiv N - NPh$$

$$0 R Ph$$

$$0 R Ph$$

$$0 R Ph$$

$$0 R Ph$$

$$0 (59)$$

R = Me or Ph

The same Russian authors have likewise described the formation of 5-phosphinoyl-1,2-oxazolines from vinylphosphine oxides or sulphides and nitrile oxides (Scheme 53), with conclusions regarding regiospecificity not being disputed by others 51,276 . Interestingly, the phosphine oxides are less reactive than the corresponding sulphides, and the 5-substituted regioisomers either prevail in the product mixtures or are the only products. Considerable diastereofacial selectivity is indicated by the dependence of the nature of the products on R^2 , the diastereoisomeric ratios being 2.6:1 for $R^2 = Me$ and 1.6:1 for $R^2 = Ph$.

$$R^{2}C = \bigwedge^{+} - O^{-}$$

$$R^{2} = \bigcap^{+} - O^{-}$$

$$R^{$$

SCHEME 53

Reactions involving nitrones (208) yield the analogous 1,2-oxazolidines in non-regiospecific additions (Scheme 53) $^{276-278}$. In all those cases examined, the composition of the product mixtures depended on the structure of the nitrone, but the reactions were highly specific for the cyclic nitrones 209 which produced regioisomer ratios of >95:5. When the nitrone 208 ($R^3 = R^4 = Ph$) reacts with diphenylvinylphosphine oxide, the regiospecificity is represented in a 210:211 ratio of ca 40:60, whereas for nitrone 208 ($R^3 = Me$; $R^4 = Ph$) the ratio is ca 60:40, both figures being in contrast to the ratio 86:14 obtained for 209 (n = 1; $R^2 = Me$).

The principal regioisomer obtained from diphenylnitrone and diphenylvinylphosphine oxide has been shown by X-ray diffraction experiments to have the *trans* arrangement between the phosphinoyl and $C_{(3)}$ phenyl groups²⁷⁸.

Cycloadditions of the same reagents to carbon—carbon double bonds which are not activated by adjacent phosphinoyl groups are but poorly exemplified (Scheme 54)²⁷⁹.

The influence of the chalcogen atom on the regio- and stereo-chemistry of addition of various nitrones to diphenylvinylphosphine chalcogenides has been examined in a recent study which showed that, for the acyclic nitrones 208 ($R^3 = R^4 = Ph$) undergoing reaction with $Ph_2P(X)CH=CH_2$ in benzene at 80 °C, a more equitable regioisomer distribution was obtained for X=0, but for X=0 or Se the regioisomer ratio was 10:90; the regiochemistry was reversed when $R^3=Me$. When the cyclic nitrone 209 (n=1;

 $R^2 = Me$) was employed in benzene at ambient temperature, the regiochemistry was unaffected by a change in X^{280} .

The addition of aryl azides to 1-propynylphosphine chalcogenides yields 4-phosphinoyl-1,2,3-triazoles (equation 60) in a process accelerated by either electron-donor or -acceptor substituents in the dipolarophile^{281,282}. In a similar reaction between (2-aminoethynyl)phosphine chalcogenides and sulphonyl azides, the resultant 5-amino-4-sulphonyl-5phosphinoyltriazoles are tautomeric with the predominant linear 2-diazoalkyl from $(equation 61)^{283}$.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
X \\
 & X \\
 &$$

The addition of diazoalkanes R12CN2 (R1 = H or Ph) to olefinic phosphine oxides takes place under very mild conditions, and indeed needs to so as to prevent loss of nitrogen^{51,284} and allow the isolation of the pyrazolines (211) which readily isomerize, the tautomerism being faster in MeCN than in benzene²⁸⁵. At higher temperatures loss of nitrogen occurs during the initial reaction with the formation of phosphinoylcyclopropanes, a process for which a carbene mechanism has been excluded.

Reactions of a similar nature involving 1-alkynylphosphine oxides yield products which aromatize by prototropy when the diazoalkane is of the type RCHN₂²⁸⁶. The reactions between 1-(diphenylphosphinoyl)cyclopropenes (213) and diazoalkanes are generally regiospecific, and give the adducts 214 except when $R^1 = Ph$ and $R^2 = H$. The adducts 214 ($R^2 = H$) may be converted readily into the phosphinoylated 1,2-pyridazines

 215^{287} .

$$R^{1}_{2}P(X)CH = CH_{2} + R^{2}_{2}CN_{2} \xrightarrow{<30 \text{ °C}} N_{N} R^{2}_{R^{2}}$$

$$-N_{2} > 50 \text{ °C}$$

$$R^{1}_{2}P$$

$$R^{2}_{1}P$$

$$R^{2}_{2}P$$

$$R^{2}_{2}P$$

That the phosphinoyl group has an activating effect on the cycloadditions to the vinyl group does not appear to be in doubt; thus, for example, diphenyldiazomethane does not react with allyldiethylphosphine oxide at lower temperatures, and at temperatures higher than 120 °C yields only very small amounts of (cyclopropylmethyl)diethylphosphine oxide, probably through a carbene mechanism²⁸⁵.

 α -Diazo(diphenylphosphinoyl)alkanes undergo cycloadditions to α,β -unsaturated ketones²⁸⁸ and with acetylenes²⁸⁹. Reactions between α -diazobenzyl(diphenyl)phosphine oxide and aldehydes lead to (2-hydroxy-1-diazoalkyl)diphenylphosphine oxides (by aldol addition); in the case of glyoxal, the initial product dimerizes to give the 1,4-dioxan derivatives **216**²⁹⁰.

4. Reactions involving ylides or carbenes

Under thermal or photolytic conditions, (α -diazoalkyl)diphenylphosphine oxides and sulphides are reactive and yield products suggestive of the formation of carbene intermediates; they are also subject to attack by nucleophiles, e.g. during their treatment with hydrogen halides with the formation of (α -halogenobenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxides, and also during hydrolysis. Similarly, when (α -diazobenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxide is heated in ethanol, (α -ethoxybenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxide and (benzhydryl)-phenylphosphinic acid result²⁹¹.

Representative examples of the additions of ylides or carbenes to unsaturated phosphine oxides are given in equations 62⁴⁸ and 63²⁹². The adducts 217 can be made to undergo rearrangement to 4-chloro-1,2-dihydrophosphorins through the action of

heat, water or alcoholic AgNO₃²⁹³.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
O & O & O \\
Ph_2P & Me_2S = CH_2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
Ph_2P & O & O \\
Ph_2P & Ph_2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
O & O & O \\
Ph_2P & O & O \\
O & O & O \\
Ph_2P & O & O \\
O & O &$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R^{1} & R^{2} \\
\hline
 & CHCI_{3} \\
\hline
 & HO^{-} - R_{4}N^{+}
\end{array}$$
(63)

IV. PHOSPHINOYL CARBANIONS

A. Formation

Data on the acidities of phosphine oxides, including (dialkylphosphinoyl)alkane-carboxylates and (diarylphosphinoyl)alkanecarboxylates 214,215 and phosphinoyl-substituted benzoic acids 216 as well as other phosphinoylmethylene compounds 213,294 demonstrate that the groups R_2PO and Ar_2PO are electronegative, with little difference between the electron attracting power of these and the corresponding phosphinothioyl groups. Their place in the general order of electron attracting power is $Ph_3P^+ > PhCO > MeCO > CN > COOR > R_2P(S) \approx R_2P(O) > Ph_2P > Ph > H > Me.$

Carbon—hydrogen bonds are thus activated towards proton removal by a suitable base. Bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)methane undergoes rapid exchange with deuterium but requires the presence of a weak base, and hence the use of a substance such as PhND₂ is satisfactory for the purpose. The introduction of a *p*-diphenylphosphinoyl group into toluene raises the acidity in dmso by ca 14 orders of magnitude; in other solvents the electronic effects of the diphenylphosphinoyl group are similar to those displayed by a *p*-CN group. In the presence of KOBu^t, 4-diphenylphosphinoyltoluene condenses with aromatic aldehydes (compare *p*-nitrotoluene) to give 4-diphenylphosphinoyl-4′-substituted stilbenes²⁹⁵.

Activation of methylene groups has also been demonstrated by several condensation reactions such as those illustrated by equations 64^{288} and 65^{296} . α -Phosphinoyl carbanions can be generated when phosphinoylalkanes or their derivatives are treated with an appropriate base; the more activated the methylene protons by the presence of

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}Ph + HCOOMe \xrightarrow{KOBu^{f}} Ph_{2}PCPh$$

$$HCOH$$

$$+ Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}COOEt \xrightarrow{piperidine-EtOH}$$

$$R$$

$$CH = C$$

$$CH = C$$

$$CH = C$$

$$CH = C$$

$$COOEt$$

$$COOEt$$

$$COOEt$$

more than one phosphinoyl group attached to a common CH group, or alternatively aided by the presence of one of the common electron-attracting groups such as Ph, COOR, COR, CN or SO₂, the weaker the base needed, and a wide range of bases has been employed. For phosphine oxides, PhLi, NaNH₂, KOBu^t, PhNa, NaH (this has also been used to generate dianions from 2-oxoalkylphosphine oxides²⁹⁷), lithium diisopropylamide^{47,55,298} and, most commonly, BuLi, have all been used in combination with Et₂O or, better, thf. The same reagents are often satisfactory with mono- or di-methylphosphine oxides²⁹⁹ and even Et₃PO. The carbanion 218 has been generated by the use of NaN(SiMe₃)₂ or NaNHCH₂Ph⁶⁵. Bu^tLi was used to generate the mesomeric anion from [Me₂P(S)]₃CH³⁰⁰ and also the mesomerically stabilized anion 219³⁰¹, although BuLi itself was sufficient for some mono- and di-methyl arylphosphine sulphides^{95,212}.

Two difficulties may arise during the generation of the carbanion. The first relates to the site of carbanion generation. Thus, with BuLi, EtMePhPO loses a proton from the Me group, whereas Me(Me₂NCH₂CH₂)PhPO loses a proton from the α-carbon of the substituted ethyl group³⁰². The second point arises from the stability of the generated carbanion; that of 220 depends on the leaving ability of the group Z, and fragmentation

of the carbanion into the vinylphosphine oxide will be enhanced by a group Z easily stabilized as an anion.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
X & X & X \\
\mathbb{R}_{2} & \mathbb{R}_{2} &$$

B. Reactions

1. Coupling

In the presence of $CuCl_2$, phosphinoyl carbanions 221 couple ('dimerize') to give ethanebis(phosphine oxides)³⁰³. A mixture of diastereoisomers may result from appropriate starting materials; (R)-EtMePhPO affords a mixture of 3% meso-EtPhP(O)- $CH_2CH_2P(O)$ PhEt together with 34% of the same dioxide in its (S,S)-form.

$$R^{1}R^{2}P(O)CH_{2}^{-} \xrightarrow{Cu \text{ salts}} R^{1}R^{2}P(O)CH_{2}CH_{2}P(O)R^{1}R^{2}$$
(221)

Interaction with other anions can take place (equation 66)⁵⁵ and an interesting application is the intramolecular coupling with the formation of cycloalkanebis(diphenylphosphine) dioxides as illustrated by equation 67⁴⁹.

2. Alkylation

Alkylation of a phosphinoyl carbanion has been widely employed to build up more highly substituted alkyl groups attached to a diphenylphosphinoyl moiety, but such an apparently simple reaction may not always be so convenient from the practical standpoint. Thus, bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)methane, as its sodium salt, does not alkylate straightforwardly and, when acted upon by hexyl bromide in dmso, the salt affords a mixture of cleavage products, namely methyldiphenylphosphine oxide and hexyl diphenylphosphinate³⁰⁴. On the other hand, the corresponding potassium salt alkylates in the expected fashion.

L-Menthyl $(S)_P$ -(ethylphenylphosphinoyl)acetate, when alkylated, gives the $(R)_P$ product (222), from which the ester group is easily removable²⁴¹.

The carbanions from (2-oxoalkyl)phosphine oxides **223** (R = Me or Ph) are readily alkylated by methyl, benzyl or prenyl halides, as well as by α -halogenocarbonyl compounds, but even a simple alkyl halide such as BuBr may fail to react, so that alkylation of an acylmethylphosphine oxide may only sometimes be an alternative to the acylation (see next section) of an alkylphosphine oxide (Scheme 55)²⁹⁷.

3. Acylation

Acylation of phosphinoyl carbanions has normally been carried out using carboxylic esters (Scheme 55)^{292,305,306}, but lactones^{297,307} and carboxylic acid chlorides^{305,306} have also been employed. Acylation at the α -carbon atom can also be achieved through acyl transfer in an intramolecular process (Scheme 56), resulting from the influence of lda at low temperature³⁰⁸. Other carbanions have been phosphorylated with a variety of halides of acids of either tervalent or quinquevalent phosphorus (reactions 68–71).

SCHEME 56

7. Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides 357

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}Li + R_{2}P(O)CI \xrightarrow{\text{(ref. 305)}} Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}P(O)R_{2}$$
(68)

R = hex, oct, Ph

$$Ph_{2}P(S)CH_{2}Li + R_{2}PCl \xrightarrow{R = Ph(ref. 309), Bu'(ref. 104)} Ph_{2}P(S)CH_{2}PR_{2}$$
(69)

$$Ph_{2}P(S)CH_{2}Li + PhPCl_{2} \xrightarrow{\text{(ref. 309)}} [Ph_{2}P(S)CH_{2}]_{2}PPh$$
(70)

$$[Me2P(S)]2CHLi + Mc2P(S)Cl \xrightarrow{\text{(ref. 300)}} [Me3P(S)]3CH$$
 (71)

A widely exploited example of acylation is that of sulphenylation since this, through the Horner reaction (Section V), provides a route to vinyl sulphides and thence, through their hydrolysis, to ketones. Sulphenylation is achieved through reaction of the phosphinoylcarbanion with a disulphide (equation 72)^{306,310,311}; monosulphenylation may, under certain circumstances, be accompanied by disulphenylation. Oxidation of phosphinoylalkylsulphides with mCPBA yields the corresponding sulphinyl or sulphonyl derivatives³¹¹.

4. Carboxylation and decarboxylation

The treatment of the phosphinoyl or phosphinothioyl carbanions with an excess of CO₂ yields a carboxylic acid³⁰⁵. Those carbanions which are capable of resonance may yield mixtures of carboxylic acids (Scheme 57)62.

SCHEME 57

$$O - An^{\text{Min}} P Me \qquad (i) \text{ Id} a \qquad O - An^{\text{Min}} P CH_2 COOBu' \qquad (73)$$

Reaction 73 illustrates a useful direct synthesis of the *tert*-butyl ester of a carboxylic acid; as in more conventional organic reactions, the *tert*-butyl group is a useful protecting group removable, after any further reaction at the active methylene group, with *p*-tosOH in xylene (see the next section)⁵⁵. The decarboxylation of (di)carboxylic acids follows the patterns observed for active methylene dicarboxylic acids and related compounds, e.g. R₂P(O)CH(COOH)CH₂COOH is decarboxylated to R₂P(O)CH₂CH₂COOH.

5. Addition reactions

Torr and Warren²⁹⁷ have reported Michael additions of phosphinoyl carbanions to acrylic esters (Scheme 58). A base-catalysed reaction between the latter and the ketone **224** (R = H) gave the expected adduct **225**, whereas the product from the ketone **224** (R = Me) was the cyclohexadione **228**. The reason for this difference in behaviour resides in the anions **226** (R = H or Me); when R = H, conversion to **227** occurs and hence formation of **225** is facile, but when R = Me an equilibration occurs, resulting in cyclization to **228**²⁹⁷.

SCHEME 58

Haynes and coworkers^{312,313} exploited the already recorded Michael addition of the carbanions from (E)- and (Z)-but-2-enyldiphenylphosphine oxides to cyclopent-2-enone to yield the diastereoisomers of the vinyldiphenylphosphine oxide 229 in a route to diphenylphosphine oxides possessing the bicyclo[2,2,1]heptanone and bicyclo[3,2,1]-octanol moieties through the intramolecular conjugate addition depicted in Scheme 59^{312,313}. Treatment of the oxide 229 with KOBu^t in thf at room temperature gave 230 in 90% yield as a single diastereoisomer; similarly, the product from (Z)-but-2-

enyldiphenylphosphine oxide gave the diastereoisomer of 230 with endo-Me and exo-CH₂P(O)Ph₂ groups. Compound 231 was the product which resulted from the treatment of 229 with 2.5 equiv. of lda in thf at $-78\,^{\circ}$ C in a reaction which evidently involved the deprotonation of a vinylic phosphine oxide.

Scheme 60 exemplifies the potential of Michael addition reactions in the synthesis of precursors to valuable chiral ligands⁵⁵.

SCHEME 60

6. Reactions with aldehydes, ketones and epoxides

The original reports on the interaction of phosphinoyl carbanions with aldehydes or ketones were those given by Horner³¹⁴. Benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide, treated initially with NaNH₂ in benzene, reacted with benzophenone to give diphenylphosphinic acid and triphenylethene; a similar reaction took place between the potassium salt of the same phosphine oxide and benzaldehyde to give stilbene. The latter was also obtainable by oxygenation of the same potassium salt followed by acid hydrolysis, and by the decomposition of (α -hydroxybenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxide (obtainable from the lithium salt of benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide by oxygenation and acid hydrolysis) using KOBu^t.

In competition experiments involving benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide and benzyltriphenylphosphonium bromide (the latter acting as a source of the ylide $Ph_3P=CHPh$) in the presence of a base, phosphinoyl-activated olefination of benzaldehyde or benzophenone occurred preferentially. When both phosphorus-containing functions were present in the same substrate, loss of Ph_2PO (as diphenylphosphinic acid) always occurred in preference to loss of Ph_2PS or of Ph_2P . Unusually, α,α -bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)-toluene anion reacts with PhCHO, but affords $Ph_2P(O)CHPhCHPhP(O)Ph_2$ rather than a phosphinoylstilbene³¹⁵.

Coupled with the foregoing observations are those relating to the formation of cyclopropane derivatives from alkali metal salts of activated phosphine oxides through their reactions with epoxides, and again associated with the expulsion of phosphorus as diphenylphosphinic acid (e.g. reaction 74); such a reaction was thought to proceed through a β -hydroxyalkylphosphine oxide.

$$1-C_{10}H_{7}CHKP(0)Ph_{2} + PhCH-CHPh \xrightarrow{-Ph_{2}PO_{2}H} Ph CH_{2}C_{10}H_{7}-1$$

$$(74)$$

Other workers have observed that the use of phosphine oxides with less acidic α -hydrogen atoms coupled with the use of stronger bases allowed the actual isolation of β -hydroxyalkylphosphine oxides (Scheme 61).

$$Et_{3}P(O) \xrightarrow{PhNa} Et_{2}P(O)CHaNMe \xrightarrow{(i) Ph_{2}CO} Et_{2}PCHMeC(OH)Ph_{2}$$

SCHEME 61

The sequence phosphine oxide \rightarrow phosphine oxide carbanion \rightarrow phosphinic acid plus alkene bears a formal resemblance to the base-initiated reaction phosphonium salt \rightarrow ylide \rightarrow phosphine oxide plus alkene upon, in each case, the addition of an aldehyde or ketone at an intermediate stage. The second of these sequences is based on the work of Staudinger from the 1920s, but developed later by Wittig, under whose name it is now known; it was followed by still further developments using base-activated esters of phosphonic acids. Although in some ways not developed to the same extent as the original Wittig reaction or its later modifications for the convenient synthesis of alkenes, nevertheless, the reaction between phosphine oxide carbanions and aldehydes or ketones ('phosphine oxide olefination') offers considerable potential for future development. Because of both its present importance and the future potential in organic synthetic application, the reaction is considered in greater detail in a separate section.

V. REACTIONS BETWEEN PHOSPHINOYL CARBANIONS AND ALDEHYDES OR KETONES: THE HORNER REACTION

For the sake of clarity, the formation of alkenes through the interaction of aldehydes or ketones with carbanions from phosphine oxides is, in this chapter, referred to as the Horner reaction 316 . In this way, it is clearly distinguishable from the parent Wittig reaction which employs phosphonium ylides, generally of the type $Ph_3P=CR^1R^2$, as the phosphorus-containing reactant, the Wadsworth–Emmons modifications, which uses phosphonic acid esters, $(RO)_2P(O)CHR^1R^2$, for the same purpose, and the Corey modification, which employs phosphonic acid bisamides, e.g. $(Me_2N)_2P(O)CHR^1R^2$ (ref. 316). In principle, all three of these series of compounds would interact with the carbonyl compound R^3COR^4 after suitable treatment with a base to yield the olefin $R^1R^2C=CR^3R^4$.

The Horner reaction uses phosphorus reactants of the general type $R_2P(O)CHR^1R^2$, where, for convenience, R is nearly always Ph, and differs from the three other named reactions in allowing the use of reagents which afford, by the action of the base, a carbanion which need not necessarily be stabilized by the presence of a second electronegative group on $C_{(1)}$. All four reactions have undoubted advantages over many more

conventional alkene syntheses in being highly regiospecific.

Essentially, the Horner reaction consists in the generation of a phosphinoyl carbanion (Section IV.A) in a solvent and generally at low temperature (0 to $-78\,^{\circ}$ C) followed by the addition of the carbonyl reactant, again at fairly low temperature, although this might be allowed to rise during the course of the reaction. A metal salt (Li, Na or K) of the adduct is generated, and this may be allowed to decompose directly at a higher temperature; alternatively, an appropriate aqueous work-up often allows the isolation of a (β -hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxide. The latter can then be made to decompose into the required alkene(s) by treatment with a strong base in a hot solvent; NaH in dmf or the for KOBu^t in dmso have been used extensively. The trimethylsilyl ethers of (β -hydroxyalkyl)diphenylphosphine oxides also decompose in the presence of sodamide-type bases to give alkenes²⁹⁹.

A. The Reactants

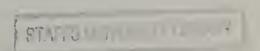
The general availability of the carbonyl reactants need not be discussed here, and it is sufficient to say at this stage that, generally, aldehydes tend to undergo the Horner reaction more readily than ketones, but this is a very broad generalization which may not necessarily hold in specific cases: thus, Ph₂P(O)CH₂OMe reacts equally easily with aldehydes or ketones, whereas Ph₂P(O)CHMe(OMe) in unreactive towards ketones³¹⁷.

Enolizable ketones tend to afford poor yields of alkenes.

The phosphine oxide reactants are readily available by synthesis through the use of one of several fairly conventional reactions which include (i) application of the Arbuzov reaction between the ester Ph₂POR and an alkyl halide of a more reactive type, (ii) the alkylation of the anion Ph₂PO (generated from Ph₂P(O)H by the action of an alkali metal or organic base), (iii) the alkylation (Section IV.B.2) or acylation (Section IV.B.3) of the carbanions from simpler phosphine oxides, (iv) the alkaline hydrolysis of alkyltriphenylphosphonium salts, Ph₃PR +X , and (v) the cleavage of Ph₃PO with alkyllithium reagents, e.g. RCH₂Li, when the products are PhH and Ph₂P(O)CHLiR.

When the isolation of the intermediate (β -hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxide is considered desirable, they can also be synthesized by other routes, more details of which will also

be considered in a later section.



B. Advantages of the Horner Reaction

The various modifications to the original Wittig reaction each have advantages over the latter and also over more conventional approaches to the synthesis of a particular alkene.

Unlike those reagents used in the Wadsworth–Emmons modification, Horner reagents are generally crystalline compounds and are relatively easily purifiable. Also of distinct practical significance is the relative ease of separation of the Horner reaction products—typically a liquid or solid water-insoluble alkene and the water-soluble metal diphenylphosphinate; in this respect, the Wadsworth–Emmons reaction is similar in that it generates a water-soluble salt of a phosphoric acid. The Wittig reaction can easily generate mixtures of products that are completely water insoluble.

The phosphinoyl carbanions in Horner reactions are capable of extensive modification through alkylation or acylation; they are considered to be non-nucleophilic, although allylic phosphine oxide carbanions have been reported to dealkylate phosphoryl chlorides³¹⁸. Such modifications may be further expanded through appropriate migration sequences involving Me, MeS, PhS or MeO groups, or even of the phosphinoyl group itself. The order of sequential modifications can be utilized to achieve desirable and

specific results.

The very high regiospecificity of the Horner reaction, and of other Wittig modifications, and the consequent advantage over 'non-phosphorus' methodology, has already been commented upon. In many cases the Horner reaction also has advantages over the other Wittig modifications with regard to stereospecificity within a particular reaction. For example, the use of Ph₂P(O)CH₂CN rather than (EtO)₂P(O)CH₂CN in reactions with ArCHO or PrⁱCHO not only achieves higher yields of alkene, but also a much higher degree of stereoselectivity. In the reaction between Ph₂P(O)CH₂SMe and PhCHO, the alkene E/Z ratio for the product is 20:1, whereas the use of the Wadsworth–Emmons reagent, (EtO)₂P(O)CH₂SMe, is stereochemically non-selective.

C. Mechanism, Stereochemistry and Regiochemistry

Scheme 62 outlines our present knowledge of the mechanism of the Horner reaction and its associated methodology, assembled, to some extent, through analogy with the original Wittig reaction and the Wadsworth-Emmons modification, but with additional evidence. The upper part of the Scheme (route a) indicates the mode of interaction of a phosphinoyl carbanion with a ketone to give, initially, a pair of diastereoisomeric salts (232); these may indeed exist in the acyclic form or they may exist as, or be in equilibrium with, pentacoordinate dioxyphosphorane species possessing oxaphosphetane rings (233); the latter feature would restrict the possibilities in isomerization.

The fate of either of the species **232** or **233** depends to a large extent on the metal counter ion. With care, appropriate work-up of the lithium salts can provide the free alcohols **(234)**^{192,193,211}, but the corresponding Na or K salts suffer ready *syn* elimination to give the product alkenes **(235)**. Separation of the stereoisomeric alcohols **234** is often feasible, but the individual isomers can be recognized in mixtures by the application of ¹H NMR spectroscopy; individual diastereoisomers have also been structurally characterized using X-ray diffraction techniques, and they include *erythro*-(1*RS*,2*RS*)-2-diphenylphosphinoyl-1-phenylpropan-1-ol³¹⁹ and (2*RS*,3*RS*,4*RS*)-4-benzamido-3-diphenylphosphinoylpentan-2-ol²⁴⁸.

The lower part of Scheme 62 (route b) indicates how the same products (235) might be obtained using an aldehyde together with a branched-chain phosphine oxide through alcohols (236) isomeric with 234. In the event of R² being hydrogen (route a), i.e. the carbonyl reactant being an aldehyde, then structures 234.1 and 234.2 are those of the

erythro and threo forms of the alcohol, and decomposition of the erythro alcohol or its salt would thus be expected to yield the (Z)-alkene with the (E)-alkene being obtainable from the threo-alcohol or its salt.

SCHEME 62

The question of stereoselectivity arises at two points in Scheme 62, namely with regard to the formation of the diastereoisomeric alkoxides 232 (and thus of the alcohols 234, and also with the decomposition of these into the target alkenes.

In an extensive and systematic investigation into reactions summarized by equation 75, Buss and Warren³²⁰ showed that when R^2 was Ph or MeOC₆H₄, a variation in R^1 maintained the *erythro:threo* ratio of alcohols at ca 6:1 unless there was branching at $C_{(1)}$, when the ratio could become 2:1. There was, however, a greater lack of diastereoselectivity when R^2 = Me. The stereoselectivity was sensitive to the size of R^2 when R^1 = Me or an aromatic nucleus. No selectivity was observed when the size of the groups R^1 or R^2 , e.g. cyclohexyl, competed with that of the diphenylphosphinoyl group. No variation in the diastereoisomer ratio was observed when the position of the aromatic MeO substituent was changed³²⁰. For reaction 76^{306} a systematic decrease in the chain length of the group R from butyl to methyl caused an increase in the *erythro:threo* ratio from 1.7:1 to 3.2:1, but when R was branched at $C_{(1)}$, as in Pr^i or cyclohexyl, complete stereorandomness was observed. For R = Ph, the ratio was 3.8:1. Some additional data are given in Table 1. From the wealth of available data it would thus appear that reactions between unfunctionalized or simply functionalized phosphine oxide carbanions and aldehydes are either non-stereoselective or are biased towards the *erythro* product.

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}R^{1} + R^{2}CHO \xrightarrow{BuLi} Ph_{2}P(O)CHR^{1}CH(OH)R^{2}$$
(75)

$$Ph_{2}P \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow Buli \qquad Ph_{2}P \longrightarrow O \longrightarrow Me \qquad (76)$$

TABLE 1. Reaction 75: erythro:threo ratios for the products 237

Ph ₂ P(O)CH ₂ R ¹ :	R ² CHO:	erythro:threo ratio	Ref.
MeO	4-MeOC ₆ H ₄	45:55	317, 320
LiOCH ₂ CH ₂	Ph	75:25	321
Pr ⁱ CH ₂	Ph	80:20	320
	Me	51:49	248, 322
NCH ₂	Ph	52:48	322
	Me	50:50	248
0 NCH ₂	Ph	66:34	248
	Me	49:51	248
NCH ₂	Ph	48:52	248
PhCH ₂ CH ₂	Me	58:42	320
$Bu^tMe_2Si(CH_2)_5$	Et	64:36	321

On the other hand, reactions involving ketones may be much more stereoselective and biased towards the *threo* product, as for reaction 77, when the *erythro:threo* product ratios are 28:72 and 20:80 for n=0 and 1, respectively²⁴⁸. The simple theoretical prediction that *erythro* intermediates lead to (Z)-alkenes and that *threo* intermediates afford (E)-alkenes is not always borne out in practice, and the question of reversibility of one or more of the steps in Scheme 62 must therefore be considered.

A simple case illustrates the nature of the problem. When treated with base, *threo-*1,2-diphenyl-2-(diphenylphosphinoyl)ethanol (238.1) yields only (E)-stilbene, the predicted

outcome. Under the same conditions, the *erythro* alcohol ought to give (Z)-stilbene but, although some of this is formed, the main products are (E)-stilbene and benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide. Warren and coworkers³²³ were unable to corroborate Horner's original report on the formation of (Z)-stilbene.

Exploratory decompositions of the *erythro* alcohol were performed with a variety of bases including PhLi in diethyl ether, BuLi in diethyl ether or thf [which at 0 °C afforded the highest yields of (Z)-stilbene] or thf-TMEDA [this solvent system gave the highest observed yield of (E)-stilbene], NaH-dmso [no formation of (Z)-stilbene], Bu₄N⁺OH⁻ (benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide not formed), DBU in thf [which gave the lowest yield of (E)-stilbene but, at 66 °C the highest yield of benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide] and DBU-CaH₂ or KOH in dmso³²³. These results were attributed to the known decomposition of 238 into PhCHO and the observed benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide. In the presence of base, interchange of benzaldehyde with p-chlorobenzaldehyde from 238 was possible, but only for the *erythro* isomer. Further evidence for equilibration in Horner reactions comes from reactions such as that depicted in Scheme 63. The lithium salt of [1-(methylthio)propyl]diphenylphosphine oxide and benzaldehyde react at -78 °C to give a mixture of diastereoisomeric alcohols 239.1 and 239.2 in the ratio 4:1, a value correlating well with the ratio of alkenes 240.1 and 240.2 when these were obtained in a one-step process. However, whereas 239.2 afforded only (Z)-alkene when decomposed by NaH, the isolated 239.1 gave a mixture of (E)- and (Z)-alkenes in the ratio 10:1.

In general, threo adducts tend to give (E)-alkenes with total stereospecificity and in high yields. For the *erythro* adducts, pure (Z)-alkenes may be obtained when R^1 and R^2 (equation 75) are both alkyl; adducts from aromatic aldehydes also tend to afford largely the Z hydrocarbon together with less than 5% of the E isomer, but when R^1 is aryl, both poor stereoselectivity and low yields are observed 320,321,324 .

Route a (Scheme 62) has been employed to prepare alkenes with α -PhS or α -OMe substituents, β -Me₂N and γ -ketal substituents, all with poor stereoselectivity but which is generally in favour of the *threo* adducts. Treatment of the adducts **234** (R¹ = R³ = Me, R² = p-Tol; R¹ = Ph, R² = Et, R³ = Me; R¹ = R³ = Me, R² = PhCH₂) with NaH yields only traces of alkenes, the main products being the ketones R²R³CO. In addition, the adduct **234** (R¹ = PhCH₂; R² = Et; R³ = Me) has been separated into its diastereoisomers but, when treated with NaH, each gives (*E*)-3,4-dimethyl-1-phenylpent-2-ene, presumably through reversion to the starting materials ^{307,323}.

Route b (Scheme 62) has been employed for the synthesis of dienes, vinyl sulphides and unsaturated ketals with little stereoselectivity. For the particular case with $R^1 = \text{cyclopentyl}$, $R^2 = Pr^i$ and $R^3 = Me$, the bias towards the *threo* alcohol adduct is probably the result of equilibration.

Regiospecificity in the Horner reaction does not normally pose problems, but the problem does arise when the phosphine oxide is of the allylic type. Allylic phosphine oxides undergo prototropic rearrangement into 1-propenylphosphine oxides when acted on by strong bases (Scheme 64)^{247,325,326}. The reverse reaction (e.g. as in equation 78) has also been observed. Because of resonance, anions from allylic phosphine oxides can react with an electrophiles at either the α - or the γ -position (Scheme 65). Normally, reactions with electrophiles occur at the α -position³²⁷. Those between cyclohexanone and allylic phosphine oxide carbanions have demonstrated complete regiospecificity towards the α-position together with essentially complete retention of double bond stereochemistry (equation 79)³²⁸. However, there are many instances where the reaction takes place, at least partially, at the γ-position. Thus, the cyclohexenyl compound 241 reacts with PhCHO at the α-position whereas the analogous cyclopentenyl compound 242 reacts at the γ -position giving 243. A lack of substituents at the γ -position renders the allylphosphine oxide particularly susceptible to attack at that position. Thus, reactions between 245 (R¹ = Me) and R²CHO (R² = Me or Ph) afford mixtures of α - and γ -adducts; when $R^1 = Pr^i$ virtually no γ -product is observed 192. A series of (1-methoxyallyl)diphenylphosphine oxide carbanions (Scheme 65; $R^1 = OMe$) has been extensively investigated; here the carbon electrophiles PhCHO and MeCHO react at the γ-position to give the (E)-alkenes when R^2 and R^3 are either H or Me, or both are H, but when $R^1 = H$ and R² = Ph the regiochemistry is a function of the electrophile, since MeCHO again reacts

CH=CHMe

$$CH_2CH=CH_2)_2$$
 $CH=CHMe$
 $CH=CHMe$
 $CH_2CH=CH_2$
 $CH_2CH=CH_2$
 $CH_2CH=CH_2$
 $CH_2CH=CH_2$
 $CH_2CH=CH_2$
 $CH_2CH=CH_2$
 $CH_2CH=CH_2$

Ph₂P
$$R^3$$
 R^3 R^4 R^5 R^5

at the γ -position, but PhCHO gives a mixture of α -substituted stereoisomers 311,329 . Other compounds which react as electrophiles at the γ -position include RSSO₂Me (R = Me or Ph) and PhSSPh, as sulphenylating agents, and also Me₃SiCl and Ph₂P(O)Cl³¹⁸.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
O & O \\
\parallel & \parallel \\
Ph_2PCH = CHCH_2NR_2 \xrightarrow{KOBu^t} Ph_2PCH_2CH = CHNR_2
\end{array}$$
(78)

$$Ph_2P$$
 Ph_2P
 Ph_2

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{Me} & \text{Me} & \text{R} \\
\text{O} & \text{CH}_2 & \text{O} \\
\text{Ph}_2 \text{P} & \text{Me} \\
\text{Ph}_2 \text{P} & \text{Me} \\
\text{(244)} & \text{(245)}
\end{array}$$

Allyldiphenylphosphine oxide anion itself is sulphenylated (Scheme 66) at the α -position to give a mixture of allyl (246) and vinyl (247) isomeric products, but the γ -substituted compounds 248 and 249 are also found to be present, and are thought to result from rearrangements commencing with 246. Silylation occurs at the γ -position to give 250, which reacts at the γ -position with iodine, but with D_2O at the α -position. In view of the known propensity of allyl sulphide anions to react with electrophiles at the position γ to the S atom, it is perhaps not surprising that 249 is methylated at the position which is α to phosphorus to give a 1:1 mixture of the E and Z isomers of 253 (R = Me); this and its vinyl isomer (252) are also obtained by the direct sulphenylation of 251 (R = Me, or Ph).

Once again, substituents exert a pronounced effect on the course of the reactions; the carbanion from 251 (R = Me) is deuteriated or methylated at the α -carbon atom, but gives the γ -adduct with PhCHO, whereas the anion from 251 (R = Ph) fails to react with PhCHO, and gives mixtures of α - and γ -products when deuteriated or methylated³¹¹.

D. Control

Stereoselectivity in the Horner reaction depends on the rates of formation and decomposition (including, where appropriate, reversion to starting materials in equilibria) of alkoxides in Scheme 62. Attempts to control stereoselectivity, and so increase the potential synthetic value of the Horner reaction, have thus been partly concerned with those experimental factors which might govern the kinetics of such reactions.

One of the first systematic attempts to discern possible solvent effects on the course of the Horner reaction was a study³³⁰ of the reactions between benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide and PhCHO or EtCHO, and between diphenylpropylphosphine oxide and PhCHO in either dmf or cyclohexane; all these reactions, and also similar ones using diethyl benzylphosphonate, favour the formation of the (*E*)-alkene, by contrast to the use of Wittig reagents. Generally, the change from the polar to the non-polar solvent produced little change in the (*E*)-/(*Z*)-alkene ratio, but the more pronounced effects (but then only moderate) were found for the combinations $Ph_2P(O)CH_2Ph$ with EtCHO and $Ph_2P(O)Pr$ with PhCHO, an increase in solvent polarity favouring the (*Z*)-alkene.

Poor stereoselectivity in the formation of the intermediate (β -hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxide is often a result of the use of a non-polar solvent: thus, the reaction at $-78\,^{\circ}$ C between diphenylpropylphosphine oxide carbanion (Li⁺ as counter ion) and PhCHO in hydrocarbon solvents is non-stereoselective. When Et₂O is used as the solvent, a 6:4 bias towards the *erythro* alcohol is observed, and an almost 6:1 bias towards the same diastereoisomer was found with the use of dme or thf; the addition of tmeda still further increased the bias³²⁰.

It has been suggested that the nature and degree of solvation of the metal counter ion present in the alkoxide 232, and its consequent size, are important factors in the control of the course of the Horner reaction³²⁰. Lithium is the counter ion commonly employed in the first stages of the Horner reaction; the use of the saturated with LiBr or LiCl retards the final stages in the sequence (Scheme 62), and the use of lithium often allows the isolation of the intermediate β -alcohols^{194,320}. Even with the relatively small Li⁺ ion (in contrast to Na⁺ or K⁺), conformational control within the complex 254 may well be governed by a tendency for the larger Ph₂P(O) and O···Li(Solv)_n groups to position themselves antiperiplanar with respect to each other in the most highly populated conformer and hence govern the spatial relationship between R¹ and R².

Irrespective of the degree of solvation, a further complicating feature is the nature of the bonding between metal and phosphine oxide ions. When basic groups other than the P=O are absent from the phosphine oxide, bonding between Li⁺ and phosphoryl oxygen possesses a high degree of covalence (as in 255) and the cation may be

non-solvated, whereas in a more highly stabilized carbanion possessing a second electronegative group, the lithium cation might well be highly solvated, as in diglyme (structure 256). In the case of phosphine sulphides, which lack both the more basic P=0 group and a second stabilizing group, the salt contains only contact ion pairs (257). Alkoxides containing other Group I metal counter ions decompose more readily, and in practice NaH is used widely to bring about the decomposition of isolated β -phosphinoylated alcohols to the alkenes. When the counter ion is K^+ or Cs^+ in dmso, there would appear to be no subdivision into the types 255–257, regardless of the presence, or otherwise, of other groups present in the phosphine chalcogenide³³¹.

In reactions between the lithiated phosphine oxides 258 (R¹, R² = H, H; H, Me; or Me, H) and PhCHO (R³ = Ph) (Scheme 67) only γ -products are obtained. A modification to the anion by its pretreatment with a titanium reagent [TiCl_n(OPr¹)_{4-n}] resulted, in the case of 259 (R¹ = R² = H; n = 0) in mixed regiochemistry with a γ : α adduct ratio of 2:1 to 3:1, and with the (S, R)- and (R, R)- α -adducts 260.1 and 260.2 formed in the ratio 2.5:1. When n = 1 or 2, reaction occurs regiospecifically at the α -position, with the diastereoselectivity strongly biased towards the form 260.1, although this is lower if R³ is alkyl, and either or both R¹ and R² is (are) alkyl³³². Reactions of the anions of the phosphine oxides 251 in the presence of [Ti(OPr¹)₄] are slow in comparison with those of the corresponding phosphines, although this effect can be overcome by incorporating hmpa into the solvent system, when the reaction becomes useful in the synthesis of alka-1,3-dienes³³³.

A lower reaction temperature not only disfavours the decomposition of an intermediate alkoxide to the alkene, thus making it easier to isolate the intermediate β -phosphinoyl alcohol, but it can also aid in controlling the diastereoisomeric composition thereof; for a reaction between Ph₂P(O)Pr, BuLi and PhCHO, the *erythro:threo* ratios for the intermediate alcohol were 2:1, 6:1 and ca 11:1 at 10, -78 and -100 °C respectively³²⁰.

Yet another factor capable of altering the rate of collapse of the intermediate alkoxide ions 232 with expulsion of diphenylphosphinic acid, and thus allowing for better equilibration between the individual diastereoisomeric ions and the starting materials, is the electronic charge distribution within the phosphoryl group. This effect has been explored, albeit to only a very limited extent, through reaction 80. As one ortho hydrogen is replaced successively with Me and MeO, the *erythro:threo* ratio, initially 74:26, is raised to 81:19, and then to 97:3³³⁴.

Phosphorus is also considered to be more electrophilic when present in a five-membered ring than in an analogous acyclic compound and hence, when in compounds such as 261 and 262, should be capable of modifying the rate of collapse of the alkoxide ion resulting therefrom. The reaction between 261 (K^+ as counter ion) and PhCHO is stereoselective with a (E)-/(Z)-alkene product ratio of 80:20, but those reactions between 262 and either PhCHO or Pr^i CHO (and with Li^+ or K^+ as counter ions) arc, unfortunately, completely non-stereoselective³³⁵.

The failure of *erythro*-1,2-diphenyl-2-(diphenylphosphinoyl)ethanol to yield (Z)-stilbene on normal decomposition has been attributed to the combined influence of unfavourable Ph-Ph eclipsing interactions in a *syn*-elimination pathway from 238.2 and the relatively high acidity of benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide. Other *erythro* compounds afford (Z)-alkenes when acted on by base. When treated with NaH-dmso under the same conditions as 238.2, the *erythro* alcohol 263 gives a 91% yield of stilbene with a Z/E ratio of 89:11, modified only slightly by using DBU in dmso at 60 °C. Here the combined influence of using an organic base, rather than NaH, and a phosphole derivative completely reversed the normal stereoselectivity, a result considered as indirect evidence for the participation of an oxaphosph(V)etane intermediate³³⁶.

The role that diphenylphosphinothioyl derivatives take in the Horner reaction has been but little exploited. The diphenylphosphinothioyl-1,3-dithiane **264** (X = S) is unreactive to MeCHO, Ph₂CO and cyclohexanone, and is thus less reactive than the diphenylphosphinoyl analogue, a fact attributed to the relative stabilities of the pentacoordinate intermediates (Scheme 68) with their dependence on the relative apicophilicities when X = O or S, rather than on an explanation based on steric crowding³³⁷.

In the second method of approach to the control of the stereochemical outcome of the Horner reaction, the importance of the intermediate (β -hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxides is taken into consideration, and in particular their synthesis by other reactions. β -Phosphinoyl alcohols have been prepared by the regiospecific ring opening of epoxides with Ph₂PLi followed by treatment with acetic acid-H₂O₂^{189,338,340} or by treatment of the epoxide with Ph₂P(O)K³⁴¹. In a second procedure, the readily obtainable (α -hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxides are dehydrated, epoxidized and the β -alcohol obtained by ring opening with LiAlH₄ (Scheme 69)¹⁷³.

Ph₂P
$$R^2$$
 (ii) PCI₅ Ph_2P $Ph_$

By far the most widely exploited synthesis of β -phosphinoyl alcohols by a different route consists in the reduction of (β -ketoalkyl)phosphine oxides. The latter can be obtained, in turn, by the oxidation of (β -hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxides isolated from the Horner process, or by acylation of a phosphine oxide carbanion (Section IV.B.3). Other (β -ketoalkyl)phosphine oxides can be obtained by specific reactions, one example

of which is illustrated in Scheme 70³²⁴.

The usefulness of the (β-ketoalkyl)phosphine oxides as precursors to the (β-hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxides obviously depends on the stereospecificity with which they can be reduced. Unfortunately, high reaction stereospecificity tends to be associated with low reaction yields. Thus, in the reduction of Ph₂P(O)CHMeCOPh, the use of H₂-PtO₂-MeOH or LiAlH(OBu')₃-PhMe at 100 °C gives only 40–50% yields of the alcohol but the *threo:erythro* ratio is 90–100:10–0. On the other hand, LiAlH₄ in thf at 0 °C or B₂H₆ in thf at −78 °C give 98% yields of the alcohol, with diastereoisomer ratios of ca 1:1 and 3:1, respectively. The reagent of choice for most reductions is NaBH₄, which affords satisfactory yields and acceptable diastereoisomer ratios of ca 80–90:20–10³²⁰. Buss and Warren³²⁰ coworkers prefer to use the Felkin model³⁴² rather than Cram's rule to explain the stereoisomer ratios in borohydride reductions.

SCHEME 70

In the borohydride reduction of the oxides $Ph_2P(O)CHR^1COR^2$, variation in R^1 from Me to Buⁱ (and including Prⁱ) has little effect on the diastereoisomer ratio when $R^2 = Ph$; a change in the size of R^2 has a more pronounced effect on the stereoisomer ratio when $R^1 = Me$, and with a bias towards the *threo* alcohol.

The reduction of the dibenzophosphole derivatives 265 with NaBH₄ produced alcohol diastereoisomer ratios very similar to those for the analogous diphenylphosphinoyl compounds. In the particular case of 265 ($R^1 = Me$, $R^2 = Ph$), the diastereoisomer ratio obtained with NaBH₄-MeOH was very similar to those obtained with some other reducing agents, e.g. Bus₂BHK in thf at -78°C, but in complete contrast to those obtained with Zn(BH₄)₂ in diethyl ether or NaBH₄-CeCl₃-MeOH when, in each case, the *erythro* alcohol becomes the main product^{3+3,344}.

E. Applications

Table 2 lists many general types of compounds, other than simple alkenes, that have been synthesized using the Horner reaction, either directly, or indirectly through a single simple modification to the original Horner product. The list is not intended to be complete, but is intended to emphasize the broad scope of this versatile reaction.

The Wittig reaction between piperonal and an appropriate ethyltriphenylphosphonium salt provides a mixture of (E)- 266 and (Z)-isosafrole in 57% yield; the Horner reaction between ethyldiphenylphosphine oxide anion and piperonal gives a mixture (9:1) of erythro and threo β -alcohol adducts, the separated components of which provide Z and E isomers of isosafrole containing at most, only traces of the geometric isomers. A similar situation occurs in the synthesis of isomers of anethole (267)³⁰⁷. The same paper³⁰⁷ also reports the synthesis of (E)-feniculin (268), a constituent of fennel. (Z)- α -Bisabolene (269) has also been prepared, using the anion from Ph₂P(O)CH₂CH₂CH=CMe₂, and also (E)-non-6-en-1-ol and (E)-dec-5-en-1-ol, insect pheromone constituents, from propyl- and pentyl-diphenylphosphine oxide anions, through acylation with lactones. Other applications in the natural product field include an approach to avermectin³⁷³ and a synthesis of the oudemansins A (270; R¹ = R² = H) and B (270; R¹ = OMe, R² = Cl)³⁷⁴.

1,1-Difluoroalk-1-enes have been prepared from Ph₂P(O)CHF₂³⁷⁵. A particularly interesting study concerns the syntheses of cyclic alkenes of medium ring size, prepared from phosphine oxides using the epoxide route. (1R, 2R)-2-Diphenylphosphinoylcyclooctanol (271) with NaH in dmf affords (S)-(+)-trans-cyclooctene (272), with the (R)-(-)-hydrocarbon being obtainable from the enantiomeric alcohol. (S)-(+)-cis,trans-Cycloocta-1,5-diene has the oxide 273 as its precursor³⁷⁶. (1RS,4SR,5SR,8RS)-5-Diphenylphosphinoylbicyclo[6.4.0]dodecan-4-ol (274) with KOBu^t in dmso leads to the (1RS,4RS,5RS,8RS)-hydrocarbon 275; the (1RS,4RS,5RS,8RS)-alcohol is converted into the (1RS,4RS,5SR,8RS)-alkene using NaH in dmf³³⁹. The bis(phosphine oxide) 276 is a source of (E, E)-cycloocta-1,5-diene (277)³⁴⁰. These various procedures have also been used in the preparation of cyclononadienes³⁷⁷. The phosphine oxide 278 has been used to prepare trans-cyclooctene by decomposition with NaH³³⁶.

TABLE 2. Types of compounds (other than monosubstituted ethene) preparable by the Horner reaction

Compound type	Ref.	
Di- and tri-substituted alkenes	307, 320	
Dienes and polyenes	191, 320, 327–329, 345–351	
Unsaturated acids and esters	324, 352	
Unsaturated alcohols	176, 192, 307, 308, 321, 353–355	
Unsaturated amines and amides	248, 322, 356	
Unsaturated ketones	174, 306, 310, 357	
Unsaturated keto esters	358	
Vinyl ethers	194, 317, 359–361	
Vinyl sulphides	196, 310, 311, 337, 362	
Vinyl cyanides and isocyanides	363, 364	
Vinyl amines (enamines)	365–367	
Vinyl isoxazoles	368	
Saturated ketones	353, 362, 365, 369	
Saturated hydroxy ketones	308, 353	
Saturated aminoketones	370	
Ketals	306, 360, 371, 372	

(278)

(277)

(276)

Treatment of the diphenylphosphinoylcyclopropane anion with appropriate aldehydes or ketones yields hydrocarbons of the type 279^{378} ; 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)ethane with KOBu^t and the appropriate dicarbonyl reactant yield the polyene 280^{350} . Other polyenes, e.g. 282^{346} and 284^{345} , have been obtained from the anions of the phosphine oxides 281 and 283 using standard procedures. Syntheses of 25-keto-vitamin-D₃ have employed phosphine oxides such as $285^{347-349}$.

Returning to the possible use of phosphinothioyl compounds as intermediates in he Horner reaction, it is interesting to note an alternative reaction route (Scheme 71) for a silylated compound³⁷⁹. The versatility of the Horner reaction is well illustrated in Scheme 72, in which a single, simple, phosphine oxide as its anion acts as a source of unsaturated alcohols (286), hydroxy ketones (287) and cyclopropyl ketones (288)³⁵³, and also of hydroxydienes (289)³⁵⁴.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Ph}_2\text{P(S)CHLi(SiMe}_3) \xrightarrow{\quad \text{Ph}_2\text{CO} \quad} \text{Ph}_2\text{P(S)CH(SiMe}_3) \xrightarrow{\quad \text{Ph}_2\text{P(S)CH} = \text{CPh}_2 \quad} \\ \text{Ph}_2\text{C} \xrightarrow{\quad \text{O}^-\text{Li}^+ \quad} \\ \text{SCHEME 71} \end{array}$$

SCHEME 72

 β_{γ} -Unsaturated ketoncs (291) are derived from the ketals 290³⁷¹ and $\gamma_{\gamma}\delta$ -unsaturated ketones similarly from the ketals 292³⁰⁶ in either E or Z forms. The use of 292 (R¹ = PhS) allows a synthesis of $\alpha_{\gamma}\delta$ -diketones after hydrolysis of the initial Horner product³⁰⁶. β -Keto- $\gamma_{\gamma}\delta$ -unsaturated esters have been prepared from the oxide 293 using two equivalents of NaH in thf-hmpt with the high selectivity biased towards the E isomers³⁵⁸. The many reported syntheses of vinyl ethers and thio ethers allow, by hydrolysis of the

initial products, the preparation of a wide range of saturated ketones³¹⁰. Carbonyl compounds are also readily obtainable by the hydrolysis of enamines; the latter have been prepared with only poor to moderate stereoselectivity from the oxide 294 via the β -alcohol route^{365,366,368}; a similar reagent, 295, is useful in the homologenation of aldehydes³⁸⁰.

A modification to the normal Horner procedure involves the interaction of phosphine oxide carbanions with nitrones. In particular, the anions $Ph_2P(O)CHX$ (X = CN or COOR) have been made to react with 3,4-dihydroisoquinoline N-oxide to give 1-(substituted)methylene-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroisoquinolines, but the cyclic nitrone 209 ($R^2 = Me$; n = 1) yields a mixture of 2-(substituted)methylenepyrrolidines and the bicyclic isomers 296³⁸¹.

VI. PROPERTIES OF THE P-C (LIGAND) BOND

A. Thermal Stability

As might be expected, the thermal stability of tertiary phosphine chalcogenides depends on a number of structural features including the particular chalcogen atom and the

7. Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides

ligands, the general order of stability conferred by the chalcogen—phosphorus bond being oxide > sulphide > selenide > telluride. Ph₃PO decomposes at ca 450 °C and the sulphide at ca 380 °C. Trialkylphosphine oxides with no β -hydrogen atoms are even more stable, sometimes up to ca 600 °C, and most tertiary phosphine oxides appear to decompose at temperatures higher than those of the corresponding amine oxides, often by as much as 300 °C. When a β -hydrogen atom is available, elimination reactions may then occur during thermolysis (equation 81).

$$Me_2P(O)Et \xrightarrow{330 \ 670 \ ^{\circ}C} H_2C = CH_2 + Me_2P(O)H + Me_2PH + Me_2POOH$$
 (81)

An important feature of the chemistry of smaller ring cyclic phosphine oxides is their tendency to fragment, particularly under thermolysis conditions. Thus, when heated, r-1,t-2,t-3-tri-tert-butylphosphirane 1-oxide eliminates tert-butylphosphinidine oxide, which can be trapped by reaction with alcohols or with a suitable o-benzoquinone

(Scheme 73)³⁸². The 1,8-bond in 9-phenyl-9-phosphabicyclo[6.1.0]nona-2,4,6-triene 9-oxide (297; Ar = Ph) is particularly susceptible to fission, and when the oxide is obtained by direct oxidation of the corresponding phosphine even at $-20\,^{\circ}$ C, it is accompanied by its valence tautomer 298, which then rearranges to the dihydrophosphindole 299³⁰. The analogous 297 (Ar = 2,4,6-Bu $^{t}_{3}$ C₆H₂) readily decomposes in CHCl₃ to yield cyclooctatetraene and $P_{1}P_{1}^{t}$ -bis[(2,4,6-tri-tert-butyl)phenyl]phosphinic anhydride³⁸³. Extrusion of phenylphosphinidine oxide is assumed to account for the course of the bromination of the dihydrophosphepins 179 (Scheme 36).

Elimination of the phosphinidene fragments RP=X (X = O or S) occurs from bridging positions when phosphole dimers and other Diels-Alder adducts are heated, e.g. $300^{384,385}$, or photolysed, e.g. 301^{384} (see also equations 52 and 53 and Schemes 51 and

52).

B. Cleavage by Metals

The older literature quotes several instances of the cleavage of P—C bonds by the action of metals, particularly the alkali metals. Trialkylphosphine oxides (butyl, octyl) and sodium have been shown to produce dialkylphosphines in ca 50% yields, but the oxide most widely investigated has been Ph₃PO. The latter is cleaved by two equivalents of sodium, and subsequent treatment with benzyl chloride gives benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide (77%); a similar reaction with potassium afforded [(3-benzyl)phenyl]diphenylphosphine oxide, probably through a biphenyl radical ion. The formation of a paramagnetic species is suspected as a result of the interaction of Ph₃PO and potassium or rubidium in ethereal solvents³⁸⁶. Benzyldiphenylphosphine oxide is also formed, together with benzene and diphenylphosphinic acid, from Ph₃PO and sodium under toluene, probably via PhCH₂Na.

C. Cleavage by Nucleophiles

Dialkylphosphine oxides are said to be formed when trialkylphosphine oxides interact with NaH; Ph₃PO and LiAlH₄ under thf or dioxane yield diphenylphosphine. The most widely studied examples of the cleavage of the phosphorus—carbon(ligand) bond by nucleophiles concern their behaviour towards alkali. The ready removal of a benzyl group from a benzylphosphine oxide is well authenticated. When fused with KOH, tribenzylphosphine oxide yields dibenzylphosphinic acid (about 10%), but higher yields of phosphinic acids are obtainable from substituted benzylphosphine oxides; under the same conditions the analogous tris(cyclohexylmethyl)phosphine oxides are unaffected ³⁸⁷. Enantiomers of MePh(PhCH₂)PO with KOH in dmso yield racemic MePhP(O)OH ³⁸⁸, and the same reagents remove the benzyl group from PhCH₂P(O)Ph₂ ³⁸⁹, but fusion with NaOH at 250° will remove *n*-alkyl groups from the oxides Ph₂P(O)R. Tris(3-nitrophenyl)phosphine oxide is hydrolysed to nitrobenzene by 50% aqueous KOH²³¹.

When heated with alkali in 50% dioxane³⁹⁰ or even with 10% aqueous NaOH solution³⁹¹, the oxides 302 (X = O or S) are cleaved to the free heterocycle and the phosphinic acid. Tris(2-pyrrolyl)phosphine oxide (303; R = H) was thought originally to hydrolyse to the pyrrolylphosphonic acid via the phosphinic acid, and ultimately to give pyrrole itself, following attack of HO $^-$ at phosphorus. The failure of 303 (R = Me) to undergo hydrolysis under the same conditions rules out a mechanism involving such a process, and the currently favoured mechanism involves deprotonation at nitrogen (Scheme 74)^{391,392}.

The attachment of strongly electronegative groups directly to phosphorus facilitates the fission of the phosphorus—carbon bond by nucleophiles. Tris(trifluoromethyl)-phosphine oxide undergoes the fluoroform reaction with aqueous NaOH (and even with

SCHEME 74

water only over an extended period); dimethylamine also removes one trifluoromethyl group very easily to give CHF₃ and (CF₃)₂P(O)NMe₂³⁹³. (Pentafluorophenyl)diphenyl-phosphine oxide loses the perfluorophenyl group by the action of NaOMe in MeOH; the corresponding sulphide behaves likewise^{233,234}. Acetylenic phosphine chalcogenides are cleaved by boiling aqueous KOH and by ethanolic AgNO₃³⁹⁴.

Some of the more interesting situations arise when the phosphorus atom is part of a ring system. The dihydrodibenzophosphepin 304 loses the exocyclic Ph group and gives the cyclic phosphinic acid 305 when acted upon by NaOH at 250 °C³⁹⁵; with LiAlH₄ or NaH, the principal reaction is one of ring fission, and with MeMgI both replacement of Ph by Me, and ring fission, occur³⁹⁶.

(304)
$$R = Ph$$
 (306) $R^1 = Cy$; $R^2 = Ph$ (309)
(305) $R = OH$ (307) $R^1 = Cy$; $R^2 = OH$ (309)

1-Methylphospholan-3-one 1-oxide is hydrolysed by NaOH solution to MeP(O) (OH)CH₂CH₂COMe²⁰³. The oxide 306 yields the phosphinic acid 307, whereas 308 gives the acyclic phosphinic acid 309³⁹⁷. The dibenzophosphole 310 suffers exclusive ring opening to 313 when fused with NaOH, but the benzyl analogue (311) preferentially ring opens to 314 (55%) but also affords 23% of the cyclic phosphinic acid 312³⁹⁸.

1-Benzyl-2,2,3,4,4-pentamethylphosphetane 1-oxide (315) is transformed exclusively into the phosphinic acid 316 with NaOH at 250 °C; the analogous 1-phenyl compound 317 yields both the cyclic phosphinic acid 316 and, preferentially, the acyclic phosphinic acid 318, in the ratio 1:4³⁹⁹; the oxide 317 is stable towards aqueous sodium hydroxide⁴⁰⁰.

(316) R = OH(317) R = Ph

It is apparent that the cleavage of acyclic phosphine oxides can generally occur when electronegative groups are attached directly to phosphorus, and the preferential site for fission can be predicted if there is a choice of leaving groups—that group forming the more stable anion will be expelled. Attempts have been made to explain the observed results in terms of pentacoordinate intermediates; the preferred choice between trigonal bipyramidal or square-planar intermediates seemed to be tbp389. The role that phosphorus(V) intermediates or transition states play in the chemistry of acyclic phosphine oxides is far from clearly understood, unlike their role for phosphate esters. The position is also unclear for cyclic phosphine oxides. The role of phosphorus(V) intermediates is well established in the chemistry of esters of cyclic phosphoric and phosphinic acids, and of cyclic phosphonium salts. In an attempt to discern a role for pentacoordinate intermediates in the chemistry of cyclic phosphine oxides, Gorenstein⁴⁰¹ examined the pH-rate profile for the epimerization and ¹⁸O incorporation for 1-phenyl-2,2,3-trimethylphosphetane 1-oxide, but was unable to provide conclusive positive evidence. On the other hand, other workers have explained the behaviour of 304 towards nucleophiles in terms of phosphorus(V) intermediates (Scheme 75)^{396,397}, employing the concept of relative apicophilicities. The latter concept, in conjunction with the feature(s) of the cyclic phosphine oxide which controls the siting of the ring in the phosphorus(V) intermediate, i.e. ring size (a four-membered ring is likely to be restricted to an apical-equatorial position), together with the question of stability of the leaving group as an anion, will all contribute to the final outcome of the reaction of a phosphine oxide with a nucleophile.

The Horner reaction is yet another example of a reaction in which the P-C (ligand) bond is cleaved, probably at some stage through the breakdown of a tbp intermediate formed by nucleophilic attack of O^- at electrophilic phosphorus. A similar breakdown accounts for the formation of acetylenes from the thermolysis of (2-ketoalkyl)phosphine oxides under basic conditions (Scheme 76)⁴⁰².

SCHEME 76

α-Hydroxyalkylphosphine oxides are particularly susceptible to degradation under alkaline conditions (Scheme 77)⁴⁰³. (1-Oxoalkyl)phosphine oxides (319) hydrolyse under even milder conditions to the secondary phosphine oxides R¹₂P(O)H, which then react with the starting material to give (hydroxyalkyl)bis(phosphine oxides) (320)⁴⁰⁴.

SCHEME 77

The phosphine oxide 321 decomposes in boiling benzene and benzyl(α -hydroxylbenzyl)phosphinic acid (322) can be isolated. In the presence of 1 M NaOH solution, the oxide 321 yields dibenzylphosphinic acid; a mechanism for this reaction has been postulated (Scheme 78)⁴⁰⁵.

The same oxide (321), when heated with aromatic amines, yields first the monoamino compounds 324, probably via the secondary phosphine oxide 323; the final products

(324)

(325)

arc bis(α -aminobenzyl)benzylphosphine oxides (325). No such reaction occurs with branched-chain aliphatic amines⁴⁰⁶.

In another rearrangement proceeding through nucleophilic intramolecular attack and of high synthetic potential, 2-hydroxy-2-aryl-1,2-dihydrophosphorins (326) are treated with NaH; the intermediate anion can furnish tautomeric-like products depending on the nature of the original substituents (Scheme 79)⁴⁰⁷⁻⁴⁰⁹.

One of the more unusual examples of the fission of the P—C(ligand) bond is that depicted in Scheme 80, in which di-2-pyridinylphosphine oxides (327; X = H or Br, or XX = a polyether chain) are treated with NaOEt in toluene at 100°C when the main reaction products are the 2,2'-bipyridinyl⁴¹⁰. Carbon nucleophiles (MeMgI, PhMgBr, PhCH₂MgCl, PhLi, 2-pyrLi, etc.) yield additionally simple 2-substituted pyridines, and pyridine itself⁴¹¹, also produced by the action of acidic reagents⁴¹². The phosphorus—carbon bond in tri-tert-butylphosphirane 1-oxide is cleaved by nitrogen nucleophiles, in particular the bases LiNR₂; fission also occurs to some extent at the C—C bond, and the relative extents of these reactions depend on R and the solvent²⁰².

Wittig and Cristau⁴¹³ were unable to corroborate earlier observations (Wittig and Rieber, 1949)⁶⁻⁹ of the formation of tetraphenylphosphonium salts from Ph₃PO and PhLi, and instead showed that carbanions were formed which could be trapped in a reaction with benzophenone (Scheme 81). According to Schaub *et al.*⁴¹⁴, metallation of Ph₃PO with PhLi or Bu'Li occurs at the (mono)*ortho* positions⁴¹⁴. Exchange of organic groups when Ph₃PO was treated with RCH₂Li (R = H or Me) had already been demonstrated by Seyferth *et al.*⁴¹⁵.

The fission of the P-C(sp) bond in diphenyl(phenylethynyl)phosphine oxide under the influence of PhLi to give Ph_3PO and the lithium salt of phenylacetylene has been formulated as occurring via a pentacoordinate intermediate⁴¹⁶.

$$R^{2}O = R^{1} = Ph$$

$$R^{2}O = R^{1} = Ph$$

$$R^{2}O = R^{1}$$

$$R^{2}O = R^$$

SCHEME 82

Ph₂PCMe₂CHMe₂Ph
(331)

(330)

Ring cleavage occurs when the phosphetane 1-oxide 328 (X = O; R = Ph) is acted upon by PhLi (Scheme 82), as evidenced by subsequent methylation of the intermediate(s) to give the phosphine oxide 330, and treatment with water when the secondary phosphine oxide 329 was obtained^{417,418}.

The phosphahomocubane 332 (R = H) is lithiated with PhLi in the without ring opening; deuteriation or methylation gives 332 (R = D or Me), and PhSSPh gives *inter alia* the sulphide 332 (R = SPh). Oxidation of the latter with mCPBA and treatment of the sulphone with NaN(SiMe₃)₂ resulted in ring opening to the phosphinic acid 333⁴¹⁹.

As in the case of the oxide, Seyferth and Welch⁴²⁰ demonstrated exchange between Ph_3PS and RCH_2Li to give $Ph_2P(S)CHRLi$, and with PhLi, triphenylphosphine sulphide gives Ph_3P and PhSH (Wittig, 1969, unpublished results). In the latter example, the loss of sulphur and valence contraction are also to be found in reactions 82 and 83, and also occur when the sulphide 328 (X = S, R = Ph) is treated with one equivalent of PhLi when half the starting amount of starting sulphide is recovered and the phosphine (331) is obtained concurrently.

$$p\text{-Tol}_3PS + PhLi \longrightarrow p\text{-Tol}_3P + PhP(Tol-p)_2$$
 (82)

$$Ph_3PS + p\text{-TolLi} \longrightarrow Ph_3P + Ph_2PTol-p$$
 (83)

It appears that, to some extent at least, attack occurs at sulphur in addition to phosphorus⁴¹⁷.

VII. REACTIONS OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PHOSPHINE CHALCOGENIDES

As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, the chalcogenide derivatives of primary and secondary phosphines are tautomeric substances with the phosphorus capable of existence in both the tricoordinate tervalent (2.2) and tetracoordinate quinquevalent (2.1) states. In practice the phosphorus adopts, almost exclusively (with two known exceptions), the latter state. Secondary phosphine oxides are not particularly stable substances with regard to heat. Thus, dimethylphosphine oxide begins to disproportionate to Me_2PH and $Me_2P(O)OH$ at ca $100\,^{\circ}C$; the diethyl compound decomposes at $180-200\,^{\circ}C^{421}$.

Chiral secondary phosphine oxides have been prepared in optically active forms; Ph(PhCH₂)P(O)H is configurationally stable in MeOH at room temperature, but rapidly racemizes in the presence of a trace of mineral acid; it also undergoes rapid deuterium exchange at ambient temperature⁴²². On the other hand, Ph(PhCHMe)P(O)H does not undergo stereomutation in MeOH containing NaOMe or 0.05 M HCl, but does epimerize in the presence of LiAlH₄⁴²³.

The chalcogenides of primary phosphines, RP(X)H₂, are also tautomeric, and are relatively inaccessible substances and have been studied only poorly (see, e.g., ref. 424). The derivatives of secondary phosphines have now been well characterized and their

reactions studied to a much greater extent. Their nucleophilic character in the presence of a base, reacting at either the chalcogen or phosphorus to give tervalent or quinquevalent phosphorus derivatives, has been recognized for some time. Their duality of behaviour is also to be noted, since not only can they react as nucleophiles in the absence of a base, as in the conversion of diarylphosphine oxides into diarylphosphinous chlorides (diarylchlorophosphines) by the action of PCl₃⁴²⁵, but they can also behave as electrophiles towards bases. Thus, a rapid evolution of hydrogen occurs when secondary phosphine oxides are treated with an excess of NaOEt or NaOH in EtOH; the main phosphorus-containing product is a phosphinic acid. Thiophenoxide behaves in a similar fashion, e.g. with Ph₂P(O)H, when the phosphorus-containing product is S-phenyl diphenylphosphinothioate. This observation explains the formation of hydrogen when (α-hydroxyalkyl)phosphine oxides are in contact with alkaline reagents⁴²⁶.

The reactions considered in this section are those in which the quinquecovalency of

the phosphorus is maintained.

A. Oxidation and Reduction Reactions

The oxidation (addition of chalcogen) of secondary phosphine chalcogenides may be represented simply by the general equation 84. Secondary phosphine oxides are readily oxidized to phosphinic acids by means of hydrogen peroxide^{427,428}; diarylphosphine oxides have also been oxidized with *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide or *p*-nitroperoxybenzoic acid and the kinetics of the reactions studied⁴²⁷.

$$R_2P(X)H + \frac{1}{2}Y_2 \longrightarrow R_2P(X)YH \rightleftharpoons R_2P(Y)XH$$
 (84)

The analogous conversion of secondary phosphine sulphides into phosphinodithioic acids by the addition of elemental sulphur is also known. The addition of oxygen to a phosphine sulphide appears to be less satisfactory for those very few examples reported⁴²⁹; on the other hand, the successful addition of sulphur to *tert*-butylphenylphosphine oxide to give the corresponding phosphinothioic acid has been recorded, whilst the treatment of diarylphosphine oxides with diphenyl disulphide leads to S-phenyl esters of diarylphosphinothioic acids⁴³⁰.

Iron powder has been used successfully in the desulphurization of secondary phosphine

sulphides (diisobutyl, diphenyl) to the parent phosphines (Maier, 1964)⁶⁻⁹.

B. Replacement Reactions

The simplest of these is that of the phosphine hydrogen by a metal when the chalcogenide is treated with the metal itself, or with a metal alkoxide or organometallic reagent

such as an organolithium or Grignard reagent.

The replacement of hydrogen by a halogen, although well established, is not a reaction which always lends itself to synthetic utility since there are easier ways to prepare the products. Ph₂P(O)H with SOCl₂ yields diphenylphosphinic chloride, Ph₂P(O)Cl. The interaction of Et₂P(O)H and SOCl₂ initially affords Et₂P(O)Cl, but this reacts further with the starting oxide, and a sequence of steps leads eventually to Et₂PCl, Et₂PH and ultimately to Et₂PCl₃⁴³¹. The direct thiocyanation of *tert*-butylphenylphosphine oxide yields the relatively stable Bu'PhP(O)SCN [compounds possessing the P(O)SCN grouping tend to be unstable], which then rearranges to Bu'PhP(O)NCS⁴³².

Secondary phosphine oxides have been alkylated with reactive, e.g. benzylic, halides to give tertiary phosphine oxides^{428,433}, and a recently reported procedure for this same conversion involves the treatment of a secondary phosphine oxide with an alcohol (secondary and tertiary alcohols react more slowly than do primary alcohols) in the presence of 5–10 mol% of an alkyl chloride, bromide or iodide (equation 85)⁴³⁴. Benzylic

halides, α -bromo ketones and methylolamines⁴³⁵ have been used to alkylate secondary phosphine sulphides, either in the free state or as a metal derivative⁴²⁹ (see also Section VII.C.3).

$$R^{1}R^{2}P(O)H + R^{3}OH \xrightarrow{R^{3}X} R^{1}R^{2}P(O)R^{3} + H_{2}O$$
 (85)

C. Addition Reactions

Additions to systems possessing sp² or sp carbon form by far the most widely investigated and synthetically important group of reactions of secondary phosphine chalcogenides⁴³⁶.

1. Additions to C=C and C=C bonds

The general mode of addition of secondary phosphine chalcogenides to activated olefinic compounds is illustrated in equation 86.

$$R_{2}^{1}P(X)H + R_{2}^{2}HC = CR_{3}^{3}Y \xrightarrow{B} R_{2}^{1}P(X)CHR_{2}^{2}CHR_{3}^{3}Y$$

$$(86)$$

Additions of secondary phosphine oxides to derivatives of propenoic acid and those of homologous acids and other carbonyl compounds are well known, and including additions to 334 ($R^2 = H$, Me, Ph or COOEt; $R^3 = H$ or Me; Y = CN, COOEt, CONH₂, COMe or COPh) for $R^1 = PhCH_2$ or Oct^{437} and $R^1_2 = Ph(PhCH_2)^{438}$. A series of similar additions have been reported for the phenophosphazine system⁴²⁸ and for vinylsilanes⁴³⁹.

The initial addition of secondary phosphine oxides to unsaturated carboxylic esters provides a route to phospholane oxides (Scheme 83). The yields of initial adducts are generally low for derivatives of propenoic acid but are greater (45–75%) for those of homologues and for cinnamic acid esters⁴⁴⁰ (see also Scheme 90). Although addition reactions of secondary phosphine sulphides have been recorded^{429,435,441}, the general outcome is less successful than for the phosphine oxides.

$$R^{1} \longrightarrow R^{2}R^{3}C = CR^{4}COOEt$$

$$PhCH_{2} \longrightarrow R^{1} \longrightarrow R^{2}R^{3}CHR^{4}COOEt$$

$$PhCH_{2} \longrightarrow R^{1} \longrightarrow R^{2}R^{3}CHR^{4}COOEt$$

$$R^{1} \longrightarrow R^{2}R^{3}CHR^{4}COOEt$$

$$R^{1} \longrightarrow R^{2}R^{3}CHR^{4}COOEt$$

SCHEME 83

Recently studied examples of the addition of secondary phosphine oxides to tertiary vinylphosphine oxides include those of RPhP(O)H (R = Me or Bu¹) to (S)-methylphenyl-vinylphosphine oxide in boiling toluene, from which a mixture of diastereoisomeric products was obtained (equation 87)^{298,442}. Assignment of configurations to separated compounds was sometimes made on the basis of optical rotation measurements (R¹ or R² = Me or Ph) or X-ray crystallography (R¹ = Bu¹, R² = Ph) but was not always possible, e.g. when R¹ or R² is benzyl. The same compounds are obtainable in an addition–elimination sequence when chiral α -bromo- or α -chloro-vinylmethylphenylphosphine oxides are treated with secondary phosphine oxides in the presence of Et₃N⁴⁴³.

$$R^{1} = \frac{0}{R^{2}} + H_{2}C = \frac{0}{R^{2}} + \frac{1}{R^{2}} + \frac{1}{R^{2}}$$

In the presence of nickel(II) and bis(trimethylsilyl)acetamide secondary phosphine oxides do not add to (1-acetyloxyallyl)diphenylphosphine oxide, but rather displace the acetyloxy group with the formation of a mixture of isomeric [hydrogenolysed to the same 1,3-bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)propane] 1,3-bis(diphenylphosphinoyl)propenes (equation 88)⁴⁴⁴.

2. Additions to C=N and $C\equiv N$ bonds

The addition of diphenylphosphine oxide to the imino bond of the hydrazones of aldehydes or ketones, was reported in 1960 by Kreutzkamp⁶⁻⁹; it is a reaction which is easily reversible, particularly in the presence of traces of acid or base. Thermolytic cleavage of the products of addition leads to branched-chain tertiary phosphine oxides (Scheme 84), but the scope of this preparative process appears not to have been examined to any great extent⁴⁴⁵.

$$Ph_{2}P(O)H + R^{1}R^{2}C = NNHTos-p \xrightarrow{25^{\circ}C} Ph_{2}P(O)CR^{1}R^{2}NHNHTos-p$$

$$\downarrow heat, thf$$

$$Ph_{2}P(O)CHR^{1}R^{2}$$

$$SCHEME~84$$

Diphenylphosphine oxide adds to the nitriles RCN (R = Ph, PhCH₂ or CN) when heated in the presence of EtO⁻ to give the phosphinoylaldimines Ph₂P(O)CR=NH, and the kinetics of the reaction have been studied⁴⁴⁶. For α -ketonitriles, the initial reaction to give a 1:1 adduct occurs at the carbonyl group, but further reaction to give the 2:1 adduct involves the nitrile group (Scheme 85)⁴⁴⁷.

$$Bu_{2}P(O)H + MeCOCN \longrightarrow Bu_{2}P(O)OCHMeCN \longrightarrow Bu_{2}P(O)OCHMeCPBu_{2}$$

$$\parallel$$

$$O$$

$$SCHEME, 85$$

3. Additions to C=O and C=S bonds

Numerous examples exist of the interaction of aldehydes or ketones with secondary phosphine chalcogenides. Until fairly recently, these consisted only of the intermolecular type (equation 89). More recently, however, examples of intramolecular reaction have been forthcoming, leading usefully to the synthesis of phosphorus-containing ring systems.

$$R_{2}^{1}P(X)H + R_{2}^{2}R_{3}^{3}C = O \rightleftharpoons R_{2}^{1}P(X)CH(OH)R_{2}^{2}R_{3}^{3}$$
 (89)

Within the grouping of intermolecular reactions, additions occur to saturated carbonyl compounds (1,2-additions), and also to conjugated systems, in which both 1,4- and 1,6-additions have been observed.

In contrast to the similar interactions between dialkyl hydrogen phosphonates and aldehydes or ketones which require a basic catalyst, those involving secondary phosphine oxides may not require such a catalyst. Reactions between dibutyl- or dioctyl-phosphine oxide and activated carbonyl compounds, e.g. $R^2 = H$, Me, Et or Ph, $R^3 = COMe$, COOalkyl or $P(O)(OEt)_2$ (equation 89) occur exothermically and are complete within a few days⁴⁴⁸⁻⁴⁵⁰. Mixtures of diastereoisomeric products (335) have been obtained from unsymmetric diarylphosphine oxides and chloral⁴⁵¹ and from ethylphenylphosphine oxide and acetophenone. The latter, at 25 °C, yielded a 70:30 mixture of the *erythro* and *threo* forms of the 1:1 adduct 336, a result explained in terms of the preferred mutual transoidal approach of C=O and P=O⁴⁵². Alkanebis(phosphine oxide)s react in the expected manner to give the adduct 337⁴⁵³. Steric interference in reaction 89 has been observed; thus, di-*tert*-butylphosphine oxide fails to add to simple aldehydes or ketones even in the presence of a basic catalyst⁴⁵⁴.

$$Ar^{1}Ar^{2}P(O)CH(OH)CCl_{3}$$
 EtPhP(O)C(OH)MePh (335) (336)

The reaction between acetone and the magnesium salt of diphenylphosphine oxide yields a mixture of the expected 1:1 adduct 338 (X = O) together with 339 (X = O) and 340 (X = O), the latter adducts being derived from mesityl oxide and phorone, the source

O O
$$\|R^1R^2C-P-(CH_2)_n-P-CR^1R^2$$
 $\|HO R^3 R^3 OH$ (337)

of which was the acetone and base⁴⁸⁵. The adduct 338 (X = O) has also been obtained, in an interesting manner, following the debenzylation of benzyl diphenylphosphinoylformate by NaI in acetone; evidently, under the experimental conditions, the diphenylphosphinoylcarboxyl anion decarboxylates very readily (Scheme 86)⁴⁵⁶.

Additions to secondary phosphine sulphides are much slower and need to be base catalysed, but they are also reversible so as to make satisfactory characterization of the products impossible, or at least very difficult⁴²⁹. Combinations of the adducts 338-340 (X = S) are obtainable from diphenylphosphine sulphide and acetone under neutral to basic conditions⁴⁵⁴.

The possible role of the carbonyl–phosphine oxide condensation in the aminomethylation of secondary phosphine oxides using mixtures of carbonyl reactant and amines has been discussed by Petrov et al. 457. In the case of the (PhCH₂)₂P(O)H–HCHO–Et₂NH system, the two main constituents in the product are (PhCH₂)₂P(O)CH₂NEt₂ and (PhCH₂)₂P(O)CH₂OH; both are produced at 60–110 °C, but at 140–150 °C only the former is present, and the former is not obtained from the phosphinoylmethanol and amine at the lower temperatures. The reaction is therefore considered to proceed through an initial hydroxymethylation of the amine. The formation of the aminomethylphosphine oxide at higher temperatures may well proceed through dissociation of the hydroxymethylphosphine oxide into secondary phosphine oxide and HCHO followed by hydroxymethylation of the amine to Et₂NCH₂OH and its subsequent reaction; it is worth noting that the oxide (PhCH₂)₂P(O)CH₂OMe does not dissociate when heated, nor does it exchange MeO for NEt₂ even at 180–190 °C⁴⁵⁷. Some comparison may be made between these results and those embodied in Scheme 78.

Following his original (1961) observations on the formation of *trans*-stilbene when benzaldehyde and diphenylphosphine oxide anion were heated together at 200 °C, Horner⁶⁻⁹ suggested that the reaction might proceed via (α-hydroxybenzyl)diphenylphosphine oxide. However, it is now known that the latter is unstable to base, and even at 100 °C reverts to PhCHO and the secondary phosphine oxide anion in the presence of NaH. Moreover, it has now been demonstrated that Ph₂P(O)⁻ with two equivalents of PhCHO at 180 °C yields *trans*-stilbene together with a mixture of *trans*- (45%) and *cis*- (40%) stilbene epoxides, a result similar to that produced when (α-hydroxybenzyl)-diphenylphosphine oxide is heated with one equivalent of PhCHO and NaH at 180 °C. Further, when heated with Ph₂P(O)⁻ at 180 °C, *trans*-stilbene epoxide gives a quantitative yield of *trans*-stilbene. The formation of symmetrical alkenes from phosphine oxide anions and (aromatic) aldehydes or ketones is formulated as in Scheme 87⁴⁵⁸.

The acylation of secondary phosphine oxides yields (1-oxoalkyl)phosphine oxides; thus, di-tert-butylphosphine oxide, as its lithium salt, affords $Bu_2^tP(O)COPh$ in 27% yield when treated with benzoyl chloride⁴⁵². The acetylation of diphenylphosphine oxide at 55 °C with acetic anhydride leads to acetyldiphenylphosphine oxide (341; R = Me), which slowly isomerizes into diphenylphosphinous acetic anhydride (342; R = Me)

$$Ph_{2}P(0)^{-} + R^{1}R^{2}CO \longrightarrow R^{1}R^{2}C \longrightarrow PPh_{2} \qquad R^{1}R^{2}C \longrightarrow CR^{1}R^{2}$$

$$R^{1}R^{2}CO \longrightarrow PPh_{2}$$

$$R^{1}R^{2}C \longrightarrow PPh_{2}$$

$$R^{1}R^{2}C \longrightarrow PPh_{2}$$

$$R^{1}R^{2}C \longrightarrow PPh_{2}$$

$$R^{1}R^{2}C \longrightarrow PPh_{2}$$

SCHEME 87

(Scheme 88). With more diphenylphosphine oxide anion, acetyldiphenylphosphine oxide yields the bis(diphenylphosphinoyl) compound 343, rearrangement of which through the three-centre process indicated in 344 results in the formation of the phosphinic ester 345 (R = Me)^{456,459}. The phosphine oxides PhRP(O)COMe ($R = PhCH_2$, Cy, Bu^t or Ar), when heated with the oxides PhRP(O)H also furnish compounds of types 343 and 345^{460,461}. The reported formation of tetraphenyldiphosphine monoxide from diphenylphosphine oxide and acetic anhydride in the presence of pyridine has been attributed to reaction between the anhydride 342 (R = Me) and the $Ph_2P(O)H^{462}$.

SCHEME 88

Benzoyldiphenylphosphine oxide (341; R = Ph), obtained from tetraphenyldiphosphine and benzoic acid, is rapidly converted into 345 (R = Ph); following a similar reaction with certain aliphatic acids, e.g. phenylacetic acid, phenoxyacetic acid and 3-phenylpropanoic acid, compounds of type 343 were isolable because of the slowness of the rearrangement steps. Other acids, e.g. di- and tri-phenylacetic acids, were converted into hydrocarbons⁴⁶³. The same products (Scheme 88; R = Me) have been observed following an Arbuzov reaction between the appropriate RCOCl and methyl diphenylphosphinite Ph_2POMe^{464} .

The nucleophilic activity of secondary phosphine oxides, already referred to, accounts for the formation of chlorodiphenylphosphine and acetic acid from a reaction between diphenylphosphine oxide and MeCOCl⁴⁶⁵; Ph₂P(O)H and Ph₂PCl then react further in a stepwise sequence involving tetraphenyldiphosphine and its monoxide, diphenylphosphinic chloride and, ultimately, diphenylphosphinic acid and chlorodiphenylphosphine⁴⁶⁶.

The addition of MeMgI to benzoylethylphenylphosphine oxide affords a mixture of erythro and threo diastereoisomers of (1-hydroxy-1-phenylethyl)ethylphenylphosphine oxide (336), the proportions of which (7:3) are essentially independent of reaction temperature, and are explicable in terms of a Cram model⁴⁵². The additions of secondary phosphine oxides or sulphides to isothiocyanates requires basic catalysis and probably proceeds through an addition across the C=S bond followed by a prototropic shift (Scheme 89)^{453,467}.

$$R^{1}_{2}P(X)H + R^{2}NCS \longrightarrow R^{1}_{2}P \longrightarrow C$$

$$R^{1}_{2}PCNHR^{2}$$

$$\parallel$$

$$S \longrightarrow H$$

SCHEME 89

The conjugate (Michael) addition of, e.g., diphenylphosphine oxide anion to an unsaturated carbonyl compound is generalized in equation 90, and several examples of these and similar additions have been reported 181,433,456. The failure of diphenylphosphine oxide to add in this manner to but-2-enal is rather unexpected; the product is, instead, 2-(diphenylphosphinoyl)pent-3-en-2-ol, formed by normal 1,2-addition 456. An earlier recorded example of a 1,4-addition to a conjugated carbonyl system is to be found in the ready addition, in the absence of a catalyst, of diphenylphosphine oxide to p-benzoquinone; the phenolic product was thought to be diphenyl(2,5-dihydroxyphenyl)phosphine oxide 426,468,469. A sequence potentially useful for the synthesis of phospholes or dihydrophospholes (Scheme 90) is initiated by the Michael addition of a secondary benzylphosphine oxide to an unsaturated methyl ketone (compare Scheme 83)⁴⁷⁰.

$$Ph_{2}P(0)H + R^{2} \xrightarrow{R^{1}} O \xrightarrow{B^{-}} Ph_{2}P \xrightarrow{R^{1}} R^{2} O$$
(90)

Diphenylphosphine oxide adds conjugatively to the unsaturated ketophosphine oxide 346 to give the enol 347, and also non-conjugatively to give the adduct 348; the latter compounds evidently rearrange to the isolable phosphinic esters 349 (Scheme 91)⁴⁷¹. When the depicted synthesis of the oxides 346 is carried out using diethyl ether as solvent, the products also contain the appropriately *O*-acylated derivatives of 347^{472} . The structure of the compounds (*E*)-347 ($R^1 = R^2 = Me$; $R^3 = H$) and 349 ($R^1 = R^2 = Me$; $R^3 = H$) were confirmed by X-ray crystallographic analysis.

A particularly interesting case of conjugate addition is that of secondary phosphine oxides to cyclopentadienones leading to 1:1 adducts. The mixing of solutions of diphenyl-phosphine oxide and the cyclopentadienones 350 (R = Me or Ph) in the presence of dimethylamine results in a series of colour changes suggestive of reversibility of addition⁴⁷³. The adducts are thought to be formed by nucleophilic attack of phosphorus(III) on the carbon sited adjacent to the carbonyl group, the final site of protonation being dependent on the experimental conditions. The main product from 350 (R = Ph) was 351. This compound is unstable to heat and to strong bases, being

7. Chemical properties and reactions of phosphine chalcogenides

SCHEME 90

Ph₂POMe +
$$R^1R^2C = CR^3COCI$$
 $-196 °C$
 Ph_2P
 R^2
 R^3
 R^1
 Ph_2POH
 Ph_2POH
 R^2
 Ph_2POH
 R^2
 Ph_2POH
 R^3
 R^1
 Ph_2POH
 R^2
 Ph_2POH
 R^2
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 R^1
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 R^3
 R^1
 R^2
 R^3
 R^3
 R^1
 R^2
 R^3
 R^3

SCHEME 91

) STATISTICS OF THE PARTY OF TH

rapidly decomposed on alumina and silica; 351 was also the main product when $Ph_2P(O)Na$ reacted with tetraphenylcyclone, or when the addition was carried out in the presence of a very weak base⁴⁷⁴. When the addition was carried out in the presence of HCl, the products included tetraphenyldiphosphine dioxide, the three adducts 352–354 and the *trans*-2,3-dihydro derivative of the starting material. Of the diastereoisomers 352 and 353 (R = Me or Ph), the additions proceed with a bias towards 352. This system thus presents evidence for conjugate 1:4 and 1:6 additions.

The addition reactions thus far considered have all been of the intermolecular type. As an example of an intramolecular 1:2 addition, the conversion of **354** into the 2-hydroxyphospholane 1-oxide **355** following liberation of the δ -carbonyl group (by acidolytic removal of the protecting group) may be cited⁴⁷⁵.

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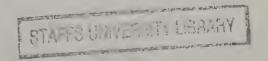
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IX. ADDENDA

Some aspects of the chemistry of phosphine chalcogenides have been considered, of necessity, in a recent volume on phosphorus chemistry⁴⁷⁶.

Section II.A.1.

The transfer of phosphoryl oxygen from a phosphine oxide to a metal centre represents a unique approach to the deoxygenation of a phosphine oxide. The transfer occurs when the initial adduct from a tungsten(II) complex, WCl₂(PMeR₂)₄ (R = Me or Ph), and the phosphine oxide, e.g. Ph₂P(O)CH₂CH₂PPh₂, is heated. The products of the reaction include the complexes W(O)Cl₂(diphos)(PMeR₂)₂ and W(O)Cl₂(PMeR₂)₃. One serious limitation to the scope of the procedure is the lack of reactivity shown by non-chelating phosphine oxides⁴⁷⁷.

Section II.D.

The treatment of 1,2-dihydrophosphorin 1-oxides with bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoro-acetamide at room temperature results in their rapid and quantitative conversion into cyclic silyoxylphosphoranes, as indicated in equation (91). The reaction proceeds in a like manner with 1,4-dihydro-,4-azaphosphorine 1-oxides. More forcing conditions are required with 2,5-dihydrophosphole 1-oxide, and a quaternary phosphonium structure has been tentatively assigned to the product⁴⁷⁸. The high reactivity in the case of the six-membered ring compounds is connected, ultimately, with the generation of the

relatively stabilized phosphabenzene ring⁴⁷⁷, either by rapid initial prototropy and nucleophilic attack on the silylating reagent by OH, or nucleophilic attack on the latter by the phosphoryl group and subsequent rapid loss of H from the adjacent ring CH₂ group.

Section II.H.4.

The adduct 217 ($R^1 = H$, $R^2 = Me$, $R^3 = Ph$, X = O), obtained by the addition of dichlorocarbene to 2,5-dihydro-3-methyl-1-phenylphosphole, has been shown by X-ray analysis to have the cyclopropane ring *trans* to the phosphoryl bond⁴⁷⁹.

Section IV.B.6.

A cross-coupling reaction between α,α -disubstituted α -diphenylphosphinoyl acetaldehydes and saturated aldehydes occurs in the presence of a vanadium-containing catalyst formulated as $[V_2Cl_3(thf)_6]_2[Zn_2Cl_6]$, to give the *threo* diols (356) with excellent diastereospecificity within the range 7.5:1 to > 99:1 depending on R^1 and R^{2480} .

Section V.E.6.

In an application of some of the chemistry indicated in Scheme 59, lithiated (\pm) -(E)-but-2-enyl (tert-butyl)phenylphosphine oxide has been treated with 2-methyl-cyclopent-2-enone, and the product acted upon by 4-chlorobut-3-en-2-one, to give the (\pm) -phosphine oxide (357); the Ph and Bu' groups are sufficiently dissimilar sterically to ensure that the product is obtained an only one diastereoisomeric form. Hydrogenolysis of 357 in the presence of Pd/C gives a tetrahydro derivative which, when acted upon by 2% aqueous KOH solution cyclizes to the (\pm) -phosphine oxide (358), useful in the synthesis of analogues of vitamin D^{481} .



Coordination chemistry of phosphine chalcogenides and their analytical and catalytic applications

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^aThis chapter is dedicated to my mother, the late Mrs. Vidya Kaur, wife of S. Harnam Singh of Village Gado Majra, Rajpura (Patiala).

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I. INTRODUCTION

A. History, Previous Reviews and Scope

Tertiary phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides and tellurides constitute an important class of ligands after tertiary phosphines¹⁻¹⁵. The former ligands contain pentavalent phosphorus with O, S, Se or Te as the donor atoms, while the latter type have P as the donor atom.

The first tertiary phosphine oxide complexes, namely $[MX_2L_2]$ $(M = Zn, Cd, Hg; X = Cl, I; L = Ph_3PO)$, were reported in 1906^{16} , but the first significant studies on the coordination chemistry of tertiary phosphine oxides were carried out only during the late 1950s and 1960s. Similarly, the first complex of a phosphine sulphide. $[(HgCl_2)_2Et_3PS]$, was reported in 1947 by Malatesta¹⁷, but 1960 is often considered as the first year of the coordination chemistry of phosphine chalcogenides when Bannister and Cotton¹⁸ reported a few mctal complexes, $[PdCl_2L_2]$ and $[SnCl_4L_2]$ $(L = Ph_3PS)$ or Ph_3PSe . The first stable complexes of any phosphine telluride, $[M(CO)_5(TePR_3)]$ $(M = Cr, Mo, W; R = Me_3C)$, were reported only recently¹⁹.

The coordination chemistry of monotertiary phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides or tellurides has been extensively studied, particularly of first three types of ligands; corresponding studes with di- or poly-tertiary phosphine oxides and chalcogenides are much fewer. However, multidentate tertiary phosphine derivatives have attracted considerable interest, particularly recently for several reasons. For instance, the anionic derivatives of $\{Ph_2PE\}_2CH_2$ and $\{Ph_2PE\}_3CH$ namely, $\{Ph_2PE\}_2CH^-$ and $\{Ph_2PE\}_3C^-$ (E = O, S, Se), and unsymmetrical phosphorus ligands such as $R_2P(E)CH_2PR_2$ and $R_2P(S)(CH_2)_nP(Se)Ph_2$ (n=1,2) provide an interesting set of ligands whose coordination chemistry is rich from the structural bonding and spectroscopic points of view. The anionic ligands, e.g. $\{Ph_2P(E)\}_2CH^-$, can bind to a metal via (a) methine carbon, (b) C and one E donor atom with a second E donor atom being uncoordinated

or (c) E donor atoms. The free E donor atom [case (b)] can be made to coordinate to another metal ion, forming homo- or hetero-polymetallic complexes. Also, the coordinated and free E donor atoms show exchange behaviour with one another. Similarly, $\{Ph_2P(E)\}_3C^-$ -type ligands form interesting cage compounds such as [HgClL] $(L = \{Ph_2PE)\}_3C^-)^{20}$. The unsymmetrical ligands mentioned above and also the anionic ligands provide very interesting systems for $^{31}PNMR$ study.

Tertiary phosphine oxides have been applied in a number of areas. The most notable

TABLE 1. Previous reviews on metal-phosphine oxide, chalcogenide and telluride chemistry

	Topic	Year of publication	Ref.
	Phosphine oxides		2.2
1	Properties and applications of uranium(IV) and uranium(VI) complexes with phosphines, phosphonium salts, tertiary phosphine oxides and tetracoordinated phosphorus compounds	1968	22
2	Bibliographic revision of the coordination chemistry of phosphine oxides	1976	23
3	Some considerations on coordination compounds of phosphine oxides with lanthanide perchlorates	1976	24
4	Actinide nitrate complexes	1981	25
5	Fluoro complexes of silicon(IV) with oxygen-containing donor ligands	1983	26
6	Transition metal chemistry review, 1981, Part B	1984	27
7	Preparation and stereochemistry of rare earth phosphine oxide complexes	1984	28
8	Coordination compounds of phosphine oxides	1975	29
9	Coordination chemistry of metal ions with bidentate di-tertiary phosphine and arsine dioxides	1979	30
	Phosphine sulphides, selenides or tellurides		
10	Interaction of organophosphine oxides, sulphides selenides and tellurides with metal salts and formation of complexes	1971	31
11	Preparation, chemistry and physical properties of phosphine sulphides, selenides and tellurides	1972	32
12	Oxidation and other products from the reaction of thiones and phosphine sulphides with metal salts and halogens	1976	33
13	Phosphine sulphides and their complexes with metals: carbon-13 NMR spectroscopy	1977	34
14	Coordination compounds of metal ions with tertiary phosphine and arsine sulphides or selenides	1978	35
15	Structure and bonding of metal complexes of tertiary phosphine and arsine chalcogenides including analytical, catalytic and other applications of the complexes	1989	21
16	Extraction area Solvent extraction properties of di-tertiary phosphine dioxides	1982	36
17	Extraction of mineral acids, actinides and lanthanides by diphosphine dioxides	1986	37
18	Recovery of uranium using di(2-ethylhexyl)phosphoric acid— trioctylphosphine oxide	1987	38
19	Solvent extraction with organophosphines—Commercial and potential applications	1988	39

are liquid-liquid extraction chemistry of metals, reversed-phase chromatography, ion-selective electrodes, extractive metal determinations and catalysis. Analogous studies on phosphine chalcogenides are limited²¹.

Table 1 gives a list of previous reviews on phosphine oxides or chalcogenides. Although the area of phosphine chalcogenides has been well reviewed²¹, a similar recent or authoritative coverage of phosphine oxides could not be found in any commonly available international journals or series. A similar situation prevails for the extraction chemistry, particularly of mono-tertiary phosphine oxides. The work on phosphine tellurides is very limited however.

The coverage of the literature in this review is up to November 5, 1990, based on *Chemical Abstracts* and on leading and available international journals. Efforts have been made to cover almost every significant investigation, although the possibility of a few omissions cannot be ruled out. This review incorporates the complexes formed by the common metal salts, and also by all other metal compounds with anions derived from carboxylic acids, β -diketones, pyrazolones, Schiff bases, thio ligands, etc. Complexes formed by the organometallic moieties including metal carbonyls are also discussed. In brief, the review provides detailed coverage of the coordination chemistry of tertiary phosphine oxides, sulphides, selenides and tellurides, with the incorporation of significant applications of the ligands.

B. Types of Ligands

The ligands whose coordination chemistry is described in this review are essentially tetriary phosphine derivatives. The primary or secondary phosphine oxides or chalcogenides are not included and may form the basis for a future review, although not much work on the coordination chemistry of primary or secondary phosphine oxides has been reported. However, Walther⁴⁰ reviewed the coordination chemistry of secondary phosphine chalcogenides in 1984.

Among the tertiary phosphine oxides and chalcogenides, the ligands having the formula R_3PE (R = alkyl or aryl group with or without one or more substituent; E = O, S, Se, Te) are discussed. Thus ligands of the type $(Me_2N)_3PE$ with P-N and not P-C bonds and those of the type $(R'O)R_2PE$, $(R'O)_2RPE$ and $(R'O)_3PE$ having P-R bonds replaced with P-OR' bonds (where R and R' may be the same or different) are mentioned in the review, particularly in the section on extraction chemistry, but their coordination chemistry is again excluded. Otherwise, the review would have become unmanageable. However, future reviews may cover the coordination chemistry of $(R'O)R_2PE$ -type ligands, etc., which has been significantly studied. The same applied to diand poly-tertiary phosphine oxides and chalcogenides.

Some of the important types of ligands whose coordination chemistry is discussed in this review are as follows:

- (a) $R_3PE\Gamma = Ph$, Bu^n etc.; E = O, S, Se or Te);
- (b) $Ph_2P(E)(CH_2)_nP(E)Ph_2[n = 1,2, ctc.; E = O, S, Se];$
- (c) $\{Ph_2P(O)CH_2\}_2P(O)Ph, \{Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2\}_2P(O)Ph;$
- (d) cis-Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂;
- (e) $\{Ph_2P(E)\}_2CH^-, \{Ph_2P(E)\}_3C^-;$
- (f) $Ph_2P(E)CH_2PR^1R^2[R^1, R^2 = Ph, Ph, etc.]$;
- (g) $Ph_2P(S)(CH_2)_nP(Se)Ph_2(n = 1,2);$
- (h) $\{Ph_2P(E)\}_3CH$.

Ligands having PO substituents in the ortho position of the benzene ring and a few

macrocyclic ligands containing PO and ethereal oxygen and some related ligands are also covered.

C. Nature of Bonding

The nature of metal—phosphine bonds has been well studied using various techniques such as photoelectron spectroscopy and p K_a values, and also theoretical models⁴²⁻⁴⁵; the corresponding studies on metal phosphine oxides, sulphides, etc., are limited. However, an attempt is made in this section to review briefly the bonding considerations involved.

The ligands of the type R₃PE (E = O, S, Se, Te) bind to a metal centre via E donor atoms. The formation of bonds between R_3P and E atoms is believed to involve a σ bond, $R_3P \to E$, and a π bond, $p(\pi)(E) \to d(\pi)(P)^{19,21,46}$ leading to multiple bonding in the chromophore \geq P=E (A and B):

$$R_{3}P: + \ddot{E}: \longrightarrow R_{3}P^{+} \longrightarrow E^{-}$$

$$R_{3}P^{+} \xrightarrow{f} \ddot{E}^{-} \longrightarrow R_{3}P = \ddot{E}$$

X-ray data show that metal—O bonds⁴¹ have multiple bond character, whereas metal—E $(E = S, Se, Te)^{19,21}$ bonds are simple single bonds involving the donation of

a pair of electrons from the E atom to the metal.

The angles at oxygen, viz. M—O—P, vary⁴¹ from 113 to 180°, whereas the angles M—E—P (E = S, Se, Te)^{19,21} lie in the range 96–120°, most being below $116^{\circ 21}$. The bonding in P-E bonds (E = S, Se, Te) can be readily rationalized in terms of structures A and B. Structure A (sp³) suggests M—S—P angles of 109°28' whereas B suggests angles of 120° (sp2). The fact that the angles are generally below 120° shows that the P-E bond is å resonance hybrid of structures A and B. The metal-O bonding cannot be explained in terms of structure A or B. M—O—P angles of 180° have been obtained in the case of aluminium(III) and gallium(III) complexes⁴¹. This can be explained by depicting the P—E bond as a hybrid of two structures, C and D⁴¹:

$$R_3P^{\dagger}$$
 $R_3\bar{P} \equiv 0.$ $R_3P = 0.$ $R_3P = 0.$

Model D is isolobal with CO, NO⁺ and CN⁻. Thus the $P^- \equiv O$: moiety will form a σ bond to a metal centre followed by the electron density distribution over the entire P—E—M framework (E), which explains the multiple bond character in M—O bonds⁴¹.

The second possible explanation appears to be equally good. The linearity of the M-O-P bonds can be explained using mode B also. Here a σ bond from O to M is followed by a π bond from O to M. Depending on the extent of O to M π bonding, the M—O—P angles will vary from 109°28′ to 180°. The fact that the angles at S or Se fall below 109°28' can be attributed to the higher angular flexibility at the bulkier S or Se atoms compared with the smaller O atom.

Finally, the X-ray data have shown that the P=S group shows unidentate and bridging behaviour²¹ and probably there is no example⁴¹ where X-ray measurements have established bridging by a PO group or PSe group, although other data have suggested bridging by PO groups in some cases as cited in the text.

II. TERTIARY PHOSPHINE OXIDES

A. Mono-tertiary Phosphine Oxides

For simplicity, the work reported is divided into sections devoted to transition elements, Main Group elements and alkali and alkaline earth elements.

1. Transition elements

Both d- and f-block elements are discussed here.

a. Complexes of the scandium Group (IIIB). Scandium(III) and yttrium(III) form several complexes with R_3PO ligands of the type (A) [ScCl₃L₃] and [ScCl_{6-n}L_n]ⁿ⁻³ (⁴⁵Sc NMR study)⁴⁷, (B) [Sc(NCS)₃L₃]⁴⁸(L = Ph₃PO), (C) [Sc[TTA)₃L₂] (L = topo, Ph₃PO)⁴⁹⁻⁵¹, (D)[MA₃L] [HA = 2,2,6,6-tetramethylheptane-3,5-dione (HPVA)^{52,53}, (E) [M(OR)₃L] (R = 2,6-di-*tert*-butyl-4-methylphenoxo, L = Ph₃PO)⁵⁴, (F) [ScL₄(EtOH)₂]-(ClO₄)₃ (L = Me₃PO, Ph₃PO)^{55,56}, (G) [YCl₃L_n] (n = 3,4) and [YCl₃L₃]. Me₂CO (L = Ph₃PO)⁵⁷. Whereas the formation of complexes A was revealed by ⁴⁵Sc NMR, the other complexes were formed from direct reaction of a metal salt with ligand. The coordination number of the complexes A–D and G varied from 4, 6 to 8. Finally, the phenoxo complexes [M(OR)₃L (E)⁵⁴ represent unique examples of four-coordinated compounds with high solubility in hydrocarbons [see Section II.A.1.i for more complexes of yttrium (III)].

b. Complexes of the titanium Group (IVB). Various titanium and zirconium complexes are listed in Table 2. Titanium(IV) formed adducts with 1:1 or 1:2 M:L ratios whereas zirconium(IV) adducts have 1:1, 1:2, 1:4 or 1:6 M:L ratios. Alkoxytitanium(IV) complexes were hygroscopic. Peroxyzirconium(IV) complexes (G) [ZrO_2Al_n] (n=1,2) with chealating bi- or tri-dentate anions are very stable. ¹⁹F NMR studies suggested a cis-octahedral structure for complexes [TiF_4L_2] ($L=Ph_3PO, Bu_3^nPO$)⁶⁵. The 1:1 adducts [$MCl_4(OPPh_3)$] are likely to have halogen-bridged dimeric structures.

A 1:1 adduct of Ph_3PO with $\{N,N'$ -bis(trimethylsily)diamido-N''-bis(trimethylsilyl)-P-methylphosphonoimidato $\}$ -trichlorozirconium(IV) (1)⁸²

$$(R_2N)(Me)P \xrightarrow{R} ZrCl_3L$$

$$(1)$$

$$(2)$$

Organozirconium and-hafnium dimers, $[(\eta^5-cp)_2M(\mu-Cl)]_2(BF_4)_2$ formed complex 2 with Ph₃PO⁸³. Similarly, $[(\eta^5-cp)_2MClL]I_3$ was obtained from $[(\eta^5-cp)_2M(\mu-Cl)]_2$ and Ph₃PO followed by treatment with excess of iodine.

c. Complexes of the vanadium Group (VB). Reaction of [V(CO)₆] with Ph₃PO did not give a substituted product, but rather an ionic complex, viz. [VL₄][V(CO)₆]₂⁸⁴, was obtained. Numerous other vanadium complexes have been reported, although an X-ray analysis has only been reported for one complex. The complexes are of the formulations [VCl₃L₂] (L-R₃PO; R = Et, Pr, Cy, Ph)⁸⁵; [VCl₄(OPPh₃)]⁵⁸; [VOX₂(OPPh₃)₂] (X = Cl,

TABLE 2. Complexes of the titanium Group (IVB)

	Complex	X	L	Ref.
A	$[TiX_4L_n]$	Cl F, Cl, Br	$Ph_3PO(n = 1)$ $R_3PO(n = 2)$ $(R = Ph, Bun, etc.)$	58-61 62-65
		Cl	Ph ₂ P(O)CH=CH ₂	66
В	(i) $[\text{TiX}_m \mathbf{A}_{4-m} \mathbf{L}_2]^a$ (m = 2,3)	Cl	Ph ₃ PO	67
	(ii) [TiA ₄ L] ^a		Ph ₃ PO	67
С	(i) $[Ti(OR)X_3L]^b$ $(R = Me, Et, ClC_2H_4, F_3C_2H_2O)$	Cl	Ph ₃ PO	68, 69
	(ii) $[Ti(OR)X_3L_2]$ (R = Me, Et)	NCS	Ph ₃ PO	70
D	$[ZrX_4L_n]$	(i) Cl	$Ph_3PO(n=1)$	60
	L + 113	(ii) Cl, NO ₃	R_3 PO(R = Me, Bu, Bz, Ph) ($n = 2$)	71–75
Е	$[ZrOX_2L_2]$	Cl, Br, NCS, SeCN, NO ₃	Ph ₃ PO	76, 77
F	(i) [ZrOL ₄ L ₂]	_	Ph ₃ PO	76
	(ii) [ZrOL ₄] (BPh ₄) ₂	_	Ph ₃ PO	78
	(iii) $[ZrOL_6](ClO_4)_2$	_	Ph ₃ PO	76
G	(i) $[ZrO_2AL_2]^c$		Ph ₃ PO	79
	(ii) $[ZrO_2AL]^{\vec{d}}$	_	Ph ₃ PO	80
Н	$[Zr(OAc)_{m}(SO_{3}F)_{4-m}L_{n}]$ (m = 0,2,3)	_	Ph ₃ PO	81
I	$[ZrO(SO_3F)_2L_n]$	_	Ph ₃ PO	81

 $^{a}HA = 1$ -naphthol.

Br)⁸⁶⁻⁹⁴; [VOCl(OH)(topo)₂]⁹⁵; [VOL_nX₂] (n=2 for X = BPh₄, n=4 for X = ClO₄, L = Ph₃PO)^{90,96}; [VO(acac)₂(OPBu)₃)]⁹⁷; [V(NO)Cl₂(OPPh₃)₄)⁹³; [V(NO)₂L₄]Br (L = R₃PO; R = Me, Ph)⁹⁸; [V(OR)₃L] (R = ClC₂H₄; L = Ph₃PO)⁹⁹; [V(SO₃CF₃)₃L], [VO(SO₃CF₃)_nL] (n=2,3; L = Ph₃PO)¹⁰⁰; and [V(SO₃F)₃(OPPh₃)¹⁰¹. The hydroxy complex [VOCl(OH) (topo)₂]⁹⁵ was obtained by an extractive method, whereas the other complexes were obtained by normal direct reactions.

Monomeric vanadyl halide complexes, $[VOX_2L_2]^{86-94}$, have been well studied. An X-ray study of $[VOCl_2(OPPh_3)_2]$ showed a square-pyramidal structure with trans-Ph₃PO ligand (3)⁸⁹. For the other complexes, namely $[VOL_4]$ (ClO₄)₂ and $VOL_2(BPh_4)_2$, square-pyramidal structures are suggested, but need to be confirmed from X-ray analysis, particularly the latter, which would shed light on possible coordination



 $^{{}^{}b}ClC_{2}H_{4}O = 2$ -chloroethoxy; $F_{3}C_{2}H_{2}O = 2,2,2$ -trifluoroethoxy.

 $^{^{}c}H_{2}A = succinic acid.$

 $^{{}^{}d}H_{2}^{2}A = pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylic acid and salicylideneaminobenzoic acid.$

by BPh₄ anion^{90,96}. Similarly, in vanadium-alkoxide complexes, [V(OR)₃L], bridging by OR groups is suggested⁹⁹. Finally, the SO_3CF_3 groups in [V(SO_3CF_3)₃L], [VO(SO_3CF_3)_nL] and [V(SO_3F_3)_L] act as chelating agents^{100,101}.

Niobium(V) and tantalum(V) form complexes of the type $[MX_5L]$ (X = Cl, Br; L = $Ph_3PO^{60,102-104}$ Ta, Cl, $BzPh_2PO^{102}$); $[NbOX_3L_2]$ (X = F, Cl, Br; L = Ph_3PO)^{102,105-108}; $[NbCl_4(NO)(MeCN)(OPPh_3)]^{109}$; $[M(OR)_2X_3L]$ (X = Cl, Br; R = Me, Et; L = $\begin{array}{l} \text{Ph}_3 \text{PO})^{110.111}; \left[\text{M(OMe)}_5 (\text{OPMe}_3) \right]^{112}; \left[(\text{Nb}_6 \text{Cl}_{12}) \text{Cl}_2 \text{L}_4 \right] (\text{L} = \text{Ph}_3 \text{PO})^{113}; \text{M[NbO-}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_2\text{L}_2 \right] (\text{M} = \text{NH}_4, \text{K, Rb, Cs; L} = \text{Me}_3 \text{PO}, \text{Ph}_3 \text{PO})^{114,115}; \left[\text{Me}_2 \text{MCl}_3 \text{L} \right]^{116,117}, \end{array}$ $[Me_3MCl_2L](L = Ph_3PO)^{118}; [MeMOCl_2L_2](L = Me_3PO, Ph_3PO); and [MeNbOBr_2L]$ $(L = Ph_3PO)^{119}$. Similarly, a few niobium(III) and niobium(IV) complexes, $[(\eta^5-cp)_2Nb(PMe_3)L]$ (BF₄) and $[(\eta^5-cp)_2NbClL]$ (BF₄) (L = Ph₃PO)¹²⁰, are known.

The complexes $[MX_5L]$ and $[NbOX_3L_2]$ were obtained from reaction of $[MX_5]$ or [NbOX₃] with L. In the reaction of [NbX₅] with L, the abstraction of oxygen from the ligand takes place, forming [NbOX₃L₂]-type complexes. Similarly, the oxygen abstraction phenomenon was also observed when [MeNbX₄] was reacted with R₃PO¹¹⁹. Metal-alkoxide complexes, e.g. [M(OR)₂X₃L]^{110,111}, were obtained by the reaction of [MX₅] with ROH in the presence of the ligand L. The formation of [M(OMe)₅L] was detected in solution by ¹H NMR spectrometry and was in equilibrium:

$2[M(OMe)_5L] \rightleftharpoons [M_2(OMe)_{10}L] + L$

¹⁹F NMR studies revealed the formation of a number of unusual species. For instance, reaction of [MF₅] with Ph₃PO in CH₂Cl₂ or PhMe gave *cis*- amd *trans*-[MF₄L₂]⁺F⁻ and small amounts of the dimers $[M_2F_{10}L]^{121-123}$. When acetonitrile was the solvent, only [MF₅L] complexes were formed. Similarly, the formation of [MF₅L] and also cis- and trans- $[MF_4L_2]F(L = Bu_3PO)$ was observed when the solvent was toluene 124.125. Ageing of a solution of trans-[TaF₄(PBu₃)₂]F¹²⁴ gave the same products. The addition of BF_3 led to the disappearance of the above-mentioned species and instead BF_3L , B_2F_6L , BF_4^- , etc., were formed 126. This demonstrates the greater affinity of BF_3 for Bu_3PO than that of [MF₅] (M = Nb, Ta). Mixed halide complex species, namely, two trans forms of [TaF₃Cl₂L], trans-[TaE₂Cl₃L] and two cis-forms of [TaF₂Cl₃L] were detected by ¹⁹FNMR in a 1:1:1 solution of TaF₅, PCl₅ and R₃PO(R = Buⁿ, Ph) in PhMe¹²⁷. An increase in the basicity of the ligand shifted the ¹⁹F NMR signal to high field when MF₅ was reacted with $(RC_6H_4)_3PO$ and $Me_2P(O)(RC_6H_4)$ $(R = H, p-Me, MeO, Cl, Me_2N, m-Cl, NO_2, Me)^{128-130}$.

d. Complexes of the chromium Group (VIB). Various complexes of this group are given in Tables 3-5. Reaction of chromium(II) halides with the ligand L in organic solvents gave moisture- and air-sensitive complexes, $[CrX_2L_2]^{131,132}$, which on reaction with NO gave the nitrosyl complexes $[Cr(NO)_2X_2L_2]^{135}$. The bromo complexes $[CrBr_2L_2]$ exist in two forms. The green forms of $[CrBr_2L_2]$ and $[CrCl_2L_2]$ possess halogen-bridged dimeric structures. Formation of $[CrI_2L_2(thf)_2]^{131}$ was detected by electronic absorption spectroscopy (Table 3).

The dimeric chromium(II) trifluoroacetate complex $[Cr_2(O_2CCF_3)_4L_2](L = Me_3PO)$, obtained from $[Cr_2(O_2CCF_3)_4(cther)_2]$ and Me_3PO , showed a normal μ value of 3.06 BM 136 compared with a value of 0.89 BM for the ether solvate. X-ray analysis

showed a dimeric structure (4) with a weak Cr—Cr bond.

The chromium(III) complexes, $[CrX_3L_3]$ $[Cr(O_2NO)_2L_2]$ (NO_3) , $[CrX_3L(bipy)]$ and $[CrL_4(OClO_3)_2]$ $(ClO_4)^{132-134,136,137}$ are assigned octahedral structures having bidentate NO₃ and unidentate ClO₄ groups. Thiosemicarbazone in [CrAA'L] complexes is tridentate 139 (O, N, S), whereas salen in $[(C_6F_5)Cr(salen)L]$ is tetradentate 140 (O₂N₂); both of these complexes are octahedral (Table 3).

Reaction of CrO₃ with glycol and R₃PO (R = Et, Ph) gave the chromium(V) complexes

TABLE 3. Complexes of chromium

	Complex	X	L	Ref.
A	(i) [CrX ₂ L ₂]	Cl, Br, I	Ph ₃ PO	131
	(1) [0112-2]	, ,	$R_3PO(R = Et, Pr,$	132
			Cy, Ph)	
	(ii) [CrX ₂ (NO) ₂ L ₂]	Cl, Br, I	Ph ₃ PO	135
	(iii) $\left[\operatorname{Cr}_{2}X_{4}L_{2}\right]$	CF ₃ COO	Me ₃ PO	136a
В	(i) [CrX ₃ L ₃]	Cl, NCS, ClO ₄	Ph ₃ PO	133, 134
	7 2 3 33	NCS	$R_3PO(R = Et, Bu, Cy)$	132
	(ii) [CrX ₂ L ₂]X	NO_3	Ph ₃ PO	133
	(iii) [CrX ₃ L(bipy)]	C1	Ph ₃ PO	136b
	(iv) [CrL ₄ X ₂]X	ClO ₄	Bu ₃ PO	137
С	$(L_nH)[CrX_4(NH_3)_2]$	NCS	$R_3PO(R = Et, Pr,$	138
	Th 72 41 5722		Bu, Cy; $n = 1,2$)	
D	(i) [CrAA'L] ^a	<u>—</u>	Ph ₃ PO	139
	(ii) $[(C_6F_5)Cr(salen)L]^b$		Ph ₃ PO	140
	(iii) [CrOAL](SO ₃ CF ₃) ^c	_	Ph ₃ PO	141

^aH₂A = salicylaldehyde thiosemicarbazone; HA' = quinolin-8-ol.

 b salen = N, N'-ethylenebis(salicylaldiminate).

[Cr(O)XL₂(O₂C₂R₄)] (R = H, Me, X = Cl)¹⁴² with the proposed structure 5. X-ray study of another chromium(V) complex, [CrOAL] (SO₃CF₃)¹⁴¹ (Table 3), showed octahedral geometry with *trans* L and O groups with the Schiff base occupying the equatorial plane. The (L_nH)[CrX₄(NH₃)₂] complexes have hydrogen-bonded L_nH⁺ cations with no Cr-ligand interaction. Finally, reaction of the unsymmetrical phosphine ligand Ph₂P(O)CH(R)PPh₂ (R = Pr) with [Cr(CO)₆] gave [Cr(CO)₄L] with *cis*-octahedral geometry¹⁴³.

A wide variety of molybdenum and tungsten complexes have been reported (Tables 4 and 5). [MoOX $_3$ L $_2$] complexes were obtained from MoX $_3$ or K $_3$ [MoCl $_6$] and molten Ph $_3$ PO involving oxidation of Mo^{III} to Mo^V. Reaction of MoCl $_5$ with Ph $_3$ PO gave [MoOCl $_3$ L $_2$] and [MoO $_2$ Cl $_2$ L $_2$] ¹⁵⁷ and when dioxane (C $_4$ H $_8$ O $_2$) was the solvent, [MoOCl $_3$ L(C $_4$ H $_8$ O $_2$)] ¹⁵¹ was obtained. Oxidation of [M(CO) $_4$ L $_2$] and [M(CO) $_3$ L $_3$] (L = Ph $_3$ PO) by Cl $_2$ or Br $_2$ gave [MoX $_3$ L $_2$] and [MO $_2$ X $_2$ L $_2$] complexes ¹⁴⁶. Interestingly, reaction of [MoSCl $_3$] with Ph $_3$ PO in MeCN gave three products: [MoOCl $_3$ L $_2$] [MoO $_2$ Cl $_2$ L $_2$] and [MoO(S)Cl $_2$ L $_2$] ¹⁴⁷. The complex (HPPh $_3$) [WOCl $_4$ L] (L = Ph $_3$ PO) ¹⁶⁷ was obtained by the partial hydrolysis of [WCl $_4$ (PhC \equiv CPh)] $_2$ in the presence of Ph $_3$ PO

 $^{^{\}rm c}{\rm H}_2{\rm A}=5,5'$ -dichloro-8,8,8',8'-tetramethylbis(salicylidene)ethylenediamine.

TABLE 4. Complexes of molybdenum and tungsten

	Complex	L	Ref.
4	(i) [MoI ₃ L(PMe ₂ Ph)]	Me ₂ PhPO	168
	(ii) $[Mo_2Cl_6L_3]$	Ph ₃ PO	169
	(iii) [MoCl ₄ L ₂]	Ph ₃ PO	170
	(iv) [MoCl ₅ L]	Ph ₃ PO	64
	(v) [WCl ₄ (PPh ₃)L]	Ph ₃ PO	171
	(i) $[MoOX_3L_2](X = Cl, Br)$	Ph ₃ PO	144–150
	(ii) $[MoOX_3L(C_4H_8O_2)_2]^a$ (X = Cl, Br)	Ph ₃ PO	151, 152
	(iii) [MoOCl ₃ L]	Ph ₃ PO	153
	() [666.32]	Et ₂ P(O)CH ₂ CH ₂ PEt ₂	154
	(iv) [WOCl ₃ L ₂]	Ph ₃ PO	155, 156
	(i) $[MO_2X_2L_2](X = Cl, Br)$	Ph ₃ PO	144, 146, 147, 152
			155, 157–161
	$[MoO_2F_2L_2]$	Ph ₃ PO	158, 162
	(ii) $[MoO_2(ONO_2)_2L_2]$	Ph ₃ PO	160, 161
	(iii) $[MoO_2Cl_2L(C_4H_8O_2)]^a$	Ph ₃ PO	152
	(iv) $[MoO(S)Cl_2L_2]$	Ph ₃ PO	147
	(v) $(Et_4N)[WO_2F_3L]$	Me ₃ PO	163
	(i) MoOF ₄ L]	Ph ₃ PO	164a
	(ii) $[WOX_4L_n](X = F, Cl)$	$R_3PO(n = 1,2)$	106, 164a
	7 7 7	$(R = Ph, Bu^n, etc.)$	165, 166
	(iii) (HPPh ₃)[WOCl ₄ L]	Ph ₃ PO	167
	(i) [(Mo ₆ Cl ₈)Cl ₄ L ₂]	Ph ₃ PO	172
	(ii) $(L_nH)_2[(Mo_6Cl_8)Cl_6]$	Ph ₃ PO	172
	(i) $[Mo(O_2)_2L_2](M = Mo, W)$	$Ph_3PO, Pr_3^nPO,$	173–175
	(!) F337(O) A 7 3h	Bu ₃ ⁿ PO	177
i	(ii) $[W(O_2)_2A_2L]^b$	Ph ₃ PO	176
	(i) [MoCl ₄ (NO)L]	Ph ₃ PO	177
	(ii) $(Et_4N)[MoCl_4(NO)L]$	Ph ₂ MePO, Ph ₂ EtPO	178
	(iii) $[MCl_3(NO)L_2](M = Mo, W)$	Ph ₂ MePO, Ph ₂ EtPO, Ph ₃ PO	161, 178–179
	(iv) $[MoCl_3(NO)L_2'L]$ $(L' = PhMe_2P, Ph_2Pr^nP)$	MePh ₂ PO, Ph ₂ Pr"PO	178
	(v) $[M(NO)_2Cl_2L_2]$	Ph_3PO , $EtPh_2PO$, Et_2PhPO , Cy_3PO , $Ph_2(R)PO$ ($R = neomenthyl$)	182–184
	(vi) $[Mo(NO)_2Cl_2L_2]\cdot C_6H_6$	Ph ₃ PO	183
	(vii) $[Mo(NO)_2(OEt)_2L]_2$	Ph ₃ PO	185
	(viii) $[Mo(NO)(S_2CNR_2)_2L]$ (R = Me, Et)	Ph ₃ PO	186
[(i) [MoCl ₄ (NPR ₃)(OPR ₃)]	L^c	178, 187, 188
	(ii) $[MoCl_2(=NH)OL_2]$	R_3 PO ($R_3 = Ph_3$, Ph_2 Et, $PhEt_2$)	189
	(iii) FWCl (—NDb)I]		190
	(iii) $[WCl_3(=NPh)L_2]$	Me ₃ PO	
	(iv) $[WCl_4(=NC_2Cl_5)]L$	Ph ₃ PO	151
	(v) $[MoCl_3(=N)L_n]$	$Ph_3PO(n = 1,2)$	191–193
	(vi) [MoCl ₃ (NH ₂)L ₂]Cl	Ph ₂ MePO, Ph ₂ EtPO	178

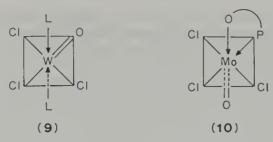
 $^{^{\}textit{a}}\text{C}_{4}\text{H}_{8}\text{O}_{2} = \text{dioxane.}$ $^{\textit{b}}\text{HA} = S\text{-benzyldithiocarbazate.}$ $^{\textit{c}}\text{PR}_{3} = \text{Ph}_{2}\text{PrP}, \text{Ph}_{3}\text{P}, \text{Ph}_{2}\text{EtP}, \text{PhMe}_{2}\text{P}, \text{Et}_{3}\text{P}, \frac{1}{2}\text{Ph}_{2}\text{PCH}_{2}\text{CH}_{2}\text{PPh}_{2}.$

TABLE 5. Complexes of organo-molybdenum and tungsten

	Complex	L	Ref.
A.	(i) cis-[M(CO) ₄ L _n]	$Ph_3PO(n=2)$	194,195
1 21	(M = Mo, W)	$Ph_2P(O)CH(R)PPh_2$ (R = Pr)	143
	(ii) [W(CO) ₅ L]	Ph ₂ P(O)CH ₂ CH ₂ PPh ₂	196
	· / - · · · · · ·	$R_3PO(R = Me, Ph)$	197
		Ph ₂ P(O)NPPh ₃	197
		Ph ₂ P(O)(CHPPh ₃)	198
	(iii) $[M(CO)_3L_3]$	Ph ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO,	195,199–201
		EtPh ₂ PO, Et ₂ PhPO,	
		Et ₃ PO	202,203
	(iv) $[M(CO)_nCl_2L_2]$	Ph ₃ PO	202,203
	(M = Mo, W; n = 2, 3).	Ph ₃ PO	204
D	(v) [M(CO) ₃ I ₂ L ₂]	Ph ₃ PO, Ph ₂ EtPO,	205
В.	(i) $[M(CO)_3L(OH)]_2$	PhEt ₂ PO, Et ₃ PO	
	(ii) $[M(CO)_2(NO)L(OH)]_2$	Ph ₃ PO, Et ₃ PO	205
C.	$[M(S_2CNEt_2)_2(CO)_2L]$	Ph ₃ PO	206
D.	(i) [Mo(Me)(cp)(NO)XL]	Ph ₃ PO	207
	(X = Cl, Br)		* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
	(ii) $[MeWCl_3EL](E = O, S, Se)$	Ph ₃ PO	208
	(iii) [Me ₃ CC≡WCl ₃ L]	Et ₃ PO	209
	$[Me_3CC \equiv WCl_3LL']$		
	$(L' = Et_3P)$ (iv) $\lceil MeWOCl_3L \rceil$	R_3PO	210
	(iv) [MeWOCl ₃ L] (iv) [MeWO ₂ ClL]	R ₃ PO	210
	[MeWO ₂ ClL ₂]	Ph ₃ PO	211

and CH2Cl2. From solution-phase 19FNMR studies, several type of species such as $trans-[WOF_4L], [MO_2F_2L_2], [M_2O_2F_8L] \text{ and } [W_2O_2F_9L_2]^- (M = Mo, W;$ $L = Ph_3PO)^{164b}$ were detected, depending on the ligand concentration. The complex species [MoOCl₃L]and [MoOCl₄] also reacted with Ph₃PO to form [MoOCl₃L₂] and [MoOCl₄L] and it was found that the ability to form the complexes varied in the order $C_5H_5N > Ph_3PO \approx H_2O > thf$.

PEt₂]¹⁵⁴ have shown them all to involve octahedral structures (6–10). The moiety MO_2^2 is non-linear^{158,160–163}, unlike UO_2^{2+} , which is linear (cf. Section II.A.1.j)



NMR studies (¹H, ¹⁹F and ³¹P) of $(Et_4N)[WO_2F_3L]$ (L = Me₃PO)¹⁶³ reveal a trans-labilizing affect of the oxo ligand as the fluoride liquid in the trans position is readily dissociated. Structure 11 is suggested as the basis of NMR data. Further, the trans influence of the ligand L on the W=O bond (L = R₃PO) in WOF₄L varies as R = amyl > n-butyl > n-octyl > phenyl¹⁶⁶.

Only a few diperoxo complexes $[MO(O_2)_2L_2]$ are known (Table 4). The activation energies for the loss of dioxygen from the dry or the dissolved complexes are independent of whether the ligand is a phosphine oxide or an arsine oxide. In the tungsten thiocarbazate complex $[W(O_2)_2A_2L]^{176}$, the S-benzyldithiocarbazate $H_2NN=C(SH)SCH_2Ph$ acts as a uni-negative bidentate ligand. Further X-ray analyses of peroxo complexes would be very valuable.

The nitrosyl complexes G (Table 4) have been obtained by a number of different routes: (a) [MoCl₃(NO)L₂] from [MoCl₃(NO)] and Ph₃PO¹⁸¹ or from [MoO₂(OAc)₄] and NOCl in the presence of Ph₃PO¹⁶¹; (b) [Mo(NO)₂Cl₂L₂] (L = Ph₃PO)¹⁷¹ by reductive nitrosation of [MoCl₅] with NO in the presence of Ph₃P in CH₂Cl₂; (c) [Mo(NO)₂(OEt)₂L] from [Mo(NO)₂(MeNO₂)₄](BF₄)₂, Ph₃PO and MOEt (M = Li, Na) in MeNO₂¹⁸⁵; and (d) [W(NO)₂Cl₂L₂] from [W(NO)₂Cl₂] and L¹⁸⁴. Reaction of [Mo(CO)₂(S₂CNR₂)₂L] with NOBr gave [Mo(NO)₂Br₂L₂] (L = Ph₃PO)¹⁸⁶.

It was noted that the coordinated NO in these complexes ¹⁷⁸ showed no sign of reactivity with nucleophiles or electrophiles. Further, on heating $[M(NO)_2Cl_2L_2](L=Ph_3PO)^{183}$ at 300 °C, $[MOCl_2L_2]$ and N_2O were formed, implying an intramolecular redox reaction in the halonitrosyl complexes. Nitric oxide oxidizes M^{II} to the M^{IV} state. In the complex $[Mo(NO)_2Cl_2L_2]$. $C_6H_6^{-183}$, because was lost at 100 °C. No X-ray study has been reported for any nitrosyl complex. However,, for $[MCl_3(NO)L_2]$, structure 12 was suggested ^{161,178,180,181}.

Complexes H(i-vi) (Table 4) represent respectively phosphineiminato, imido, phenylimido pentachloroethylimido, nitrido and amido complexes of molybedenum and tungsten. Phosphineimine derivatives H(i) were formed by the oxidation of [MoCl₄L₂] (L = Ph₂PrP) by sulphonylazide, p-MeC₆H₄SO₂N₃^{178,188}. Similarly, the reaction of [MoOCl₃] with Me₃SiN₃ in the and R₃PO gave the imido complexes [MoCl₂(NH)O- $(OPR_3)_2$]¹⁸⁹. The nitrido complexes $[MoCl_3(:N)L_n]$ were obtained by the addition of Ph_3PO to a molybdenum(II) nitrido species formed from [MoCl₄L₂] (L = thf, MeCN) and trimethylsilylazide¹⁹². An interesting observation is that reductive hydrolysis of $[MoCl_3(:N)L]$ (L = Ph₃PO)¹⁹³ gave 11–13% NH₃ under mild conditions whereas only a trace of NH₃ was formed from hydrolysis of (Et₄N)[Mo(N)Cl₄]¹⁹³.

ESR and magnetic moment studies suggest that the phosphineiminato complexes are mononuclear 187. Complex H(iv) showed no ligand coordination (13). For complexes H(i, iii, v, vi), octahedral structures have been suggested. The X-ray analysis of $[MoCl_2]$ (=NH)O= $(OPEtPh_2)_2$]¹⁸⁹ has shown a distorted octahedral structure, 14.

Dimeric molybdenum(II) acetate, $[MO_2(O_2CCF_3)_4]$, forms a 1:2 adduct with Me_3PO^{212} . NMR studies (^{19}F , ^{31}P) reveal extensive dissociation of the adduct [Mo₂(O₂CCF₃)₄L₂]. Other analogous molybdenum(II) derivatives, [Mo₂A₂(OAc)₂L] $\{L = Ph_3PO, HA = pyrrolyldithiocarboxylate (15)\}^{213}$ and $[Mo_2(S_2PEt_2)(OAc)_3L]$ - (BF_4) $(L = Et_3PO)^{213}$, are also known.

A tridentate dianionic Schiff base 16 gave a complex [MoO₂AL] (L = Ph₃PO; $H_2A = 16)^{214}$ with a cis-MoO₂ moiety (17). An oxotungsten(V) dimer with unusual stereochemistry, namely, anti-bis (μ-isobutylthiolato)bis{oxodichloro(triphenylphosphine oxide) $\{ tungsten(V), anti-[Cl_2(O)LW(\mu-SBu^i)_2W(O)Cl_2L] \ (L = Ph_3PO) \ has$ reported²¹⁵. The molecule has a a crystallographically imposed centre of symmetry and therefore possesses the very unusual feature of terminal oxo ligands lying in an anti disposition to one another. Similarly, an adduct of Ph₃PO with the arylazomolybdenum cluster is also known²¹⁶.

(15)
$$N - C = N$$

$$HC = N$$

$$E = 0, S$$

$$(16)$$

$$(17)$$

Table 5 contains a number of organo-molybdenum and-tungsten complexes obtained by different methods of preparation. [M(CO)₄L₄] complexes were obtained by the reaction of $[M(CO)_6]$ with Ph_3PO in toluene¹⁹⁴. The monosubstituted complex, $[W(CO)_5L]$ $[L = Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2PPh_2]$ was obtained from the filtrate of the reaction of $[W(CO)_5(Ph_2PCH_2CH_2PPh_2)]$ with $K_2[PtCl_4]^{196}$. However, this complex has no W—O bond; the ligand binds through the Ph_2P group. Trisubstituted $[M(CO)_3L_3]$ complexes were obtained either from the reaction of $[(C_7H_8)Mo(CO)_3]$ with Ph_3PO under a nitrogen atmosphere or from $[M(CO)_6]$ and L in a light petroleum—benzene mixture²⁰¹. The reaction of $[Mo_2(CO)_6(OH)_3H_3]$ with Ph_3PO gave $[Mo(CO)_3L_3]^{200}$. These trisubstituted derivatives, being unstable to air, must be kept under a nitrogen atmosphere^{195,199}.

The X-ray analysis of octahedral $[W(CO)_5L]$ $\{L = Ph_2P(O)(CHPPh_3)\}$ showed that the W—C bond trans to W—O was shorter than the other W—C bonds (1.949 Å versus average 2.025 Å)¹⁹⁸. Similarly, an X-ray study of $[W(CO)_5L]$ $\{L = Ph_2P(O)NPPh_3\}$ showed W—O rather than W—P bonding¹⁹⁷. Kinetic studies of ligand substitution (L by CO) revealed the high trans effect of $Ph_2P(O)NPPh_3$, which was similar to an

anionic oxygen donor atom.

Thermal studies of $[M(CO)_nCl_2L_2]^{202,203}$ have shown that the carbonyl groups are lost in one step, unlike the multiple steps required for the ligand L. Tungsten complexes showed higher thermal stability than molybdenum complexes. Further, the stability based on the nature of the ligand was found to decrease in the order $L = Ph_3P > Ph_3As > Ph_3PO^{202}$. Methyltungsten(V) complexes were stable²¹⁰ and ¹H NMR revealed that the Me group was never *trans* to a W=E bond (E = O, S, Se)²⁰⁸. ⁹⁵Mo and ¹⁸³W NMR studies of $[M(S_2CNEt_2)_2(CO)_2L]$ (L = Ph_3PO) showed that the adduct participates in a dynamic equilibrium with $[Mo(S_2CNEt_2)(CO)_2]^{206}$.

e. Complexes of the manganese Group (VIIB). Several complexes of mangenese(II) are known, some of which are listed in Table 6. Although the complexes can be formed by direct reaction of a phosphine oxide with a manganese salt, the higher thermodynamic stability of the Mn—O bond results in phosphine complexes such as $[MnX_2(PR_3)](R_3 = Et_3, Me_3, Ph_3)$ being converted into the corresponding phosphine oxide complexes in the presence of $air^{240.241}$. The existence of a dioxygen complex, namely $[MnBr_2(O_2)L](L = Me_3P)$, was detected in the solid state, but it undergoes irreversible transformation to $[MnBr_2(OPMe_3)]^{242}$. Interestingly, the air oxidation of an ethanol

TABLE 6. Complexes of the manganese Group (VIIB)

Complex	L	Ref.
A (i) [MnX ₂ L ₂]	Ph ₃ PO, p-Tol ₃ PO,	217–226
$(X = Cl, Br, I, NO_3)$	Bz ₂ PhPO, Bz ₃ PO	
(ii) [MnCl ₂ L ₂]	$RCH_2P(O)Me_2$	227
	(R = Cl, MeO, PhO)	
B (i) $[MnL_4](ClO_4)_2$	Bu ₃ PO	137
(ii) [MnI ₂ L ₄]	Ph ₃ PO	228
(iii) $[MnL_4(OClO_3)](ClO_4)$	Ph ₃ PO, Ph ₂ MePO, Me ₃ PO	228-232
(iv) $[MnL_4(BF_4)_2]$	Ph ₃ PO	233
(v) $[MnL_5](BF_4)_2$	Me ₃ PO	234
(vi) $[MnL_n(NCS)_2]$	Ph ₃ PO, PhMe ₂ PO, Pr ₃ PO,	228, 235–237
1 2 to 16\ /2od	$Bu_3PO(n = 1-4)$	
(vii) $[MnA_2L_2]^a$	Bu ₃ PO	238
(viii) [Mn(NCSe) ₂ L ₄]	Ph ₃ PO	239

 $[^]a$ HA = Hhfa.

solution of [Mn(CNR)₄L₂][MnBr] (R = Bu^t, L = Me₂PhP) gave a mixed phosphine-phosphine oxide complex, [Mn(CNR)₄L₂][MnBr₃L']₂ (L' = Me₂PhPO) with a trans-octahedral cation and a tetrahedral anion²⁴³. X-ray diffraction showed distorted tetrahedral structures for [MnX₂(OPPh₃)₂] (X = Cl, I) complexes^{217,223}.

X-ray analyses of [Mn(NCS)₂L₂] (18) and [Mn(NCS)₂L₄] (19) (L = Ph₃PO) have been reported²³⁵. In complex 18 the geometry about manganese is square-pyramidal with Ph₃PO in the axial positions. Complex 19 has a *trans*-octahedral structure. The magnetic moments suggest polymeric structures for [MnL_n(NCS)₂] (n = 1, 3) complexes with antiferromagnetic interactions. An interesting feature of thiocyanate complexes of manganese(II) is that when n = 3 or 4, the complexes react reversibly with SO₂ forming [MnL_n(NCS)₂(SO₂)], whereas there is no similar reaction for n = 1 or 2. Dilute solutions of [MnL₄ (NCS)₂(SO₂)] effect the air oxidation of SO₂ to H₂SO₄, which was confirmed by X-ray analysis of the isolated product, (Ph₃PO)(Ph₃POH)(HSO₄).

Like the thiocyanate complexes, manganese(II) iodide also formed an SO_2 complex, trans-[MnL₄(SO_2)₂]I₂ (L = Ph₃PO), with Mn—OSO bonding²⁴⁴. It displayed reversible

loss of SO₂ to form [MnL₄(SO₂)I₂].

Ultraviolet irradiation of an equimolar mixture of $[(cp)Mn(CO)_3]$ and $Ph_2P(CH_2)_2-PPh_2$ in benzene or cyclohexane gave $[(cp)Mn(CO)_2L]$ $\{L=Ph_2PCH_2CH_2P(O)Ph_2\}^{245}$. Similarly, oxidation of $[Mn(CO)_3LX]$ ($\{X=Br, I; L=PhP(CH_2CH_2PPh_2)_2\}$ with O_2 gave $fac-[Mn(CO)_3L'X]$ ($\mathbf{20}$)²⁴⁶; photochemical reaction of [(cp)Mn(CS)L] with ozone gave [(cp)Mn(CS)L'] ($\mathbf{21}$)²⁴⁷. It may be noted that Mn-CS bonding is stronger than Mn-CO bonding since reaction of $[(cp)Mn(CO)_2(CS)]$ with L gave [(cp)Mn(CS)L] and not [(cp)Mn(CO)L].

Salt-like mixed-valence complexes of manganese carbonyls of the type $[Mn^{II}LX][cis-Mn^{I}(CO)_{4}X_{2}]$ (X = Cl, Br, I; L = Ph₃PO) have been reported^{248,249}. X-ray study of the iodo complex showed a square-pyramidal cation and a *cis*-octahedral anion²⁴⁸. In $[Mn(CO)_{5}(CH_{2}P(O)Ph_{2})]$ there was no coordination by the PO group^{250a} but the possibility of intermolecular coordination by PO when a carbonyl group is replaced

promises further activity in this type of complex. A seven-coordinate complex, $[MnLL'_2](BF_4)_2$ (22) (L' = Ph₃PO; L = quinquedentate macrocycle), has been reported^{250b}.

Manganese(III) chloride and nitrate form air-stable 1:2 and 1:3 complexes, MnX_3L_n (X = Cl, n = 2,3; X = NO₃, n = 2)²⁵¹⁻⁵³. Similarly, the manganese(III) tetrabromo-catecholate complex K[Mn(Br₄C₆O₂)₂L]H₂O·Me₂CO (L = Ph₃PO) has been reported²⁵⁴ and X-ray analysis showed that the dianion Br₄C₆O₂² chelates to manganese in a planar arrangement with Ph₃PO bonded to the apical site. The sixth site of the octahedron is occupied by the catecholate oxygen of an adjacent complex, leading to the formation of a dimer (23).

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & Br \\
 & O \\
 & Mn \\
 & O \\
 & Br
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & Br \\
 & O \\
 & Br
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & O \\
 & Br
\end{array}$$

Rhenium(III) halides gave $[ReX_3L_n](X = Cl, Br; n = 2,3; L = Ph_3PO)$ complexes $^{255-257}$. The complexes with Re=O bonds, such as $[ReOX_3L_2](X = Cl, Br; L = Ph_3PO, Et_2PhPO, Ph_2EtPO)$ and $[ReO(OEt)Cl_2L_2](L = Ph_3PO)^{258.259}$ were obtained via inner-sphere oxidation of the coordinated phosphine ligands on thermal heating. However, direct reaction of K_2ReOX_5 with Ph_3PO also gave the same products 259a . Air oxidation of the monomers $[ReX_3(NCR)(PPh_3)_2](R = alkyl; X = Cl, Br)$ gave $[ReOCl_3L(Ph_3P)](L = Ph_3PO)^{260}$. Similarly, reaction of the dimer $[ReCl_3(NR)L]_2(L = Ph_3P; R = arylimido)$ with O_2 gave $[ReCl_3(ONR)(OPPh_3)]$ and $[ReCl_4(NR)(OPPh_3)]$ as a side-product. It required milder conditions than those needed for the reaction of $[ReCl_3(NR)(PPh_3)_2]$ with $O_2(R = p-MeC_6H_4)^{261}$.

The complexes $(HPPh_3)_2$ $[ReX_6]$ (X = Cl, Br) lost HX on heating and formed $[ReCl_4L_2]$ and $(HPPh_3)$ $[ReLBr_5]$ $(L = Ph_3PO)^{262a}$. Similarly, $[ReCl_4L_2]$ was formed on heating a solution of $(HPPh_3)_2[ReCl_6]$ in acetone in the presence of HCl^{262b} . Further,

the inner-sphere oxidation of [Re(PPhEt₂)Cl₄] gave [Re(OPPhEt₂)₂Cl₄]²⁶³. Several other rhenium complexes reported are as follows: (a) [ReCl₃(OPPh₃)₂(ONAr)] formed by the oxidation of [ReCl₃(PPh₃)₂(ArN)] with O₂ in boiling toluene²⁶⁴; (b) [ReCl₃(NO)(NPPh₃)(OPPh₃)] (24) prepared by the reaction of [ReCl₃(NO)₂] and Ph₃PO in CH₂Cl₂(³¹P, X-ray)²⁶⁵; (c) [(cp)Re(NO)(PPh₃)(OPPh₃)]X (X = BF₄, PF₆) formed from [(cp)Re(NO)(PPh₃)ClCH₂Cl]⁺ and Ph₃PO (here CH₂Cl₂ is coordinated)²⁶⁶; (d) [ReOCl₄(OPPh₃)] (25) formed from [ReOCl₄] and Ph₃PO²⁶⁷; (e) [Re(CO)₃L₂X] (X = Cl, Br, I)²⁶⁸: (f) [Re(CO)₂(NO)X₂(OPPh₃)] (X = Br, I) (26) prepared by the reaction of the halogen-bridged dimer, [Re(CO)₂(NO)X₂]₂ and Ph₃PO²⁶⁹; (g) [Re₂X₄(OAc)₂L₂] (X = Cl, Br) (27) formed from [ReX₂(OAc)]. H₂O and Ph₃PO²⁷⁰⁻²⁷²; (h) deoxygenation of [MeReO₃] with Ph₃P in the presence of Me₃SiCl gave a 70% yield of the oxygen bridged complex, [MeCl₂L(O)Re—O—Re(O)Cl₂LMe] (28)^{273a}, and (i) [ReCl₄(NO)-(OPPh₃)(NO)(MeCN)] was prepared from [ReCl₅(NO)] and Ph₃P in acetonitrile^{273b}; Structures 24 and 28 were confirmed by X-ray analysis^{265,273}. The Re—N and P—N bond distances suggested double bond character in the Re—NPPh₃ bond in 24. The Re—Re bond in 27 is fairly strong and dissociates above 320 °C. No loss of ligand takes place below 300 °C.

f. Complexes of the iron, cobalt and nickel Group (VIII)

i. Iron sub-Group. Several iron(II) complexes have been reported; $[FeLX_2](X = Br, SO_3F, L = Ph_3PO)^{63,274}$; $[FeL_2X_2]$ $\{X = Cl, Br; L = Ph_3PO, Me_2P(O)CH_2R (R = Cl, OMe, OPh), HFA, Bu_3PO, SO_4, Ph_3PO\}^{227,238,275,276}$; $[FeL_4X]X (X = OClO_3; L = Me_3PO, Ph_3PO, MePh_2PO)^{231,232}$; $[FeL_4X_2] (X = OClO_3; L = Bu_3PO, Ph_3PO, BF_4, I_3, Ph_3PO)^{137,230,233,277-279}$; $[FeL_n][Fe_2(CO)_8] (n = 2, 3; L = Ph_3PO)^{280}$. A number of complexes have been obtained indirectly: $[Fe(OPPh_3)_4](ClO_4)_2$ was obtained from the reaction of iron(III) perchlorate with Ph_3P, which involved reduction of Fe^{III} to Fe^{II} and oxidation of Ph_3P to Ph_3PO²⁷⁹; similarly, $[Fe(OPPh_3)_4(I_3)_2]$ was obtained from the reaction of either as iron(II) or an iron(III) salt with iodide ions and Ph_3P in the presence of O₂.

X-ray studies have not been reported for any of the above complexes. However, based on Mössbauer studies, distorted tetrahedral structures were suggested for the complexes

[FeL₂X₂]²⁷⁵. For complexes [FeL₄X]X square-pyramidal and for [FeL₂(hfa)₂] (L = Bu₃PO)²³⁸ and [FeL₄X₂]^{137,230,233,277-279} octahedral structures have been suggested. A thermal study of [FeL₂(hfa)₂]²³⁸ revealed that the chelate ring formed by the hfa⁻ anion is stable in the gas phase. However, hfa⁻ changes to the mononuclear mode and at higher temperatures loss of Bu₃PO takes place with rupture of the M—O bonds. From Mössbauer studies²⁷⁵, an interesting observation is that Cl⁻ and Ph₃PO have a similar ligand field effect.

Two iron(II)-phthalocyanine(HPc) complexes, [Fe(Pc)(CO)L] and [Fe(Pc)(L₂)] (L = Ph₃PO), are known²⁸¹. The replacement of Ph₃PO in [Fe(Pc)(Ph₃PO)₂] by CO led to a decrease in the quadrupole splitting and isomer shift values, consistent with a decrease in the main axial bond distances on carbonylation and a concomitant increase in s-electron density along the z-axis. Similarly, a high-spin iron(III)-porphyrin complex, [FeL₂(A)](ClO₄)(H₂A = tetraphenylporphyrin), has been reported; it exhibited certain

properties similar to those of aquomethaemoglobin²⁸².

A few square-pyramidal iron-dithiolene complexes such as $(Bu_4N)[Fe(S_2C_2R_2)_2L]$ - $(R = CN, CF_3; L = Ph_3PO; 29)$ have been reported Reaction of $(Bu_4N)_2[Fe_2-(S_2C_2R_2)_4]$ with Ph_3P in the presence of O_2 gave the same product. Here activation of molecular oxygen by the iron-dithiolene complex takes place. In contrast, cobalt-dithiolene complexes were not effective in activating the oxidation of Ph_3P .

A trinuclear mixed-valence complex, $[Fe^{II}Fe^{III}_2(O)(O_2CCF_3)_6(OPPh_3)_3]$ (30) is known²⁸⁶; Mössbauer study revealed octahedral environments about each iron centre. An oxo complex, $[L_4FeOOFeL_4\cdot 2H_2O]X_4$ ($X=ClO_4$; $L=Ph_3PO$) was obtained when $[FeL_4](ClO_4)_2$ was reacted with H_2O_2 , $m\text{-}C_6H_4C(O)OOH$ or other oxidants in acetonitrile²⁸⁷. The same material was obtained by the addition of H_2O_2 and two molar hydroxide ions to $[FeL_4](ClO_4)_3$ in acetonitrile. Reaction of vinyldiphenylphosphine oxide with $[Fe_3(CO)_{12}]$ did not give substituted products like those formed with Ph_3P ; instead, a π -bonded complex (31) was obtained³¹⁵.

$$Ph_2P = 0$$

$$C = CH_2$$

$$Fe(CO)_4$$
(31)

Several other complexes of iron(III) are known: [FeCl₃L] (L = Ph₃PO)⁶⁰, [FeX₃L₂] $\{X = Cl, Br, NO_3, NCS; L = Ph_3PO, Ph_2P(O)CH = CH_2, Bz_2PhPO, Bz_3PO\}^{66,289-292}$.

 $(HgCl_2)_3$ ³⁰⁰ and $[Fe(NO_3)_2XL_2]$ $(X = Cl, I; L = Ph_3PO)^{301}$.

In general, these complexes were obtained by the direct reaction of the metal salt with the ligand, but some complexes were obtained indirectly. For example, reaction of FeBr₂ with Ph₃P in acetonitrile at 80°C in the presence of O₂ gave [FeBr₃(OPPh₃)₂]²⁸⁹. Similarly, oxidation of iron with Ph₃PO and CCl₄ in MeCOEt gave [Fe(Ph₃PO)₂Cl₃]²⁹⁰. Passing O₂ through a solution or suspension of FeCl₂, FeSO₄, etc., or iron powder in acetonitrile containing KCl or HCl, etc., in the presence of Ph₃P gave [FeX₃(OPPh₃)₂] (X = Cl, Br, NCS)^{302,303}.

The binuclear complex $[(FeCl_2L)_2O](L=Ph_3PO)^{295}$ was obtained from the reaction of either $[FeCl_2(OPPh_3)_2]$ or $[FeCl_2(PPh_3)_2]$ with O_2 in benzene²⁹⁵. Mixed anion complexes, $[Fe(NO_3)_2XL_2]^{301}$ were obtained from the reaction of $[Fe(NO_3)_2X]_2(X=Cl, I)$ with PPh_3 and O_2 or Ph_3PO ; these represent the first examples of transfer of 'O' from NO_3 to Ph_3P in cyclohexane³⁰¹. X-ray analysis for X=Cl has shown that the NO_3^- is asymmetrically bonded³⁰¹. The reaction of $[Fe(NCS)_3(OPPh_3)_2]$ with $HgCl_2$ gave $[Fe(NCS)_3(OPPh_3)_2(HgCl_2)_3]$ involving an Fe-NCS-Hg linkage. Each of the three NCS groups bonds to an $HgCl_2$ molecule³⁰⁰.

Iron(III) halide complexes, [FeX₃L₂] (X = Cl, Br; L = Ph₃PO, etc.), have been shown to exist as ionic complexes, [FeL₄X₂][FeX₄], with a *trans*-octahedral cation and a tetrahedral anion^{291,292,304}, as confirmed by X-ray analysis³⁰⁴ of [FeCl₂(OPPh₃)₄][FeCl₄].

Reaction of [Ru(CO)₄X₂] with Ph₃PO formed monosubstituted octahedral complexes, [Ru(CO)₃X₂L]³⁰⁵. Inner-sphere oxidation of the coordinated Ph₃P in [Ru(PPh₃)₃Cl₂] gave [Ru(OPPh₃)₃Cl₂]³⁰⁶. Some mixed-ligand complexes of ruthenium(II) that have been reported are [RuCl₂LL'] (L = o-C₆H₄{PMePh}₂; L' = o-C₆H₄{PMePh}₃(OPMePh)³⁰⁷, [Ru(NO₃)₃(NO)(OPPh₃)(PPh₃)]³⁰⁸ and [(bipy)(py)Ru(OPPh₃)]²⁺³⁰⁹. X-ray analysis of [RuCl₂LL'] has shown a *trans*-octahedral geometry³⁰⁷ with an unusually short Ru—P distance *trans* to O (2.219 versus 2.310–2.346 Å for Ru—P *trans* to one another (**32a**). In the bipyridyl complex, transfer of oxygen from [(bipy)₂(py)RuO]²⁺ to Ph₃P takes place³⁰⁹. In the nitrosyl complex [Ru(NO)(NO₂)L₂(OH)] (L = n-Bu₃PO)³¹⁰, L lies *trans* to NO and the *trans* effect of L decreases in the order L-Bu₃ⁿPO > py > NH₃ > H₂O. A mixed-valence complex, [Ru^{II}Ru^{III}(μ -OAc)₄(OPPh₃)₂](BF₄). CH₂Cl₂ was obtained from the reaction of [Ru₂(μ -OAc)₄(thf)BF₄ and Ph₃PO^{311a}. Other mixed-valence complexes that have been reported include [Ru₂(μ -O₂CCH₃)₄(OPR₃)₂](PF₆) (R = H, F, Cl, etc.). X-ray analysis of [Rũ₂(μ -O₂CCH₃)₄(OPPh₃)₂. ClCH₂CH₂Cl has shown a dimeric structure (**32b**) with Ru—Ru bonding and Ph₃PO in the terminal positions^{311b}.

Reduction of $[Os(OEP)O_2]$ by Ph_3P in CH_2Cl_2 gave $[Os(OEP)L_2]$ ($L=Ph_3PO$, $H_2OEP=$ octaethylporphyrin)³¹². An X-ray study has shown a *trans*-octahedral structure with normal Os—O (from Ph_3PO) bonding (2.036 Å). Similarly, *cis* and *trans*

isomers of $[Os(bipy)_2L_2]^{2+313}$ and $[Os(\eta^4\text{-CHBA-DCB})L]$ {L = Ph₃PO, H₄CHBA-DCB = 1,2-bis(3,5-dichloro-2-hydroxybenzamido)-4,5-dichlorobenzene}³¹⁴ have been reported. In the latter complex, the *trans* isomer contains planar amido-N-ligands and the *cis*- α -isomer contains non-planar amido-N-ligands. Finally, treatment of $K_2[OsO_2(OH)_4]$ with [2-OH-3,5-Cl₂C₆H₂CONHCH₂]₂ in methanol followed by reduction with Ph₃P in thf gave complex 33³¹⁵.

ii. Cobalt sub-Group. Table 7 contains a number of complexes of cobalt(II) halides (or other anions). Generally, the complexes involve 1:2 metal: ligand ratios. A few 1:4 complexes, trans-[CoL₄X₂] (X = Cl, ONO₂; L = R₃PO; R = Buⁿ, CH₂OH) are also known²³⁴. A number of different routes have been reported for their preparation: (a) direct reaction of metal salt with a ligand; (b) reaction of a metal salt with a phosphine oxide ligand in the molten state, e.g. [CoCl₂(OPPh₃)₂]^{351,352}; (c) autoxidation of cobalt(II)-alkylphosphine complexes, [CoX₂L₂] (L = Et₃P, X = Cl, Br, I; L = Ph₃PO, X = Cl in an organic solvent³⁴⁷; (d) inner-sphere oxidation of the complexes using H₂O₂, e.g. [CoBr₂(PPh₃)₂]³⁴⁸, or by thermal heating, e.g. [Co(PPh₂)₂X₂] [Co(PPh₂R)₂X₂] (X = Cl, Br, I; R = Et, Pr, Bu)³⁴⁹ and [Co(PPh₃)₂X₂] (X = Cl, Br, I)³⁵⁰; (e) oxidation of

TABLE 7. Complexes of the cobalt sub-Group

	Complex	X	L	Ref.
A	[CoX,L,]	Cl, Br, I, NCS, NO ₃	L ^a	73, 230, 234, 316–336
	2 23	Cl, I. NCS	RPh_2PO^b	337
В	$[CoX_2L(PPh_3)]$	Cl, Br, I, NCS	Ph ₃ PO	326, 328, 338-341
С	$[CoX_2L_n]$	(i) (NC) ₂ CC(O)NH ₂ ^c , NCNC(O)NH ₂ ^d	$Ph_3PO(n=2)$	341
		(ii) hfa	$Bu_3PO(n=2)$	238, 342
		(ìii) tta	$R_3PO(n=1)$	343
		(iv) CN	$Me_3PO(n=1)$	344
			$R_3PO(R = Et, Bu,$	344
			Ph; $n = 0.5$)	
		(v) SO ₃ CF ₃	Bu_3PO , Ph_3PO (n = 4-6)	345
		(vi) CF ₃ CH ₂ O	$Ph_3PO(n=1)$	346
D	[CoCIXL]	CF ₃ CH ₂ O	Ph ₃ PO	346

 $^{^{}a}L = Me_{3}PO, Et_{3}PO, Pr_{3}^{i}PO, Bu_{3}^{n}PO, Ph_{3}PO, Cy_{3}PO, (p-MeC_{6}H_{4})_{3}PO, Bz_{3}PO.$

 $^{{}^{}b}R = 2$ -pyridylmethyl.

^{&#}x27;Carbamyldicyanomethanide.

⁴Carbamylcyanamide.

cobalt metal with Ph₃PO in a mixture of CCl₄ and MeCOEt, e.g. preparation of [CoCl₂(OPPh₃)₂]²⁹⁰; and (f) replacement of Ph₃P from its complexes of Ph₃PO, e.g. $[\text{CoX}_2(\text{OPPh}_3)_2]$ obtained from $[\text{CoX}_2(\text{PPh}_3)_2]$ and $\text{Ph}_3\text{PO}(X = I, \text{NCS})^{338,340}$. Routes

b-f are less common, although interest persists in route d.

X-ray analyses of $[CoCl_2(OPMe_3)_2]^{319}$ and $[Co(O_2NO)_2L_2]$ (L = Me₃PO, Ph₃PO)^{353,354a} have shown them to involve distorted tetrahedral and trans-octahedral structures, respectively. The angles at oxygen, i.e. P-O-Co lie between 133 and $140^{\circ 353a}$. A nitro complex, $[CoL_2(NO_2)_2]$ (L = Ph₃PO), presumably has a similar structure³⁵⁵. Powder X-ray data have been reported for some cobalt(II) complexes, viz. $[CoCl_2L_2]$ (L = Ph₃PO, BzPh₂PO, Bz₂PhPO, Bz₃PO)^{320,328} and $[Co(NCS)_2L_2]$ $(L = Ph_3PO, Ph_2BzPO)^{356}$. The nitrato complexes $[M(O_2NO)_2(OPPh_3)_2]$ (M = Co, Zn)are isomorphic357. The single-crystal ESR and polarized electronic spectra of [CoCl₂(OPPh₃)₂] have shown highly distorted tetrahedral geometry about the cobalt centre (*g* values: $g_1 = 5.67$, $g_2 = 3.59$ and $g_3 = 2.16$)³¹⁸. The X-ray analysis of [CoCl₂L₂] $\{L = Ph_2P(O)py, py = 2\text{-pyridyl}\}\$ has shown a distorted octahedral structure with ligand L chelating via O and N^{354b}.

A 3:4 and 1:1 complex of cobalt(II), viz. $[CoL_2X]_2[CoX_4]$ {X = Cl, Br; $L = Me_2NCH_2P(O)Ph_2 \ \, \text{and} \ \, [Co(LH)Cl_3] \ \, \{LH^+ = Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2N^+Me_2(H)\}, \ \, \text{have} \ \, \}$ also been reported 358 . The cation $[CoL_2X]^+$ is 5-coordinate and the anion tetrahedral. The latter complex was obtained from CoCl, and Ph, P(O)CH2CH2NMe2 and the origin of the protonation of NMe2 is not known. [CoCl3(LH)] has a tetrahedral structure with LH coordinating via its PO group. Reaction of CoCl₂ with Ph₂P(O)CH₂NMe₂ in the presence of HCl gave [(LH)₂CoCl₄]. Similarly, [Co(NCS)₂L₂] {L = Me₂N(CH₂)_nP(O)Ph₂; n=1,2 are also known. For n=1 a distorted octahedral structure and for n=2tetrahedral geometry have been suggested. In the latter complex there was no

coordination by PO groups358.

The mixed-ligand complexes [CoX₂LL'] (Table 7) were obtained from the reaction of $[CoX_2(PPh_3)_2]$ (X = Cl, Br, I, NCS) and Ph₃PO. The lability of the Co—PPh₃ bond was high for X = NCS. Complexes C and D (Table 7) have been poorly studied so only a few comments can be made. Thermal studies on [Co(hfa)2(OPBu3)2]238,342 have shown that it is stable in the gas phase. Before decomposition on heating, the anion hfa first changes from the bidentate to the monodentate form. In the solution phase

three forms of the hfa complex were identified 342.

The interaction of $CoCl_2$ with L (L = Ph₃PO, Ph₂BuⁿPO, topo, etc.) was studied in solution phase^{227,359–363}. Although normally the complexes formed had a 1:2 stoichiometry, complexes with other stoichiometries, viz. 1:1, 1:3 and 1.4, were also formed in some cases, for example in the CoCl₂-topo system 360,364. Some other observations that have been noted include the following: (a) Co-O bonds were more covalent when R was alkyl than when R was an aryl group 359,362,363; (b) the ligand-field effects of various ligands were similar³⁵⁹; and (c) the complex-forming tendency in different solvents was in the order $MeNO_2 > (thf + CCl_4) > acetate ester > BuOH > Me_2CO > MeCN$. Finally, the formation of $[CoLCl_2]$ (L = 34) was also established from solution-phase studies³⁶⁵.

$$Ph_{3}P = C \qquad 0$$

$$Ph_{2}$$

$$(34)$$

Cobalt(II) perchlorate and fluoroborate also form several complexes of the type $[CoL_4](ClO_4)_2$ (L = Bz₃PO, Bz₂PhPO, BzPh₂PO, Bu₃PO, Ph₃PO^{137,327,331,334}, [CoL₄](BF₄)₂ (L = R₃PO; R = Et, Pr, Bu)²³⁴, [CoL₆](ClO₄)₂ (L = Cy₃PO)^{229,230}, [CoL₄X₂] {L = Ph₃PO, BF₄, Me₃PO, Ph₃PO^{230,232,233,366} (p-Me₂NC₆H₄)₃PO; X = ClO₄²²⁹} and [CoL₄X]X (X = BF₄, ClO₄; L = Me₃PO, MePh₂PO)^{231,234}. The complexes [CoL₄]²⁺, [CoL₄X]⁺ and [CoL₄X₂] have been assigned tetrahedral, square-pyramidal and octahedral geometries respectively, but an X-ray study is needed to confirm coordination by either the BF₄ or ClO₄ anions. Reaction of [Co(PMe₃)₄]-(Ph₄B)₂ in acetonitrile gave [Co(NCCH₃)₂(OPMe₃)₄](Ph₄B)₂ and its X-ray analysis showed a *trans*-octahedral cation³⁶⁷. An intermediate [Co(PMe₃)₄(O₂)](Ph₄B)₂ was also detected.

Dimeric cobalt(II) complexes, $[Co_2I_4L_2]\cdot 2C_6H_6(L=Ph_3PO)$ and $[Co_2(CO)_6(R^1R^2P(O)\cdot(C\equiv CR^3)]$ ($R^1=R^2=Ph$; $R^3=Me_3C$, $Ph)^{368,369}$ have been reported. The iodo complex was obtained from CoI_2 and Ph_3PO in O_2 -free benzene. The same product was obtained from the reaction of the phosphine complex $[CoI_4(PPh_3)_2]$ with Ph_3PO . X-ray analysis of the iodo complex confirmed the dimeric structure 35 with C_6H_6 molecules lying in the lattice. There is antiferromagnetic coupling between the cobalt centres³⁶⁸. In the alkynephosphine oxide complexes, there is Co_O bonding and the alkyne groups are uncoordinated. Similarly, complexes of the type $[Co(OPBu_3)_4][Co(CO)_4]_2$, $[Co(OPMe_3)_6][Co(CO)_4]_2$ and $[Co_4(SPh)_6Cl_2(PPh_3)(OPPh_3)]^{371}$ have been reported. X-ray analysis of the Ph_3PO complex³⁷¹ showed that the $Co_4S_6Cl_2$ core is that of a nearly regular Co_4 tetrahedron inscribed in an irregular octahedron of bridging sulphur atoms, resulting in an adamantane-type cage. Cobalt(III) complexes, $[CoCl_3(OPPh_3)]^{60}$ and $[CoI_2L_2]I(L=Cy_3PO)^{229}$ are also known. The iodo complex was obtained by oxidation of $[CoI_2L_2]$ with I_2 in ethanol.

A number of rhodium(III) complexes have been reported: $[RhLCl]_n$, $[Rh(CO)_2LCl]$ (L = Ph₃PO)³⁷²; cis- $[RhCl(CO)_2L]$ (L = topo)³⁷³; cis- $[RhCl(CO)_2L]$ (L = cy₃PO)³⁷⁴ $[\{Rh(HDMG)L\}_2O_2]^{375}$, $[Rh(cod)(OPR_3)(PPh_3)](ClO_4)(R = Ph, substituted phenyl)$, $[Rh(cod)(OPR_3)_2](ClO_4)$, $[Rh(CO)(OPR_3)_2](ClO_4)$, $[Rh(CO)(OPR_3)_2](ClO_4)$, $[Rh(CO)(OPR_3)_2](ClO_4)^{376}$, $[Rh_2(\mu-OPR_3)_2(CO)_2(PPh_3)_2](ClO_4)_2$ and $[Rh_2-(\mu-OPR_3)_2(cod)_2](ClO_4)_2$

An X-ray study of cis-[RhCl(CO)₂L](L = cy₃PO)³⁷⁴ has shown a cis-square planar structure about rhodium (36). Other complexes with same stoichiometry are believed to possess similar structures. [Rh₂(μ -OPR₃)₂(CO)₂(PPh₃)₂](ClO₄)₂ and [Rh₂(μ -OPR₃)₂-(cod)₂](ClO₄)₂ complexes³⁷⁶ are thought to possess bridging ligands (37 and 38).

Thermal heating of solid samples of [Rh(PPh₃)₃Cl], [Rh(PPh₃)₃NO]³⁷⁷, [RhL₃Cl₃] {L = Ph₂P(CF₃), Ph₂PC₂F₅}³⁷⁸ and [Rh(CO)L(PPh₃)₂(ClO₄) (L = py, γ -picoline, etc.)³⁷⁹ led to inner-sphere oxidation of PPh₃ to OPPh₃ forming corresponding phosphine oxide complexes. The ligand Ph₂PCH₂CH₂P(O)Ph₂ formed a rhodium(I) complex, cis-[RhCl(CO)L] (39), which on reaction with CO gave a trace of cis-[RhCl(CO)₂L]³⁸⁰ (40). The PO—Rh bond is stronger in 39 than in 40. A complex [Rh(NO₃)(NO)₂(OPPh₃)]³⁸¹ was later reinvestigated and found to be [Rh(NO₃)₂(NO)-(Ph₃P)₂]³⁸². Rhodium(III) and iridium(III) complexes of stoichiometry [RhL₂(OPBu₃)Cl] and [IrL₂(OPPh₃)Cl] (41) (L = C₆H₄CONR', R' = pyridino) have been reported³⁸³. The iridium complex reacted with CO reversibly forming [IrL₂(CO)Cl].

(39)
$$\begin{array}{c}
CI \\
Ph_2PO \\
CO
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
CI \\
Rh \\
CO
\end{array}$$

$$CO \\
CH_2CH_2PPh_2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
CI \\
CO
\end{array}$$

$$CH_2CH_2PPh_2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
CI \\
CO
\end{array}$$

$$CH_2CH_2PPh_2$$

$$CH_2$$

iii. Nickel sub-Group. Nickel(II) forms several complexes as listed in Table 8. The complexes can be prepared by direct reactions as usual. However, complexes A can also be prepared by other routes: (a) inner-sphere oxidation of [NiX₂L₂] by H₂O₂ (X = Br, I; L = Ph₃P)³⁴⁸, air (X = halogen; L = Et₃P)⁴⁰⁸, NaClO₂ (X = Cl; L = Cy₃P, Ph₃P)³⁸⁹ and thermal heating (X = Cl, Br, I, NCS, L = Ph₃P, Ph₂EtP, PhEt₂P, Me₂PhP, etc; X = NO₃, L = Et₂PhP)^{393,409-412} and (b) reaction of NiCl₂ with molten Ph₃PO^{351,352}. [Ni(NO₂)Cl(OPPh₃)] was obtained *in situ* from [NiX₂L₂] and NaNO₂ and, on bubbling CO through the solution, [Ni(NO)ClL₂] was formed. Here the CO has reacted with NO₂ to form CO₂ and NO. Further reaction of [Ni(NO)ClL₂] with O₂ gave exclusively [Ni(NO₂)XL₂]³⁹⁶. Dimeric complexes (D) were obtained on treatment of [NiX₂(PPh₃)₂] with NOCl in a benzene-cyclohexane mixture³⁹⁸. For X = NCS, the dimer [Ni(OPPh₃)XCl]₂ reacted with NOCl forming [NiLCl₂]₂³⁹⁷.

Complexes A–C are suggested to have tetrahedral structures for X = halogen or NCS and octahedral structures for $X = \text{NO}_3$, hfa or $\text{tta}^{238,329,343,393}$. For $L = \text{Me}_2\text{PhPO}$,

TABLE 8. Complexes of the nickel sub-Group

	Complex	X	L	Ref.
Ā	[NiX ₂ L ₂]	Cl, Br, I, NO ₃	Ph ₃ PO, Cy ₃ PO, Et ₃ PO, p-Tol ₃ PO	321, 322, 329, 348, 384–392
		Cl	L ^a	392
		NO ₃	L^b	393, 394
		Cl, Br	$(R_2NCH_2)_3PO$, $Ph_2P(O)CH=CH_2$, $Me_2P(O)CH_2R$	66, 227, 395
			(R = Cl, MeO, PhO)	
		Cl, I, NCS	RPh_2PO^c	337
		$(NC)_2CC(O)NH_2$	Ph ₃ PO	341
		hfa, tta	Bu ₃ PO, topo, Ph ₃ PO	238, 343
В	$[NiX_2L(Ph_3P)]$	Br	Ph ₃ PO	385
C	$[Ni(NO_2)XL_2]$	Cl	Ph ₃ PO	396
D	[NiLXCl] ₂	NCS	Ph ₃ PO	397
		Cl, Br, NO ₃	Ph ₃ PO	398
E	$[NiL_4X_2]$	Cl, l, NCS, NO ₃	(HOCH ₂) ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO	228, 234
F	$[NiL_2X]_2[NiX_4]$	Cl, etc.	Ph ₂ P(O)CH ₂ NMe ₂	357
G	[NiCl ₃ (LH)]	_	LH^d	357
Н	$[NiX_2L_n]$	CF ₃ SO ₃	Bu_3PO , $Ph_3PO(n = 4-6)$	345
I	(i) [NiX ₂ L ₄]	ClO ₄	Et ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO	137, 230, 322, 360, 399
	(ii) [NiL ₄]X ₂	ClO ₄	Bu ₃ PO, BzPh ₂ PO	137, 401, 402
	(iii) [NiL ₄ X]X	ClO ₄	Me ₃ PO, MePh ₂ PO	231, 232, 234, 403
	(iv) [NiL ₅]X ₂	BF₄	Me ₃ PO	234
	(v) $[NiX_2L_n]$	BF ₄	$Ph_3PO(n = 4,5)$	233
	(vi) [NiL ₂ X]	SO ₄	Ph ₃ PO	276
J	(i) $[Ni(O_2CR)_2L]_2^e$	_	Ph ₃ PO	404, 405
	(ii) $[Ni(O_2CC_6H_4R)_2L]_2^f$	_	Ph ₃ PO	406
K	$[(C_6H_5)_2NiL_2]$	_	Ph ₃ PO	407

^aL = Ph, EtPO, Bz, PhPO, BzPh, PO, Bz, PO.

Pr₂PhPO, Bu₂PhPO, Bu₃PO and X = Cl, Br, I, the A-type complexes are assigned a trans-square-planar geometry⁴¹¹. Various other structures that have been suggested are square-pyramidal for cations of complexes F^{357} and for complexes I(iii) ($L = Me_3PO$, $MePh_2PO$)^{231,232,403} and I(iv)²³⁴, ligand-bridged square-pyramidal dimeric for complexes I(ii) with $L = BzPh_2PO^{400,401}$ and tetrahedral with $L = Bu_3PO^{137,402}$, halogen-bridged dimeric for complexes D, trans-octahedral for complexes E and carboxylate-bridged dimeric for complexes J. The carboxylate complexes J involve a metal-metal exchange interaction similar to that in copper(II) acetate. An increase in Cl substitution in the chloroacetate moiety decreased the magnetic interaction between the nickel centers⁴⁰⁵. In complex G, [NiCl₃(LH)], the ligand $Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2N(H)Me_2$ binds to nickel(II) via the PO group only³⁵⁷. Only one diorganonickel(II) complex, $Phi(Ce_3F_3)_3(OPPh_3)_2$ is known (Table 8).

 $^{^{}b}L = Ph_{,P}(O)CH = C = CH_{,p}, Me_{,P}(O)CH = C = CMe_{,p}, Me_{,P}(O)C = CPh.$

 $^{^{\}circ}R = 2$ -pyridylmethyl.

 $^{^{}d}LH = Ph_{2}P(O)CH_{2}CH_{2}\overset{\uparrow}{N}HMe_{2}.$

 $^{^{}e}R = \text{Et}, \text{ Pr}, \text{ ClCH}_{2}, \text{ Cl}_{2}\text{CH}, \text{ Cl}_{3}\text{C}, ^{f}R = \text{H}, \text{ 4-CH}_{3}, \text{ 2-Cl}, \text{ 4-NO}_{2}.$

Air oxidation of diamagnetic $\lceil Pd(PPh_3)L_2 \rceil$ (L = Ph₂PC₆H₄X; X = F, Cl, Me, MeO, CO₂H) gave a paramagnetic species [Pd(OPPh₃)L₂]⁴¹³. Similarly, inner-sphere oxidation of trans-[PdL₂X₂] (L = Ph₃P, Ph₂EtP; X = Br, I) and cis-[Pd(Ph₂EtP)₂Cl₂]⁴¹⁴ gave the corresponding phosphine oxide complexes. A series of palladium(II) nitrate complexes, $[Pd(NO_3)_2L_2]$ (L = R₃PO, R = Pr, Bu, Ph, isopentyl) were prepared by extraction from HNO₃ solutions of the metal salt⁴¹⁵. Other palladium(II) complexes, including those of organopalladium(II) are $[(PdCl_2)_4L_2]$ { $L = (o-XC_6H_4)_2PhP(O)$; $X = PhC \equiv C$ }⁴¹⁶, $[PdL(OPPh_3)Cl]$ (42, $HL = C_6H_4CONR'$; R' = pyridino)³⁸³, [Pd-PhP(O)] $(ONO_2)_2(OPPh_3)PPh_3]^{417}$, $[Pd(C_6F_5)_2(OPPh_3)_2]^{418}$ and $[Pd(C_6F_5)(AsPh_3)_2(OPPh_3)]$ - $(ClO_4)^{419}$. The X-ray crystal structure of the nitrate complex has shown a trans-square-planar structure⁴¹⁷. cis- $[PdL_2]X_2$ complexes $\{X = NO_3, PF_6; L = Ph_2-Ph_2\}$ P(O)CH₂PPh₂}⁴²⁰ have also been reported.

The monodentate ligand Ph₃PO forms complexes with platinum(II) of the type (A)[PtRL₂L'](ClO₄)(R = C_6F_5 , Ph; L = Et₃P, Ph₃AS; L' = Ph₃PO)⁴²¹⁻⁴²⁴ and (B) [PtL(Ph₃PO)Cl] (HL = C_6H_4 CONR', R' = pyridine), analogous to palladium(II) above³⁸³

Unsymmetrical phosphorus ligands, such as $Ph_2P(O)(CH_2)_nPPh_2(n=1,2)$ form cis-[PtL_2] X_2 complexes ($X = NO_3$, PF_6 , BF_4)⁴¹⁹. Similarly, cis- and trans-[$PtCl(PR_3)L$]X {R = Et or Bu; $X = ClO_4$, BF_4 ; $L = Ph_2PCH_2P(O)R_2$; R' = Ph, $CHMe_2$, CMe₃} are known⁴²⁵. These complexes on treatment with NaH form cis- and trans-[PtCl(PR₃){Ph₂PCHP(O)R'₂}]. An X-ray structure of the trans isomer with R' = CMe₃ has been reported. It is notable that the Pt—O bond is weaker than the Pt-S bond in analogous complexes⁴²⁵.

Finally, reaction of [Pt₂Cl₄(PEt₃)₂] with Ph₂P(O)CH₂P(S)Ph₂ gave [PtCl(PEt₃)L]⁺⁴²⁶, which on treatment with 1,8-bis(dimethylamino)naphthalene gave 43. A platinum(II) complex, $[Pt_2(\mu-S)(\mu-L)(\eta'-L')]$ $\{L = Ph_2PCH_2PPh_2; L' = Ph_2PCH_2P(O)Ph_2\}^{427}$ was found to possess no Pt-O interaction.

g. Complexes of the copper Group (IB). Table 9 shows various types of complexes of copper(II). Only a few copper(I), silver(I), gold(I) and gold(III) complexes have been reported. Apart from the usual methods of preparation, some indirect methods have been used which are briefly described as follows: (a) oxidation of copper metal with Ph₃PO and CCl₄ in MeCOEt gave [CuCl₂L₂] and [Cu₄OCl₆L₄]^{290,454}; (b) reaction of copper(II) chloride with molten Ph₃PO gave [CuCl₂(OPPh₃)₂]³⁵¹; (c) grinding of CuCl₂ and Ph₃PO to a fine powder for some time gave [CuCl₂L₂]³⁵²; (d) reaction of copper(II) chloride with Ph₃P in acetone gave a mixture of Ph₃PO, [CuCl₂(OPPh₃)₂], CuCl₂(OPPh₃)₄·2H₂O and [Cu₄OCl₆L₄]^{455,456} (separated by chromatography). It may

TABLE 9. Complexes of the copper Group (IB)

	Complex	X	L	Ref.
A	[CuX ₂ L ₂]	Cl, Br, NO ₃	Ph ₃ PO, Cy ₃ PO, Ph ₂ BzPO, PhBz ₂ PO, Bz ₃ PO,	66, 322, 428–434
В	[CuCl ₂ L]	_	$Ph_2P(O)CH=CH_2$ $[Me_2P(O)CH_2]_2O$, $[Me_2P(O)CH_2OCH_2]_2$ $[Me_2P(O)CH_2OC_2H_4]_2O$	435
C	$[CuX_2L_4] \cdot 2H_2O$	Cl, Br	Ph ₃ PO	429, 436-438
D	(i) [CuX ₂ L ₄]	NO_3	Ph ₃ PO	366
	(ii) [CuX ₂ L ₄]	Cl, NO ₃	(HOCH ₂) ₃ PO	234
E	$[Cu_4OX_6L_4]$	Cl	Ph ₃ PO	429, 439–446
		Br	Ph ₃ PO	444
F	[CuX ₂ L]	(i) hfa, tta, tfa, acac, Et ₂ NC(S), etc.	Ph₃PO, topo	238, 343, 447–450
		(ii) HA ^a	Bu ₃ PO	97
G	$[CuX_2L_n]$	(i) hfa, dbm, tta, cupferron	Bu_3PO $topo(n = 1,2)$	238, 451
	50 11 1 3	(ii) CF ₃ SO ₃	Bu_3PO , topo $(n=4,6)$	345
Н	$[CuX_2L_2]$	$2,4,6-X_3C_6H_2O_2$ (X = Cl, Br)	Ph ₃ PO	452
I	(i) [CuL ₄]X ₂	ClO ₄	Me ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO, Ph ₂ BzPO, PhBz ₂ PO, Bz ₃ PO	137, 343, 432
	(ii) [CuL ₄ X]X	ClO ₄	Me ₂ PO, Ph ₃ PO, MePh ₂ PO	229–232, 453
	(iii) [CuX ₂ L ₄]	BF₄	Bu ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO	233, 234
	(iv) $[CuL_5]X_2$	BF ₄	Me ₃ PO	234

 $^{^{}a}$ HA = 5-methoxy-5-methyl undecane-2,4-dione.

be added that sometimes in the direct reaction of a metal salt with a ligand, unexpected products were obtained. For example, reaction of copper(II) chloride with Ph_3PO under different conditions gave $[CuCl_2L_2]$, $2[CuCl_2L_3]$ and $(Cu_4OCl_6L_4]^{457}$. A complex with a quaternary cation, namely $(Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2NEt_2(H))^+[CuCl_2]^-$ is also known^{458,459}; X-ray analysis has confirmed this formulation.

X-ray study has shown a slightly elongated tetrahedron for [CuBr₂(OPPh₃)₂]⁴²⁸, with angles at oxygen, viz. Cu—O—P, being 144.0° and 154.8°. Similarly, for [CuCl₂(OPPh₃)₂], a compressed tetrahedral geometry (C₂ symmetry) was inferred from single-crystal ESR and polarized electronic spectra^{429,431}. [Cu(O₂NO)₂(OPPh₃)₂] has trans-rhombic octahedral geometry⁴³⁴. Other complexes of type A and also complexes of type B (coordination via PO only have been assigned a distorted tetrahedral geometry (Table 9).

Complexes C exhibit coordination isomerism: [CuCl₂(OH₂)₂](Ph₃PO)₄^{429,436,437} (isomer I) and [CuCl₂(OPPh₃)₄]·2H₂O (isomer II)⁴³⁸. Isomer I has a tetrahedral geometry (X-ray) about copper with no coordination by Ph₃PO. Each H₂O interacts with Ph₃PO via hydrogen bonding. In isomer II, H₂O is not coordinated and the complex has a *trans*-octahedral geometry. On heating, isomers I and II formed [CuL₂X₂]⁴⁶⁰. Complexes D presumably have *trans*-octahedral structures with monodentate NO₃ in mutually *trans* positions.

One of the most widely studied compounds is $[Cu_4OCl_6L_4]$ ($L=Ph_3PO$) (complexes E). Apart from the methods mentioned earlier, this cluster compound can be readily obtained by refluxing $[CuCl_2(OPPh_3)_2]$ in methyl isobutyl ketone⁴⁴⁶. X-ray study has shown that the copper atoms are at the vertices of an almost regular tetrahedron (44). Each copper is surrounded by a slightly distorted trigonal bipyramid^{440-442,446}; six bridging 'Cl' atoms form an octahedron about the central oxygen. There is antisymmetric super-exchange between orbitally degenerate magnetic ions⁴⁴⁵. Further, the EPR spectrum has shown separation of the S=2 state from the S=1 state (ground state) of 14 ± 1 cm⁻¹ (zero-field splitting, 0.53 ± 0.01 cm⁻¹)⁴⁴³.

The 1:1 adducts [CuX₂L] (complexes F and G) either possess square-pyramidal geometry or dimeric octahedral structures involving bridging via oxygen or sulphur donor atoms of the anions. The 1:2 adducts G have trans-octahedral structures. However, none of these have been characterized by X-ray studies. The triflate complexes [Cu(SO₃CF₃)₂L_n] (n = 4,6) have only been poorly studied. The Lewis acidity of copper(II) β -diketonates, CuX₂, towards the ligands decreased in the order Cu(hfa)₂ > Cu(tta)₂ > Cu(tfa)₂ > Cu(acac)₂.

In copper(II)-dithiocarbamate adducts $(F)^{448}$, low-temperature ESR studies showed that the axial binding to copper by L weakens the Cu—S bonding in the square-plane. Phenoxo complexes (H) are also believed to possess *trans*-octahedral geometries⁴⁵² and on thermal degradation they form [Cu₄OCl₆L₄]. For the perchlorate or fluoroborate complexes, tetrahedral, square-pyramidal, or octahedral structures have been assigned for I(i), I(ii, iv) and I(iii), respectively. For [CuL₄] (ClO₄)₂, a square-planar structure has been suggested when $L = Me_3PO^{343}$, whereas when $L = Bu_3PO$ the structure is believed

to be between tetrahedral and square-planar.137

The unsymmetrical phosphorus–sulphur ligands $Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2SR$ (R = Et, Ph) also formed complexes of the type $[CuL_2] \cdot X_2(X = ClO_4)$, $[CuL_2](BF_4)_2$ —(R = Et) and $\{[CuL'_2]X \cdot [CuL_2]X_2\}$ $\{L' = Ph_2PCH_2CH_2SEt; L = Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2SPh\}^{461}$. Complexes $\{[CuL'_2]X \cdot [CuL_2]X_2\}$ are double salts and the presence of $[CuL'_2]X$ induces asymmetry in the g_{\perp} line of $[CuL_2]X_2$ ($X = ClO_4$, BF_4) species which showed $g_{\parallel} = 2.220$ and $g_{\perp} = 2.089$; the double salt complexes showed three g values (2.269, 2.064 and 2.034). From solution-phase studies, species of the type $[CuLCl]^+$ $\{L = Me_2P(O)CH_2R; R = Cl, OMe, OPh^{227}, Ph_3PO, Ph_2P(O)CH_2Ac, Ph_3P=CHP(O)Ph_2^{364}\}$ and $[CuL_2Cl]^+$ $\{L = Me_2P(O)CH_2OPh\}^{227}$ were detected.

Addition of Me₃P to a rapidly dehydrated copper(II) Y-zeolite reduced the copper(II) to copper(I), which on treatment with O_2 was deoxidised forming $[Cu(Me_3PO)_4]^{2+}$

species in the supercages of the Y-zeolite's lattice⁴⁶².

A large number of adducts of copper(II) carboxylates with Ph₃PO have been reported: [Cu₂(O₂CR)₄L₂] {R = Me, Et, Pr^{343,463,464}, FCH₂, ClCH₂, Cl₂CH, Cl₃C, F₃C, etc. ⁴⁶⁵⁻⁴⁶⁷, BrCH₂CH₂, McCHBr, McC(Cl₂), ClCH₂CH₂, MeCH(Cl) ^{464,468-470}; PhC= \mathbb{C}^{471} , R'C₆H₄, R' = H, 4-Mc, 2-Cl, 4-NO₂ ⁴⁰⁶, 2-F, etc. ⁴⁶⁴} and [Cu(O₂CCX₃)₂- $(Ph_3PO)_2$ $(X = F, Cl)^{472}$.

X-ray analyses of [Cu₂(O₂CCH₂CH₂Cl)₄(OPPh₃)₂]⁴⁶⁹ and [Cu₂(O₂CCHClMe)₄-(OPPh₃)₂]⁴⁷⁰ have shown dimeric structures (46) similar to that of copper(II) acetate. Magnetic moment, ESR and other studies have revealed antiferromagnetic exchange interactions between the copper(II) centres of the carboxylate complexes. In one case, viz. $[Cu_2(PhC \equiv CO_2)_4L_2]^{471}$, there was inter-dimer antiferromagnetic interaction.

Recently 1:2 adduct of substituted glycine, namely [CuA₂L₂] (HA = N-formyl-Lphenylalanylglycine; $L = Ph_3PO$) was reported to have a trans-octahedral structure⁴⁷³. However, an ESR study revealed the existence of monomeric and dimeric forms of the

A few tetrameric copper(I)-phosphine oxide complexes, [CuLX]₄ (L = Ph₃PO, p-tol₃PO; X = Cl, Br, I), were formed by the thermal decomposition of $[Cu(PPh_3)X]$ in O_2^{474} and oxidation of $[CuX(p-tol_3P)]$ with $H_2O_2^{475}$. Similarly, reaction of Ph_3P with $CuCl_2$ in $Place{Mean}$ Me $Place{Mean}$ Me $Place{Mean}$ me $Place{Mean}$ me $Place{Mean}$ mean $Place{Mean}$ mean Pl $Ph_2P(O)CH(R)Li^+$ {from $BuLi + Ph_2P(O)CH_2R$ } led to trans-metallation of copper(I) forming $CuCH(R)P(O)Ph_2$ (R = H, Pr, etc.)⁴⁷⁶

The β -tri- α -methylindolphosphine oxide $(C_6H_4NHCMe=C)_3PO$ and β -triindolylphosphine oxide, $(C_6H_4NHCH=C)_3PO$, were reported to interact with AgNO₃, but no details were given⁴⁷⁷. Other silver(I) complexes reported are [Ag(NO₃)L], [AgXL₅]

 $C_6F_3H_2$; L = Ph₃PO; 45).

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
R & \downarrow & R \\
\downarrow & Ag & \downarrow \\
R & \uparrow & R \\
L & & R
\end{array}$$
(45)

Gold(I, III) complexes of the type [Au(Ph₃PO)(Ph₃P)] (ClO₄), 480 [(C₆F₅)₂Au(Ph₃P)-(Ph₃PO)] (ClO₄) 481 and (HL₂)[AuX₄] (X = Cl, Br; L = Ph₃PO) $^{482-84}$ have been reported. Au X-ray study of (H(Ph₃PO)₂)[AuCl₄] 485 showed a hydrogen-bonded centrosymmetric interaction with Ph₃PO.

h. Complexes of the zinc Group (IIB). Various complexes of this group are given in Table 10. Most of the adducts have 1:1 or 1:2 metal to ligand ratios, although a few complexes with other stoichiometries have also been reported. For example, zinc(II) forms $[ZnX_2L_n](X = SO_3CF_3; n = 4-6)$ complexes³⁴⁵. X-ray analysis of $[ZnCl_2(OPPh_3)_2]$ showed a distorted tetrahedral geometry about zinc(II)486. Other A complexes are also suggested to have similar structures.

For B complexes, [MX₂L], when the anion is halogen, a dimeric structure (46) is suggested. When the anion is tta, hfa or bfa, square-pyramidal or dimeric octahedral structures (47a and b) have been suggested. The unsymmetrical phosphorus ligands Ph₂P(O)CH(R)PPh₂ chelate to a metal centre via P and O donor atoms, forming

TABLE 10. Complexes of the zinc Group (IIB)

	Complex	M	X	L	Ref.
A	$[MX_2L_2]$	Zn	Cl, Br, I, NO ₃ , CH ₃ COO	L ^a	16, 66, 73, 227, 230, 322, 486–490
			(NC) ₂ CC(O)NH ₂	Ph ₃ PO	341
		Cd	Ì	Ph ₃ PO	16, 230, 490
		Hg	Cl	$Ph_3PO, Ph_2P(O)R$ $(R = CH_2 = CH)$	16, 66, 491, 492
В	$[MX_2L]$	Zn, Cd	tta, bfa, hfa	Ph ₃ PO, topo	343, 449, 493, 494
		Cd	Cl	(HOCH ₂) ₃ PO	234
		Cd, Hg	Cl, Br	$R_3PO(R = HOCH_2)$ $Ph_2P(O)CH(R)PPh_2$ $(R = H, Pr^n)^b$	143
		Hg	Cl, Br	Me ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO, p-Tol ₃ PO	491, 492, 495
С	$[MX_2L_n]$	Zn	CF ₃ SO ₃	Bu_3PO, Ph_3PO (n = 4-6)	345
D	$[ML_4]X_2$	Zn	BF ₄ , ClO ₄ , SbF ₆	Me ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO, Cy ₃ PO	137,234, 496
		Cd	SbF ₆	Cy_3PO^c	497
Е	$[ZnL_4X]X$	_	ClO ₄	Me ₃ PO, MePh ₂ PO, Ph ₃ PO	229, 231 232
F	$[ML_4X_2]$	Zn, Cd, Hg	BF ₄ , ClO ₄ , N(SO ₃ F) ₂	Me ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO	233, 234, 498

 $^{^{}a}L = Me_{3}PO, Ph_{3}PO, R_{2}P(O)CH = CH_{2}$ (R = Bu", Ph), $Me_{2}P(O)CH_{2}R$ (R = Cl, MeO, PhO).

^{b31}P NMR study.

tetrahedral complexes, [MX₂L]¹⁴³. For complexes D-F, tetrahedral, square-pyramidal or octahedral structures have been suggested.

Using ^{31}P and ^{113}Cd NMR, the formation of $[CdL_4](SbF_6)_2$ ($L=Cy_3PO$) was detected 497 , and insoluble product, $[CdL_3(SbF_6)_2]$ ($L=Cy_3PO$) was isolated. From another solution-phase study, the order of metal-ligand interaction was found to be $Zn-O>Cd-O>Hg-O^{499,500}$. Recently, an adduct of a substituted glycine, viz. $[ZnA_2(OPPh_3)_2]$ (HA=N-formyl-L-phenylalanylglycine), with a *trans*-octahedral structure was reported 473 . A few reactions of organo-zinc(II) and -mercury(II) have also

c31P, 113Cd NMR study.

been reported ⁴⁷³. For instance, reaction of N,N,N'',N''-tetrakis(trimethylsilyl)diamidophosphonimidate, $R_2N(P=NR)_2(R=Me_3Si)$ with Ph_2Zn formed a 3-coordinate complex $[(R_2N)(Ph)P(NR)_2Zn]$, which further reacted with Ph_3PO forming a 1:1 adduct (48)⁵⁰¹. Similarly, $(C_6F_5)_2Hg$ and $[(O_2N)_3C]_2Hg$ formed 1:1 adducts with $Ph_3PO^{502,503}$. From another study (solution phase)⁵⁰³, the Lewis acidity of R_2Hg towards Ph_3PO was indicated to decrease in the order $R=o-HC_6F_4>C_6F_5>p-HC_6F_4\approx p-MeOC_6F_4$. Only a few mercury(I) complexes, $[Hg_2L_6(ClO_4)_2]$ ($L=Ph_3PO)^{498,505}$, $[Hg_2L_4(ClO_4)_2]^{506}$ and $[Hg_2L_5(SiF_6)$ ($L=Ph_3PO)]^{506}$, have been reported. An X-ray study of $[Hg_2L_6(ClO_4)_2]$ showed a dimeric structure (49), the geometry about each mercury being approximately tetrahedral.

$$(R_2N)(Ph)P \xrightarrow{R} Zn \qquad \qquad \begin{bmatrix} L \\ L \\ L \end{bmatrix}^{24}$$

$$(48) \qquad \qquad (49)$$

i. Complexes of the lanthanides. Numerous complexes of the lanthanides have been reported (Table 11). Lanthanide halides generally form 6- or 7-coordinate $[MX_3L_n]$ (n=3,4) complexes. There is a tendency to extend the coordination number from 6 to 7 either by reaction with an additional ligand or absorbing moisture or solvent molecules. An iodo complex, $[SmL_4I_3]$, showed ionization forming $[SmL_4I_2]I^{515}$, probably for steric reasons. A thermal study of the complexes $[MCl_3L_3(H_2O)]^{518}$ revealed an increase in thermal stability from holmium to samarium. Cerium(IV) complexes had low thermal stability, decomposing between 45 and 80 °C; decomposition was rapid in water also 510 .

An interesting feature noted in lanthanide chemistry was the abstraction of halogens with a Lewis acid from the $[ML_3X_3]$ complexes. Coordination of R_3PO to the metal weakens the M-X bonds and thus ionic complexes such as $[MClL_5][FeCl_4]_2^{520}$ and $[MCl_2L_4][CuCl_3]^{521,522}$ are formed. X-ray analysis of the gadolinium complex showed a *trans*-octahedral structure for $[GdCl_2L_4]^+$ and a trigonal planar $CuCl_3^-$ anion⁵²². Similarly, X-ray analysis showed an octahedral structure for $[LaClL_5]^{2+520}$ and $[LaClL_5]^{2+520}$

The nitrate complexes B in Table 11 involve chelation by the NO_3 groups and hence the coordination number varies from 7 to 10. X-ray studies of $[La(O_2NO)_3L_3]$ ·EtOH⁵²³, $[Nd(O_2NO)_3L_2]$ ·EtOH⁵³⁰, $[Eu(O_2NO)_3L_3]$ (Me₂CO)₂⁵³¹ and $[Eu(O_2NO)_3L_2]$ (EtOH)]⁵³¹ (L = Ph₃PO) have shown 9-coordination about the metal centre, whereas $[Ce(O_2NO)_4L_2]$ (L = Ph₃PO)⁵²⁷ has 10-coordinate cerium. Here the general tendency of the metal ion is to extend the coordination number up to 9 readily and owing to this various complexes acquire solvent molecules. Preliminary X-ray data on $[Nd(NO_3)_3(Ph_3PO)_3]$ showed that the complex exists in two phases⁵²⁹.

The metal thiocyanate complexes showed coordination numbers similar to those in the metal halides. The complexes possess M—NCS bonding as expected. An X-ray study of $[Nd(NCS)_3L_4]$ ($L=Ph_3PO$) has shown that it possesses C_s symmetry. The perchlorate complexes also have coordinating ClO_4^- groups. For example, in $[Nd(O_2ClO_2)_2L_4](ClO_4)^{522}$, an X-ray study has confirmed the chelation by the ClO_4 groups as deduced from IR spectrometry for several complexes. The geometry of the neodymium complex involves a distorted delta dodecahedron. The complexes $[ML_6]^{3+}$ ($L=Me_3PO$)⁵⁴³ are other examples where six monodentate R_3PO ligands coordinate to the metal.

Ref.

512, 513 516, 517

518 518 519 520

111-514

510

515

07-509

 Pr_3PO , R_3PO (R = isoamyl; n = 3, 4) Ph_2EtPO $Ph_3^{2}PO (n = 3, 4)$ $Ph_3PO, Ph_2BzPO, Ph_2EtPO (n = 3)$ Ph_3PO Ph_3PO topo, Ph₃PO, Ph₂BzPO (n = 1-4)Me₃PO, Et₃PO, Ph₃PO, Bz₃PO, $R_3PO (n = 3, 4; R = isoamyl)$ Pr_3PO Ph3PO, topo, PhBz2PO Ph₃PO, Bu₃PO, topo, Ph, BzPO, PhBz, PO $Ph_3PO(n=3,4)$ $Ph_3PO(n = 3, 4)$ Bun PO, topo topo, Ph₃PO Ph, MePO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph, PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph, PO Ph, PO Ph₃PO Ph, PO Ph, PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ja-Nd, Sm, Gd, Dy, Er Y, La-Lu, except Pm, Eu, Dy, Er Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Ho Ce, Pr, Nd, Eu, Gd, Y, La-Er, except Pm, Tm, Yb, Lu in except Pm Y, Ln, except Σ Pm, Tm, Lu Sm. Tb, Dy Sm, Yb, Y La-Yb Tb, Dy Sm, Er Tb, Yb La-Lu Y, Ln _E La PZ Sm Sm MX_3L_n]·S (S = 0, 0.5 or 2 $C_4H_8O_2$; X = Cl, Br). $M(NO_3)_3L_2$]-EtOH $M(NO_3)_3L_n$]-S_m [S = EtOH, Me_2CO ; m=1,2) $M(NO_3)_2L_4$](NO_3) MCl_1L_n -mBuOH (m = 1, 2) $M(O_2NO)_3L_3$]·2 Me_2CO $M(N\tilde{O}_3)_3\tilde{L}_2\tilde{J}\cdot\tilde{E}tOH$ $M(O_2NO)_3L_2\tilde{J}\cdot\tilde{E}tOH$ $M(O_2NO)_3L_3$ $M(O_2NO)_3L_2$]·EtOH M(O₂NO)₃L₂ EtOH] M(O₂NO)₃L₃]·EtOH MCl₃L₃] MClL₅][FeCl₄]₂ $[MCl_2L_4][CuCl_3]$ $\begin{bmatrix} MCl_4L_2 \\ [MCl_4L_2] EtOH \end{bmatrix}$ [M(O₂NO)₄L₂] [M(O₂NO)₃L] MCl,(OMe)L2] MCl3L3]·H2O $M(O_2N\overline{O})_3L_3$ $[M(ClO_4)_3L_4]$ $M(NO_3)_3L_3$ M(NCS)₃L,] M(NCS)3L,] M(NCS)₃L₄ MCI,L4] MCl₃L_n] $ML_4I_2)I$ Complex Q C 2 K

531–533 531–533 534 534 512,535 535 535

513, 519

534, 539

516

Bu"PO

 $[M(OClO_3)_2L_4](ClO_4)$

519, 536 537, 538

512, 529 512, 530

512 512

521,522

524-527

523 528

TABLE 11. Complexes of the lanthanides

516,540 541,542 516-517 543 544 544 544 544 543,545 546 547 548-552 553 553 553 554 554 554,555 569 574,575 576,577 54,575 576,577 54,578 54,578	
Ph, BZ ₃ - xPO, Ph ₂ EtPO (x = 0-3) Ph, PO Ph, PO Ph, PO Bu, PO Ph, PO	
Nd Nd Nd Eu, Er La, Cd, Eu, Lu, Y La, Lu Y, Gd-Er Y, La, Ce, Nd, Eu, Gd, Tm, Lu, Y La, Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Dy, Tb, Er La-Lu, Y Ce	7,110,111
[M(ClO ₄) ₃ L ₄] [ML ₆](ClO ₄) ₃ [ML ₄ (OClO ₃) ₂](ClO ₄) [ML ₄ (OClO ₃) ₂](ClO ₄) [ML ₄ (OClO ₃)](ClO ₄) [ML ₅ (PF ₆) ₃] [ML ₅ (PF ₆) ₃] [ML ₄ (PClO ₃)](ClO ₄) ₂ [ML ₅ (PF ₆) ₃] [MA ₃ L ₂] ⁶ [MA ₃ L ₂] ⁶ [MA ₃ L ₂] ⁷ [MA ₄ L] (HA = Hacac, Hba, Hdbm, Htta) [MA ₄ L] (HA = Hacac, Hba, Hdbm) [MA ₄ L] (HA = Htta, Hhfa) [MA ₄ L] (HA = Htta, Hhfa) [MA ₃ L] ⁶ [MA ₃ L] ⁶ [MA ₃ L] ⁷	

ш

[7.

OH

Entradores and Carre

^{*}HA = 5-chlorosalicylic acid.

*HA = Hdpvm-dipivaloylmethane.

^{&#}x27;HA = 1-trifluoromethoxy-1,1-difluoro-5,5-dimethylhexane-2,4-dione, Hdpvm, etc.

"HA = N-nitrosophenylhydroxylamine.

"HA = HN (SiMe₃)₂.

/HA = 2,6-Me₃CC₆H₃OH, 2,6-di-tert-butyl-4-methylphenol, 2,6,4-(CMe₃)₂MeC₆H₂OH.

Hexafluorophosphate complexes (E) probably do not contain the coordinated anion whereas complexes G have coordinating carboxylate groups, the salicylate complexes being 8-coordinate and the trifluoroacetate complexes 9-coordinate. However, X-ray analysis is needed to confirm such possibilities. All the trifluoroacetate complexes decomposed at 300 °C forming metal trifluoride compounds. A polymeric europium(III) complex, Eu_4A_3 ·9 H_2OL ($L=Ph_3PO$) ($H_4A=benzene-1,2,4,5$ -tetracarboxylic acid), has also been reported⁵⁸².

Several adducts of metal β -diketonates have been reported (complexes H, Table 11.) The coordination number varies from 7 to 8 with coordination number 9 being shown only by [CeA₄L] adducts. The adducts [Ce(tta)₄L]^{550,551} were unstable and were reduced to [Ce(tta)₃L] (L = topo, Ph₃PO), whereas other adducts were stable. X-ray studies of [M(tta)₃(OPPh₃)₂] (M = Nd, Eu)^{557,561} and [Eu(dbm)₂(O₂NO)(OPPh₃)₂]⁵⁷¹ showed dodecahedral structures for these complexes. However, an X-ray study of [PrA₃L] (HA = dipivaloylmethane) showed that it has a pentagonal bipyramidal structure^{554,555}. Europium(III) complexes [EuA₃L_n] (n = 1,2) fluoresce^{570,583}.

A thermal study of [MA₃L] (HA = Hdbm)⁵⁶³ revealed that the adducts sublime in vacuum; the decomposition temperature of the adducts increases as the lanthanide increases in atomic number. A mass spectral study of [EuA₃(OPPh₃)] {HA = RC(O)-CH₂C(O)CMe₃; $R = CF_3$, CF_3OCF_2 , CF_3OCF_3 , the complexes with $R = CF_3OCF_2$ and

CF₃ showed dimer formation in the gas phase⁵⁸⁴.

N-Nitrosophenylhydroxylamine, 4-benzoylpyrazolone and chlorosulphate complexes (I–K) formed 7- to 9-coordinate complexes. Using $(Me_3Si)_2N^-$ or Ph_2P^- as the anions, novel 4-coordinate complexes, and peroxo complexes, were obtained (Table 11). The diphenylphosphido complexes were obtained from $[MA_3L]$ and Ph_2PH $\{HA = HN(SiMe_3)_2\}$. An X-ray study of $[La_2A_4(O_2)L_2]$ $\{L = Ph_3PO, HA = HN(SiMe_3)_2\}^{577}$ showed that it exists as a centrosymmetric dimer (50), each Lanthanum has a distorted tetrahedral environment if the fourth side is considered to be occupied by the peroxo group, O_2^{2-} . Similarly, 4-coordinate peroxo complexes(M) have been reported O_2^{2-} .

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
A & O & La & A \\
\hline
 & A & & & & & \\
\hline
 & & & & & \\
\hline
 & & &$$

Reaction of Na[M(S_2PR_2)₄] (M = La–Lu, except Pm) with Ph₃PO gave dithiophosphinate adducts, [MA₃L₂] and [MA₂L₃] (A = S_2PR_2) complexes (R = EtO)^{585–586}. X-ray analysis showed 8-coordinate square-antiprism geometry about lanthanum and

a pentagonal bipyramidal geometry about samarium.

A few organosamarium(II) and-(III) complexes, $[(C_5Me_5)_2SmL(thf)]$ (L = Ph₃PO)⁵⁷² and $[(C_5Me_5)_2SmL(OCH=CHO)SmL(C_5Me_5)_2]L^{588}$, have been reported. The latter was obtained from the reaction of $[(C_5Me_5)_2SmH]_2$ and CO in the presence of Ph₃PO and it exhibited *cis-trans* isomerism. X-ray analysis of the *cis* isomer showed a distorted tetrahedral geometry about each samarium (51).

$$R = C_5 Me_5$$
(51)

j. Complexes of the actinides. Several complexes of the actinides reported are given in Tables 12 and 13. Whereas only a few organolanthanide complexes were formed, a large number of organoactinide complexes have been reported (Table 13). As discussed earlier, some indirect methods of preparation also gave phosphine oxide complexes. For instance, oxidation of $(Ph_3PH)_2[UCl_6]$ with chlorine gave $[UCl_4L_2]$ $(L=Ph_3PO)^{602}$. Similarly, $[UBr_4(OPPh_3)]$ was obtained from the reaction of UCl_4 with bromine in the presence of Ph_3PO^{599} and $[PuBr_3L_2]$ from $PuCl_3$ and bromine in the presence of Ph_3PO^{599} . Air oxidation of Ph_3P in the presence of $[UO_2X_2]$ (X=Cl, Br) gave $[UO_2X_2L_2]$ $(L=Ph_3PO)^{624}$. From Table 12, it can be seen that a maximum of six phosphine oxide molecules can coordinate to an actinide. As Me_3PO is a small molecule it has low steric hindrance and hence six molecules can be accommodated about the central metal, unlike Ph_3PO , where only four molecules are accommodated about the metal.

An X-ray study of [ThCl₄(OPPh₃)₃]⁵⁹⁴ showed 7-coordinate geometry in an approximately capped octahedral environment with one oxygen in the capping position and three chlorine atoms in the capped face. Similarly, X-ray analysis of [UCl(OPMe₃)₆]Cl₃⁶⁰⁹ showed a distorted monocapped trigonal antiprismatic structure

or distorted monocapped octahedral structure.

An X-ray study showed a *trans*-octahedral geometry for $[UBr_4(OPPh_3)_2]^{590}$ and *cis*-octahedral for $[UCl_4(OPPh_3)_2]^{603}$. The latter complex exists in the two different crystal phases, α and $\beta^{590,608a}$, the β -phase being a metastable phase of the α -form. Heating $[UCl_4(OPMe_3)_2]$ at $100\,^{\circ}$ C for 6–7h gave β - $[UCl_4L_2]^{598}$. X-ray analysis of $[UCl_5(OPPh_3)]^{612}$ and $[UO_2Cl_2(OPPh_3)_2]^{616}$ showed distorted octahedral geometries. In the latter, the ligands display a *trans*-octahedral disposition.

A thermodynamic study of the interaction of UCl_4 with Ph_3PO revealed that the UCl_4 -OPPh₃ interaction was weaker than the UCl_4 -dmso interaction⁷¹⁵ ($\Delta H = -35.9$ versus -45.3 kcal mol⁻¹). In the solution phase $[UO_2Cl_2(topo)_2]$ undergoes

restructuring:

$2[UO_2Cl_2L_2] \rightleftharpoons [UO_2ClL_3]^+[UO_2Cl_3L]^-$

None of the perchlorate, sulphate and halogeno sulphate complexes of thorium, uranium and neptunium (Table 12) have been studied by X-ray analysis making it difficult to confirm coordination by the perchlorate groups, although XSO $_3^-$ groups (X = F, Cl, CF $_3$) are probably bidentate. In some thorium(IV) and neptunium(V) complexes, H $_2$ O is coordinated: $[ThL_5(OH_2)](ClO_4)_4^{632}$ and $[NpO_2L_4(OH_2)]ClO_4^{627,635}$. Only two borohydride complexes of the actinides have been reported, $[U(BH_4)_4L_2]^{638,639}$ and $[U(BPh_4)_2(NO_3)_2L_5]^{640}$. An X-ray study of $[U(BH_4)_4L_2]C_6H_6$ (L = Ph $_3$ PO) showed a *trans*-octahedral geometry⁶³⁹. C_6H_6 was lying as solvate molecules. The U—BH $_4$ distances (2.55 and 2.75 Å) reveal bi- and tri-dentate BH $_4^-$ ions. In the solution phase, $[U(BH_4)_4L_2]$ exists as a mixture of *cis* and *trans* isomers.

Among the nitrate and thiocyanate complexes (Table 12), only one 1:1 adduct, $[Th(NO_3)_4(OPPh_3)]$, was obtained by electrochemical synthesis, the other complexes being obtained by routine methods. X-ray studies of $[Th(O_2NO)_4L_2]$ (L = Ph_3PO)⁶⁴² and $[Th(O_2NO)_4\cdot 2.67Me_3PO]^{640}$ showed chelation by the NO_3^- groups and 10-coordinate thorium. Similarly, an X-ray study of (Ph_4P) $[Th(O_2NO)_5(OPMe_3)_2]^{640}$

showed a 12-coordinate polyhedron.

X-ray studies of $[U(NO_3)_4L_2]$ (L = Ph₃PO)⁶⁵⁰ and $[UO_2(NO_3)_2L_2]$ {L = Bu₃PO, (2-O₂NC₆H₄)Ph₂PO}^{645,658} showed distorted *trans*-octahedral and 8-coordinate geometrics, respectively. In the complex $[U(NO_3)_4L_2]$, the NO₃ group is unidentate and in the uranyl nitrate complexes it is bidentate with a linear UO_2^{2+} moiety. An X-ray photoelectron study⁶⁴⁸ of the former complex also revealed distortion in the geometry and its decomposition pattern was suggested as

$$[U(NO_3)_4L_2](s) \rightarrow [UO_2(NO_3)_2L_2](s) + gases$$

592, 597, 598, 608b, 609 110,611-613 592, 596-598 507, 590-592 596, 598 601, 607 596, 598, 613,615a 209-009 598 102, 110 590, 595 Ref. Me₃PO, Et₃PO, Et₂PhPO, EtPh₂PO, Ph₃PO, Prⁱ₃PO, MePh₂PO Me₃PO Ph₃PO, Ph₂BZPO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO R₃PO (R = Ph, Prⁱ, Et, Me, Bu, Bz) Et₂PhPO, Me₂PhPO, Me₃PO, Me₂PhPO, MePh₂PO, Bz₃PO Me₂PhPO, Me₃PO Ph₂MePO Me₂PhPO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO Ph₃PO u X (or H_mA) F, Cl, Br Cl, Br TABLE 12. Complexes of the actinides $Th(OH)Cl_3L_2]\cdot H_2O$ (vi) $[UF_4L_2]$ (SbF₆ [Th(OEt)Br3L,] $\Gamma U(OEt), X, J$ [UF_{5-x}Cl_x] Pa(OEt), (i) $[ThX_4L_n]$ $[PaX_4L_n]$ Complex

590, 595, 598 607 598, 598, 599,	607 607 598 71, 616–625	626 623 623 627 628 628			638, 639 640 641 642–645	644, 646 640, 644, 646 647
Me ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO Ph ₂ MePO Me ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO, MePh ₂ PO	Me ₂ PhPO Me ₃ PO Et ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO, topo, Bz ₃ PO	topo Bu ₃ PO topo topo Bu ₃ PO, topo	Pr ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO Me ₃ PO, Pr ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO Bu ₃ PO, Me ₃ PO, Pr. PO, Ph. PO	topo Ph ₃ PO Bu ₃ PO topo, Ph ₃ PO	Ph ₃ PO Me ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO, topo,	$(2-C_2NC_6H_4)Fn_2FO$ Pr_3PO Me_3PO $topo, R_3PO$ $(R = 2-ethylhexyl)$
2 3-3.5 6	7 9 3	1.5–3 3,4 1.33 4	4,5 	2.5-3	7 - 7	2.67-5
CI, Br CI CI, Br	CI CI, Br, I, NCS, NO ₃	F F Cl, Br	CIO ₄ CIO ₄ CIO ₄	SO ₃ F, SO ₃ Cl SO ₄ SO ₃ Cl, SO ₃ CF ₃	$_3^{ m BH_4}$ $_3^{ m NO_3}$	
(i) $\lfloor NpX_4L_n \rfloor$ (ii) $\lfloor PuX_4L_n \rfloor$	(i) [UO ₂ X ₂ L _n]	(ii) [NpO ₂ CIL _n] [NpO ₂ Cl ₂ L _n] (iii) (R ₄ N)[MO ₂ X ₃ L]	(R = $C_{10}H_{21}$; M = U, Np) (i) $[ThX_4L_n]$ (ii) $[ThL_5(H_2O)]X_4$ (iii) $[UX_4L_n]$ (iv) $[UO_2X_2L_n]$	(v) $[NpO_2L_4(H_2O)](ClO_4)$ (i) $[ThX_4L_2]$ (ii) $[UO_2XL_n]$ (iii) $[UO_2X_2L_n]$ (iv) $[UO_2X_2L_n]$		
Q	田		Í.	₅	H I	

TABLE 12. (continued)

	Complex	$X \text{ (or } H_m A)$	и	T	Ref.
	(ii) [Th(NO ₃) ₂ L ₅ X ₂] (iii) (Ph ₄ P)[Th(X) ₅ L ₂] (iv) [U(X) ₄ L _n]	BPh ₄ NO ₃ NO ₃	2-5	Me ₃ PO Me ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO, Pr ₃ PO, Me ₃ PO	640 640 640, 644, 646, 648–651
	(v) [UO ₂ (X) ₂ L ₂]	NO_3	1	R_3PO^4, RPh_2PO (R = 2- $O_2NC_6H_4$)	617, 618, 620, 622, 626, 634, 643–645, 648.
	(vi) $[UO_2XL'L]_2X_2$	$^{'}$ NO $_3$	1	Bu ₃ PO	652–660,739b 661, 662
	$\{L' = (BuO)_3PO\}$ (vii) $[NpX_4L_n]$	NO_3	2–3	Bu ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO, Pr ₃ PO, Me ₃ PO	644
	(viii) $[NpO_2(NO_3)L_3]$ (ix) $[Pu(NO_3)_4L_2]$ (i) $[ThX_4L_n]$	NCS	4 /	topo Ph ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO, Pr ⁱ PO, Bz ₃ PO	627 739c 591, 663 663
	(ii) [U(X) ₄ L _n]	NCS NCS	0 4	Me ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO, Me ₂ PhPO, MePh, PO, Pr', PO, Bz ₂ PO	591, 596, 663–665
	(iii) [UX ₄ L _n] (iv) [UO ₂ (NCS) ₂ L _n] (v) [UO ₂ (NCS) ₂ L ₂]·Me ₂ CO	NCSe	2, 2, 3	Bu ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO Bu ₃ PO	666 618, 620, 633 667 668
	(vii) $[M(NCS)_4L_n]$ $(M = Np, Pu)$	ı	4	Me ₃ PO, Ph ₃ PO, Me ₂ PhPO, MePh, PO	693, 669
×	(i) $[M(O_2CR)_4L_n]$	1	4	Ph ₃ PO, Me ₃ PO, Me ₂ PhPO,	670-672
	(M = Th, U; R = CH ₂ Cl, CHCl ₂ , CCl ₃ , CF ₃) (ii) $[Th(O_2)AL_n]$	0-C ₆ H ₄ (COOH) ₂ ,	1,2	MePh ₂ PO Ph ₃ PO	79,673,674
	(iii) $[U(O_2)_2A_2L]$	H ₂ NNHC(S)SCH ₂ Ph	1	Ph_3PO	176

675 622, 625, 626, 633, 654, 657, 676–679	645, 679	657, 677, 681 633, 682, 683	684a	49-51 684b	685	553, 686, 687	688, 689 49, 51, 449, 493,	694	969	969	49-51,343	698 700 701	702, 703
Ph ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO, Bu ₃ PO, topo, Bu ₃ PO, Pr ₂ PhPO, Bz ₃ PO	$Ph_3PO, Pr_2'PhPO, RPh_2PO$ (R = 2-0, NC, H,)	Ph ₃ PO K ₃ PO	Ph ₃ PO	topo, rn ₃ rU Ph ₁ PO	Pr ⁱ PO	Ph ₃ PO	Ph ₃ PO Ph ₃ PO, topo, Bu ₃ PO,	Ph ₃ PO, (2-EIC ₆ H _{12/3} FO	Me ₃ PO	Ph ₃ PO	topo, Ph ₃ PO	Me_3PO , topo, Ph_3PO	Ph ₃ PO, topo
1.5-2				1	2	2	1,2	1		1	ر د بر د بر	1-3	-()
СН3СООН	RCOOH (R = Me, Me ₂ CH, Me ₃ C)	МеСООН (СООН),	Cl3CCOOH	Htta HA⁴	Hacac	Htta, Hdbm, Hbfa, Hba	Hacac Htta, Hbfa, Htfa	MeCOCH(R)COMe (R = H, Me, Et, PhCH,, Cl, NO,, CN)	$R^{1}COCH_{2}COR^{2}$ $(R^{1}, R^{2} = Me, CF_{3}, Bu^{i})$	Hacac	Htta, Hacac	Hhia, Hpytia", Hita Uhfa Urfa Hawifa Hdaym	Htta
(iv) $[\{UO_2(NO_3)L_2\}_2(\mu - O_2)]$ (v) $[UO_2A_2L_n]$	(vi) [UO ₂ A ₂ L]	(vii) [UO ₂ A ₂ L] ₂ (viii) [UO,AL]	(ix) [UO2ACIL2]·CH2Cl2	(i) $[IhA_4L]$ (ii) $[MA_4L]$ ($M = Th, U$)	(iii) $[MA_2(NCS)_2L_n]$ (M = Th, U)	(iv) $[ThA_m(NO_3)_4 - mL_n]$ ($m = 1, 2$)	(v) $[UA_2CI_2L_n]$ (vi) $[UO_2A_2L]$			(vii) [UO ₂ A ₂ L]·C ₆ H ₆	(viii) [UO ₂ A ₂ L _n]	$(1x) \left[NpA_4L_n \right]$	(x) $[MA_3L]$ (M = Pu, Am, Cm)
			,	7									

 $^{a}R=Me$, Et, Pr, Bu, Ph, n-octyl, isopentyl, nonyl, decyl, hexadecyl, sec-octyl. ^{b}S -Benzyldithiocarbazate. $^{c}R=Me$, Et, Bu, Ph, isoamyl, octyl, nonyl, decyl. $^{d}HA=1,1,2,2,3$ -hcptafluoro-7,7-dimethyloctane-4,6-dione. $^{e}Hpwtfa=Pivaloyltrifluoroacctylacetone$.

TABLE 13. Complexs of the organoactinides

	Complex	X	L	Ref.
A	$[(\pi-\text{cp})\text{ThX}_3\text{L}_n]$ $(n=1,2)$	Cl, Br	Ph ₃ PO	704
	$[(\pi - 1,2)]$ $[(\pi - C_9H_7)ThX_3LL']$ $(L' = thf)$	Cl, Br	Ph ₃ PO	683
	$[(\pi-cp)MCl_3L_2]$ $(M = Np, Pu)$	_	Ph ₃ PO, Me ₂ PhPO) MePh ₂ PO, Ph ₃ PO	705, 706
	$[(\pi - Np, Pu; n = Np, Pu; n = 2,3)$	_	Ph ₃ PO, Me ₂ PhPO, MePh ₂ PO, Ph ₃ PO	669
В	$[(\pi-\text{MeC}_5\text{H}_4)_3\text{UL}]$	_	Ph ₃ PO	707
C	(i) $[(\pi - \text{cp})UX_3L_n] \cdot x \text{thf}$ (x = 0,1)	Cl, Br	$Ph_3PO(n=2)$	419, 708, 709
	(% 3,1)	Cl	$Ph_3PO, Me_2PhPO,$ $MePh_2PO(n = 2)$	710
		NCS	$Me_2 PhPO(n=3)$	710
		BH_4	Ph ₃ PO	711
	(ii) $[(\pi-C_5Me_4Et)UCl_3L_2]$	_	Ph ₃ PO	712
D	(i) $[(\pi - C_9H_7)UX_3L] \cdot thf$	Cl, Br	Ph ₃ PO	683
	(ii) $[(\pi - C_9 H_7)UX_3 L_2]$	Cl, Br	Ph ₃ PO	683
Е	(i) $\lceil (\pi - cp)_2 UX_2 L_2 \rceil$	Cl, Br	Ph ₃ PO	709
	(ii) $[(\pi-cp)_2UCl(acac)L_2]$		Ph ₃ PO	713
	(iii) [(π-cp)UCl(acac) ₂ L]		Ph ₃ PO	689
	(iv) $[(\pi-cp)UCl_2(HBR_3)L]$ (R = pyrazol-1-yl)		Ph ₃ PO	714
	(v) $[(\pi-cp)UCl_2(H_2BR_2)L_2]$		Ph ₃ PO	714
	(vi) $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{UCl}(\text{H}_2\text{BR}_2)_2\text{L}_2]$		Ph ₃ PO	714

For $[UO_2(NO_3)_2L_2]$ $(L = Ph_3PO)^{657}$, only preliminary X-ray data have been reported. In $[UO_2(NO_3)L'L]_2(NO_3)_2$ $(L^1 = tbp; L = Bu_3^nPO]^{661,662}$, bridging by L' with unidentate nitrate groups has been suggested.

As expected, thiocyanate or selenocyanate groups are N-bonded. The geometry about uranium in $[U(NCS)_4L_4]$ ($L=Me_3PO,Ph_3PO)^{664,665}$ was shown as square-antiprismatic by X-ray analysis. The structure of $[UO_2(NCS)_2L_2(Me_2CO)]$ ($L=Ph_3PO)^{667}$ is pentagonal bipyramidal (52) with a coordinated Me_2CO group.

The carboxylate and peroxo complexes of only thorium and uranium are known (Table 12). The peroxo complexes are very stable and inert towards oxidation. The peroxo complex $[\{UO_2(NO_3)L_2\}_2(\mu-O_2)_2]$ has a dimeric structure $(53)^{675}$. X-ray analyses have not been reported for any thorium(IV) carboxylate complexes; however, X-ray analysis of $[UO_2AClL_2]CH_2Cl_2(HA = Cl_3CCOOH; L = Ph_3PO)^{684}$ has shown a pentagonal bypyramidal geometry with apical oxygens of UO_2^{2+} moiety. An X-ray study of a 1:1 adduct has confirmed the dimeric structure of $[UO_2(OAc)_2L]_2$ (L = Ph₃PO)⁶⁷⁷.

For the 1:2 uranyl acetate adduct $[UO_2(OAc)_2L_2]$ ($L=Ph_3PO$), only preliminary X-ray data (crystals monoclinic) are available⁶⁵⁷. The complexes are thermally stable, e.g. $[UO_2A_2L]$ ($HA=Me_3CCOOH$, $Me_2CHCOOH$, $L=Ph_3PO$)⁶⁸⁰ sublime in vacuum. In the thermal study of uranyl oxalate complexes, $[UO_2AL]^{682}$ ($L=R_3PO$), it was noted that heating splits off R_3PO . The oxalate decomposed either prior to the loss of R_3PO or simultaneously.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} & & & \\ &$$

A series of adducts of actinide β -diketonates are known (Table 12). An X-ray study of $[Th(O_2NO)_3(dbm)(OPPh_3)_2]^{687}$ has shown an irregular 10-coordinate polyhedron. X-ray analyses of $[UO_2(tta)_2(topo)]^{691}$, $[UO_2A_2(OPPh_3)]$ {HA = CH₃COCH(Cl)-COCH₃} 694 and $[UO_2(acac)_2(OPPh_3)]C_6H_6^{696}$ have shown pentagonal bipyramidal geometry with linear UO_2^{2+} moieties. The benzene in the last complex lies as a solvate of the archive in a first part of the actinide dilectorates in a rare observation.

although solvation of the actinide diketonates is a rare observation.

¹H NMR study revealed *cis-trans* isomeric forms for [MO₂A₂L] (M = U, Np; HA = Htta, Hbfa, etc.; L = Bu₃PO, Me₃PO)^{692,701}·[UCl₂(acac)₂L] (L = Ph₃PO)⁶⁸⁹ also showed fluxional behaviour, undergoing ligand exchange with the free ligand to form the [UCl₂(acac)₂L₂] species. Mass spectral study of [UO₂A₂L] (HA = Htfa, R¹COCH₂COR², R¹,R² = Me, CF₃, Bu¹)^{693,695} and [NpO₂A₂L]^{698,700} showed that the complexes were stable and formed molecular ions (dominant abundance). Also, the presence of the ligand in a metal β-diketonate facilitates the cleavage of β-diketone during fragmentation⁶⁹³.

Interestingly, the bis(trimethylsilylamide)-stabilized 3-coordinate uranium complex $[U\{N(SiMe_3)_2\}_3L]$ in the presence of Ph_3PO^{716} . A few pyrazolone complexes, $[Th(pmbp)_4(topo)]^{717}$, $[UO_2(pmbp)_2(topo)]^{717}$ and $[UO_2A_2(topo)]$ (HA = 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-acetylpyrazol-5-one)⁷¹⁸, have been reported as having 7-coordinate uranium

and 9-coordinate thorium geometries.

N-(2-Carboxyphenyl)salicylideneimine (H₂A) forms a stable peroxy complex. [ThA(O₂)(OPPh₃)]⁶⁷⁴. Tetradentate Schiff bases form 7-coordinate pentagonal bipyramidal complexes: [UO₂AL] (**54**, L = Ph₃PO, H₂A = HOC₆H₄CH=NC₆H₄N=CHC₆H₄OH, HOC₆H₄CH=NC₂H₄N=CHC₆H₄OH and HOC₆H₄CH=NC₃H₆-N=CHC₆H₄OH⁹⁹³; HOC₆H₄CH=NCH₂CH₂N=CHC₆H₄PH⁷²⁰ and HOC₆H₄-N=CHCH=NC₆H₄OH⁷²¹). A terdentate Schiff base, C₆H₄(2-OH)CH=NCH₂C₆H₄(2-OH)(H₂A) formed a 6-coordinate complex, [UO₂A(OPPh₃)]⁷²².

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & O & O \\
 & N & O \\
 & N & N \\
 & O & N
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & O & O \\
 & N & N & N & N \\
 &$$

N-Nitrosophenylhydroxylamine (HA, 55) formed [ThA₄(OPPh₃)] and [UO₂A₂L]· 3H₂O⁵⁷². Similarly, 2-hydroxypyridine N-oxide, 2-hydroxypyridine-2-thione and

N-phenylbenzoylhydroxamic acid (HA, **56**) formed 7-coordinate $[UO_2A_2(OPPh_3)]$ complexes^{572,723,724}, whereas 1,2-naphthoquinone-1-oxime (HA, **57**) formed the 8-coordinate complex $[UO_2A_2(OPPh_3)(OH_2)]^{739d,e}$ as confirmed by X-ray analysis. Oxamic acids, namely N-phenylbenzo-, N-phenylcinnamo- and N-phenylphenylaceto-hydroxamic acids also formed the adducts $[UO_2A_2(OPPh_3)]^{725}$. 2-Hydroxycyclohepta-2,4,5-trien-1-one (tropolone, HA, **58**) formed the chelate complex $[UO_2A_2(OPPh_3)]^{726-728}$. A few 8-coordinate complexes of hydrotris(pyrazol-1-yl)borate (HA) of the type $[M(NCS)_2A_2L_n]$ (L = Me₃PO, Ph₃PO, Me₂PhPO, MePh₂PO, M = Th, n = 2; L = Me₃PO, M = U, n = 2; M = U, L = Ph₃PO, Me₂PhPO, MePh₂PO, n = 1)⁷²⁹ are known. Here when n = 1, the complexes have one bidentate and one tridentate pyrazol-1-yl ligand.

A number of adducts of uranyldithiocarbamates and phosphorodithioato and other sulphur-containing anions have been reported, viz. $[UO_2A_2L_2]$ HA = N,N-dialkyldithiocarbamic acid, e.g. Et_2NCSSH , $L = Ph_3PO$, $Bu_3^nPO^{654,730-733}$, $\{HA = R_2PS_2H$, R = MeO, PhO, etc., $L = Ph_3PO^{734}$; HA = MeC(O)SH, $PhCS_2H$, $L = Ph_3PO^{654,735}$. $HA = Me_2CS_2H$, $L = Ph_3PO^{735}$. X-ray studies of $[UO_2(S_2CNEt_2)_2(OPPh_3)]^{730,731}$ and $[UO_2(S_2CMe_2)_2(OPPh_3)]^{735}$ have shown irregular pentagonal bipyramidal structures with linear UO_2^{2+} moieties lying along the z-axis. A 1:2 adduct of the $(NC)_2N^{-1}$ anion $[UO_2(N(CN)_2)_2(OPPh_3)_2]^{736}$ has also been reported.

A few complexes with anions derived from ferrocene and chromium carbonyl derivatives are known: [UO₂A₂L] {59-62; HA = Cr(CO)₃(PhCOOH), Cr(CO)₃(PhC(O)CH₂-C(O)Me), L = Bu₃PO, Ph₃PO⁷³⁷; HA = $(\pi$ -cp)(π -C₅H₄R')Fe,R' = CH₂CO₂⁻, Fe(C₅H₄-COCH₂COPh)₂, L = Bu₃PO,Ph₃PO}^{738,739a}.

(59 - 62)

$$0 = \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} 0$$

Adducts of the organoactinides (Table 13) with π -cyclopentadienyl or its substituted derivatives and π -indenyl and π -C₉H₇ as the organic moieties are known. Only a few adducts of thorium, neptunium and plutonium have been reported as compared with many for uranium. X-ray analysis of $[\pi$ -cpNpCl₃(OPMePh₂)] showed a *cis*-octahedral structure (63) about neptunium⁷⁰⁵.

$$R = \pi - cp$$
(63)

The adduct $[(\pi-\text{MeC}_5H_4)_3\text{U}(\text{OPPh}_3)]^{707}$ was obtained from the reaction of $[(\text{MeC}_5H_4)_3\text{U}]$ th and Ph₃PO and confirmed by X-ray analysis. Interestingly, similar reactions with Ph₃PS, Bu₃PSe and Bu₃PTe gave bridging chalcogenide complexes,

 $[\{(MeC_5H_4)_3U\}_2E]$ (E = S, Se, Te).

NMR (1 H, 31 P) studies have revealed the existence of two isomers of $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{UCl}_{3}(\text{OPPh}_{3})_{2}]^{419}$. This and other complexes, namely $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{U}(\text{BH}_{4})_{3}\text{L}_{2}]^{711}$ and $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{UCl}(\text{acac})_{2}\text{L}]^{689}$ ($L=\text{Ph}_{3}\text{PO}$), exhibit fluxional behaviour involving exchange phenonomena between coordinated and free Ph₃PO ligands. The lability of the U—OPPh₃ bond in organouranium(IV) adducts was further demonstrated by preparing $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{UCl}_{3}\text{L}_{2}]$ from $[(\pi\text{-cp})_{3}\text{UCl}]$ and $[\text{UCl}_{4}\text{L}_{2}]$ ($L=\text{Ph}_{3}\text{PO}$)¹¹⁰⁹ as well as the disproportionation of $[(\pi\text{-C}_{9}\text{H}_{7})\text{UX}_{3}(\text{OPPh}_{3})_{2}]$ in solution to give $[(\pi\text{-C}_{9}\text{H}_{7})_{3}\text{UX}]$, $[\text{UX}_{4}\text{L}_{2}]$ and $[\text{L}_{683}]$

An X-ray study of $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{UCl}_3\text{L}_2]$ thf $(L = \text{Ph}_3\text{PO})^{708}$ showed a highly distorted mer-octahedral structure with the L ligands in cis positions (64); the angles $\angle \text{Cl}(2)\text{UCl}(3)$

$$CI(2)$$

$$CI(2)$$

$$CI(3)$$

$$CI(3)$$

$$CI(3)$$

$$CI(3)$$

$$CI(4)$$

and \angle Cl(1)UL(1) are 158.1° and 162.7°, respectively, whereas the others lie between 78° and 87°. An X-ray study of $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{UCl}(acac)_2(\text{OPPh}_3)]^{689}$ showed a pentagonal bipyramidal geometry (65). X-ray analysis of the indenyl complex $[(\pi\text{-C}_9\text{H}_7)\text{UBr}_3(\text{OPPh}_3)]^{683}$ showed a structure similar to that of $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{UCl}_3\text{L}_2]\text{thf}^{708}$, the only difference being that one ligand position is occupied by a thf molecule.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R & L \\
0 & C & C \\
R & T - cp \\
\hline
(65)
\end{array}$$

2. Main Group elements

a. Complexes of the boron Group (IIIA). Boron(III) halides and boranes form a number of tetrahedral 1:1 adducts with R₃PO ligands, viz. [BX₃L] [X = F, L = Me₃PO, Et₃PO, Pr₃PO, Bu₃PO, Ph₃PO^{41,740-743}; X = Cl, L = Me₃PO, Et₃PO, Ph₃PO^{41,740,744,745}; X = Br, L = Me₃PO⁷⁴⁰; X = I, L = Ph₃PO⁷⁴⁶); (BF₂ClL], [BFCl₂L], [BF₂BrL], [BFBr₂L] (L = Me₃PO)⁷⁴⁰; [(0.5)B₂H₆L] (L = R₃PO, R = Me, Ph)⁷⁴⁷, [B₁₀H₁₂-(OPR₃)₂](R = Ph or alkyl)⁷⁴⁸: [L·H₂B(NMe₃)](PF₆)(L = Me₃PO)⁷⁴⁹ and [Me₃P(OH)]-(BF₄)₂⁷⁵⁰. Most of these complexes were studied using NMR spectroscopy (¹H, ¹³C, ¹¹B, ¹⁹F, ³¹P)^{41,740,743,744}. The complex BF₃(OPMe₃) was stable and distillable, but in water ligand replacement takes place⁷⁴¹. BI₃(OPPh₃) is moisture sensitive.⁷⁴⁶ The X-ray structure of Ph₃PO·BF₃ shows a tetrahedral structure with a B—O—P angle of 134.5° ⁷⁵¹.

The complexes $[(0.5)B_2H_6(OPR_3)]$ (R = Me, Ph) are in fact BH₃(L) adducts⁷⁴⁷. The hydroxyphosphonium salt $[Me_3P(OH)](BF_4)_2$ (prepared from BF₃, HF and Me₃PO) is stable and sublimes without decomposition. The materials $[B_{10}H_{12}(R_3PO)_2]$ ignite when brought into contact with HNO₃, and reduce AgNO₃ to silver. This material is useful as a reducing agent, a high-energy fuel and a curing agent for natural or synthetic rubber¹²⁸¹.

Aluminium halides form adducts $[AlX_3L](X = Cl, L = Me_3PO, Et_3PO, Bu_3^nPO, Ph_3PO^{41,60,752,753}; X = Br, L = Ph_3PO^{41}), [AlCl_3(OPMe_3)(OEt_2)]^{752}$ and $[AlCl_3L_n](N = 2 \text{ for Ph}_3PO, Ph_2P(O)CH=CH_2, n = 6 \text{ for Me}_3PO)^{66,752}$. NMR data (^{13}C , ^{27}Al , ^{31}P) and X-ray data for $[AlX_3(OPPh_3)]^{41,751}$ supported tetrahedral structures about aluminium with linear Al—O—P bonding (180 °), of which these complexes represent the first examples.

Organoaluminium(III) forms stable adducts of the type $[R_3Al(L)]$ $(R = Me, Et, L = Me_3PO, Et_3PO, Ph_3PO^{754-756}; R = HC = C, L = Ph_3PO)^{757}; [Me_2AlOC(Me) = CHCMe_3 (OPPh_3)]^{249}. [Me_3Al(OPMe_3)] was found to be distillable, but stable below 150 °C, and had a low solubility in non-polar solvents 758,759. The adducts <math>[Et_3AlL]$ $(L = Me_3PO, Et_3PO)$ are isosteric with hexaalkyldisiloxanes 754. Similarly, the adduct $[Al(OR)_3(OPMe)_3]$ $(R = SiMe_3)^{299}$ is known. The enthalpy of adduct formation between Me_3Al and L was high for Me_3PO versus Ph_3PO $(Me_3PO, \Delta H = -32.0 \, kcal \, mol^{-1}; Ph_3PO, <math>\Delta H = -28.69 \, kcal \, mol^{-1})^{755}$.

The adducts formed with gallium(III) are $[GaX_3L_n]$ (X = Cl, Br, I, n = 1, L = $Ph_3PO^{41,760-762}$; X = NCS, NCSe, n = 3, L = Pr_3PO , $Ph_3PO^{763,764}$); $[Me_3Ga-(OPMe_3)]^{759}$ $[R_3GaL](R, L = Me, OPMe_3; HC = C, Ph_3PO)^{757,759}$ and $[Ga(OR)_3-(OPMe_3)]^{759}$ $[R_3GaL](R, L = Me, OPMe_3; HC = C, Ph_3PO)^{757,759}$

(OPMe₃)] (R = SiMe₃)²⁹⁹; [Me₃Ga(OPMe₃)] was stable and distillable⁷⁵⁹. NMR (¹³C, ³¹P, ⁷¹Ga) and X-ray studies of [GaCl₃(OPPh₃)] showed a tetrahedral structure, again

with a linear Ga—O—P moiety (180°) similar to that of [AlCl₃(OPPh₃)]⁴¹.

Indium(I) perchlorate gave an 1:4 adduct, $[InL_4]$ (ClO₄) (L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁶⁵. Indium(III) halides and pseudohalides formed 1:2 and 1:3 adducts of the type $[InX_3L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br, I, NCO, SO₃F, L = Ph₃PO⁷⁶⁶⁻⁷⁶⁸; X = Cl, Br, L = Me₃PO, Ph₂MePO, Ph₃PO⁷⁶⁹), $[InCl_3L_2(MeOH)]$ (L = Me₃PO)⁷⁶⁹, $[InCl_3L_2(OH_2)]H_2O$ (L = Me₃PO)⁷⁶⁹, $[InX_3L_3]$ (X, L = Cl, Me₃PO, Me₂PhPO, MePh₂PO, NCS, NCSe, NCO, Pr₃PO, Ph₃PO^{764,767,771,772}) and $[(C_6F_5)_3InL]$ (L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁷³.

The complexes $[InX_3L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br) exist as ionic complexes, $[InX_2L_4][InX_4]$ $(L = Ph_3PO, Ph_2MePO; X = Cl, Br)^{769}$. The cations presumably have *trans*-halogen groups. X-ray studies of $[InCl_3L_2(MeOH)]$, $[InCl_3L_2(OH_2)]H_2O$ $(L = Me_3PO)^{769}$ and $[InCl_3L_3]$ $(L = PhMe_2PO)$ have shown *fac*-octahedral structures, whereas $[InCl_3L_3]$ $(L = Me_3PO)$ has a *mer*-octahedral structure ⁷⁶⁹. A mixed heterometallic In–Co complex,

 $[L_3In][Co(CO)_4]_3$ (L = Ph₃PO) (⁵⁹Co NMR), has been reported ⁷⁷⁰.

Thallium(III) halides and mixed halides form adducts of the type $[TIX_3L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br; I, L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁷⁴⁻⁷⁷⁷ $[TIBr_2XL_2]$ (X = Cl, I), $[TICl_2IL_2]$ (L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁷⁸⁻⁷⁷⁹, $[TIClBrIL_2]$ (L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁸⁰ and $[HL_2]^+$ $[TICl_4]^-$ (L = Bu₃PO)⁷⁸¹. An initial attempt to isolate $[TII_3L_2]$ failed and instead $[TII_3L_3]$ (L = Ph₃PO) was isolated⁷⁷⁴. $[TIX_3L_2]$ adducts were formulated (X = Br, I) as $[TIBr_2L_4][TIBr_4]$ and $[TII_2L_4][TIL_4L_2]^{774}$. However, X-ray analysis of $[TIBr_3L_2]$ and $[TIClBrIL_2]$ (L = Ph₃PO)^{775,778,780} confirmed the non-ionic nature of the complexes. The geometry about thallium is slightly distorted trigonal bipyramidal with *trans*-Ph₃PO groups.

Mono-, di- and tri-organothallium(III) form complexes such as [RTIX₂L] (R = Ph, p-tol; X = Cl, Br, O₂CCCl₃; L = Ph₃PO)^{782.783}, [R₂TIXL₄] (X = Cl, Br, O₂CCF₃, O₂CC₆F₅, acac, hfa, tfa, dbm, R = C₆F₅, p-HC₆H₄, n = 1; X = NO₃, n = 2, L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁸⁴⁻⁷⁸⁸, [R₂Tl(O₂SR')L] (R = C₆F₅; R' = Ph, p-MeC₆H₄; L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁸⁹ and [R₃TlL] (R = C₆F₅, 3, 5-H₂C₆F₃, L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁹⁰. X-ray analyses of [(C₆F₅)₂·Tl(O₂CC₆F₅)L]⁷⁸⁷ and [(p-HC₆F₄)₂TlClL] (L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁸⁸ revealed dimeric structures with unsymmetrical C₆F₅CO₂ and chloro bridging. The thallium has a distorted octahedral structure with unsymmetrically bonded C₆F₅CO₂ groups. In **66** each thallium has a distorted octahedral structure with unsymmetrically bonded C₆F₅CO₂ groups, and in **67** each thallium has approximately trigonal bipyramidal geometry with two R and more tightly held Cl groups in the equatorial plane.

b. Complexes of the silicon Group (Si,Ge,Sn,Pb) (IVA). Silicon(IV) complexes have been reported of the type [SiX₄L_n] (n=2,4; X = F, Cl, Br; L = Ph₃PO, Me₃PO)⁷⁹¹⁻⁷⁹³, [SiBr₂L₄(ClO₄)₂]⁷⁹¹, [SiL₄(ClO₄)₄]⁷⁹¹ and [Me₃SiClL] (L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁹⁴. The 1:4 (M:L) complexes were shown to possess cations of the type [SiX₂L₄]²⁺ or [SiL₄]⁴⁺⁷⁹¹. Further,

the formation constant for [SiCl₄(OPPh₃)₂] was higher (1801mol⁻¹) than for

[Me₃SiClL] $(60 \pm 51 \text{mol}^{-1})^{794}$.

Reaction of Me₃Al or $(Me_2CHO)_3Al$ with $R_7(Si_7O_9)(OH)_3$ (R = cyclohexyl) gave quantitatively $[R_7(Si_7O_{12}Al)]_2$, which on further reaction with Ph₃PO gave 68, characterized by X-ray analysis⁷⁹⁵. Compound 68 represents the first well characterized example of aluminium-containing polyhedral silsesquioxanes proposed as models for the secondary building units of aluminosilicate minerals and zeolites.

The only known germanium(IV) complex is $[GeCl_4(OPMe_3)_2]^{73}$. In comparison with tin(IV), there are a few complexes with tin(II). Tin(II) forms complexes of the type $[SnX_2L_n]$ (X = Cl, Br, NCS, ClO₄, n=1, L = Ph₃PO^{796,797}; X = Cl, Br, L = Ph₃PO, $n=2^{797}$]. A ³¹P NMR study revealed the formation of $[SnL_m]$ (SbF₆)₂ (m=2,3; L = Ph₃PO)⁷⁹⁸. $[SnCl_2(OPPh_3)]$ behaves as a ligand in the complexes $[Mn(SnCl_2L)_5Cl]Cl$ (M = Ru, Os), $[Rh(SnCl_2L)_4(SnCl_3)Cl]Cl$ and $[Ir(SnCl_2L)_5Cl]Cl^{306}$. Recently, $[SnLI_2]$ (L = dimethyl(phthalimidomethyl)phosphine oxide) was also used as a ligand, forming

[PtCl₂(SnLI₂)₂]⁷⁹⁹.

Tin(IV) halides form 1:2 adducts with R_3PO ligands of the type $[SnX_4L_2]$ (X = F, Cl, Br, I; $L = R_3PO$, R = Me, Et, Bu, Cy, $Ph^{63,64,73,800-816}$, $L = R_2R'PO$, R = Et, R' = Et, Pr, $Cy^{811,817,818}$; R = Ph, $R' = CH = CH_2^{66}$; R = Me, R' = Me, etc., R = Ph, $R' = Me^{820}$; L = RR'R'PO, R, R', R'' = Ph, Me, $i - Pr^{821}$], $[SnCl_3(O_2CCH_3)L]$ ($L = Ph_3PO$)⁸²² and $[SnCl_3(OCH_2CF_3)L]$ ($L = Ph_3PO$)⁸²³. The geometry about tin is variable for $[SnX_4L_2]$ complexes. Mössbauer data suggest *cis*-octahedral structures 812,815,816 . However, X-ray studies showed a *trans*-octahedral structure in $[SnBr_4L_2]$ ($L = Ph_3PO$)⁸⁰⁶, but a *cis*-octahedral structure for $[SnI_4(OPPh_3)_2]^{807}$, and $[SnCl_4(OPPh_3)_2]^{824}$. An NMR study of $[SnCl_4L]$ ($L = R_2R'PO$, R = Me, R' = Me, etc.)⁸¹⁹ revealed *cis*-*trans* isomerism. Similarly, NMR data (^{31}P , ^{119}Sn) for $[SnX_4L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br; $L = Bu_3^nPO$) complexes revealed that $[SnCl_4L_2]$ predominantly exist in the *trans*-octahedral form with the *cis* isomer in low abundance 825 . The formulation of $[SnCl_xBr_4 - L]$ and $[SnCl_xBr_5 - xL]^-$ ($L = Bu_3^nPO$) has been established by NMR spectrometry 825 . X-ray analysis of the acetatotrichlorotin(IV) adduct $[SnCl_3(O_2CCH_3)(OPPh_3)]^{822}$ showed an octahedral structure with CH_3CO_2 acting as a chelating agent.

A sulphur-containing spirocyclictin(IV) complex [SnX₂(OPPh₃)₂] (H₂X = toluene-3, 4-dithiol) (69) has been reported⁸²⁶. Monoorganotin(IV) forms 1:1 and 1:2 complexes of the type [RSnX₃L₂] {R, X, L = Me, Et, Buⁿ, Ph, Cl, Br, I, Ph₃PO^{807,812,816,824,827–830}; Buⁿ, Cl, Cy₃PO^{827,830}; R'CO₂CH₂CH₂, Cl, topo, Ph₃PO (R' = Me, Bu)⁸³¹, Me, Ph, Cl, Br, Buⁿ₃PO⁸³²}; [PhSnCl₂BrL], [PhSnClBr₂L] (L = Bu₃PO)⁸³², (Et₄N) [RSnCl₄L] (L = Ph₃PO)⁸³³ and [RSnCl₃L] (L = Et₃PO, Ph₃PO)⁸³⁴. For [EtSnX₃L₂] (X = Cl, Br, I; L = Ph₃PO), X-ray analysis established *trans*-octahedral structures. Mössbauer data favoured a *cis*-octahedral structure for PhSnCl₃L₂ (L = Ph₃PO)^{816,827}. Similarly, a

$$\begin{pmatrix} S & \downarrow & S \\ S & \uparrow & S \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} S & \downarrow & \\ S & \downarrow & \\ S & \downarrow & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ &$$

trans-octahedral was suggested for [BuSnCl₃L₂] (L = Ph₃PO, Cy₃PO)^{827,830}, a cisoctahedral structure (wrt, R, L) for (Et₄N) [RSnCl₄L] and a trigonal bipyramidal structure was suggested for [PhSnCl₂BrL] and [PhSnClBr₂L] (31 P, 119 Sn NMR)⁸³².

Diorganotin(IV) forms 1:1 and 1:2 complexes of the type (A) $[R_2SnX_2L]$ $[R, X, L=Et, Bu, Ph, p-MeOC_6H_4, Cl, Br, NCS, Ph_3PO, Bu_3PO^{827,830,835-840}; Et, Bu, Cl, Cy_3PO^{830}], (B) <math>[Et_2SnX_2L]$ $(L=Et_2RPO; R=Bu; X=Cl, etc.)^{841}, (C) [R_2SnX_2L_2]$ $(R=Me, Et, H_2C=CH, Bu, Ph, p-MeC_6H_4, PhCH_2, Cl, Br, I, NCS, OCOCF_3, Ph_3PO^{812,816,827,837,839,842-851}; R'CO_2CH_2CH_2, Cl, Br, Et_3PO, Bu_3PO, topo, Ph_3PO^{344,831,834,836,840}), (D) <math>[PhMeSnCl_2(OPPh_3)]^{852}$ and $(E) [Me_2SnL_4]$ $(Ph_4B)_2$, $[Me_2SnL_2(OAsPh_3)_2]$ $(BPh_4)_2$ $(L=Ph_3PO)^{728,853,854}$.

Complexes A were formed by the direct reaction of diorganotin(IV) compounds with a ligand whereas complexes B were formed on thermal heating of $[Et_2SnX_2[Et_2P(OR)]]$, wherein $Et_2P(OR)$ isomerized to Et_2RPO . An X-ray study of the nitrate complex $[Ph_2Sn(O_2NO)_2(OPPh_3)]$ revealed a pentagonal bipyramidal structure (70)⁸⁵⁵. On the basis of Mössbauer data, trigonal bipyramidal geometry with R groups in the equatorial plane are suggested for complexes A (71)^{836,837,839}. An NMR study (³¹P, ¹¹⁹Sn) of the exchange of free and coordinated Bu_3^nPO in $[Ph_3SnX_2L]$ (X = Cl, Br) revealed that the exchange was rapid at room temperature but slow at 60 °C. When $[Ph_2SnX_2]$ and L were mixed, the formation of $[Ph_2SnClBrL]$ complexes was detected ^{836,838}.

$$\begin{pmatrix}
0 & R & 0 \\
0 & Sn & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$0 & 0 = 0N = 0$$

$$x - Sn & R$$

$$x - Sn & R$$

$$x - (70)$$

$$(71)$$

Mössbauer and IR data supported a *trans* disposition of the R groups in complexes C–E. X-ray studies of $[Et_2SnX_2L_2]$ (X = Cl, I; L = Ph₃PO)^{847,848} revealed the existence of *cis* and *trans* isomers (72, 73). NMR studies (³¹P, ¹¹⁹Sn)^{836,840} also revealed the formation of 1:2 complexes $[Ph_2SnX_2L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br; L = Bu₃PO, Ph₃PO), while another study revealed partial dissociation of the complexes $[R_2SnCl_2L_2]$ (L = Et₃PO, Ph₃PO)^{344,834}.

Triorganotin(IV) forms complexes of the type (A) [R₃SnXL] (R, X, L = Me, Bu, Ph, $p\text{-MeC}_6H_4$, $p\text{-ClC}_6H_4$, 3-furyl, 3-thienyl, Cl, Br, NCS, NCO, NO₃, N₃, OCOCF₃, O₂COCCl₃, Ph₃PO^{794,839,846,851,856–871}; Et, Ph, etc., Cl, Br, I, Et₃PO, MePh₂PO, Et₂BuPO, Ph₃PO^{834,841,872–875}), (B) [R₂R'SnXL] (R₂R', X, L = Bu₂Ph, Ph₂Bu, Cl, Br, Ph₃PO)⁸⁷⁶ and (C) [R₃SnL₂]X₂ (R₃, L, X = Me₃, Bu₃, Bu₂Ph, Ph₂Bu, Ph₃PO, BF₄, BPh₄)^{853,876,877}. The formation of [Et₃SnXL] (L = Et₂RPO) takes place via [Et₃SnXL'] (L' = Et₂(OR)P) involving isomerization of L' to L^{841,875}. Other complexes were formed by usual methods. Mössbauer and NMR data for numerous complexes have favoured *trans*-trigonal bipyramidal geometries for A–C complexes with R₃ groups in the equational plane. X-ray analyses of [Ph₃Sn(ONO₂)(OPPh₃)]^{864,865} and [Sn(C₄H₃S)₃Br(OPPh₃)]^{869,870} have confirmed the proposed structures (74) for A, B and cations of C. The carboxylate groups O₂COCR₃ (R = F, Cl) were also unidentate^{867,868}.

$$R = Ph, 3 - C_4H_3S$$
(74)

Triphenyltin phosphinylacetate, [Ph₃SnO₂CCH₂P(O)Ph₂], forms a 1:1 adduct with [Ph₃SnCl]⁸⁷⁸. A few organotin(IV) complexes involve intramolecular coordination (75)⁸⁷⁹. A few lead(II) complexes [PbL_m] (SbF₆)₂ have been reported (m=2, 3; L=Ph₃PO); their existence was established by a ³¹P NMR study⁷⁹⁸. Lead(IV) chloride formed 1:2 whereas lead(IV) acetate and dihydrogenphosphate formed 1:1 adducts with Ph₃PO^{880,881}. [Pb(H₂PO₄)₄(OPPh₃)] is a superior oxidizing agent to Pb(OAc)₄(OPPh₃) for organic compounds owing to the higher thermal and moisture stability of the former. However, hot water hydrolyses the [Pb(H₂PO₄)₄(OPPh₃)] adduct⁸⁸¹.

Diorganolead(IV) adducts have been reported: (A) [Ph₂PbX₂L_n] (X, L = Cl, Br, I, Ph₃PO for n = 1, Br, I, Ph₃PO for $n = 2^{840,882}$; NCSe, Ph₃PO for $n = 2^{883}$) and (B) [Me₂PbX₂L] (L = R₃PO, R = Me, Et, Buⁿ, Ph; X = quinolin-8-olate, YC₆H₄CO₂, Y = H, o-Me, m-Me, p-Me, p-MeO)⁸⁸⁴. The complexes A were labile, particularly for X = Br, I and solvents such as MeOH, Me₂CO replaced Ph₃PO⁸⁸². Trigonal bipyramidal structures were suggested for n = 1 and octahedral for n = 2. Complexes B studied by NMR (Job's method) are 7-coordinate and the stability constants decreased in the order R = Me > Et > Buⁿ > Ph⁸⁸⁴. A few triorganolead(IV) adducts, [R₃PbXL] (R = Me, Ph; X = Cl, NCO; L = Ph₃PO) with trigonal bipyramidal geometry are also known^{851,885}.

c. Complexes of the phosphorus Group (P, As, Sb, Bi) (VA). The phosphorus(V) complexes [PF₅L] (L = Bu₃PO, Ph₃PO) and trans- [PF₄(OPBu₃)₂]⁺F⁻ have been studied using ¹⁹F and ³¹P NMR ⁸⁸⁶. ³¹P NMR revealed the basicity order of the ligands to be Bu₃PO > Ph₃PO > Bu₃P. Similarly, arsenic complexes of the type (A) [AsCl₃(OPMe₃)], (B) [AsCl₅(OPMe₃)]^{491,492}, (C) [AsCl₅(OPPh₃)₂]⁸⁸⁷ and (D) [Me₃POH) [AsF₆]⁷⁵⁰ have been reported. Complex C was prepared at 0°C and evolved Cl₂ at room temperature. Fresh samples were weakly paramagnetic, possibly owing to a low concentration of an arsenic(IV) species as an intermediate in the solid-state reduction of arsenic(V) to arsenic(III)⁸⁸⁷. Complex D, obtained from Me₃PO, HF and AsF₅, decomposed on heating, forming [(Me₃PO)AsF₅]⁷⁵⁰.

Antimony(III) and antimony(V) form complexes of the type (A) [SbX₃L_n] {X = Cl, Br, I; L = R₃PO, R = Me, Ph, Ph₂P(O)CH=CH₂; n = 1 or $2^{66.491.492.888-890.907}$, (B) [SbCl₅L] (L = R₃PO, R = Me, Ph, Buⁿ)^{59.64.491.492.891-895}, (C) [SbCl₃Br₂L] (L = Ph₃PO)⁸⁹⁶, (D) [SbF_nCl_{5-n}L] (L = R₃PO; R = Bu, Ph; n = 1-5)⁸⁹⁷, (E) [Sb(OR)Cl₄L] (L = Ph₃PO); R = Me, Et, ClC₂H₄, Cl₃C₂H₂, F₃C₂H₂)^{823.898-900}, (F) [SbCl₄(NR₂)L] (L = Ph₃PO; R = SO₂F)⁹⁰¹, (G) [Sb(SO₃CF₃)₃L] (L = Ph₃PO)⁹⁰² and (H) [L₂H]⁺ [SbCl₆]⁻ and (L₃·H₃O)⁺ [SbCl₆]⁻ (L = Ph₃PO)⁹⁰³. Similarly, a number of organoantimony(V) complexes are known: (I) [R₃SbL₂] (ClO₄)₂ (L = Ph₃PO; R = Me, Ph)⁹⁰⁴, (J) [R₂SbCl₃L] (R = Me, Et, Ph; L = Ph₃PO)⁹⁰⁵ and (K) [R_nSbX_{5-x}L] (X = F, Br; L = Ph₃PO, R = Ph, p-MeC₆H₄, p-ClC₆H₄; n = 1-3)⁹⁰⁶.

A single-crystal X-ray study of $[SbCl_5(OPMe_3)]$ showed a distorted octahedral structure⁸⁹². The angle Sb-O-P of 139° reveals considerable deviation from the tetrahedral angle at oxygen. For other complexes of type B, and also for complexes C-F, J and K, octahedral and in the case of $[R_3SbL_2]$ (ClO_4)₂⁹⁰⁴ trigonal bipyramidal structures are suggested. As expected, the Lewis acdity of the metal halides decreased as the halide increased in atomic number, i.e. $F > Cl > Br > I^{897,906}$.

Bismuth(III) and bismuth(V) form complexes of the type (A) [BiCl₃L_n] (n = 1-3; L = Ph₃PO)^{890,907,908}, (B) [BiI₃L₂] (L = Ph₃PO)⁹⁰⁹, (C) [Ph₃BiL₂]X₂ (X = ClO₄, PF₆; L = Ph₃PO)⁹¹⁰; (D) [Ph₃BiL₂]₂O(ClO₄)₂ (L = Ph₃PO)⁹¹⁰ and (E) [Bi(SO₃CF₃)₃L] (L = Ph₃PO)⁹⁰². For complex B an iodo-bridged dimeric structure (76) and for complex D an oxygen-bridged dimeric structure have been suggested. However, X-ray analyses should be extended to further compounds.

d. Complexes of the selenium Group (Se, Te) (VIA). There are only two complexes of selenium(V) with R₃PO ligands, [SeOCl₂(OPMe₃)]⁴⁹¹ and [SeOCl₂(OPPh₃)]₂⁹¹¹. An X-ray study of the latter revealed a distorted square-pyramidal geometry about the selenium atom. Ph₃PO acts as a bridge, but the Se---O—P bonds differ significantly (77). The former complex presumably has a similar structure.

Tellurium(IV) chloride forms hygroscopic [TeCl₄L_n] adducts (L = Ph₃PO, Me₂PhPO; n=1,2)⁸⁹⁷. Similarly, a series of hygroscopic organotellurium(III) and (IV) adducts have been reported: (A) [(p-RC₆H₄)TeClL] (R = MeO, PhO; L = Ph₃PO)⁹¹², (B) [RTeCl₃L_n] (n=1,2, L, R = topo, Ph, p-PhOC₆H₄⁹¹³; n=1, L, R = Ph₃PO, Me₂PhPO, Ph, 4-MeOC₆H₄, 4-BrC₆H₄, p-HOC₆H₄^{897,914}) and (C) [Ph₂Te(ONO₂)₂(OPPh₃)]⁹¹⁵. For

$$CI \xrightarrow{Se} 2.47 \xrightarrow{A} O \xrightarrow{2.71} \xrightarrow{0} Se$$

$$CI \xrightarrow{Se} 2.59 \xrightarrow{0} 0 \xrightarrow{3.05} \xrightarrow{A} Se$$

$$CI \xrightarrow{P} (77)$$

complexes B and C (except for n=2), 5-coordinate monomeric distorted octahedral structures have been suggested (one site occupied by a lone pair).

3. Alkali and alkaline earth elements

a. Complexes of the alkali metal Group(IA). Alkali metals also form complexes, although the number of investigations is small. From solution-phase studies, formation of species of the type [ML]X $\{M=Li, X=Cl, Br, ClO_4, L=Ph_3PO \text{ or } Ph_2P(O)CH_2Ac; M=Na, L=Ph_3PO, X=I\}^{365,916-918}$ was established. Other complexes studied in the solid state include (A) $[LiL_n]X$ ($L=Ph_3PO, n=4, X=Br, ClO_3, PF_6, ReO_4, IO_4, SbF_6, AuCl_3, SnCl_3, GaCl_4; L=Ph_3PO, n=5, X=I, NO_3, BF_4, BrO_3)^{478}$; (B) $[NaL_5X]$ ($L=Ph_3PO; X=I, ClO_4, IO_4, BPh_4)^{478}$, (C) $[Me_3SiOML]_4$ ($M=Li, Na, K; L=Me_3PO)^{919}$ and (D) $[(15\text{-crown-5})Na(Me_3PO)]^+[(CO)_3Fe(\mu-Bu_2^tP)Rh(CO)(PMe_3)]^{-920}$. For complexes A and B with n=5, 5-coordinate square-pyramidal geometry, and for complexes A with n=4, tetrahedral geometry have been suggested. In complex C, each alkali metal is tetrahedrally surrounded.

Alkali metal complexes in the zero-valent state, such as [ML] and [M_2 L] (L = Ar₃PO),

have also been reported921.

b. Complexes of the alkaline earth metal Group (Be, Mg, Ca) (IIA). Only two beryllium(II) complexes, [BeL₂(NO₃)₂] and [BeL₄] (BF₄)₂ (L = Ph₃PO) are known⁹²². In contrast, more complexes have been reported for magnesium(II) and calcium(II), namely [ML_nX₂] {M = Mg, Ca, L = Me₃PO, Ph₃PO, Bu₃ⁿPO, n = 4, X = ClO₄, BF₄^{137,232,233,923}; M = Mg, Ca, L = Me₃PO, Ph₃PO, n = 5, X = ClO₄⁹²³; M = Ca, L = (HOCH₂)₃PO, n = 6, X = BF₄²³⁴}, [MgL₅(OH₂)] (ClO₄)₂ (L = Me₃PO, Ph₃PO)⁹²³ and [MgL₂Cl₂)_n {L = (HOCH₂)₃PO}²³⁴. An X-ray study of [MgL₅] (ClO₄)₂ (L = Me₃PO)⁹²⁴ showed a square-pyramidal geometry with a shorter axial Mg—O bond (1.94 Å); compared with the basal Mg—O bonds (2.03 Å); this is attributed to O → Mg π -bonding along the axial bond. The aquated analogue [MgL₅(OH₂)] (ClO₄)₂ (ClO₄)₂ (Pl₂)⁹²⁵ has an octahedral structure. Each cation is hydrogen-bonded to two ClO₄ anions via the coordinated H₂O molecules. For the 1:4 complexes, 5-coordinate species of the type [ML₄(OClO₃)] (ClO₄) with presumably a square-pyramidal geometry have been suggested from spectral and other studies^{232,923}. For [MgL₂Cl₂]_n, a polymeric structure was suggested²³⁴.

A ^{31}P NMR study on the exchange of the Ph_3PO with the coordinated ligand in $[Mg(OPPh_3)_5]^{2+}$ revealed that magnesium has harder Lewis acid character relative to zinc in $[Zn(OPPh_3)_4]^{2+926}$. The interaction of $CaCl_2$ with $Me_2P(O)CH_2R$ (R=Cl, OMe, OPh) in MeCN has also been reported²²⁷. Reaction of Ph_3PO with Mg^{2+} in chlorophyll a and b involves replacement of the keto groups of the chlorophyll^{927a}.

B. Di-, Tri- and Tetra-tertiary Phosphine Oxides

Most of the complexes reported are with di-tertiary phosphine oxides, a small number of complexes with tri-tertiary phosphine oxides and a few complexes with tetra-tertiary phosphine oxides.

1. Transition elements

a. Complexes of scandium and titanium Groups(IIIB and IVB). Scandium(III) on reaction with the bidentate ligand dpeO₂ gave an octahedral complex, [Sc(dpeO₂)₃]·(ClO₄)₃⁵⁵. Similarly, the tri-tertiary phosphine oxide {Ph₂P(O)}₃CH formed complexes with scandium(III) and yttrium(III) of stoichiometry [ML₃] (where L is the anion {Ph₂PO}₃C⁻)^{927b}. One PO end of the anion is uncoordinated and thus it acts as a bidentate ligand in these complexes. ³¹P NMR study revealed the lack of lability of Sc—OP or Y—OP bonds so that there was no exchange of the coordinated and uncoordinated PO groups or with the added lithium salt, {Ph₂P(O)}₃C⁻Li⁺. The value of the ⁸⁹Y-³¹P coupling was 6.5 Hz (for Y, I = $\frac{1}{2}$), the first reported value for such coupling.

Reaction of zirconium(IV) chloride with dpeO₂ gave a *cis*-octahedral complex, $[ZrCl_4(dpeO_2)]^{75}$. The tridentate ligand $[Ph_2P(O)CH_2]_2P(O)Ph(L)$ formed complexes with zirconium(IV) and halnium(IV), $[ZrCl_4L]$, $[M(OH)_2Cl_2L] \cdot 8H_2O$ and $[Zr(OH)_2L]$

(ClO₄), 928.

b. Complexes of the vanadium, chromium and manganese Groups (VB-VIIB). The reaction of vanadyl halides, $VOX_2 \cdot nH_2O$, with dpe gave $[(VOX_2)_2(dpeO_2)] \cdot nH_2O$ ($n = 1, 4; X = Cl, Br)^{929}$ in which dpe was oxidized to dpeO₂, probably by the metal salt. When anhydrous vanadyl chloride, $VOCl_2$ (from V_2O_5 and HCl in EtOH), was reacted

with dpeO₂ a 1:1 adduct, [VOCl₂(dpeO₂)], was formed⁸⁶.

Hexacarbonyls of Group VIB metals, [M(CO)₆], undergo substitution reactions with dpmO₂ forming monomeric *cis*-octahedral [M(CO)₄(dpmO₂)] and dimeric *fac*-[M₂(CO)₆(dpmO₂)₃]⁹³⁰. Similarly, with {Ph₂P(O)CH₂}₂P(O)Ph, *cis*-[M(CO)₄L] and *fac*-[M(CO)₃L] were formed⁹³⁰. Oxidation of bisphosphine complexes [M(CO)₄(dpe)] with halogens (Cl₂ and Br₂) in CHCl₃/CCl₄⁹³¹ gave [MoOX₃L] and [MO₂X₂L] (M = Mo, W; X = Cl, Br; L = dpeO₂). Whereas molybdenum(V) complexes are precipitated from the reaction mixture, the M^{VI} complexes must be obtained from the filtrate. Molybdenum(V) complexes show normal magnetic behaviour (μ = 1.65–1.73 BM, T = 100–300 K). Halogen oxidation of [M₂(CO)₆(dpmO₂)] and [M(CO)₃L] {L = (Ph₂POCH₂)₂P(O)Ph} also gave 7-coordinate complexes, [M(CO)₃(dpmO₂)X₂] and [M(CO)₃LX₂] (X = Br, I)⁹³².

Treatment of the molybdenium(V) complex $MoOX_3(dpeO_2)$ (X = Cl, Br) with hydrogen peroxide in ethanol gave diamagnetic peroxo complexes $[MoO(O_2)_2(dpeO_2)]^{1.74}$.

Two nitrosyl complexes, $[Mo(NO)(dpeO_2)X_2]$ (X = Cl, Br), are also known⁹³³.

The reaction of manganese(II) halides with dpm, dpe and cis-Ph₂PCH=CHPPh₂ gave phosphine oxide complexes, [MnX₂L] {X = Cl, Br, I; L = dpmO₂, dpeO₂, cis-Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂} and an ionic complex, [Mn(dpmO₂)₂]Br₂^{222,934}. Similarly, reactions of manganese(III) chloride with dpm, dpe, dpp and cis-Ph₂PCH=CHPPh₂ also gave similar phosphine oxide complexes, [MnCl₂L] (L = dpmO₂, dpeO₂, etc.); MnCl₃ chlorinated R₃P to form R₃PCl₂, which on hydrolysis gave R₃PO⁹³⁵.

Reactions of $[Re(CO)_5X]$ and $K_2[ReOX_5]$ (X = Cl, Br, I) with dpeO₂ gave the octahedral complexes $[Re(CO)_3LX]$ and $[ReOX_3L]$, respectively^{259a,268}. Heating the complexes $[ReOX_3L]$ (L = dpe, cis-Ph₂PCH=CHPPh₂) gave the corresponding phosphine oxide complexes. Similarly, on heating $H_2L[ReCl_6]$ in Me_2CO containing HCl the $[ReCl_4L']$ complex was formed $\{H_2L^{2+}=(H)Ph_2PCH_2CH_2P(H)Ph_2; L'=dpeO_2\}^{262b}$. In $[Re(CO)_3LX]$ the ligand L is unidentate, whereas in the other complexes it is bidentate.

c. Complexes of the iron, cobalt and nickel Groups(VIII)

i. Iron sub-Group. Reactions of iron(II) salts with di-tertiary phosphine oxides formed complexes (A) $[FeX_2L(H_2O)_2] \cdot mH_2O$ $\{m = 0,1; X = Cl, Br, NCS; L = Ph_2P(O) \cdot mH_2O\}$

 $(CH_2)_n P(O) Ph_2; n = 1,2,4,6$, (B) $[FeL_3]I_2 \cdot mH_2 O(n = 1,4 \text{ for } L; m = 1,2)$, (C) $[\text{FeL}_2 \text{I}_2] \cdot m\text{H}_2 \text{O} \ (n = 2 \text{ for L}, m = 0,1) \text{ and (D) } [\text{Fe(CO)}_2 \text{LI}] \text{I} \cdot m\text{H}_2 \text{O} \ (n = 1,2,4,6 \text{ for L};$ $m = 1,2)^{936,937}$. The complexes had a tendency to absorb moisture; complexes D were light sensitive and showed low μ value (3.85–3.95 BM)⁹³⁷. The carbonyl groups in D lie in cis positions in a trigonal bipyramidal geometry. For complexes A-C octahedral geometry is suggested.

Iron(III) halides generally formed mixed octahedral-tetrahedral complexes of the type [FeL₂X₂][FeX₄] $\{X = Cl, Br, L = Ph_2P(O)(CH_2)_nP(O)Ph_2; n = 1,2,4,6\}^{938-940}$, although a complex of the type [FeL₃][FeCl₄]₃ is also known⁹⁴¹. Similarly, with iron(III) isothiocyanate, nitrate and perchlorate, complexes with various stoichiometries, e.g. $[Fe(NCS)_3L]$ (n = 2,4,6 for L) $[Fe(NCS)_2L_2]$ (NCS) (n = 1 for L), $Fe(NO_3)_3L$ (n = 4,6 for L)L), $[Fe(NO_3)_2L_2](NO_3)$ (n = 2 for L), $[FeL_3](ClO_4)_3$ (n = 1 for L), etc., are known 940,942 .

The thiocyanate complexes showed low μ values (5.34-5.58 BM) compared with the typical values shown by other complexes. For the complexes [FeL2X2][FeX4], trans-octahedral cations (with respect to X) showed g_{\perp} values of about 6; however, their g_{\parallel} values (ca 2) merged with the strong ESR band due to the [FeX₄] species at $g \approx 2^{943}$. Interestingly, $[FeL_2Cl_2][FeCl_4]$ $(L = dpeO_2)$ which showed only one g value of ca 2 was shown by X-ray analysis to possess cis-octahedral geometry for the cation 2916,944.

Thermal heating of the complexes FeX₃L (X = Cl, Br, L = Ph₂PCH₂CH₂PPh₂ and cis-Ph₂PCH=CHPPh₂) formed phosphine oxide complexes [FeL₂X₂] [FeX₄]^{945a}. A tetradentate ligand, $C(CH_2P(O)Ph_2)_4$ (L), formed complexes [(FeCl₃)₂L] and [(FeCl₃)₄L]^{945b}. Two complexes of osmium(II) of stoichiometry cis-[OsL(bpy)₂]²⁺ $\{L = dpmO_2, cis-Ph_2P(O)CH = CHP(O)Ph_2\}$ were reported recently 313 .

ii. Cobalt sub-Group. Several cobalt(II) high-spin complexes of the type (A) [CoLX₂] $\{L = Ph_2P(O)(CH_2)_nP(O)Ph_2; n = 2-4; X = Cl, Br, I, NCS, ONO_2\}^{946-948}, (B)$ $\begin{array}{l} \{L = \text{PII}_2 \text{P}(O)(\text{CH}_2)_n \text{P}(O) \text{FII}_2, \quad n = 2^{-4}, \quad X - \text{CI}, \quad \text{BI}, \quad 1, \quad \text{IVCS}, \quad \text{CIV}_2\}, \quad \text{CIV}_2\}, \\ [\text{Co}(\text{NO})\text{IL}] \quad (L = \text{dpeO}_2)^{949}, \quad (C) \quad [\text{CoL}_2\{(\text{Ph}_2 \text{P}(O))_2\text{N}^-\}]^{950}, \quad (D) \quad [\{\text{Co}(\text{S}_2\text{N}_2\text{H})_2\}_2 \cdot \text{CiV}_2\}, \\ [\text{Copolitical}] \quad (\text{Ell})^{948}, \quad (\text{Ell}) \quad [\text{Co}(\text{dpeO}_2)(\text{O}_2\text{NO})_2]^{948}, \quad (\text{Ell}) \quad [\text{CoL}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2](\text{ClO}_4)_2, \quad (n = 2, 4 \text{ for } \text{L})^{948}, \quad (\text{Ell}) \quad (\text{Ell})^{953}, \quad (\text{Ell})^{$ $L = dpmO_2^{946,954}$; X = Cl, $L = Bu_2^n P(O)CH_2 P(O)Bu_2^{n,941}$ } have been reported. X-ray analysis of complexes B and D showed distorted tetrahedral and square-pyramidal structures, respectively; for complexes A-C distorted tetrahedral structures and for complexes E-I octahedral structures are suggested. The ligand {Ph2P(O)CH2}2P(O)Ph is tridentate in complex H and bidentate in complex I.

An interesting feature in cobalt(II) phosphine oxide chemistry is the tendency of dmpO₂ and Bu₂ⁿP(O)CH₂P(O) Bu₂ⁿ ligands to form octahedral complexes with six-membered chelate rings (complexes G and J). When the anions are halogens, the formation of mixed octahedral-tetrahedral complexes takes place, e.g. complexes J. The higher steric requirements of seven- to nine-membered chelate rings formed by ligands with n = 2-4

generally favour coordination by two ligand molecules per metal ion.

A mixed valence complex, $[Co^{I}(CO)L_{2}]_{2}[Co^{II}(\mu-L')Cl_{6}]$ (L = dpe; L' = dpeO₂) was obtained from the reaction of CoCl₂·6H₂O with dpe, CO and zinc powder in air⁹⁵⁶. An x-ray study showed tetrahedral geometry for each cobalt atom of the anion with dpeO2 acting as a bridge; the cation has trigonal bipyramidal geometry. Using the ligands 78, 79, 80 and 81, a series of complexes, $[CoLCl_2]$ (L = 78, 81), $[CoL_3]$ (ClO₄)₂ (L = 79), $[(CoCl_2)_3L_2]$ (L = 80) and $[CoL_2]$ (ClO₄)₂ (L = 80), were reported 957,958. [CoL₃](ClO₄)₂ have octahedral while the other complexes have tetrahedral structures. On heating [CoLX₂] complexes (X = Cl, Br, I, NCS; L = dpe, cis-Ph₂PCH=CHPPh₂) the corresponding phosphine oxide complexes were formed 959,960.

A series of square-planar rhodium(I) complexes [Rh(cod)L](ClO₄), cis-[Rh(CO)₂L]· (ClO₄), $[Rh(CO)L(Ph_3P)](ClO_4)$ and $[Rh(CO)L(Ph_3P)_2](ClO_4)$ $\{L = Ph_2P(O)(CH_2)_n \cdot P(O)Ph_2; n = 1,2\}$ (IR, ³¹P NMR) have been reported ⁹⁶¹.

$$\begin{array}{c} CH_{2}P(0)Ph_{2} \\ CH_{2}P(0)Ph_{2} \\ (78) \\ CH_{2}P(0)Ph_{2} \\ (79) \\ \end{array}$$

iii. Nickel sub-Group. A number of high-spin nickel(II) complexes have been reported: (A) [NiX₂L] {X = Cl, O₂NO; L = Ph₂P(O)(CH₂)_nP(O)Ph₂; n = 2,3}^{389,946,948,962}, (B) [NiL₃]X₂·mH₂O (n = 1 for L; X = Cl, Br, I)⁹⁶³, (C) [NiL₂(H₂O)₂](ClO₄)₂ (n = 2,4 for L)^{948,962}, (D) [NiL'₂](ClO₄)₂·5H₂O⁹⁵⁵, (E) [NiL'₃] (ClO₄)₂·4H₂O {L' = (Ph₂P(O)CH₂)₂·P(O)Ph}⁹⁵⁵, (F) [NiL₃][MX₄] {M = Ni, X = Cl, Br, I, n = 1,2 for L; X = Cl, L = Buⁿ₂P(O)CH₂P(O)Buⁿ₂; M = Zn, X = Cl, n = 1 for L}^{941,946,954,962,963}. The complexes A-E have been assigned octahedral structures with halogen-bridging and bi-coordination by NO₃⁻ groups. L' acts as a tridentate in complex D, but bidentate in E. The F-type complexes have mixed octahedral-tetrahedral structures similar to those of their cobalt(II) analogues.

On heating the phosphine complexes $[MLX_2]$ (L = dpe, cis-Ph₂PCH=CHPPh₂; M = Ni, Pd; X = Cl, Br, NCS)^{412,959,960,964-966}, the corresponding phosphine oxide complexes were formed. Significantly, palladium(II)-phosphine complexes required higher temperatures for their oxidation than cobalt(II) or nickel(II) complexes. [PdL(NCS)(SCN)] (L = dpe) did not undergo oxidation of dpe to dpeO₂⁹⁶⁶.

Whereas NiCl₂ with cis-Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂ formed [NiCl₂L], there was no reaction of NiCl₂ with the trans analogue of the ligand⁹⁶⁷. The trans ligand reacted with NiCl₂ only in the molten state, although in thf solution some interaction of NiCl₂ with trans ligand was detected.

The anionic phosphine oxide ligand $\{Ph_2P(O)\}_2CH^-$ (L) formed a series of palladium(II) and platinium(II) complexes: $[MCl_2(R_3P)LM']$ (M = Pd, R = Et, M' = Li; M = Pt, R = Et, Buⁿ, M' = Li, Na)⁹⁶⁸. The reaction of $[(Et_3P)PtCl_2L(Li)]$ with $[Pd_2Cl_2(Et_3P)_4]$ (BF₄)₂ formed an unstable complex, $[(Et_3P)Cl_2Pt(\mu-L)_2Pd(Et_3P)_2]$ (BF₄) {in which Li⁺ was replaced by $Pd(Et_3P)_2^{2+}$ }. The X-ray crystal structure of $[Pt(Et_3P).$

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Cl₂L(Li)] showed that the anionic ligand L was bound to platinum via the methine carbon with a square-planar geometry about platinum (82). Two PO groups, one chloride and one oxygen from an adjacent molecule complete tetrahedral geometry about lithium. From ¹J ¹⁹⁵Pt-³¹P values (³¹P NMR) in the range 2750-2827 Hz, it was inferred that methine carbon exerts a low *trans* effect in comparison with the normal carbon bonded ligands ⁹⁶⁸⁻⁹⁷⁰. It is interesting that Li⁺ ions remain intimately associated with the complex in solution.

d. Complexes of the copper Group(IB). Copper(II) forms complexes of the type (A) $[CuX_2L]$, (B) $[CuL_2]$ (ClO₄)₂ (L = dpeO₂; X = Cl, Br, NO₃)^{948,952}, (C) $[CuL_2]$ (ClO₄)₂·2H₂O, (D) $[CuL_3]$ (ClO₄)₂·4H₂O (L = $\{Ph_2P(O)CH_2\}_2P(O)Ph\}^{955}$, (E) $[CuL_2]$ $[CuCl_4]$ {L = dpmO₂, RPhP(O)CH₂CH₂P(O)PhR, R = o-MeOC₆H₄, L = **79**, **81**} ^{957,958,971} and (F) $[CuX_2L]$, (G) $[(CuX_2)_2L]$ {L = R₂P(O)CH₂P(O)R₂, R = Ph, n-Oct, X = F₃acac, F₆acac, i.e. tri- and hexa-fluoroacetylacetonates} ⁹⁷². For R = n-Oct, complexes of stoichiometry $[CuX_2L_2]$ were also formed.

Other complexes of copper(II) studied in the solid and solution phases have formulae of the type [CuCl₂L] {L = R₂P(O)(CH₂)_nP(O)R₂, n = 1 for R = Ph, n = 1,2,6 for R = Bu} $^{973-975}$, [CuCl₂L₂Me₂CO] (L = dpmO₂) 975 , [CuCl₂L], (CuCl₂L], [CuCl₂L₂] {L = Ph₂P(O)CH(R)P(O)Ph₂, R = H, CH₂CH₂CO₂H, CH₂CH₂P(O)Ph₂, etc.} 976 , [CuClL]Cl {L = Ph₂P(O)C(R)(R')P(O)Ph₂, R = H, R' = Cl, Br, I, Ph, CH₂Ph, etc.} 976 ;

 $L = (XC_6H_4)_2P(O)CH_2P(O)(C_6H_4X)_2, X = H, m-CF_3, \text{ etc.}^{977}$.

An X-ray analysis of $[CuCl_2L]$ ($L=dpeO_2$) showed that the geometry about copper(II) is highly distorted tetrahedral (the ClCuO angle being 140.2°, ClCuCl 100.3° and OCuO 90.6°, 97.1°), with L acting as a bridging bidentate ligand (83)^{978.979}. The single crystal ESR and polarized electronic absorption spectra also suggest a compressed tetrahedral geometry about the copper(II)^{980–983}. The one-electron orbital sequence derived was $d_{xy} > d_{xz} > d_{yz} > d_{x^2-y^2} \approx d_{z^2}$. Interestingly, $[CuCl_2L]$ ($L=dpmO_2$) has a different structure ⁹⁸⁴. An X-ray study showed that it exists as $[CuL_3][Cu_2Cl_6]$, where the cation is octahedral and the anion has a halogen-bridged dimeric structure with each copper having distorted tetrahedral geometry. The short axial distances (2.001–2.002 Å) versus the longer equational ones (2.063–2.256 Å) for the cation reveal slight compression of the octahedron. Thus complexes A, B, C and E are assigned distorted tetrahedral geometry, whereas D, F and other complexes with similar stoichiometries probably have distorted octahedral geometries. The only complex of gold(I) is $[LAu(PPh_3)]$ (ClO₄) ($L=dpeO_2$)⁴⁸¹.

e. Complexes of the zinc Group (IIB). The interaction of Group IIB metals with bis(phosphine oxide) ligands has been studied mainly using ³¹P NMR spectrometry.

The formation of octahedral $[ZnL_n]^{2+}$ $\{L = dpmO_2, n = 3; L = (Ph_2P(O)CH_2)_2P(O)Ph, n = 2\}$ and tetrahedral $[ZnL_2]^{2+}$ $(L = dpmO_2)$ was established by varying the L: Zn ratio ⁹⁹⁸. No species formed by the interaction of zinc(II) with $Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2P(O)Ph_2$ could be detected, owing to the high lability of the system under the experimental conditions.

Similarly, cadmium(II) and mercury(II) formed $[ML_m]^{2+}$ $(M = Cd, Hg; L = dpmO_2, dpeO_2; m = 2,3)$ and $[CdL_2]^{2+}$ $\{L = (Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2)_2P(O)Ph\}$ $(^{31}P, ^{113}Cd, NMR)^{999,1000}$. For L: $M \ge 3$ octahedral species were detected and for L: M = 2 tetrahedral species were formed. It is significant that the $Cd^{II} - Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2P(O)Ph_2$ system was not labile, unlike the zinc(II) system (see above), probably owing to large bite of the seven-membered chelate ring giving a worse fit for zinc(II) than cadmium(II) because of their size difference.

f. Complexes of the f-block elements. This group of elements has been poorly studied and no X-ray analyses have been reported for any complex. Lanthanon(III) chlorides form complexes of the type $[M_2Cl_6L_3] \cdot H_2O$ (M = La, Nd, Sm; L = dpeO₂; x = 0-2)⁹⁸⁵, $[NdCl_3L] \cdot H_2O$ (L = dpmO₂), dpeO₂)^{985,986} and $[NdCl_3L_3]$ (L = dpmO₂)⁹⁸⁶. Similarly, lanthanon(III) nitrates form complexes of the type $[M_2(NO_3)_6L_3] \cdot xH_2O$ {M = La, Nd, Sm; L = Ph₂P(O)(CH₂)_nP(O)Ph₂; n = 2,4}⁹⁸⁷. The NO₃⁻ groups are coordinated, but their dentacy has not been established. Other complexes of lanthanides include $[M(NO_3)_3L]$ {M = La, Nd, Gd, Ho, Lu; L = O(CH₂CH₂OC₆H₄OCH₂P(O)Ph₂)₂ and 1,2-(Ph₂P(O)CH₂O)₂-4-Me₃CC₆H₃}⁹⁸⁸ as well as $[(ML_n)_2(B_{12}H_{12})_2]$ (n = 4, M = La; n = 3.5, M = Pr, Nd, Sm; n = 3, M = Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu)⁹⁸⁹.

Thorium(IV) forms complexes of the type [Th(NO₃)₄L] {L = Cy₂P(O)CH₂P(O)Cy₂}, [Th(NO₃)₄L₂] (L = dpeO₂), [Th₂(NO₃)₈L₃] {L = dpmO₂, dpeO₂, R₂P(O)CH₂P(O)R₂; R = 2-ethylbutyl} ^{644,647,990}. Similarly, a number of uranium(IV) and uranium(VI) complexes have been reported: [UCl₄L], [UO₂X₂L] {X = Cl, Br, I or NO₃, R₂P(O) (CH₂)_nP(O)R₂; R = Ph, Hexⁿ, n = 1-4; R = Buⁿ, 2-ethylbutyl, n = 1} ^{655,991-996} and [(UO₂)₂(NO₃)₄L₃] {L = Ph₂P(O)CH₂P(O)Ph₂} ⁶⁴⁴. Apart from the usual methods, some complexes were formed indirectly. For example, reaction of [Th(NO₃)₄] with dpe⁹⁹⁰ and of [UO₂Cl₂] with dpm and dpe⁹⁹⁶ gave the corresponding phosphine oxide complexes. The UCl₄ complexes are paramagnetic ($\mu = 1.50-2.02$ BM). X-ray studies are recommended.

Formation of 1:1, 2:1, 3:1, 4:1 and 6:1 (L:M) complexes of $[UO_2(NO_3)_2]$ with $R_2P(O)EP(O)R_2$ (R = Ph, Bu, Et, PhMe; $E=CH_2$, CH_2CH_2 , cis- and trans-CH=CH) has also been reported⁹⁹⁷. Here all the ligands except trans-Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂ were chelating whereas the latter ligand was unidentate.

The organouranium(IV) and neptunium(IV) complexes [(cp)MX₃L] {M = U, Np; X = Cl, Br; $L = Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH_2P(O)Ph_2$ } are also known^{709,994}.

2. Main Group elements

a. Complexes of the boron Group (111A). Reaction of $Me_3Al_2Cl_3$ with $Ph_2P(O)CH_2 \cdot P(O)Ph_2(L)$ gave $[(AlCl_3)_2(L)]$ with a tetrahedral structure about each aluminium centre¹⁰⁰¹. An unusual product, $[Al(CH_3)]\{Ph_2P(O)CP(O)Ph_2\}_2[Al(CH_3)_2]_2$, was obtained from the reaction of $AlMe_3$ with $Ph_2P(O)CH_2P(O)Ph_2$ in $PhCl^{1002}$. Here the Al-R and C-H bonds of the CH_2 group were cleaved. X-ray analysis showed that the central aluminium atom is 5-coordinate, whereas the other two are 4-coordinate (84).

Indium(III) and thalium(III) formed complexes of the type [InCl₃L] ($L = dpeO_2$), [InL₃](ClO₄)₃ ($L = dpmO_2$, $dpeO_2$)^{1003.1004}, [TlX₃L], [TlClBr₂L], [TlClI₂L] and [TlBrl₂L] ($L = dpeO_2$)¹⁰⁰⁵. Thallium(III) complexes were obtained from the reaction of thallium(I) halides with the ligand followed by oxidation with Br₂ or I₂ in CH₃CN.

Me
$$Me$$

$$Me$$

$$Me$$

$$Me$$

$$Me$$

$$Ph_2$$

b. Complexes of the tin and lead Group (IVA). Interaction of tin(II) and lead(II) hexafluoroantimonates with dpeO₂ and (Ph₂P(O)CH₂)₂P(O)Ph in liquid SO₂ (studied by ³¹P NMR) revealed the formation of [ML]²⁺ species ⁹⁷⁸. The lead(II) complexes showed low coordination shifts and were more labile than the tin(II) complexes. Tin(IV) halides form 1:1 adducts [SnX₄L] {L = Ph₂P(O)(CH₂)_nP(O)Ph₂; X = Cl, Br, I; n = 2,4} ¹⁰⁰⁶⁻¹⁰⁰⁸. Mössbauer data favoured *cis*-octahedral structures. SnCl₄ forms a 2:1 adduct with the tetradentate ligand $C(CH_2P(O)Ph_2)_4$ [(SnCl₄)₂L]^{945a}.

One of the most thoroughly studied group of complexes is that of organotin(IV). Several complexes have been reported: (A) [R₂SnX₂L] {X = Cl, Br, NCS, R = Me, Et, Oct, Ph, etc., L = dpmO₂, dpeO₂, dpbO₂; X = Cl, R = Et, Pr, Bu, L = cis-Ph₂P(O)· CH=CHP(O)Ph₂)^{835,1009-1017}, (B) [(Bz₂SnCl₂)₂L] (L = dpeO₂, dpbO₂)¹⁰¹⁸, (C) [R₂SnL₂](BPh₄)₂ (R = Me, Ph; L = dpmO₂, dpeO₂)^{1009,1017,1019}, (D) [R₃SnXL] (X = Cl; R = Me, Ph; L = dpmO₂)^{1009,1017,1019}, (E) [(Ph₃SnCl)₂L] (L = dpmO₂, dpeO₂)^{1017,1020a} and (F) [R₃SnL](BPh₄) (R = Me, Bu, Ph; L = dpmO₂, dpeO₂)^{1011,1019,1020b,c,1021}. Based on Mössbauer data, complexes A and C were assigned trans-octahedral structures (85, 86)^{1009-1013,1022-1024}. In contrast, the [Ph₂SnX₂L] (L = phen, bipy) complexes have cis dispositions of the phenyl groups¹⁰²⁵. The cis or trans disposition of R groups is influenced by the electronic and steric factors of all the groups attached to tin¹⁰²⁶. For complexes D and F, mer configurations (87, 88) have been assigned. Finally, for the complexes B and E, ligand-bridged structures with R groups in the equatorial plane of a trigonal bipyramid have been suggested (89).

X-ray studies have been reported for a number of tin(IV) complexes. The geometry about tin in $[Bu_2^n SnCl_2L]$ ($L = dpmO_2$) is highly distorted *trans*-octahedral (85)¹⁰¹⁵. For $L = dpeO_2$ the mode of binding changes from chelation (as in the $dpmO_2$ complex) to bridging forming a polymeric structure^{1020a}. The geometry may be viewed as a highly distorted tetragonal pyramid with $Cl_{(2)}$ at the apex or irregular octahedron if $O_{(1)}$ is considered as part of the environment (90). The C-Sn-C angle is 154.3°, instead of 180° as suggested by the Mössbauer data. The Sn-O distances are very different (2.386 and 2.640 Å). ¹¹⁹Sn NMR data also supported the formation of a 5-coordinate species^{874,1016}.

In $[Et_2SnCl_2L]$ $\{L = dpeO_2, cis-Ph_2P(O)CH = CHP(O)Ph_2\}$, the ligands are chelating with the ethyl groups in the *trans* positions of the octahedron¹⁰¹⁴. Similar behaviour was observed in $[Bu_2^nSnCl_2L]$ for $L = cis-Ph_2P(O)CH = CHP(O)Ph_2^{1013}$, but the octahedral structure is highly distorted. For $[Pr_2^nSnCl_2L]$, the stereochemistry is basically 5-coordinate in the form of a distorted tetragonal pyramid. Here one oxygen of $cis-Ph_2P(O)CH = CHP(O)Ph_2$ is at a distance of 2.24 Å and the other at a distance of 2.58 Å¹⁰¹³.

The complex $[(Ph_3SnCl)_2L]$ $(L = dpeO_2)$ has a bridging L ligand with phenyl groups in the equatorial plane (91). The in-plane (114–127°) and axial angles (174.4°) reveal distortion in the geometry 1027,1028 . cis-Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂ was unidentate 1029,1030 . The unusual unidentate behaviour of this cis ligand is probably due to the tendency of Ph₃Sn unit to retain an equatorial disposition of the R groups. However, in $[Ph_2SnCl_2L]$ $\{L = cis$ -Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂ $\}$, the ligand is chelating 1029 .

The structure of [$\{Ph_3Sn(ONO_2)\}_2L$] (L = dpcO₂) is similar to that of [$(Ph_3SnCl)_2L$]¹⁰³¹. The complexes [$Ph_2Sn(NO_3)_2L$] {L = cis- and trans-Ph₂P(O)CH= CHP(O)Ph₂} have distorted pentagonal bipyramidal structures (92, 93)¹⁰³². A structure similar to 85 was shown by [$Ph_2Sn(NO_3)_2L$] (L = dpmO₂)¹⁰³³. The complex [$\{Ph_3Sn\cdot Ph_2Sn(NO_3)_2L\}$] (L = dpmO₂)¹⁰³³.

(ONO₂)}₂ (trans-Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂)] has a dimeric structure with the trans ligand acting as a bridge between two Ph₃Sn moieties. Each tin has a distorted trigonal bipyramidal geometry¹⁰³³.

 $0 \longrightarrow 0 = cis - Ph_2P(0)CH \longrightarrow CHP(0)Ph_2$

(92)

e. Complexes of phosphorus (VA). A few complexes of PF₅ with Ph₂P(O)CH(X)· P(O)Ph₂ (X = H, Cl, Buⁿ) have been reported (¹⁹F NMR)¹⁰³⁴. Species of the type [PF₅L] (L acting as a monodentate) and [PF₄L] + (L = bidentate) were detected in all cases. An antimony(V) complex, [(SbCl₅)₄L] (L = C{CH₂P(O)Ph₂}₄), has been reported ^{945a}.

3. Alkali and alkaline earth elements

Alkali metal salts form complexes of the type (A) [MXL], (B) [ML)X, (C) [ML₂I] $\{M = Li, Na, K, Cs; X = Cl, Br, I; L = dpeO_2, R_2P(O)CH_2P(O)R'_2; R = R' = Ph, Bu^n, p-MeOC_6H_4; R = p-MeOC_6H_4, p-CF_3C_6H_4\}^{1035-1042}$, (D) [NaL₃]Br·2H₂O and (E) [NaL₃]I·2H₂O·C₆H₆ (L = dpmO₂)^{1043,1044}. An alkali metal salt insoluble in MeCN or CHCl₃ became soluble in the presence of a phosphine oxide, indicating the formation of a complex species. An X-ray study of complexes D and E revealed a trigonal prismatic structure with the oxygen atoms of dpmO₂ occupying corners of the prism (94). The Na—O distances (2.434 Å) lay within the range typically observed for Na—O bonds (2.29–2.82 Å). Water and C₆H₆ were present in the crystal lattices.

Studies on complexes of the alkaline earth metals are very limited $^{1048-1050}$. Species of the type $[MgL]^{2+}$, $[CaL_2]^{2+}$, $[MgLI]^{+}$ and $[CaClL]^{+}$ (L = dpmO₂) were detected in solution by a conductivity method. Calcium chloride formed 1:1 and 1:2 complexes

with podant ligands 97 and 98¹⁰⁵⁰. The stability constant of the 1:2 complex is larger than that of the 1:1 complex owing to a higher enthalpy contribution to the formation of the 1:1 adduct and a higher entropy contribution to the formation of the 1:2 complex.

$$p = 0$$
 $p = 0$
 $p =$

III. TERTIARY PHOSPHINE SULPHIDES AND SELENIDES

Most of the coordination chemistry of the tertiary phosphine sulphides and selenides pertains to the d-block elements. Whereas there have been significant studies on Main Group elements, no complexes have been reported so far with s- or f-block elements. A recent attempt involving the reaction of $[(Me_5C_5)_2Yb]$ with Ph_3PE gave $[\{(Me_5C_5)_2Yb\}_2(\mu-E)]$ (E = S, Se) instead of the expected adduct $[(Me_5C_5)_2Yb]$ with $[(Me_5$

A. Transition Elements

1. Complexes of the titanium and vanadium Groups(IVB and VB)

Titanium(IV) and vanadium(IV) and (V) form moisture-sensitive complexes of the type [TiCl₄L₂], [(TiCl₄)₂L], [TiBr₄L] (L = Ph₃PS), [TiX₄L'] (X = Cl, Br) and [VOCl₂L'] {L' = Me₂P(S)NHP(S)Me₂}^{1051b,1052-1056}. In the complexes [(TiCl₄)₂L] and [TiBr₄L] (L = Ph₃PS) halogen bridging and in the complexes [TiX₄L'] and [VOCl₂L'] chelation by L' are suggested. Niobium(V) and titanium(V) complexes [NbSCl₃(SPPh₃)], [MX₅L] (X = F, Cl, Br; L = Ph₃PS, Ph₃PSe) and [M₃Br₁₅L] (L = dpeS₂)¹⁰⁵⁶⁻¹⁰⁶² have been reported; they are also moisture sensitive.

An X-ray study has shown that $[NbSCl_3(SPPh_3)]$ exists as a mixture of a square-pyramidal monomer and a chloride-bridged dimer in the same unit cell (99 and $100)^{1059,1060,1062}$. The long Nb—Nb distance (4.240 Å) ruled out any possibility of metal—metal bonding in the dimer. Further Nb(V)–S interaction was weaker than that of Mo(V)–S¹⁰⁶³.

A solution-phase ¹⁹F NMR study revealed the formation of species such as *cis*- and *trans*-[TaF₄ClL], *trans*-[TaF₂Cl₂L], *fac*-[TaF₂Cl₃L], *trans*-*mer*-[TaF₂Cl₃L] {L = (p-MeC₆H₄)₃PS}¹⁰⁶⁴ and [TaF₅L] {L = (XC₆H₄)₃PS}¹⁰⁶¹. The donor ability of the ligands decreased in the order X = p-MeO > o-Me > p-Me > p-Cl¹⁰⁶¹.

Organo-niobium(V) and -tantalum(V) complexes of stoichiometries [MeMCl₄L], [(MeMCl₄)₂L'], [(Me₂TaCl₃)₂L'] and [Me₂TaCl₃L] (L = Ph₃PS, L' = dpeS₂) have been reported ¹¹⁷. The first two complexes have *cis* configurations whereas the latter two have *trans*-Me groups. Interestingly, [Me₂NbCl₃] abstracted oxygen from Ph₃PO forming [Me₂NbOCl₃(Ph₃P)], and there was no analogous reaction with Ph₃PS, demonstrating the relatively large Nb—O affinity as compared with the Nb—S bond ¹⁰⁶⁵. A substituted cyclopentadienyltantalum(V) complex, [Ta(η^5 -C₅Me₅)Cl₃(CH₂P(S)Ph₂)] with Ta—CH₂ bonding showed no Ta–S interaction ¹⁰⁶⁶.

2. Complexes of the chromium Group(VIB)

Table 14 contains several complexes of Group VIB elements, which constitutes one of the most thoroughly studied Groups. The di-tertiary ligands dpmS₂, dpmPSe and $Ph_2P(Se)CH_2CH_2AsPh_2$ behaved as unidentate ligands in the complexes $[M(CO)_5L]$, coordinating via S, P and As donor groups, respectively. Chromium and tungsten complexes were stable in air in the solution phase unlike molybdenium complexes, which dissociated rapidly, demonstrating the high lability of the Mo—S bond. On bubbling CO through a benzene solution of $[M(CO)_5L]$ (M = Cr, W; L = Me₂PhPE), the original compound $[M(CO)_6]$ was obtained. This reveals a reversible binding tendency of the phosphine chalcogenides to Group VIB metals. The addition of MeI to $[M(CO)_5]$ (Me₂PhPS) gave S-methylated ionic complexes, $[Me_2PhPS(Me)]$ $[M(CO)_5I]^{1068,1091}$.

X-ray analysis of $[Cr(CO)_5(Me_3PS)]$ showed a nearly octahedral geometry (101) about the chromium atom¹⁰⁶⁹, which lies slightly above the square-plane towards Me₃PS. The Cr—C bond trans to Me₃PS was short (1.815 Å) compared with the cis-Cr—C bonds (1.889–1.916 Å). The normal Cr—S bond and short Cr—C distance (trans to Me₃PS) reveal the lack of any π -accepting ability of Me₃PS; a similar conclusion was reached from the appearance of high-energy ν (CO) peaks for the CO groups trans to the Me₃PS ligand.

The reaction of $[M(CO)_6]$ with $Ph_2P(E)CH_2PR_1R_2$ gave the disubstituted cis-octahedral complexes $[M(CO)_4L]$ - $\{complexes\ B(i)\}^{1072-1078}$, where the ligands chelate via the P and E donor atoms (102). Since the formation of the tungsten complexes required higher temperatures at which sulphur transfer from one phosphorus to another phosphorus becomes competitive with CO substitution, the tungsten derivatives were obtained indirectly by displacing norbornadiene from $[W(CO)_4(C_7H_8)]$ by $Ph_2PCH_2-P(S)R_2$. The ligands dpmPSe and $Ph_2P(S)CH_2CH_2AsPh_2$ did not react with

TABLE 14. Known complexes of the chromium and manganese groups

Ref.	1067–1071 1072 1072–1078 1072	1072	1079	203	204 1080 1080 1081 1081 164b, 1082–1085 171, 1086 171, 1086	1087 1088 1088 1089, 1090
T	(i) R ₃ PE", dpmS ₂ (ii) dpmPSe, Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂ Ph ₂ P(E)CH ₂ PR ₁ R ₂ ^b Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂	Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂	dpmPSe dpmPSe, Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂	Ph ₃ PS	Ph ₃ PS dpmPSe, Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂ See text Ph ₃ PS Ph ₃ PS, Ph ₃ PSe Ph ₃ PS Ph ₃ PS Ph ₃ PS	MezP(S)CH ₂ PMe ₂ dpmPE, Ph ₂ P(E)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂ (E = S, Se) Ph ₂ P(E)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂ Ph ₂ P(E)CH ₂ CH ₂ AsPh ₂
Complex	A $[M(CO)_5L]$ (M = Cr, Mo, W) B $(i) [M(CO)_4L] (M = Cr, Mo, W)$ $(ii) [M(CO)_4L(pip)]^c$ (M = Mo, W)	(iii) cis -[M(CO) ₄ L ₂] (M = Mo W)	C $[M(CO)_3(NO)L](M = Mo, W)$ D (i) $[M(CO)_3LX_2]$ (M = Mo, W; X = Cl. Br)	(ii) $[M(CO), L_2Cl_2]$ $(n = 2.3: M = M_2)$	E $[M(CO)_3 L_2 I_2](M = Mo, W)$ F $(i) [W(CO)_2(NO)LI]$ (ii) [W(CO)(NO)LL'I] $G [(\eta^5 \text{-cp})(CO)LM - M(CO)_3(\eta^5 \text{-cp})](M = Mo, W)$ $H [MoOCl_3L]$ $(ii) [Br_4W(\mu - L)_2 WBr_4]$ $(iii) [Cl_4W(\mu - L)_2 WCl_4]Cl_2$	J [WOCIL ₂](PF ₆) K (i) [M(CO) ₃ LX] (M = Mn, Re, X = Cl, Br) (ii) [M(CO) ₃ LX] ₂ (X = Cl, Br, M = Mn) (iii) [M(CO) ₃ L ₂ X] (M = Mn, Re) L [MnL ₂]

 $^{a}R_{1}$, $E = Me_{3}$, $Me_{2}Ph_{1}$, $MePh_{3}$, Ph_{3} , Cy_{3} S; $Me_{2}Ph_{1}$, Ph_{3} , Cy_{3} , Se_{2} , $^{b}R_{1}R_{2}$, $E = Ph_{2}$; Ph_{1} , Pr'_{1} , Ph_{2} , Pr'_{2} ; Me_{2} , Pr'_{2} , Me_{2} , Pr'_{2} , Se_{2} , Se_{3} , Se_{4} , Se_{4} , Se_{5}

 $[M(CO)_6]$ and hence its arsenic-bonded monosubstituted complexes $[M(CO)_5L)$ {A(ii) complexes} were obtained from the reaction of the anionic species $[M(CO)_5X]^-$ (X = Cl, Br; M = Mo, W) with the ligand in the presence of $AgNO_3^{1072}$. Complexes B(ii) and B(iii) also contained arsenic-bonded monodentate ligands 1072 .

The group VIB metal-chalcogen interaction decreases in the sequence W > Cr > Mo and for metal-PR₂ interaction in the sequence W > Mo > Cr, which is same as the decreasing trend of metal to ligand π -bonding from W to Cr. Further, the metal-PR₂ interaction is stronger than metal-EPR₂ interaction. It was also observed that phenyl groups on phosphorus enhanced $^{31}P^{-183}W$ coupling owing to π -interactions along the W-P bond 1078,1093 .

Complexes [M(CO)₃(NO)L], [M(CO)₃LX₂] and [W(CO)₂(NO)LI] {C, D(i), F(i) complexes} contain chelating ligands (Table 14). [W(CO)(NO)LL'I] {L = dpmPSe, L' = Ph₂P(Se)CH₂CH₂AsPh₂} has chelating L and unidentate arsenic-bonded L'¹⁰⁸⁰. Complexes [M(CO)₃LX₂] have been shown to exist as a mixture of isomers¹⁰⁷² and their further reaction with dpmPSe gave incomplete formation of [M(CO)₂L₂X₂] (one L is chelated whereas the second is P-bonded). A similar reaction of complex D(i) with Ph₂P(Se)CH₂CH₂AsPh₂ gave quantitative formation of [M(CO)₂L₂X₂] (one L chelating and the second L binding via arsenic only). Bubbling of carbon monoxide through a solution of the latter complex gave [M(CO)₃L₂X₂] (L monodentate, binding via arsenic only). Complex E is the first example of a 7-coordinate complex in metal phosphine chalcogenide chemistry²⁰⁴.

Reaction of $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})(CO)_2M=M(CO)_2(\eta^5\text{-cp})]$ with Ph₃PS gave complex G (Table 14), which represents an unprecedented case of 1,1-addition of Ph₃PS to a metal-metal triple bond¹⁰⁸¹. The binding of Ph₃PS to molybdenum(V) in [MoOCl₃L] is similar to that of Me₃PS and X-ray analysis showed a geometry intermediate between that of a square pyramid and trigonal bipyramid¹⁰⁸⁴, analogous to that of [NbSCl₃(SPPh₃)]¹⁰⁶⁰. The behaviour of Ph₃PSe towards molybdenum(V) is similar; IR spectrometry showed a greater amount of electron density transfer to molybdenum(V) than in the case of Ph₃PS. The addition of Ph₃PS to [MoOCl₃L] to form [MoOCl₃L₂]

showed that the 1:1 adduct predominates at equilibrium (ESR study)²⁰³.

The μ values and IR data have supported ligand bridging in complexes I(ii and iii), where there is antiferromagnetic interaction ($\mu = 0.897-1.118$ BM) between the metal centres¹⁰⁸⁶. An X-ray analysis of [WOClL₂] (PF₆) has shown that the ligand Me₂P(S)CH₂PMe₂ chelates to tungsten via P and S atoms¹⁰⁸⁷. The chelate rings are so arranged as to give *cis*-S₂ and *cis*-P₂ coordination. A thermal study of [M(CO)_nL₂Cl₂]²⁰³ (L = Ph₃PS) has shown that for n = 3, the complexes lose first two CO, then one CO and finally a Ph₃PS ligand is lost in a multi-step process. For n = 2, loss of one CO then two CO takes place followed by loss of the Ph₃PS ligands. Tungsten complexes were more thermally stable than molybdenum complexes.

3. Complexes of the manganese Group (VIIB)

Only a few complexes with Group VIIB elements are known (Table 14). The complexes $\lceil M(CO)_3 LX \rceil \rceil \{K(i)\}^{1088}$ resulted from a 1:1 reaction of $\lceil M(CO)_5 X \rceil$ with L chelating

via P, E or As, E donors. Complexes K(ii) have halogen bridging where Ph₂As(CH₂)₂P(E)Ph₂ bind to manganese via As only¹⁰⁸⁸. [M(CO)₃L₂X] {K(iii)}, obtained from a 1:2 reaction, also have M—As bonding.

Complexes $[M(CO)_3LX]$ underwent electrochemical oxidation to form 17-electron cationic species, $[M(CO)_3LX]^+$, with unexpectedly large redox stability compared with species from analogous phosphine complexes, $[M(CO)_3L'X]$ (L'=dpm, dpe)¹⁰⁸⁸. The isolation of the cationic species was difficult owing to attack by solvents such as CH_3CN . $Ph_2P(S)NHP(S)Ph_2$ formed $[MnL_2]$ { $L=(Ph_2P(S))_2N^-$ with approximately tetrahedral geometry $(103)^{1089,1090}$.

4. Complexes of the iron, cobalt and nickel Group (III)

a. Iron sub-Group. A mixed-ligand iron(0) carbonyl complex, $[Fe(CO)_2(Ph_3P)_2(Ph_3PS)]$, was obtained from $[Fe(CO)_2(Ph_3P)_2Br_2]$ by its reductive elimination and substitution reaction with Ph_3PS . A cis-trigonal bipyramidal geometry was suggested 1094-1097. Iron(II) forms tetrahedral complexes, $[FeX_2L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br, I; L = p-Tol₃PS)³⁹¹ and $Fe(NO)_2XL$ (X = Br, CN; L = Ph₃PE)¹⁰⁹⁸. A few poorly studied complexes include $[(FeCl_2)_nL]$, $[(FeCl_3)_nL]$ (n = 1, 1.5; L = Ph₃PS)¹⁰⁵⁶ and $[FeCl_3-(Bu_3^nPS).^{1099}$ The iodide-bridged dimeric complexes $[L_2Fe(\mu-I)_2FeL_2]I_2$ (L = Ph₃PSe)¹¹⁰² and $[Fe_2I_4L_2]PhMe$ (L = Ph₃PS) have been reported 1103. X-ray study of the latter complex showed a distorted tetrahedral geometry about each iron centre with a long Fe—Fe distance (3.397 Å) (104).

The cubane-type complex $[Fe_4S_4I_2L_2]$ $(L=Ph_3PS)$ was obtained from the reaction of $[Fe(thf)_6]$ $[Fe_4S_4I_4]$, Ph_3PS and sulphur¹¹⁰⁴. It has a lower stability than $[Fe_4S_4I_2]^{2^-}$ and thus decomposes readily in acetonitrile—thf. The core $Fe_4S_4^{2^+}$ of the complex exhibits a slight tetragonal distortion. The Fe—SPPh₃ distances (2.316 and 2.321 Å) are longer than the terminal Fe–S bonds in RS⁻-coordinated $Fc_4S_4^{2^+}$ clusters with cubane structure (105).

The anionic ligands $\{Ph_2P(E)\}_2CH^-(L)$ and the isoelectronic $\{R_2P(S)\}_2N^-$ (R=Me, Ph) form highly air-sensitive complexes, $[FeL_2]^{950,1105}$. The selenide complex decomposed rapidly in the air. An X-ray study of $[FeL_2]$ ($L=\{Me_2P(S)\}_2N^-$) showed a distorted tetrahedral structure (106)¹¹⁰⁶.

$$\begin{array}{c}
Me_2 \\
P \\
\hline
P \\
Me_2
\end{array}$$

$$Fe \\
S \\
\hline
P \\
Me_2$$

$$Ne_2$$

$$Ne_2$$

$$Me_2$$

$$(106)$$

The cyclopentadienyl complexes $((\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2\text{L}]\text{PF}_6$ (L = R₃PE, R = Me, Me₂CH, Me₃C, Ph) were obtained from the reaction of $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2(\text{thf})](\text{PF}_6)$ with R₃PE^{1107,1108}. In contrast, $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2\text{L}]\text{BF}_4$ {L = Ph₂P(E) (CH₂)_nP(E)Ph₂: n = 1-3} were formed by the oxidative cleavage of the Fe-Fe bond in the dimer $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2]_2$ in the presence of L using $[\text{cp}_2\text{Fe}]\text{BF}_4^{1109}$. Photolysis of a mixture of $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2\text{L}]\text{BF}_4$ with $[\text{Ni}(\text{NO})_4]$ gave a bimetallic complex, $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2 \cdot (\mu\text{-L})\text{Ni}(\text{CO})_3]\text{BF}_4$. The formation of similar complexes with corresponding phosphines and phosphine oxides has also been reported. The electrochemical behaviour of $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2\text{L}](\text{PF}_6)$ (L = Me₃PS, Ph₃PS) suggested that the products of the one-electron reduction are labile and lose the ligand L¹¹⁰⁸. Oxidation of the dimer $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2]_2$ in the presence of ligands indicates the possibility of the electrochemical synthesis of the complexes $[(\eta^5\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2\text{L}](\text{PF}_6)$.

Only a few ruthenium(II) complexes of the type $[Ru(CO)_2L_2I_2]$ ($L=Ph_3PSe)^{1110-1111}$, $[RuCl_2LL']_2$ ($L=Ph_3PS$; L'=CO, $Ph_3P)^{1112,1113}$ and $[Ru(CO)_2L_2S]^{1112,1113}$ have been reported. *cis*-Octahedral geometry was inferred for the Ph_3PSe complex; the

latter complexes involve chloride and sulphide bridging ligands, respectively.

b. Cobalt sub-Group. Cobalt(III) forms a number of complexes: (A) $[CoL_2X_2]$ (X = Cl, Br, I; L = Me₃PE)^{1114,1115}, (B) $[CoLX_2]$. nthf (n = 0, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$; X = Cl, Br, I; L = dpmS₂, dpmSe₂)¹¹¹⁶, (C) $[CoL_4]$ (ClO₄)₂ (L = Me₃PE)^{1114,1115}, (D) $Co(NO)_2LX$ (X = Br, CN, L = Ph₃PE)¹⁰⁹⁸, (E) $[Co_2I_4L_2]$ (L = Ph₃PS)¹¹¹⁷, (F) $[CoLX_2]$ (X = Cl, Br, I, L = {Ph₂P(S)}₂NH¹¹¹⁸, (G) $[CoL_2]$ (ClO₄)₂ $[L = {Ph_2P(S)}_2CH_2$, {Ph₂P(S)}₂NH)^{1116,1118} and (H) $(CoL_2]$ (L = {Ph₂P(E)}₂CH⁻, {R₂P(S)}₂N⁻; R = Me, Ph)^{950,1105,1116,1118,1119}. A cobalt(I) complex, $[CoLL'_{1/2}]$ {L = Ph₂P(S)CH₂P(S) Ph₂; HL' = HS₂CNHNHPh}, is also known¹¹²⁰.

No X-ray studies have been reported for any of the complexes listed above. However, spectral and magnetic moment data support tetrahedral structures for complexes C and pseudo-tetrahedral for complexes A, B, D, F, G and H. The air-sensitive complexes H are similar to those of their nickel(II) analogues¹¹²¹. The Co—S and Co—Se bonds have higher covalency than the Co—O bonds in Co(II)—OPR₃ complexes (based on β values)^{1122,1123}. Further, the anionic bidentate ligands showed higher ligand field strengths¹¹²⁴. A homobimetallic complex, [Co₂I₂(Ph₃PS)₂], is reported to possess ligand bridging with a weak Co··· Co interaction¹¹¹⁷, but Ph₃PS is labile and can be readily displaced by Ph₃P or Ph₃PO.

Rhodium(I) forms complexes of stoichiometry (A) $[RhCl(CO) (Ph_3PS)_2]^{1112,1125}$, (B) $[Rh(CO)Cl(Ph_3P)_2(Ph_3PS)]^{1112,1125}$, (C) $[RhClL_2]_2$ (L = $Ph_3PS)^{372,1112,1125}$, (D) $[Rh(Ph_3PS)_3Cl]^{372}$, (E) $[Rh(CO)_2(Ph_3PS)Cl]^{372}$ and (F) $[RhL(\eta^2-S_2PCy_2)]$ {L = $Ph_2P(S)$ (CH₂)₃P(CMe₃) (CH₂)₃PPh₂¹¹²⁶. Monomeric square-planar, trigonal-bipyramidal and chloro-bridged dimeric square-planar structures have been suggested for

complexes A, D and E, B and C, respectively. A dimeric adduct, [Rh₂(O₂CMe)₄(Ph₃PS) (MeO)₃P], was detected in solution by ³¹P NMR spectroscopy (107)¹¹²⁷.

Several novel and air-stable organometallic complexes of rhodium(I) and iridium(I) with phosphine chalcogenides have been reported: (A) [(cod)(RhClL] (L = Me₃PS, Me₂PhPS, Me₂PhPSe), (B) [(cod)RhL_n]X (X = ClO₄, Ph₄B; n = 1 for dmpS₂ and dpmSe₂ and 2 for Me₃PS, Me₂PhPS), (C) [(cod)IrClL) (L = Me₃PS, Me₂PhPS, MePh₂PS), (D) [(cod)IrL] (ClO₄) (L = dpmS₂, dpmSe₂), (E) [(cod)Ir(X)Y₂L] (X = H, Cl; Y₂ = Cl₂, I₂; L = Me₃PS, MePh₂PS, Me₂PhPS)¹¹²⁸, (F) [M(dialkene)L₂] (ClO₄) [M = Rh, L = R₃PS, R = Ph, Me, Et, dialkene = cod, nbd; M = Ir, L = Ph₃PS, Me₃PS, dialkene-cod)¹¹²⁹, (G) [M(dialkene) (Ph₃P)L] (ClO₄) (L = Ph₃PS, Me₃PS; dialkene = cod, nbd for Rh and cod for Ir]¹¹²⁹, (H) [Rh(dialkene)(SePPh₃)₂] (ClO₄) [dialkene = cod, nbd, cyclooctatriene)¹¹³⁰ and (I) [M(cod)L₂]_nⁿ⁺ and [M(CO)₂L₂]_nⁿ⁺ n = 1, 2; L = Me₃PS, Et₃PS, Ph₃PS)¹¹³¹.

Iridium(I) complexes C underwent oxidative addition reactions with HCl or I_2 forming complexes E. In contrast, the corresponding rhodium(I) couplexes showed no such activity, probably owing to the lower stability of rhodium(III) than iridium(III). The complexes [M(dialkene) (Ph₃PS)₂] (ClO₄) (M = Rh, Ir; dialkene = cod, nbd)¹¹²⁹ were used as catalysts for the hydrogenation of hept-1-ene according to a pattern similar to the analogous complexes with alkyl sulphides used for hydrogenation of alkenes¹¹³². In the present case, the iridium(I) complexes showed greater activity than the rhodium(I) complexes. All the complexes, except E, have square-planar geometry (108–110). The

$$X = C1, Ph_3P; L = R_3PS \qquad L = R_3PE \qquad E = dpmS_2 or dpmSe_2 (110)$$

$$Me \qquad S = Ph_2 \qquad Me$$

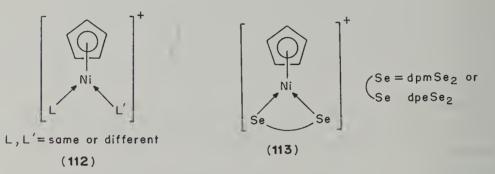
$$I = M \qquad E$$

anionic ligand $\{Ph_2P(S)\}_2CH^-$ formed $[Ir(L) (cod)]^{1133}$, which on further reaction with MeI gave first $[Ir(Ph_2P(S)CH(Me)P(S)Ph_2) (cod)]I$ and subsequently $[Ir(Me)I(Ph_2P(S)-CH(Me)P(S)Ph_2) (cod)]I$ (111). Rhodium showed the reverse sequence Iridium formed the pentacoordinate complex $[Ir(tfb)_2(Ph_3PS)]$ (ClO₄) with pentacoordination stabilized by tfb^{1134} .

c. Nickel sub-Group. Nickel(II) forms complexes with various ligands of the type (A) [Ni(NO)L₂X] (X = Br, CN; L = Ph₃PE)¹⁰⁹⁸, (B) [NiLX₂].^{1/2}S (X = Br, I; L = dpmS₂; S = thf, CH₂Cl₂)¹¹¹⁶, (C) [NiL_n] (ClO₄)₂ (n = 4 for Me₃PE^{1111,1115}, 2 for dpmS₂^{1116,1135,1136}, (D) [NiL₂] (L = {Ph₂P(E)}₂CH⁻, {R₂P(S)}₂N⁻; R = Me, Ph^{950,1105,1137,1138}, (E) [(η^1 -C₆F₅)Ni(Ph₃P)L] L = Ph₃PS)¹¹³⁹, (F) [(η^5 -cp)NiL₂] (BF₄) (L = Me₃PE, Ph₃PSe, $\frac{1}{2}$ dpmSe₂, $\frac{1}{2}$ dpeSe₂)^{1140,1141} and (G) [(η^5 -cp)Ni(R₃P)L]BF₄ (R = Prⁱ, Hex; L = Me₃PS)¹¹⁴². A few nickel(I) complexes, [NiLL' $\frac{1}{2}$] (L = dpmS₂; HL' = HS₂CNRR'; NRR' = Et₂N, PhNH, etc.) have also been reported 1120.

The spectral and magnetic moment data suggest distorted tetrahedral structures for the complexes A, B and C for n=2), tetrahedral for the complexes C (n=4) and D $(L = \{R_2P(S)\}_2N^-)$ and square-planar for complexes D $(L = \{Ph_2P(E)\}_2CH^-)$. Among the organonickel(II) complexes, E has square-planar geometry while the cations of the

other complexes F and G may be represented as shown in 112 and 113.



X-ray study of the complex [NiL₂] (L = {Me₂P(S)}₂N⁻)¹¹³⁷ has confirmed the tetrahedral geometry about nickel. The S—Ni—S planes make a dihedral angle of 84.4°. There is no steric factor between the anionic ligands and hence a square-planar geometry should have been preferred. The reason for this apparent difference in adopting a tetrahedral rather than a square-planar structure is not clear. This complex with an NiS₄ core was the first example since all the other complexes with this core are diamagnetic with square-planar geometry¹¹⁴³⁻¹¹⁴⁴.

Further comments on the complexes discussed above are that Ni—S and Ni—Se bonds have similar covalencies to those of cobalt(II) $^{1145-1148}$ and 10~Dq values for the phosphine chalcogenide complexes are similar. When $L = \{Ph_2P(E)\}_2CH^-$, (NiL₂] complexes are air-sensitive and diamagnetic. The selenide complex decomposes rapidly in solution and in the solid state, whereas the sulphide complexes decompose rapidly in solution but slowly in the solid state. In contrast, [NiL₂] ($L = \{R_2P(S)\}_2N^-$) are air-stable and paramagnetic ($\mu = 3.4~BM$) 950,1137,1138,1149 . For R = Me, spin-state cross-over, tetrahedral \Rightarrow square planar, was observed.

A C,S-bonded nickel(II) complex (114) similar to $[(Et_3P)ClPtCH(Ph_2PS)_2]$ has been reported^{462,1150}. Recently, a hydroxo-bridged dimeric cation, $[(Ni(L)(\mu-OH))_2](ClO_4)_2$.Me $_2$ CO (115) was obtained¹¹⁵¹ from the reaction of $[Ni(H_2O)_6](ClO_4)_2$ with $(Ph_3P)_3$ CMe and polysulphide, S_n^2 . The reaction of $(Ph_3P)_3$ CMe with S_n^2 oxidizes one arm of the ligand. X-ray measurements showed a square-planar geometry about each nickel atom. Interestingly, the $Ph_2P(=S)CH_2$ arm of the ligand is uncoordinated.

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Numerous air-stable complexes of palladium(II) and platinum(II) and some of palladium(IV) and platinum(IV) have been reported (Table 15). The complexes generally possess poor solubility, which may be responsible for the lack of NMR and other solution-phase studies.

X-ray analyses of the complexes [PdCl₂L₂] {L = PhEt₂P(S), Bu₃ⁱPS} have been shown them to have *trans*-square-planar structures ¹¹⁵⁴⁻¹¹⁵⁵. The short Pd—S distance for L = Bu₃ⁱPS shows that it has a better σ-donor ability than PhEt₂PS (2.334 versus 2.350 Å). It may be cautioned here that, on the basis of IR studies, *cis*-square-planar structures were suggested earlier ¹¹⁵⁵. For other complexes (Table 15), square-planar, bromo- or sulphur-bridged square-planar dimeric and square-planar polymeric structures have been assigned for the complexes A, B, E(i) and (iv), G and H, C and F and D, E(ii) and (iii), respectively. The anionic ligand {Ph₂P(S)}₂CH⁻ in [PtCl(Et₃P)L] binds to platinum(II) via the methine carbon and one sulphur atom, forming a four-membered chelate ring (116)⁴⁶². Owing to the lability of the Pt^{II}—S bond, three isomers (A, B and C) were identified (³¹P NMR) (116–118). An X-ray study of isomer 116 showed nearly square-planar geometry about platinum(II)⁴⁶². The Pt—S (bonded) distance (2.390 Å) is one of the longest reported for platinum(II) complexes, but is similar to that found in Pt–SO₂ complexes ^{1166–1169}; The Pt—S (non-bonded) distance is 3.70 Å. A slight rotation

TABLE 15. Known complexes of palladium(II) and platinum(II)

	Complex	L	Ref.
A	$MX_2L_2(M = Pd, Pt, X = Cl, Br)$	R_3PE^a	18, 391, 1152–1156
В	$MX_2L(X = Cl, Br)$	$[Ph_2P(E)]_2CH_2,$	1116, 1152,
		$Ph_2P(S)CH_2P(S)Me_2$	1157–1161
		[Ph2P(E)]2(CH2)n	
C	D D I	(n = 1-4,6)	
	Pd ₂ Br ₄ L	Ph ₃ PE	1132
D	(i) $Pd_3X_6L_m$	$[Ph_2P(Se)]_2(CH_2)_n$	1159, 1160
	(X = Cl, Br, m = 2,4)	(n = 2-4,6)	
С	(ii) $Pd_4X_8L_3(X = Cl, Br)$	$[Ph_2P(Se)]_2(CH_2)_n (n = 4,6)$	1159
E	(i) [Pt(CNS) ₂ L] ₂ ^b	Ph ₃ PE	1162
	(ii) $M_3(CNS)_6L_2^b$		
	(iii) Pt ₂ (CNS) ₄ L ^b	EDI DECI CAN	
F	(iv) ML(SCN) ₂ ^c	$[Ph_2P(E)]_2CH_2$	1163
1	(i) [PdL ₂ S] ₂	Ph ₃ PS	1164
G	(ii) [PdL(Ph ₃ P)S] ₂	Ph ₃ PS	1164
J	(i) [PtCl(Et ₃ P)L]	[Ph ₂ P(S)] ₂ CH ⁻	462
	(ii) ML ₂ (iii) PdBr ₂ L	$[Ph_2P(S)]_2N^-$	1118
H	$[PhPt(PEt_3)_2L]^+$	$[Ph_2P(S)]_2NH$	1118
1		Ph ₃ PS	1165
	(ii) $[(C_6F_5)Pt(Ph_3As)_2L]ClO_4$	Ph ₃ PS	423

 $^{{}^{}a}R_{3} = Ph_{3}$, o-, m- or p-Tol₃, Cy_{3} , Bu_{3}^{i} , $PhEt_{2}$.

^bSCN-bridged polymer.

^{&#}x27;M-SCN bonding.

about the Pt—C bond would replace bonded S by non-bonded S. Isomer 118 is formed when excess of Et₃P is added to isomer 116. ³¹P NMR showed interchange of the P(S) groups in isomer 116, probably owing to the higher *trans* effect of Et₃P. Isomer 117 was static as here Cl is *trans* to S.

Reaction of the tripod ligand {Ph₂P(S)}₃CH(HL) with [Pt₂Cl₄(Et₃P)₂] [Pt₂Cl₂(Et₃P)₄] (BF₄)₂ gave [PtCl(Et₃P)L] (119) or [Pt(Et₃P)₂L] (BF₄) (120), studied by NMR (¹³C, ³¹P and ¹⁹⁵Pt) and X-ray methods ¹¹⁷⁰. ¹³C NMR showed deprotonation of methine proton. The ³¹P and ¹⁹⁵Pt NMR data showed a dynamic intramolecular exchange process involving the two PS groups in isomer 119 and all three PS groups in isomers 119 and 120. The X-ray crystal structure of 119 has confirmed the binding of two PS groups to platinum(II) with a planar CP₃ chromophore (P—C—P angles 116.2–124.2°). The Pt—S bond *trans* to Et₃P was longer than that *trans* to the Pt—Cl bond ¹¹⁷¹.

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The reaction of $[Pd(SeCN)_4]^{2-}$ with dpm gave [PdL(CN)(SeCN)] (L = dpmPSe) (121) instead of the expected product. $[Pd(SeCN)_2L]^{1172}$. Heating of $[Pd(SeCN)_2L]$ also gave 121 with the cyanide group *trans* to Se as shown by X-ray analysis. An S,As-bonded complex, $[PdX_2L]$ (122) (X = Cl, Br), has also been reported 1173.

A platinum(II) complex, $[PtL_2]$ (O₃SCF₃)₂ underwent extrusion of selenium forming initially [PtLL'] (O₃SCF₃)₂ and finally $[PtL'_2]$ (O₃SCF₃)₂ {L = Ph₂P(Se) CH₂PPh₂; L' = Ph₂P-(Se)CH₂P(Se)Ph₂}¹¹⁷⁴. Rearrangement of [PtLL''] (O₃SCF₃)₂ also gave the same product, $[PtL'_2]$ (O₃SCF₃)₂ {L' is same as above, L'' = Ph₂P CH₂PPh₂}¹¹⁷⁴.

Reactions of $Ph_2PCH_2P(E)R_2(E=S, Se; R=Ph, CHMe_2, CMe_3)$ with chlorobridged complex $[M_2Cl_4(PR_3)_2]$ $(M=Pd, Pt, R=Et \text{ or } Bu^n)$ in the presence of $NaClO_4$ or $NaBF_4$ gave cis- and trans- $[PtCl(PR_3) \{Ph_2PCH_2P(E)R_2\}]X$ $(X=ClO_4, BF_4)^{425}$. Here

cis- and trans- refer to M-P bonds. Deprotonation of these complexes using NaH or using Li⁺[Ph₂PCHP(E)R₂]⁻ instead of the neutral ligand gave the corresponding cis- and trans-PtCl(PR₃) {Ph₂PCH-P(E)R₂}]. The products were studied using ¹³C, ³¹P, ⁷⁷Se, ¹⁹⁵Pt NMR and X-ray data (one complex). The X-ray study of [PtCl(PEt₃) {Ph₂PCH₂P(S)-(CMe₃)₂} (ClO₄) showed trans-square planar structure (123).

An interesting platinum(II) complex, [PtL(MeOcod)] with the anionic ligand $\{Ph_2P(S)\}_2CH^-(L)$, (123) has been reported ¹¹³³. This showed both ligand and metal site reactivity in transforming to a novel dimer, [Pt₂(Ph₂P(S)CP(S)Ph₂) (MeOcod)₂] (124) containing a quaternary carbon bridge between platinum atoms (X-ray analysis).

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_2 \\ P \\ CH_2 \\ CI \\ R = Me_3C \\ (123) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R = Me_3C \\ (124)$$

Interaction of $Pt[S_2P(OEt)_2]_2$ with $Ph_2PCH_2P(E)Ph_2(L)$ gave (A) [LPtR]R {R = $S_2P(OEt)_2$ }, (B) [LPt($S_2P(O)OEt$)] and (C) cis-and trans-[PtL₂]R₂ (cis, trans refer to M—P bonds linking L to M) ¹¹⁷⁵. Compounds B are formed from A on slow reaction of the free anion R with A. The analogous ligand $Ph_2P(E)CH_2CH_2AsPh_2(L')$ also gave [Pt(η^1 -L') (η^1 -S₂P(OEt)₂) (η^2 -S₂P(OEt)₂]. X-ray analysis for E = S showed a square-planar structure (125) with $Ph_2P(S)$ as a free dangling ligand end. Similarly, reactions of $Ph_2P(E)CH_2PPh_2(L)$ with [Pt(S₂CNEt₂)₂] gave a number of interesting products¹¹⁷⁶, namely [(η^1 -L)Pt(η^1 -S₂CNEt₂)(η^2 -S₂CNEt₂)] and [(η^2 -L)Pt(η^2 -S₂CNEt₂)]⁺. Owing to the higher Pt—Se lability, a number of side-products such as dpm and dpmSe₂ were also detected in the case of the selenium analogue (³¹P, ⁷⁷Se and ¹⁹⁵Pt NMR).

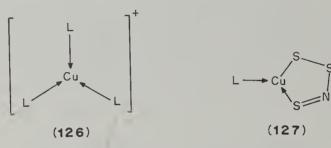
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A small number of palladium(IV) and platinum(IV) complexes have been reported; (A) (Bu_4^nN) [Pd(Ph_3PS)Cl_5]^{1177}, (B) [PtCl_4L_2] (L = o, m- and p-Tol_3PS)^{1156}, (C) [PtCl_4L] {L = Ph_2P(S) (CH_2)_nP(S)Ph_2; n = 2-4}, (D) [PtBr_4L] {L = Ph_2P(Se) (CH_2)_6P(Se)Ph_2} and (E) [PtBr_4L_2] {L = Ph_2P(E) (CH_2)_3P(E)Ph_2}^{1160}. In complex E, L is unidentate, whereas in C and D, L are bidentate. The Pt^IV—Se bond is not stable as the ligand decomposes, as seen for Ph_3PSc and Ph_3AsS^{1153}. Hence these complexes mentioned above were prepared at low temperature (20–25 °C) by slowly evaporating the reaction mixture.

5. Complexes of the copper Group (IB)

Table 16 contains a number of copper(I) and some copper(II) complexes with mono- and di-tertiary phosphine chalcogenides. Owing to the tendency of copper(II) to undergo reduction to copper(I) in the presence of phosphine chalcogenides, only a small number of copper(II)—phosphine sulphide complexes have been isolated using Me₂CO as the solvent. Normally, copper(I) complexes were obtained after reducing copper(II) to copper(I) using ascorbic acid or hypophosphorous acid prior to its reaction with ligand.

An X-ray study of $[Cu(Me_3PS)_3]$ (ClO_4) showed nearly trigonal planar geometry $(126)^{1180}$. The complexes, $[Cu(Me_3PS)_3]X$ and $[Cu(Ph_3PS)_3]$ X $(X = ClO_4)$, $BF_4)$ are isomorphic 1184 . The Cu-L bond strength was found to decrease in the order $Ph_3PS > PhMe_2PS > Me_3PS$ $(IR)^{1184}$. A copper(I) complex, $[Cu(Ph_3PS) (NS_3)]$ (127), obtained from $[CuCl(Ph_3P)_3]$ and S_7NH , also possesses trigonal planar geometry about copper(I) (X-ray analysis) 1196 .



Whereas the ionic complexes A were soluble in various organic solvents, the non-ionic complexes of the type $[CuLX]_n$ $\{B(i), (ii)\}$ have poor solubility in common organic

TABLE 16. Known complexes of copper(I) and copper(II)

	Complex	L	Ref.
<u> </u>	(i) CuL ₃]X ^a	R_3PE^b	1178-1185
	$(X = ClO_4, BF_4, NO_3)$ (ii) $[CuL_2]X^c$	dpmS ₂ , dpmSe ₂ , dpseS ₂ , o-(PSPh ₂)(Ph ₂ As)C ₆ H ₄	1157, 1158 1173
	$(X = ClO_4, BF_4)$ (i) $[CuLX]_n^d$ $(X = Cl, Br, I, SCN)$	R_3PS^e	1158, 1182, 1184, 1186–1188
	(ii) $[CuXL]_m^d$ (X = Cl, Br)	dpmS ₂ , dpeS ₂	1157, 1158, 1173, 1189–1191
	(iii) [CuClL]·Me ₂ CO ^a	dpmS ₂ dpmS ₂	1157, 1158, 1178 1178
	(iv) [(CuClL) ₂ ·2(CuClL)] ^f (v) [CuBrL]	Ph ₂ P(S)NHP(S)Ph ₂	1118
	(i) $\left[\operatorname{CuCl}_{2}\operatorname{L}_{2}\right]^{g}$	Me ₂ PhPS, MePh ₂ PS	1157, 1158
	(ii) $[CuCl_2L]^g$	dpmS ₂ , dpeS ₂ , dppS ₂	1157, 1158, 1189 1192–1194
)	$[CuLL'](ClO_4)^h$	Ph ₃ PS	1195

^aTrigonal planar.

 $^{{}^{}b}R_{3} = Me_{3}, Et_{3}, Pr_{3}^{i}, Ph_{3}, Me_{2}Ph.$

[°]Tetrahedral.

^dPolymeric.

 $^{^{}e}R_{3} = Me_{3}$, Ph_{3} , $Me_{2}Ph$.

Trigonal planar monomer and tetrahedral dimer.

^gDistorted tetrahedral.

 $^{^{}h}L' = 2,2'$ -bithiazole, trigonal planar.

solvents, suggesting polymeric structures. IR and X-ray measurements established the trimeric structure of [Cu(Me₃PS)Cl]₃ with a distorted trigonal planar geometry about each copper atom^{1188,1197}. The angles about copper vary in the range 109.8–125.2°. Three Cu and three Cl atoms form a six-membered ring(128) which is very rarely observed in copper(I) chemistry.

Polymeric $[Cu(Me_3PS)X]_n$ (X = Br, I) are isomorphic but different from $[Cu(Me_3PS)Cl]_3$. Similarly, in $[Cu(Ph_3PS)_3X]_n$, IR data rule out any ligand bridging ¹¹⁸⁷. The difference may be attributed to the different electronic environments of Me_3PS (the better Lewis base) and Ph_3PS . $[Cu(Me_3PS)(SCN)]_\alpha$ is a long-chain polymer involving SCN^- bridging with terminal Me_3PS ligands ^{1184,1198}. The chains interact via SCN^- leading to pseudo-tetracoordination for some copper atoms.

The complex [CuClL]Me₂CO {B(iii)} was obtained by reduction of a solution of CuCl₂.2H₂O and dpmS₂ in Me₂CO using hypophosphorous acid, whereas the same reaction in EtOH gave [(CuClL)₂.2(CuClL)] {B(iv)}^{1157,1158,1178}. Heating the monomer [CuClL]Me₂CO leads to loss of Me₂CO and formation of a dimer, [CuClL]₂, at temperatures > 140 °C.

An X-ray study of [CuClL]Me₂CO)129) has shown that the geometry about copper is distorted trigonal-planar (S—Cu—S angles 113–123°)^{1157,1158}, the distortion being larger than that normally observed in mononuclear copper(I) complexes. The Me₂CO is unbonded.

$$S = P^{h_2}$$

$$S = P$$

$$S = P$$

$$Ph_2$$

$$Ph_2$$

$$(129)$$

The X-ray structure of $[(CuClL)_2.2(CuClL)]$ $\{L = Ph_2P(S)CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}$ shows that the monomer, CuClL, and dimer, $(CuClL)_2$, exist in the same unit $cell^{1178}$. The monomer has the same geometry as above (129), whereas the dimer has each sulphur of the ligand acting as a bridge (130). The geometry about each copper is distorted tetrahedral. There was no evidence for $Cu\cdots Cu$ interaction. The reaction of $[CuClL]Me_2CO$ with Me_3PS gave $[Cu(Me_3PS)Cl]_3$, and this indicates the lability of the Cu-S bonds in the acetone complex. Treatment of the acetone complex with Cl_2 gave an orange solution due to $[CuCl_4]^{2-1199}$.

The complex [CuClL] (L = dpeS₂) also exists as a dimer $(131)^{1190}$. The geometry about each copper is distorted tetrahedral. The Cu—S—P angles $(109.9^{\circ}, 106.6^{\circ})$ arc larger than those found in the acetone complex $(91.52^{\circ}, 95.68^{\circ})$, from which it is concluded that when the ring strain is less, sulphur binds tetrahedrally ¹¹⁸⁸.

Reaction of $CuCl_2.2H_2O$ with the sodium salt of $Ph_2P(S)NHP(S)Ph_2$ in aqueous solution gave the dark purple compound, $[Cu_3L_4]$ (A). Purification of A in toluene– CCl_4 gave $[Cu_3L_3]$ or $[Cu_3L_3]$. 2.5 CCl_4 (B). Similarly, when A was worked up in $CH_2Cl_2-CCl_4$, a pink compound, $[Cu_4L_3][CuCl_2](CCl_4)$ (C) was obtained. When $[Cu(ClO_4)_2]$ solution in dmf was added to solution of A in toluene, the white compound $[Cu_4L_3](ClO_4)$ (D) was obtained. The compound $[CuL_2]$ ($L=\{Ph_2P(S)\}_2N^-$) (E) was obtained by the reaction of $\{Ph_2P(S)\}_2N^-K^+$ with $CuCl_2$ in methanol at $-78\,^{\circ}C^{1090.1119,1200-1202}$.

An X-ray study of C showed that the copper(I) atoms in $[Cu_4L_3]^+$ are tetrahedral $(132)^{1202}$. A has a μ value of 1.90 BM, suggesting the presence of one copper(II) site and two copper(I) sites. Other cluster compounds are diamagnetic. The blue copper(II) complex E has a pseudo-tetrahedral structure $(ESR)^{1203-1207}$. A diamagnetic tetramer, $[CuL_4]$ $(L = \{Ph_2P(S)\}_2CH^-)$, was obtained from organocopper(I), [ArCu], and $Ph_2P(S)CH_2P(S)Ph_2^{1208}$.

Only a few silver(I) complexes are known: (A) [AgL₂] (ClO₄) (L = Ph₃PSe, dpmS₂, dpmSe₂, dpeSe₂)^{1157,1158}, (B) [Ag(Cy₃PS)₂(NO₃)]¹²⁰⁹ and (C) [AgL(NO₃)].2H₂O (L = dpmS₂)^{1157,1158}. The NO₃ ions are in the coordination sphere, but their uni- or bi-dentate nature has not been established. The heterobimetallic complexes [AuAgR₂(Ph₃PS)]_n (R = C₆F₅, C₆H₂F₃-2,4,6) (133)¹²¹⁰ and a cage complex [Ag(Bu₃P)L] (134) (L = {Ph₂P(S)}₃C⁻¹²¹¹ have been reported. In 134, silver has a tetrahedral geometry.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
R & \downarrow & R \\
\hline
 & Ag \\
\hline
 & Ag \\
\hline
 & R \\
 & R \\$$

Reactions of dpmS₂(L) with [(C₆F₅)Au(tht)], [Au(tht)₂] (ClO₄), [(C₆F₅)₃Au(OEt₂)] and [(C₆F₅)₂Au(tht)₂](ClO₄) gave the air- and moisture-stable products [(C₆F₅)₂Au₂L] (135), [Au₂L₂] (ClO₄)₂ (136), [(C₆F₅)₃AuL] (137) and [(C₆F₅)₂AuL] (ClO₄) (138), respectively. They were studied by 1 H, 19 F and 31 P NMR spectroscopy 1219 . Reaction of 138 with NaH gave [(C₆F₅)₂AuL] (L = {Ph₂P(S)}₂CH⁻) (139), involving C,S-bonding similar to a platinum(II) complex 462 . Reaction of 139 with [RAu(tht)], [Au(tht)₂] (ClO₄) or AgClO₄ gave bi- or tri-nuclear complexes (140 and 141). A binuclear complex, [Au₂L₂] (L = {Ph₂P(S)}₂N⁻) (142) was obtained from the reaction of Ph₂P(S)-NHP(S)Ph₂(LH) with either [Au(tht)Cl] or [(C₆F₅)₂Au(tht)] 1219 . Similarly, [R₂AuL] (143) was obtained from LH and [R₂AuCl]₂.

$$(C_{6}F_{5})Au \leftarrow S \stackrel{Ph_{2}}{=} S \rightarrow Au \leftarrow S \stackrel{Ph_{2}}$$

$$R = Ph_{2}$$

$$R =$$

The unsymmetrical bis(phosphine) ligand dpmPS, on reaction with $[(C_6F_5)_2Au(tht)]^+$, forms $[(C_6F_5)_2AuL]^+$, which on treatment with NaH loses a CH₂ proton forming $[(C_6F_5)_2Au(Ph_2PCHP(S)Ph_2)]^{1220}$. The anionic ligand chelates via P and S. Expectedly, the P—C bond length was shorter than that in a complex in which dpm acts as a chelating agent.

$$\begin{bmatrix} (C_{6}F_{5})_{3}Au & --- S & --- P_{1} \\ & C_{1} \\ & C_{2} \\ & MePPh_{2} \end{bmatrix}^{+} & (C_{6}F_{5})_{3}Au & --- S & --- P_{2} \\ & C_{1} \\ & C_{1} \\ & (Me)PPh_{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(144)$$

Compound 145 reacted with [Ag(OClO₃)(PPh₃)] (1:1) to afford a mixture of [Ag(Ph₂P(S)CHPPh₂Me)]₂(ClO₄)₂ (152). [Ag(Ph₂P(S)CH₂PPh₂Me)](ClO₄)₂ was obtained from AgClO₄ and [Ph₂P(S)CH₂PPh₂Me](ClO₄). An X-ray study of 146 showed that the structure involved an Au··· Au interaction (3.224 Å). Further compounds of gold(III) have also been reported [222: [Au(C₆F₅)Cl{Ph₂P(S)CH₂PPh₂(CH₂R)](ClO₄) (R = H, Ph), [(C₆F₅)₂ClAu{Ph₂P(S)CHPPh₂(CH₂R)}] and [(C₆F₅)₂ClAu{Ph₂P(S)CH-(AuX)PPh₂Me}] (X = C₆F₅, Cl).

Reaction of the lithium salt LiCH₂P(S)Ph₂ with [Au(C₄H₈S)Cl] in a 2:1 ratio gave Li[Au{CH₂P(S)Ph₂}₂, characterized as {(Ph₃P)₂N}[Au{CH₂P(S)Ph₂}₂] (A)^{1223,1224}. Reaction of A with *cis*-[PtCl₂(SEt₂)₂] in a 2:1 ratio gave the neutral, linear trinuclear complex [Au₂Pt{CH₂P(S)Ph₂}₄] (B). Treatment of A with K₂[PtCl₄] gave [Au₂Pt{CH₂P(S)Ph₂}₄Cl₂] (C). Oxidation of B with Cl₂ in CCl₄ or reaction of B with PhICl₂ also gave C. A, B and C have been characterized by X-ray measurements. A contains a C—Au—C linkage; B contains an Au—Pt—Au unit with —CH₂P(S)Ph₂ acting as the bridge (153). In C, Cl is bound to the terminal gold atoms, the remainder of bonding being the same. Similarly, SO₂ adds to the gold atoms forming [Au₂Pt{ μ -C, S-CH₂P(S)Ph₂}₄(SO₂)]¹²²⁴. The oxidation of A with Br₂ in CH₂Cl₂ gave

 $\begin{array}{l} \left[Au\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}_2Br\right] \ (154)^{1225}, \ exhibiting \ a \ dynamic \ rearrangement \ involving \ CH_2 \ resonances \ (NMR). \ Reaction \ of \ \left[Au\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}_2Cl\right] \ with \ \left[Au(tht)Cl\right] \ gave \ a \ mixed \ valence \ complex, \ \left[Au^IAu^{III}\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}_2Cl_2\right] \ and \ a \ dimer, \ \left[Au^I\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}Cl\right]_2. \ Similarly, \ reaction \ of \ tetraethylthiuram \ disulphide \ with \ \left[Au\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}\right]_2 \ cleaves \ the \ dimer, \ forming \ \left[Au\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}(S_2CNEt_2)_2\right] \ (155). \end{array}$

6. Complexes of the zinc Group (IIB)

Several complexes of Group IIB elements are given in Table 17. Except for the mercury(I) complexes J, all the other mercury(II) complexes are stable to air and moisture. Owing to the low solubility of the complexes, X-ray data have only been obtained for a few of the compounds listed. However, as discussed below, a large number of solution-phase investigations using NMR spectroscopy have been reported.

An X-ray study of {HgCl₂(Ph₃PSe)] showed that it has a dimeric structure (156)¹²³². It may be mentioned that [HgCl₂(Ph₃AsO)], an analogous complex, has an oxygen-bridged dimeric structure¹²⁴². For [HgCl₂(Ph₃PS)], a structure similar to that of

TABLE 17. Known complexes of zinc(II), cadmium(II) and mercury(II)

	Complex	L	Ref.	
 A	$[MX_2L_2]^a (M = Zn, Cd, Hg;$	R_3PE^b	1115, 1154,	
	$X = Cl, Br, I, NO_3$		1227–1230	
В	$[MX_2L]$ (Zn, Cd, Hg; X = Cl,	(i) $R_3 PE^{c,d}$	1056, 1153,	
	Br, I, NO ₃ , SCN)		1154, 1156,	
	, , , <u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>		1187, 1209,	
			1227, 1229,	
			1231, 1232	
		(ii) $[Ph_2P(S)_2]CH_2^a$,	1075, 1157,	
		$Ph_2P(S)CH_2P(S)Me_2^a$,	1158, 1161,	
		$[Ph_2P(E)]_2(CH_2)_n^a$	1227,	
		(n = 2-4,6)	1233–1236	
		Ph ₂ P(Se)CH ₂ PPh ₂ ^a		
		(iii) $[Ph_2P(S)]_2NH^a$	1118, 1193,	
			1237-1239	
С	$[M_2X_4L]^c$ (M = Cd, Hg;	$[Ph_2P(E)]_2(CH_2)_n$	1234, 1235	
	X = CI, Br, I	(n = 4,6)		
D	$[CdBr_2L_3]^e$	p-Tol ₃ PSe	1227	
Ε	(i) $[Hg_3(NO_3)_6L_4]^f$	Ph ₃ PSe	1227	
	(ii) $[Hg_3X_6L_2]$ $(X = Cl, I)$	[Ph2P(E)]2(CH2)3	1233, 1234	
F	$[Hg_4X_8L_3] (X = Cl, Br, I)$	$[Ph_2P(E)]_2(CH_2)_n (n = 2,4)$	1234	
G	$[ZnL_4](ClO_4)_2^a$	Me ₃ PE	1115, 1179,	
	2 43 (4,5		1226, 1240	
Н	$[ML_2]X_2^a$ (M = Zn, Cd, Hg;	$[Ph_2P(S)]_2CH_2$	1157, 1158,	
	$X = NO_3$, ClO_4)		1193	
I	(i) $\lceil ML_2 \rceil^a$ (M = Cd, Hg)	$[Ph_2P(S)]_2N^-$	1118, 1138	
	(ii) [HgClL]	$[Ph_2P(S)]_2NH$	1118	
J	$[Hg_2(AsF_6)_2L]$	Ph ₃ PE, p-Tol ₃ PS	1241	

^aTetrahedral.

 $^{{}^{}b}R = Ph, Me, Bu^{n}, (CNCH_{2}CH_{2}).$

^cHalogen-bridged dimer.

 $^{{}^{}d}R = Ph, Cy, o-, m-, p-Tol, (CNCH₂CH₂).$

^eOctahedral dimer.

^f Polymeric tetrahedral.

[HgCl₂(Ph₃PSe)] is suggested ¹²³². In a study by Lobana and Sandhu¹²⁴³, the formation of [HgBr₂(1.5)Ph₃PS], which is probably a mixture of the 1:1 and 1:2 (M:L) adducts, and [HgBr₂(Ph₃PSe)₂] were reported. It was also reported that the previous reports on the formation of [HgCl₂(Ph₃PS)₂] ¹²²⁸ and [(HgX₂)₂Ph₃PSe] (X = Cl, Br)¹²⁴⁴ were incorrect.

A number of investigations of cadmium(II) and mercury(II) have been reported recently using unsymmetrical phosphine chalcogenides, anionic ligands, tridentate ligands and some related ligands. A 2,2-dimethyl-2-silabut-3-enyldiphenylphosphine chalcogenide, $Ph_2P(E)CH_2SiMe_2(CH=CH_2)$, reacted with $HgCl_2$ to form pseudo-tetrahedral dimeric complexes $[HgCl_2L]_2^{1245}$. Reaction of $Li\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}$ with $HgCl_2$ in thf gave a ylide complex, $[Hg\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}_2]^{1246}$, which on further reaction with [Au(tht)Cl] in CH_2Cl_2 in the presence of $TlPF_6$ formed $[HgAu\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}_2](PF_6)$ (157). Similarly, reaction of $[Au\{CH_2P(S)Ph_2\}_2]$ with $HgCl_2$ in the presence of $TlPF_6$ formed 158. Compounds 157 and 158 have been studied by X-ray methods. These compounds do not interconvert on heating in thf.

$$\begin{bmatrix} Ph_2 & Ph_2 \\ Ph_2 & Ph_2 \\ Ph_2 & Ph_2 \end{bmatrix}^{+}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} Ph_2 & Ph_2 \\ Ph_2 & Ph_2 \\ Ph_2 & Ph_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(158)$$

Reaction of HgX_2 with unsymmetrical phosphine chalcogenides formed a series of complexes of the type (A) $[HgX_2L]$ {X, L=Cl, Br, I, $Ph_2P(E)CH_2PPh_2$; Cl, $Ph_2P(S)(CH_2)_2PPh_2$; Cl, Br, I, $Ph_2P(S)(CH_2)_2PPh_2$; Cl, Br, I, $Ph_2P(S)(CH_2)_nP(S)(CH_2)_nP(S)(CH_2)_nP(S)(CH_2)_nP(S)(CH_2)_nP(S)(CH_2)_nP(S)(CH_2)_2PPh_2$ } and (B) $[Hg_3X_6L_2]$ {X = Br, I; L = $Ph_2P(S)(CH_2)_2PPh_2$ } Ph_2 }

The complexes $[HgL_2](L = dpmPS, dpmPSe)(A)^{1248}$ were obtained from the reaction of $Li(Ph_2P(E)CHPPh_2)$ with $HgCl_2$ and these represent rare examples of deprotonated

dpmPE (E = S, Se). The product A contains P,E-bonded chelates (31 P, 199 Hg NMR study). Tripod ligands, $\{Ph_2P(S)\}_3CH(LH)$ and $(Ph_2PS)(Me_2PS)_2CH(LH)$ reacted with HgX₂ (X = Cl, Br, I) to form the complexes [HgXL] (L = $\{Ph_2PS\}_3C^-$ and $(Ph_2PS)(Me_2PSC^-)$. [CdXL] complexes were obtained in a similar manner 20,1249,1250 . In the case of the cadmium(II) complexes, the presence of Et₃N as the base was essential. All these were studied using 1H , ^{13}C , ^{31}P and ^{199}Hg NMR and X-ray diffraction methods. 1H and ^{13}C NMR data confirmed the deprotonation of CH proton. The X-ray study of [HgClL] {L = $Ph_2P(S)$ ($Me_2PS)_2C^-$ } has shown tetrahedral geometry about mercury (161). The Hg—SPPh₂ bond was longer than the Hg—SPMe₂ bond (2.710 Å versus 2.536 Å). The non-bonding Hg—C distance was 3.437 Å).

S
$$S = \begin{bmatrix} Ph_2 \\ P = S \\ S \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} Ph_2 \\ P = S \\ Ph_2 \\ P = S \\ Ph_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} Ph_2 \\ P = S \\ Ph_2 \\ P = S \\ Ph_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Recently a series of organomercury complexes have been reported: (A) [PhHgXL] [X, L=CH₃COO⁻, Ph₃PS¹²⁵¹, Cl₃CCOO⁻, Ph₃PSe¹²⁵¹, Ph₃PS¹²⁵²), (B) [Ph₂HgL] {L=Ph₂P(S)(CH₂)₂P(S)Ph₂}¹²⁵³, (C) [RHgClL] {R=m-NO₂C₆H₄ or p-ClC₆H₄; L=(Ph₂PSe)₂(CH₂)_m, n=1, 2; R=m-NO₂C₆H₄, L=(Ph₂PS)₂CH₂}¹²⁵⁴ and (D) [(RHgCl)₂L] {L=(Ph₂PS)₂CH₂, (Ph₂PSe)₂(CH₂)₃}¹²⁵⁴. They were studied by IR, ³¹P, ⁷⁷Se and ¹⁹⁹Hg NMR and X-ray methods (for complex B). The interaction of PhHg^{II} with S or Se was weak and could only be established from ⁷⁷Se and ¹⁹⁹Hg NMR measurements¹²⁵¹. X-ray analysis of [Ph₂HgL] (L=dpeS₂)¹²⁵³ showed an Hg···S distance of 3.913 Å. Hence this complex may be labelled as a weak molecular adduct (162). Only sulphur atoms from the two L molecules passing above and below the plane containing Ph₂Hg moiety are shown. Complexes C and D were shown by IR study to have stronger RHg···E interaction, although this interaction was weaker than that found in HgX₂-phosphine chalcogenide complexes.

In the following text, solution-phase interactions of zinc(II), cadmium(II) and mercury(II) with tertiary phosphine chalcogenides studied by ³¹P, ¹¹³Cd, ⁷⁷Se and ¹⁹⁹Hg NMR spectroscopy are discussed. The anions in the case of zinc(II) and cadmium(II) were generally the bulky AsF₆ or SbF₆ ions, which have little interaction with the metal centres, whereas for mercury(II) halides or SCN were used. Table 18 contains various complexes that have been detected which have coordination numbers ranging from 2 to 4. The metal to ligand ratios are varied in order to obtain the desired predominant species. At room temperature, there was generally exchange between the free and the coordinated ligands. It may be mentioned that cadmium(II) formed [Cd(Ph₃PO)₄]²⁺ and

TABLE 18. Complexes of Group IIB (studied by NMR)

	Complex	L	Ref.
A	$[ZnL_n]^{2+}$ $(n=3,4)$	R_3PE^a	998
В	$[ZnL_2]^{2+}$	(i) R_3PE^b	998
		(ii) dpmS ₂	998
C	$[ML_nL'_{4-n}]^{2+}$ (M = Zn, Cd; n = 1-3)	$L = Cy_3 PSe; L' = Cy_3 PS$	998, 1000
D	$[ML]^{2+}$ $(M = Zn, Cd)$	[Ph ₂ P(E)CH ₂ CH ₂] ₂ P(E)Ph ^c	998
E	$[ML_2]^{2+}$ (M = Zn, Cd)	$[Ph_2P(E)CH_2]_3CMe^d$	998
F	$[CdL_n]^{2+}$ (n = 3,4)	R_3PE^e	999, 1000, 125
G	$[CdL_2]^{2+}$	(i) dpmSe ₂ , dpeSe ₂ , dppSe ₂	999, 1255
		(ii) o-Tol ₃ PE	1000
	$[CdL_nL'_{4-n}]^{2+}$ (n = 1-3)	$L = Cy_3PS; L' = Cy_3PSe$	1000
H	(i) $[HgX_2L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br, I, SCN)	Bu ⁿ ₂ PE, Bu ⁿ ₂ PhPSe, Bu ⁿ Ph ₂ PSe	1256–1259
	(ii) $[Hg_2X_4L_2]$ (X = Cl, Br)	Bu ₃ ⁿ PSe	1258
	(iii) $[HgX_2(Bu_3^nP)L]$	Bu ⁿ PSe	1259

 $^{{}^{}a}R_{3} = Ph_{3}$, o-Tol₃, Cy_{3} .

 $[Cd(Ph_3PO)_6]^{2^+}$ species against only four-coordinate cadmium(II)-phosphine chalcogenide species. Moreover, whereas Cd - E (E = S, Se) bonds are labile, $Cd^{II} - O$ bonds are comparatively inert. Hence it may be concluded that phosphine chalcogenides cannot compete with phosphine oxides for coordination to cadmium(II).

From 113 Cd NMR, it was observed that for $[Cd(R_3PE)_4]^{2+}$, the shielding of cadmium(II) decreased in the order $E = O \gg Se > S$. Owing to the higher affinity of cadmium(II) for oxygen, any attempt to prepare mixed-ligand species of the type $[Cd-(Cy_3PO)_x(Cy_3PS)_{4-x}]^{2+}$ instead gave $[Cd(Cy_3PO)_4]^{2+}$ and $[Cd(Cy_3PS)_4]^{2+}$ $[Cd-(Cy_3PS)_4]^{2+}$ instead gave $[Cd(Cy_3PS)_4]^{2+}$ and $[Cd(Cy_3PS)_4]^{2+}$ instead gave $[Cd(Cy_3PS)_4]^{2+}$ instead

The unsymmetrical phosphine chalcogenides $Ph_2P(E)CH_2PPh_2(L)$ reacted with Cd^{2+} to form $[CdL_2](ClO_4)_2$, $[CdL_2(dmso)_x](CF_3SO_3)_2$ (x=1,2) and $[Cd(\eta^2-L)(\eta^1-L)-(dmso)_x]^{2+}$ (x=1-3)¹²⁶¹. Similarly, $[CdL_2']X_2$ { $L'=Ph_2P(E)CH_2P(E)Ph_2$; $X=ClO_4$, CF_3SO_3 } were formed (^{31}P , ^{77}Se and $^{113}CdNMR$)¹²⁶¹. It was observed that the Cd-P bond was weaker than either Cd-S or Cd-Se bonds when the interaction of Ph_3P was compared with that of Ph_3PSe . From cyclic voltametric studies, it was found that both $[CdL_2]^{2+}$ and $[CdL_2']^{2+}$ complexes undergo two-electron reversible processes at a mercury electrode. Similarly, the ligands mentioned above formed $[HgL_2]^{2+}$ and $[HgL_2']^{2+}$, as shown by ^{31}P , ^{77}Se and $^{199}HgNMR$ studies 1262 . Competitive exchange studies revealed that mercury(II) prefers to bind $Ph_2P(E)CH_2PPh_2(L)$ more than $Ph_2P(E)CH_2P(E)Ph_2(L')$. The electrochemical reduction of both $[HgL_2]^{2+}$ and $[HgL_2']^{2+}$ at a mercury electrode occurs via a mercury(I) intermediate:

$$HgL_2^{2+} + Hg \rightleftharpoons 2[HgL]^+ \stackrel{+2e}{\rightleftharpoons} 2Hg + L$$

 $\{L = Ph_2P(E)CH_2PPh_2; L' = Ph_2P(E)CH_2P(E)Ph_2; E = S, Se\}$. Whereas the complexes with L showed both chemical electrochemical reversibility, the complexes with L' showed chemical reversibility, but electrochemical irreversibility.

 $^{{}^{}b}R_{3} = o\text{-Tol}_{3}$, Cy₃.

^{&#}x27;Tridentate.

^dBidentate.

 $^{^{}e}R_{3} = Ph_{3}, Ph_{2}(o\text{-Tol}), Ph(o\text{-Tol})_{2}, p\text{-Tol}_{3}, Cy_{3}, Bu_{3}^{t}.$

B. Main Group Elements

1. Complexes of boron, aluminium, indium and thallium(IIIA)

Boron(III) halides form moisture-sensitive adducts, [BX₃L] (X = Cl, Br, I; L = R₃PE, R = Me, Cy, Ph; E = S, Se)¹²⁶³⁻¹²⁶⁵. The B(III)—E bond strengths decreased as shown by IR and ¹H NMR data in the order BI₃ > BBr₃ > BCl₃ > BF₃^{740,1263}. Ligand exchange was slow in the BI₃L complexes but fast with other adducts. An adduct with diborane, $\frac{1}{2}$ B₂H₆·R₃PS (R = Me, Ph) has been reported⁷⁴⁷.

A few aluminium(III) adducts of composition $[(AlCl_3)_n(Ph_3PS)]$ (n = 1-3) and $[AlBr_3(Ph_3PS)]$ have been reported 1056,1266 . Reaction of dpmS₂ with dissobutylaluminium hydride gave $[(AlCH_2CHMe_2)_2\{Ph_2P(S)CPPh_2(S)\}_2\{Al(CH_2CHMe_2)_2\}_2]^{1267}$.

X-ray study of this complex has shown an unusual S₄Al₄ core.

Indium(III) forms $[InX_3(Me_3PS)_2]$ complexes $(X=Cl \text{ or } Br)^{1268}$. An X-ray analysis for X=Cl showed a distorted trigonal bipyramidal geometry with the thio ligands in the apical positions. Thallium(III) also forms complexes of the type $[TlCl_3L]$ $(L=Ph_3PE)$ and $[PhTl(O_2CCF_3)_2(Ph_3PS)]^{1269-1271}$.

2. Complexes of Tin(II, IV) and lead(II) (IVA)

The interaction of $[Sn(SbF_6)_2]$ and $[Pb(SbF_6)_2]$ with tertiary phosphine chalcogenides has been studied using ^{31}P , ^{119}Sn and ^{207}Pb NMR spectroscopy 1272 . The formation of $[ML_3]^{2^+}$ ($L=Cy_3PE$; M=Sn, Pb), $[M(Cy_3PS)(Cy_3PSe)_2]^{2^+}$ and $[M(Cy_3PS)_2-(Cy_3PSe)_2]^{2^+}$ was established. In contrast, Cy_3PO formed both $[M(Cy_3PO)_2]^{2^+}$ and $[M(Cy_3PO)_3]^{2^+}$. From ^{207}Pb NMR studies it was concluded that $\delta(Pb)$ values decrease in the sequence $Se>S>O^{1273-1277}$. For the complexes $[ML_3]^{2^+}$, trigonal pyramidal geometry with a stereochemically active lone pair has been suggested.

Tin(IV) forms a number of complexes: (A) [SnCl₄L₂] (L = Ph₃PS)¹⁰⁵⁶, (B) [SnX₄L₂) (X = Cl, Br, I; L = Ph₃PE)^{18,1278}, (C) [SnCl₄L₂] {L = (p-RC₆H₄)₃PS, R = Me₂N, H, MeO, Me, Cl}¹²⁷⁹, (D) [SnX₄L₂] (X = Cl, Br; L = R₃PS; R₃ = Me₃, Et₃, Prⁿ₃, Buⁿ₃, Me₂P)¹²⁸⁰, (E) [SnCl₄L_m] (m = 1, 2; L = Buⁿ₃PE)¹²⁸¹, (F) [SnCl₄L] [L = dpeS₂]^{1193,1278} and (G) [Ph₃SnXL] (X = NCS, NCO, N₃; L = Ph₃PS)^{866,1282,1283}. X-ray data are not

available for any of these complexes.

3. Complexes of antimony(V) and bismuth(III) (VA)

A few antimony(V) and bismuth(III) complexes are known: [SbCl₅L], [SbCl₃Br₂L] (L = Ph₃PS)^{1056,1284}, [(SbCl₅)₂L] (L = Bu₃PS, Bu₃PSe)⁸⁹⁴ and [BiL₃] (L = {Ph₂P(S)}₂N⁻)¹²⁸⁵. The 2:1 antimony complexes dissociate in CH₂Cl₂ to form [SbCl₄L][SbCl₆] ion pairs. The geometry about bismuth in [BiL₃] is distorted octahedral (163). This is the first example of a complex of a Main Group element with $\{Ph_2P(S)\}_2N^-$ whose X-ray structure has been reported.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
S & S \\
S & S \\
S & S
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
S & S \\
S & S
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
S & S & S \\
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S & S & S \\
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S & S & S & S \\
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\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
S & S & S & S & S \\
S & S & S & S
\end{array}$$

4. Complexes of tellurium (II, IV) (VIA)

Tellurium(II) forms a complex $[TeL_2]$ ($L = \{Ph_2P(S)\}_2N^-$), for which X-ray studies showed a square-planar geometry $(164)^{1286}$. A series of tellurium(IV) and organo-

tellurium(IV) complexes have been reported: (A) [TeCl₄L_n], (B) [RTeCl₃L_n] (n = 1, 2; L = Ph₃PE, R = Ph, 4-MeOC₆H₄, 4-BrC₆H₄)¹²⁸⁷, (C) [R₂TeCl₂L] (R = Ph, p-MeOC₆H₄; L = R'₃PSe; R' = Ph, p-MeC₆H₄, Buⁿ, dpeSe₂)^{1287,1288}. For C a distorted octahedral geometry with one site occupied by a lone pair has been suggested (dpeSe₂ coordinates via one selenium only).

IV. TERTIARY PHOSPHINE TELLURIDES

In comparison with tertiary phosphine oxides, sulphides and selenides, very little work has been reported on the coordination chemistry of tertiary phosphine tellurides. The difference is attributed to the lower stability of P=Te bond versus P=O, P=S or P=Se bonds. Before discussing the coordination chemistry of phosphine tellurides, it may be appropriate to give a brief account of the synthesis, stability and reactivity of the phosphine tellurides, which will be useful in understanding the poor reports on their coordination chemistry.

Tributylphosphine telluride (Bu₃ⁿPSe) was prepared by the reaction of Bu₃ⁿP with tellurium in a large excess of toluene by refluxing for 21 h under a methane atmosphere (m.p. 35.0 °C)¹²⁸⁹. The ligand decomposes on storage. Other papers have dealt with the synthesis of ligands of the R₃PTe type (R = alkyl or alkylaryl)^{32,1290,1291}.

Tellurium in tertiary phosphine tellurides is labile, as evidenced by various studies. R_3P makes nucleophilically attacks on tellurium in R_3P Te. It has been suggested that linear intermediates of the type R_3P TePR $_3$ are formed ($R = Me_3C$, Me_2N)¹²⁹². Rapid transfer of tellurium between (Me_3C) $_3P$ and (Me_3C) $_3P$ Te was observed by NMR spectroscopy¹²⁹¹. The P—Te bond length is 2.368 Å, indicating a bond order of 1.5¹²⁹³.

An X-ray study of Ph₃PTePPh₃ (obtained by the reaction of Ph₄As⁺TeCN⁻ with excess of Ph₃P in MeCN containing LiClO₄) has shown a linear P—Te—P moiety¹²⁹⁴. There is a normal bond between one P and Te, while the interaction between Te and the other P is weak. The IR spectra of Oct₃ PTe in CCl₄ showed a hydrogen-bond interaction with MeOH and MeCN¹²⁹⁵. ³¹P and ¹²⁵Te NMR showed that the two nuclei couple in RR'R" PTe (R groups chosen from Bu, Me, Me₂N, Et, EtO, NEt₂)¹²⁹⁶.

Tellurophosphoranes (R₃PTe) react with MeI to form R₃P⁺TeMeI⁻ (R = Me, Me₂CH, Buⁿ, Me₃C, Me₂N)¹²⁹⁷. A thin film of CdTe was deposited cathodically on titanium in a photoelectrochemical cell using Buⁿ₃PTe and a propylene carbonate solution of cadmium(II)¹²⁹⁸. Cyclic voltametry revealed the formation of a cadmium(II) complex with Buⁿ₃PTe so that electron transfer can be effective. R₃PTe (R = Me, Et) reacted with HgR₂ (R = Et, Ph) at 115 °C to form mercury telluride (HgTe) as the sole solid-state product¹²⁹⁹. In the case of Ph₂Hg, it was observed that Ph₂Te and Ph₂Te₂ are the major organic products.

The reaction of Et_3PTe with $[Mn_2(CO)_{10}]$ under mild conditions gave $[(Et_3P)_2(CO)_3MnTe]_2$ (A)¹³⁰⁰. A has a structure similar to that of RTeTeR with the $(Et_3P)_2(CO)_3Mn$ moiety replacing the R groups. Pyrolysis of A at 300 °C gave crystalline MnTe. A similar reaction of Et_3PTe with $[cp_2Fe_2(CO)_4]$ in the presence of Et_3P gave $[cp(Et_3P)(CO)Fe]_2Te$ and $[cp(Et_3P)(CO)FeTe]_2^{1301}$.

Dications of the type $[R_3PTeTePR_3]^{2+}$ were obtained when R_3PTe ($R = Me_3C$, Me_2CH) was oxidized by ferricinium salts¹³⁰². The compounds $[(Me_3P)_3CoTe_2Co-(PMe_3)_3]$ (B) (similar to A) were obtained when $[CoX(PMe_3)_3]$ (X = Cl, PMe_3 , etc.), $Li[CoL(PMe_3)_3]$ (L = ethene), $[CoCl_2(PMe_3)_3]$ and $[Co(CO)_2(PMe_3)_2]_2$ were oxidized by tellurium ¹³⁰³. The reaction of B with CO gave $[\{(Me_3P)_2(CO)_2Co\}_2Te_2]$.

Extrusion of tellurium from Bu₃PTe takes place when it reacts with (i) $[(MeC_5H_4)_3U]$ -thf and (ii) $[(Me_5C_5)_2Yb]$. Tellurium-bridged complexes, $[(MeC_5H_4)_3U]_2$ -Te¹³⁰⁴ and [(Me₅C₅)₂Yb]₂Te^{1051a} are formed. Whereas extrusion of sulphur and selenium from Ph₃PS and Bu₃PSe respecitvely, was observed, no extrusion of oxygen from Ph₃PO took place. Instead [(MeC₅H₄)₃UPh₃PO] was formed ¹³⁰⁴.

The first stable tellurophosphorane complexes $[M(CO)_5(R_3PTe)]$ (M = Cr, Mo, W; $R = Me_3C$) (A) were reported by Kuhn et al.¹⁹ in 1985. The photolysis of [M(CO)₆] in thf in the presence of R₃PTe for 12 h gave monosubstituted products (A) in quantitative yield. An X-ray analysis of [W(CO)₅(Bu'₃PTe)] showed octahedral geometry with W—Te

bonding.

Reaction of $[(\eta\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2(\text{thf})]^+$ with $R_3\text{PTe}$ gave $[(\pi\text{-cp})\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_2(R_3\text{PTe})]^+$ $(R = \text{Me}, \text{Me}_2\text{CH}, \text{Me}_3\text{C}, \text{Me}_2\text{N}, \text{morpholino})^{1305}$. NMR data reveal Fe—Te π -bonding. Reaction of Li(Ph₂P(Te)CHPPh₂) {prepared from Te and (Ph₂P)₂CHLi} with HgCl₂ gave [Hg(Ph₂P(Te)CHPPh₂)₂] containing P and Te bonds with Hg (31P and ¹⁹⁹Hg NMR)¹²⁴⁸.

V. APPLICATIONS

The applications covered in this section are analytical and catalytic applications. Among the analytical applications, liquid-liquid extraction of metal ions constitutes one of the most extensively studied areas, other areas including reversed-phase chromatography and ion-selective electrodes.

A. Analytical Applications

In this section, the separation and determination of metals using various types of phosphine oxides and chalcogenides are described. Broadly, the following areas are covered: (1) liquid-liquid extraction; (2) reversed-phase chromatography (liquid-solid extraction system); (3) ion-selective electrodes; (4) miscellaneous applications; (4.1) extractive and direct determination of metals; and (4.2) Fluorimetric determination and related applications.

Section 1 contains a number of systems which relate to the quantitative separation and determination of metals, whereas Section 4 describes only such systems not covered in

Sections 1-3.

1. Liquid-liquid extraction

The ligands used for extraction studies can be divided into three types: (a) mono-tertiary phosphine oxide; (b) di-tertiary phosphine oxides; (c) Poly-tertiary phosphine oxides; and (d) Mono- and di-tertiary phosphine sulphides or selenides.

a. Extraction with mono-tertiary phosphine oxides. There have been numerous investigations on the use of mono-tertiary phosphine oxides (R₃PO), either alone or together with β -diketones, pyrazolones, etc., for the extraction of metals. The d- and f-block elements have been studied to much greater extent than the s- and p-block elements. When these ligands are used together with other reagents, they generally act synergistically. Thus, the most interesting work on liquid-liquid extraction chemistry deals with the use of these ligands as synergists. The phenomenon of synergism may be attributed to the formation of a mixed-ligand complex or an adduct complex which has a higher solubility in the organic phase than that of the simple chelate 1306. In the adduct complex, coordinated water is replaced by an organophosphorus reagent. The synergistic extraction of the metal ions has various advantages: enhanced extractability, widening of the optimum pH range, stabilization of an extracted species by forming an adduct and a favourable kinetic effect¹³⁰⁷. In the kinetic effect, equilibrium is reaced in a shorter time on the addition of the adduct molecules such as the organosphosphorus reagents. The addition of alcohols, esters, ketones, etc., also leads to enhanced extraction¹³⁰⁸.

Among mono-tertiary phosphine oxides, tri-n-octylphosphine oxide (topo) is the most extensively used ligand, probably owing to its high donor property, low toxicity and vapour pressure and poor miscibility with water. Two other ligands used extensively are tri-n-butylphosphine oxide (Bu $_3^n$ PO) and triphenylphosphine oxide (Ph $_3$ PO). Some other phosphine oxides have been used and are described. In the synergistic systems, β -diketones, pyrazolones, di(2-ethylhexyl)phosphoric acid and a few others are the reagents used for extraction, with phosphine oxides acting as the synergists. There are a few other cases with different synergistic combinations.

i. Elements of Groups IA and IIA. Topo (in benzene) extracts alkali metal iodides (MI, M = Li, Na, K, Cs) from the aqueous phase 1309. Alkali metal chlorides or bromides are not extracted. The difference is attributed to the lower solvation energy and higher metal—iodide covalency, which promote extraction of the alkali metal iodides. The extraction ability of topo is higher than that of tbp or diisoamyl methylphosphonate; the latter possess more electronegative RO groups bonded to phosphorus, which lowers their basicity. Also, tbp and related analogues have higher miscibilities with water, which lowers the effective reagent concentration.

The extraction of alkali metals (Li, Na, K, Cs) from basic media (pH > 9) with the synergistic pairs HA-R₃PO (HA = Htta, Hdbm; R = n-octyl, Ph, BuⁿO) in benzene followed the trend Li > Na > K > Cs^{1310,1311}. The separation factors, for example for Li/Na, varied as ~2000 (Hdbm-topo), 1000 (Hdbm-tbp), 100 (Hdbm-Ph₃PO) and ~10 (Hdbm). The extracted species had the composition [MAL₂] and the order of extraction was topo > tbp > Ph₃PO (e.g. for Li, log β = 7.55, 4.42 and 3.95, respectively). The larger size of Ph₃PO relative to the smaller Li⁺ appears to be responsible for this sequence, but the incomplete data on Ph₃PO prohibit comments on the other metals.

The fluorinated β -diketones RC(O)CH₂C(O)R' (R = CF₃, C₂F₅, C₃F₇; R' = CMe₃) and topo in benzene also showed selective extraction of lithium over the other alkali metals from neutral solutions; the selectivity of Li over Mg, Ca and Sr was poor¹³¹². For the C₃F₇C(O)CH₂C(O)CMe₃-topo pair, the separation factors were as follows:

Li/M: 1300 3800 3700 2500 0.019 0.067 1 M: Na K Rb Cs Mg Ca Sr

These Li/M values vary directly with the variation in the ionic radii. The extracted species was $[Li(A)(topo)_n]$ [n=1,2; A=anion of a β -diketone). A change of solvent affected the extraction sequence in the order: dodecane > xylene > CCl_4 > benzene $(K_{ex}=315,125,93)$ and 55, respectively). Interestingly, a 94% recovery of the lithium present in a brine sample (Li 0.080, Na 145, K 29 gl⁻¹) was readily obtained. Another β -diketone, nonyltrifluoroacetone, and topo (or Ph_3PO) in benzene extracted Li, Na, K and Cs synergistically¹³¹³.

The combinations α -acetyl-m-dodecylacetophenone (LIX 54)-topo and α -perfluoroalkanoyl-m-dodecylacetophenone (LIX 51)-topo extracted Li⁺ synergistically¹³¹⁴. The extracted species were [Li(A)(topo)_{1,3}] (HA = LIX 51 or LIX 54). The extraction performance of LIX 51-topo is 4.65×10^4 times higher than that of LIX 51 alone or LIX 54-topo. Only LIX 51-topo extracted Na⁺ {[NaA(topo)_{1,3}]} and the extractability of Na⁺ was much less than that of Li⁺.

The 4-acyl-5-pyrazolones with bulky substituents and topo are able to extract lithium quantitatively¹³¹⁵. As the general trend shows, Ph₃PO caused much less enhancement in the extraction. Similarly, the extraction of Na⁺ is enhanced by a mixture of the reagents, although the overall extraction is less than that of lithium. Topo caused an

increase in the extraction of Li⁺ (or K⁺) by dibenzo-18-crown ether or 18-crown-6 ethers¹³¹⁶.

Only a few studies have been reported for the alkaline earth metals. Topo (in kerosene) showed poor extraction of Ca^{2+} from nitrate media 1317 {as [Ca(NO₃)₂topo], $K_{ex} = 0.61$ } and also extraction from an HCl medium using Htta and topo {as [Ca(tta)₂(topo)₂]} was even less ($K_{ex} = 1.1 \times 10^{-2}$) 1318,1319 . The same appears to be true for Ph_3PO^{1320} . Significantly, N-phenylthioacetohydroxamic acid (HA) (in cyclohexane) showed no extraction of Ca^{2+} , but in the presence of topo the extraction was quantitative 1321 . The stability constant for the extracted species {as [CaA₂(topo)₂]} is 5.8×10^{11} , which explains the reason for the quantitative extraction of calcium. The pair 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-stearoyl pyrazol-5-one and topo (in benzene) extracted Ca^{2+} and Sr^{2+} from a citrate medium (pH 9)¹³²². This method was applied to the extraction and determination of strontium in solar salt samples.

Topo and a series of crown ethers, e.g. 12-crown-4, 15-crown-5 and benzo-15-crown-5, synergistically extracted calcium, rubidium and caesium as their picrates, [Mⁿ(ether)· (topo)] (picrate)_n $(n = 1,2)^{1323}$. The extractability of the rubidium complex was higher

than that of the caesium complex.

ii. Elements of Group IIIA. No extraction of aluminium has been reported. However, gallium(III) was extracted from chloride or HCl solution using topo, Ph_3PO and $Bz(p\text{-MeC}_6H_4)_2PO$ in an organic solvent and the extracted species was $[GaCl_3L]^{1324-1327}$. Indium(III) was extracted from HCl solutions with topo, Bu_3PO or tbp (in benzene and other solvents) and extraction followed the sequence topo $> Bu_3PO > tbp^{1328}$. It is surprising that Ph_3PO showed no extraction of indium¹³²⁸. Formation of $[InCl_3L_2]$ as the species was observed from $\le 6 \,\mathrm{M}\,HCl$, whereas $H[InCl_4L_2]$ was formed from concentrated HCl solutions.

From the chloride medium, the extraction of indium(III) with different ligands varied in the order $R_3PO > R_2(R'O)PO > R(R'O)_2PO > (R'O)_3PO$ (R and R' = alkyl)^{1329,1330}. The species extracted, [InCl₃L₂(H₂O)], was the same as that observed from HCl solution. The synergistic extraction of indium(III) was noted from ClO_4 medium with a bipyrazolone, viz. 4,4'-sebacoylbis(2,5-diphenyl-2*H*-pyrazol-3-one) and topo (in toluene)¹³³¹. However, no synergism was observed when 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-acylpyrazol-5-one (acyl = benzoyl, thenoyl, lauroyl) and topo in toluene were used¹³³². This observation can be regarded as an exception. Among the pyrazolones alone, benzoylpyrazolone was described as the best extractant. Another synergistic system for the extraction of indium(III) from sulphate medium is the combination of versatic 10 acid and topo (in benzene)¹³³³.

The only investigation of thallium(III) is its extraction with Bu₃PO from HCl-H₂SO₄

solutions, where the extracted species was H[TlCl₄L₃(H₂O)]¹³³⁴.

iii. Elements of Groups IVA-VIA. Topo (in CCl₄) extracted tin(II) as [SnCl₂(topo)₂] from HCl solution¹³³⁵ and it was observed that on varying the organic solvents, the extraction decreases on decreasing the polarity of the solvent:

Solvent:
$$PhNO_2 > PhMe > o-C_6H_4Me_2 > C_6H_6 > CCl_4$$

D 10.12 5.98 5.65 5.52 2.22

The solvents m-cresol and CHCl₃ showed very poor extraction (D=0.08 and 0.12 respectively). The extraction of tin(IV) from chloride media with Bu₃PO (in cyclohexane) involved the species $[SnCl_4L_m]$ (m=1,2)¹³³⁶. In contrast, tbp-type ligands showed poor extraction. Bis(2,4,4-trimethylpentyl)-n-octylphosphine oxide and tris-(2,4,4-trimethylpentyl)phosphine oxide ¹³³⁷ were found to be more selective than topo for the separation of Sn⁴⁺ from Zn²⁺, Cu²⁺, Pb²⁺, Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺.

Lead(II) was extracted with topo from NO $_3$ ⁻ media¹³³⁸. Topo also acted as a synergist in the extraction of lead(II) using Hpmtfp in cyclohexane (from NO $_3$ ⁻ medium)¹³³⁹; 1,1,1-trifluoro-5-methyl hexane-2,4-dione in xylene (from NaClO $_4$ medium)¹³⁴⁰ and htta in n-hexane (from NaSCN–NaClO $_4$ medium)¹³⁴¹. The topo–Hpmtfp combination¹³³⁹ gave > 98% extraction; Ca, Sr and Ba ions caused no interference in the extraction. In the topo–Htta system¹³⁴¹, several species, [Pb(ClO $_4$)₂L $_4$], [Pb(ClO $_4$)(SCN)L $_n$] (n=3,4) and [Pb(SCN)₂L $_3$] (L = topo), were detected in the organic phase. The extraction of NaSCN alone was poor, but [Pb(ClO $_4$)₂] has a high extractibility and thus the mixed species [Pb(ClO $_4$)(SCN)] were readily formed. Significantly, [Pb(ClO $_4$)(SCN)L $_3$] and [Pb(SCN)₂L $_3$] showed similar extraction ($K_{ex}=6.96$ and 7.48, respectively). This indicates the instability of [Pb(SCN)₂], making it prone to acquire a high solvation number (n=3). It is well known that stable MX $_2$ species form [MX $_2$ L $_2$]-type compounds¹³⁴².

Antimony(III) was extracted from 1–10 M HCl using Bu₃PO, topo or Ph₃PO (in benzene)¹³²⁸. The species extracted were [SbCl₃L] from ≥ 6 M HCl and H[SbCl₄L_m] (m=1,2) from 4–8 M HCl. There are reports of the extraction of bismuth(III) (from NO₃⁻ medium) with topo (neat)¹³³⁸ and selenium(IV) and tellurium(IV) (from Cl⁻ medium) with Ph₃PO¹³²⁰.

iv. Elements of Group IIIB. Topo–Hacac (in benzene or CCl_4) extracted scandium(III) present in trace amounts from aqueous $NaClO_4$ solution; it transferred to the organic layer as $[Sc(acac)(ClO_4)_2(topo)]^{1343}$. A series of organophosphorus reagents extracted scandium(III) and yttrium(III) from $NaNO_3$ solution as $[M(NO_3)_3L_2]$ ($L=R_3PO$, etc.; $R=alkyl)^{1344}$. The replacement of R by R'O successively reduced the extraction, as noted earlier. Topo and Ph_3PO both extracted scandium(III) as $[Sc(tta)_3L_2]^{49}$.

The ligands Bu₃PO, topo or R₃PO (R is a group containing C_7 – C_9 carbon atoms) and Ph₃PO extracted yttrium(III) from HNO₃ solutions as [Y(NO₃)₃L_m] m=1 or $3)^{1345-1347}$. Synergistic combinations Bu₃PO–Htta and topo–Hpmbp (in benzene) extracted yttrium(III) as [Y(tta)₃(Bu₃PO)₂] (from NO₃⁻ medium)¹³⁴⁸ or [Y(pmbp)₃· (topo)]¹³⁴⁹. The species extracted was[Y(pmtfp)₃L_m] (m=1,2) when topo–Hpmfp in benzene (from HClO₄ medium) was used¹³⁵⁰. Calorimetric and temperature-dependent studies of extraction methods showed that the synergistic effect was attributed to the replacement of coordinated H₂O by the topo molecule¹³⁵¹. A mixture of tbp and triisoalkylphosphine oxide or diisooctyl methylphosphonate and triisoalkylphosphine oxide also extracted yttrium(III) from Cl⁻–SCN⁻ medium¹³⁵². Bis(2-ethylhexyl)ethylphosphine oxide¹³⁵³ or a mixture of R₃PO (R = n-Hex) and topo (60:40)¹³⁵⁴ in kerosene is able to separate yttrium(III) quantitatively from aqueous nitrate solutions of rare earths. Here yttrium(III) is left in the aqueous phase.

v. Elements of Group IVB. Bu_3PO (in cyclohexane) is reported to extract titanium(IV) from Cl^- medium (as $[TiCl_4L_m]$; $m=1,2)^{1336}$, but extraction from HCl or H_2SO_4 solutions with topo was greatly enhanced by the addition of NH_4SCN and the method could be used to determine titanium spectrophotometrically 1355,1356 . The intense yellow species $[Ti(SCN)_4L]$ (L=topo) absorbed at $\lambda_{max}=432$ nm. A number of metal ions tested {iron(III), uranium(VI), cerium(III), platinum(IV), etc.} did not interfere. The presence of NO_3^- ions was detrimental to the system as it decomposed the thiocyanate complex. Topo (in kerosene) can extract titanium from ore leach 1357 . The extraction is carried out after treatment of the acid leach of Ti–Fe ore with a chloride of Na, K, Mg or NH_4 .

Topo (in cyclohexane) ensured the quantitative scparation of zirconium(IV) from uranium(VI) and iron(III) and iron(III)¹³⁵⁸ (from SCN⁻ mcdium). Titanium, as expected, interfered. Uranium(VI), which is normally extracted from 7 M HCl, was suppressed in

the presence of SCN $^-$ ions. For separating zirconium from hafnium by this method, the addition of $\rm H_2SO_4$ to the aqueous phase enhanced the separation 1359.1360. Zirconium forms stronger complexes with $\rm SO_4^{\ 2^-}$ ions than hafnium does, whereas for hafnium the order is the reverse with SCN $^-$ or OH $^-$ ions. Further, the addition of HCl inhibited the separation, as the chloro complexes of both were extracted equally by the organic layer.

Topo (in cyclohexane) could be used to determine zirconium(IV) in Cl⁻ medium by an extractive spectrophotometric method involving addition of pyrocatechol (ethanol) direct to the organic extract¹³⁵⁸ ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 655$ nm; sensitivity = 1×10^{-6} g ml⁻¹ zirconium). The method is useful even in the presence of large amounts of Al, U, V, Fe, Cr and Th (moderate). However, Ti, Hf and Mo interferred. PO₄³⁻ and SO₄²⁻ in low concentrations

do not interfere; in the presence of NO₃⁻, U, Th and Hf interfere.

Using topo in cyclohexane, the D value for zirconium was 1000 (from 7 m HCl), 478 (from 7 m HNO₃) and 10 (from 1 m HCl or HNO₃ solutions)¹³⁶¹⁻¹³⁶². An enhancement in extraction occurred on addition of Cl⁻ or NO₃⁻ salts of uni-, bi- or tri-valent metals. The extracted species were [ZrCl₄L₂] and [Zr(NO₃)₄L₂] with >99% extraction. It was possible to separate zirconium from hafnium and niobium¹³⁶³. The extraction from HClO₄ solutions was less and was also low from H₂SO₄ or HF solutions. Whereas interference from tartrate was small, EDTA in sufficient amount prevented extraction^{1362,1364}. The behaviour of Bu₃PO was similar¹³⁶⁵. At >8 m HNO₃ concentration, the species [Zr(NO₃)₄(L)₂]xHNO₃·yH₂O was formed. The topo-Htta pair probably formed [Zr(tta)₄(topo)] species in the extraction of zirconium(IV) from HNO₃ medium¹³⁶¹. On variation of the substituents in R₂R'PO in the system R₂R'PO-HNO₃(R,R' = Me to C₈H₁₇ and Ph)¹³⁶⁶, the distribution coefficient increases with decreasing B (where $B = \Sigma H/\Sigma C$, ΣH and ΣC being the sums of the number of H and C atoms, respectively, in the extractant) until R and R' are C₈H₁₇. Branching of the chain decreases D, although the reverse effect would be expected on the basis of electrophilicity and solubility considerations.

In the extraction of hafnium(IV) from a mixture of acids (≥ 3 M HClO₄ + HNO₃ or 5 M HClO₄ + HCl) using Htta, Hpmbp or N-benzoyl-N-phenylhydroxylamine in benzene, CHCl₃ or n-octane, Ph₃PO, topo and tbp acted as synergists ^{1367,1368}. The order of synergistic effect was topo > Ph₃PO > tbp. Bu₃PO, however caused no synergism. Hafnium forms mixed complexes and HClO₄ has a considerable salting-out effect. No synergism occurred when a mixture of HClO₄ and H₂SO₄ was used.

vi. Elements of Group VB. The pairs $R_3PO-Htta$ (in cyclohexane) and $R_3PO-dithizone$ (H_2dz) (in benzene) (R=n-butyl and n-octyl) extracted vanadium(IV,V) from aqueous solutions ($pH\approx 4.1$)¹³⁶⁹⁻¹³⁷². Various species were identified [VO₂(tta)L], [VO₂(Hdz)(tbpo)] (A) and [VOOH(Hdz)(topo)] (B). A was stable for 1 h whereas the colour of B faded during the standing time, probably owing to the dimerization

$2VOOH(Hdz)(topo) \rightleftharpoons (Hdz)VO(topo)(\mu-OH)_2V(O)(Hdz)(topo)$

 $\rm H_2 dz$ alone showed poor extraction. In the $\rm R_3 PO-H_2 dz$ system, topo gave a higher extraction than $\rm Bu_3^n PO$ ($K_{\rm ex}=10^{2.5}$ for topo, 3×10^2 for $\rm Bu_3^n PO$). Topo-Hpmtfp (in cyclohexane) showed incomplete extraction of $\rm VO_2^+$ from aqueous solution (pH $1.5-2.8)^{1339}$. A mixture of trialkylphosphine oxides ($\rm R_3 PO$) in kerosene extracted vanadium(IV) or vanadium(V) from low pH (1.0-2.5) solutions 1373 . On increasing the concentration of vanadium in the solution, the extraction maximum shifted to the low pH range and metavanadic acid, [$\rm HVO_3(R_3 PO)_2$], transferred to the organic layer.

Topo (in cyclohexane) separated tantalum(V) from aqueous HCl solution and this separation was more complete than that of zirconium from hafnium¹³⁶³. Similarly, niobium(V) was separated from Ti(SO₄)₂ solution¹³⁷⁴. For high niobium extraction, the

addition of HCl or HF was necessary. Topo and $R_2R'PO(R,R'=Me$ to C_8H_{17} and Ph) have been used to extract Nb and Ta from different media: HNO_3^{1366} , $HF-H_2SO_4^{1375}$ and HCl, HF, $HClO_4^{1364}$.

vii. Elements of Group VIB. The extraction of these metals has been possible only when present in their hexavalent state, although a recent report reveals that the extraction of chromium(III) can be achieved by a cooperative action of light (photoreduction) and topo on chromium(VI) species ¹³⁷⁶. The back-extraction of chromium(III) was also promoted by photoirradiation. Except for this, all other studies require oxidation of the metal to its hexavalent state prior to extraction. For example, while extracting chromium(III) from concentrated NaCl or KCl solutions using topo (in benzene) ¹³⁷⁷, it was oxidized to the chromium(VI) state with silver oxide solution in H₂SO₄ (or bromine water when HCl is present). By this procedure, the extraction is feasible at the microgram level (diphenylcarbazide in ethanol was added to the organic layer for the determination of chromium).

Chromium(VI) has been extracted from different solutions (1M MX; M = H, Na; X = Cl, ClO_4 , NO_3)¹³⁷⁸ by forming hydrogen-bonded species $H_2[CrO_4L_2]$, $H_2[CrO_4(HX)L_m]$ and $H_2[CrO_4(HX)_2L_m]$ (n = 2 for ClO_4^- , NO_3^- and 3 for Cl^- ions; L = topo). The greatest extraction was obtained from the ClO_4^- medium: $ClO_4^- > Cl^- \approx NO_3^- > SO_4^{-2-}$. It was demonstrated that Ph_3PO could separate chromium(VI) from solutions of iron(III), yttrium(III), gold(III) and molybdenum(VI) in mineral acids¹³⁴⁵.

A series of organophosphorus reagents, R_3PO (R = octyl, isopentyl and Ph), extracted molybdenum(VI) from mineral acid solutions ^{1345,1379,1380}. The species, for instance, from aqueous HCl was $[MoO_2Cl_2L_2]$. High separation factors from Cr, Au and Fe were observed with Ph_3PO^{1345} . Topo showed significant synergism when molybdenum(VI) was extracted from various mineral acids using H_2 dehp¹³⁸¹. The greatest extraction (D > 1000) was observed from 3.5 M HCl solutions (HCl > $H_2SO_4 > HNO_3$). Bu_3PO-H_2 dchp selectively extracted molybdenum when present as an impurity in tungsten produced from impure scheelite and related ores¹³⁸².

Using topo (in kerosene) tungsten(VI) was extracted from mineral acids in the sequence $HCl > H_2SO_4 > NO_3$ (D > 250, ≈ 50 , low, respectively ¹³⁸³. Topo-Adogen-381 and tricaprylmethylammonium chloride in xylene quantitatively separated [WO₄]²⁻ from [ReO₄]⁻ when present in mineral acids ¹³⁸⁴.

viii. Elements of Group VIIB. Topo-Hpmtfp (in cyclohexanc) extracted manganese(II) quantitatively (>98%) from aqueous solutions (pH 1.5–2.8)¹³³⁹. The extraction of manganese(II) with a series of reagents, Topo- β -diketones (Hacac, Htfa, Hhfa, Hba and Hbfa) in CCl₄ from ClO₄ solutions was poor for various practical purposes except with Hba¹³⁸⁵. Topo-Htta extracted manganese(II) as [Mn(tta)₂topo]¹³⁸⁶. A less common non-aqueous system involves the extraction of manganese(II) from ethylene glycol with topo (in cyclohexane or toluene) in the presence of 10^{-3} – 10^{-2} M HCl¹³⁸⁷. The addition of LiCl had a salting-out effect.

Technetium(VII) was extracted from $(NH_4)[TcO_4]$ -HCl solution with a series of phosphine oxides (in benzene or cyclohexane) in the sequence $R_3PO > tbp > Ph_3PO$ (R = n-butyl, n-octyl, n-hcxyl, n-dccyl, 2-ethylhexyl) 1326,1388,1389 . The highest percentage extraction was 85% with R_3PO . The hydrogen-bonded (L)HTcO₄ appears to be the

extracted species and Ph₃PO shows the weakest hydrogen bonding.

Rhenium(IV) was quantitatively extracted from aqueous 3-4 M HCl (HBr) using Bu₃PO (in CCl₄) and the formation of (Bu₃PO)₃(H₃O)₂[ReX₆] was established¹³⁹⁰. A similar species, (R₃PO)₂(H₃O)[ReO₄] was suggested when rhenium(VII) was extracted from aqueous HCl using topo (in C₆H₆, CCl₄, etc.)¹³⁹¹⁻¹⁹⁹³. As expected, the extraction with phosphine sulphides and sclenides was poor (R₃PO > R₃PS > R₃PSe; R = *n*-octyl).

A method for the quantitative separation of $[ReO_4]^-$ from $[WO_4]^{2-}$ was mentioned in the previous section ¹³⁸⁴. Pure $(NH_4)_2[ReO_4]$ was obtained from H_2SO_4 solution containing molybdate ions using topo and by varying the basicity of the amines ¹³⁹⁴. $[ReO_4]^{2-}$ and $[MoO_4]^{2-}$ were stripped stepwise by adjustment of the pH of NH_4^+ -containing solutions.

ix. Elements of Group VIII. *Iron sub-group*. Topo extracted iron(III) from 4 m HCl (or $1 \text{ m HCl} + 3 \text{ m NaCl})^{1395}$ and $SCN^--HNO_3^{294}$ quantitatively. The nature of the species was probably $[FeX_3L_n]$ (n=1,3;X=Cl,NCS). Other investigations have involved the extraction of trace Fe^{1396} , the removal of iron from organic leaches and the separation of iron from aluminium and zinc Table 19). Synergistic combinations of topo-Hdbm (in benzene) or topo-Hpmtfp (in cyclohexane) quantitatively extracted iron(II) from aqueous solutions of pH 6-7 and 1.5-2.8, respectively. The topo-Hdbm system was used for the determination of iron(II) in spring water (sensitivity $0.0047 \, \mu \text{g cm}^{-3}$ of iron). The complex extracted, $[Fe(dbm)_2(topo)_2]$, absorbed at λ_{max} 408 nm. Zinc(II), lead(II), chromium(III), tin(II), PO_4^{3-} , CN^- and citrate all interferred; $S_2O_3^{2-}$, F^- and tartrate were used to mask the interference of copper(II), aluminium(III) and manganese(II), respectively.

Similarly, Hacac-topo (in cyclohexane)(I)¹⁴⁰⁶, topo-Htta (in benzene)(II)¹⁴⁰⁷⁻¹⁴⁰⁹ topo-H₂dehp (in kerosene)(III)¹⁴¹⁰ and Ph₃PO-Hacac (in CHCl₃)(IV)¹⁴¹¹ extracted iron(III) from perchlorate, chloride, sulphate and thiocyanate solutions, respectively. In system I, the presence of ClO₄⁻ was necessary to produce synergism and the presence of NO₃⁻ or SO₄²⁻ showed poor extraction. The extracted species was [Fe(acac)₂(topo)₂]-(ClO₄). In system II, maximum extraction occurred at pH 2.63 and at higher pH the extraction decreased. Also, it was observed that with Htta in benzene alone, the extraction

TABLE 19. Extraction of iron(III) using tertiary phosphine oxides

	System	Comments and extracted species	Ref.
1	topo-NaSCN	Extraction of trace Fe, but extraction non-quantitative	1396
2	topo- C_6H_6 -($HCl + H_2SO_4$)	Simultaneous removal of Fe (2.43%), Cu(0.4%), Cd(7.65%) and Zn(74.2%) from a leached powdered residue from zinc smelting	1399, 1400
3	$\begin{array}{l} topo-CCl_4 \; (or \; C_6H_{12})-NaClO_4 \\ (or \; NaClO_4+NaX, \; X=Cl, \; Br) \end{array}$	Extraction is increased with added X^- ions and was pH dependent [Fe(topo) ₄ (ClO ₄) ₃]	1402, 1403
4	topo-amines-(octan-2-ol)- SO ₄ ²⁻ (pH 1-2)	Separation was possible even in the presence of Al and Zn	1397
5	topo (or $R_2R'PO$, $R = n$ -hexyl, $R' = n$ -octyl)-Acid	Iron (≥ 1 g l ⁻¹) was removed from organic leaches obtained from phosphate minerals containing uranium(VI)	1396
6	Ph ₃ PO-C ₆ H ₆ -mineral acids	Iron separation from chromium(VI), molybdenum(VI), yttrium(III) and gold(III)	1320, 1345
		H-bonded species, (Ph ₃ PO·H)[FeCl ₄] suggested	1404
7	R ₃ PO-xylene-NaCl (R = Ph, alkyl)	Phenyl substituent on P showed lower extraction than alkyl substituent. Species FeCl ₃ (R ₃ PO) ₂ ·H ₂ O was formed	1329, 1330

rate was very slow^{1408,1409} and the addition of topo enhanced both the rate and the extent of extraction. In system III, the extraction was quantitative (>98%). In system IV¹⁴¹¹, the extraction was quantitative and selective in the presence of the ions tested, chromium(III), manganese(II), cobalt(II), nickel(II), zinc(II), CH₃COO⁻, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻; however, copper(II) interferred. Multiple extractions were needed for chromium, nickel and zinc when Cl⁻ was the anion, whereas in all other cases a single extraction was sufficient to remove iron quantitatively from the aqueous SCN⁻ medium (pH 2.7–2.8). The synergistic species identified was [Fe(NCS)(acac)₂(Ph₃PO)]. Extraction with Ph₃PO alone was poor. The method was suitable for the extractive determination of iron in steel samples^{1411b}.

Ruthenium(III) was extracted with topo or Oct_3^iPO in *n*-hexane from an acidic solution of the nitroso complex, $Na_2[Ru(NO)(NO_2)_4(OH)]^{1412}$, but the extraction was lower than that of the chlororuthenium complexes ¹⁴¹³. In extracting ruthenium(III) from 2 M HCl with topo or Bu_3PO in $CHCl_3$, the addition of *n*-octanol or cyclohexanol lowered the extraction on account of their hydrogen-bonded interaction with R_3PO , thus lowering

the effective concentration of the reagents 1414.

Osmium(III) was extracted from HCl or HBr media using topo, tbp, etc., as their halide complexes¹⁴¹⁵, and higher extraction was achieved from HBr over HCl and with

topo in place of other reagents.

Cobalt sub-group. The alkyl ligand Bu_3^nPO extracted cobalt(II) from a mixture of aqueous HCl, LiCl and $CaCl_2$ solutions and the extraction follows a hydration–solvation mechanism, forming $[(M^{x+}\cdot mH_2O)_{2/x}\cdot n'Bu_3PO][CoCl_4]$ (where x=1 for HCl and LiCl and 2 for $CaCl_2$, and m and n' are hydration and solvation numbers, respectively ¹⁴¹⁶. Similarly, topo extracted cobalt(II) from LiCl, KSCN, HCl and HNCS solutions. It showed higher extraction than Alamine 336-S from acid-deficient systems, but lower extraction from acid-rich solutions ^{1326,1417}. Extraction of cobalt(II) with tris(2,6-dimethylphenyl)phosphine oxide perchlorate ($R_3POH^+ClO_4^-$) in CHCl₃ was poor ¹⁴¹⁸.

Topo-Hpmbp (in benzene)¹⁴¹⁹ and topo-Hpmtfp (in hexane)¹³³⁹ extracted cobalt(II) quantitatively (>98%) from acidic media (pH 4.9-6.0 and 1.5-2.8, respectively). A series of other β-diketone-R₃PO systems which extract cobalt(II) under different conditions are topo-Htta (in different organic solvents; pH 5.1)1420 and R₃PO-Htta (or Hhfa, Hpvta, Hbfa, Hacac, Hba and Htfa) (R = n-butyl, n-octyl or phenyl) (in benzene 1421,1422, CCl₄ ¹⁴²³, cyclohexane ^{1424a} or ClO₄ medium). The extracted species was generally $[CoA_2L]^{1420-1423}$ (A = anion of chelating ligand; L = organophosphorus reagent), although the formation of [CoA₂L₂] (HA = Htfa, Hbfa, Hhfa) in CCl₄ ¹⁴²⁴ has also been reported. Some other conclusions drawn are: (a) the stabilities of the cobalt(II) adducts decrease in the sequence topo > Bu₃PO > tbp > n-hexanol, which corresponds to the order of basicity of the Lewis bases¹⁴²¹; (b) the sequence of the extraction constants and adduct formation constants is Htta > Hhfa > Hpvta1422; and (c) Topo-Hbfa (in cyclohexane)1424a could be used for the extractive-spectrophotometric microdetermination of cobalt(II) (≤ 20 ppm) ($\lambda_{max} = 380$ nm for [Co(bfa)₂topo]). Copper(II), nickel(II), iron(III), manganese(II), EDTA, citric acid and larger amounts of lead(II), strontium(II), chromium(III) and bismuth(III) interfere in the determination, however.

Recently, Hpmbp and topo (or dpmO₂, dpeO₂) extracted synergistically cobalt(II), nickel(II), zinc(II) and cadmium(II), forming [M(pmbp)₂(topo)_n] (n=2 for Co, Ni and 1 for Zn) and [M(pmbp)₂L] (L = dpmO₂ or dpeO₂)^{1424b}. Other synergistic systems studied are R₃PO-quinolin-8-ol¹⁴²⁵ (R = n-butyl or octyl), topo-4-methyl-N-8-quinolinylbenzenesulphonamide¹⁴²⁶, topo-resacetophenone oxime¹⁴²⁷ and R₃PO-phosphinic acid (R = alkyl)¹⁴²⁸. The species identified is [CoA₂L]; the order of extraction in the quinolin-8-ol system is topo > Bu₃PO > tbp¹⁴²⁵. In the phosphinic acid system,

the addition of R₃PO enhanced the separation of cobalt and nickel¹⁴²⁸.

A mixture of quinolin-8-ol (HQ) and triphenylphosphine oxide (Ph₃PO) showed

synergism of 10–12% in the extraction of cobalt(II) compared with the use of HQ alone 1429. At the synergic point, cobalt(II) was separated from its binary mixtures with chromium(III), silver(I), mercury(II), magnesium(II) or aluminium(III) with a recovery of over 97%. Mercury(II) and silver(I) were transferred to the organic layer together with cobalt(II) and zinc(II) and this was sorted out by stripping the organic layer with concentrated HCl, which released cobalt(II) to the aqueous layer. Further stripping of the organic layer with concentrated. HNO₃ facilitated the release of mercury(II) or silver(I) to the aqueous layer. The extraction was at a maximum in the pH range 4.0–10.0 and poor at pH 2.0. In cobalt(II) extraction with S-tert-dodecylthioglycolic acid (HA), topo or tbp inhibited the extraction; this represents the only example where no synergism was observed 1430. Hydrogen-bonded interaction of HA with R₃PO, which would lower the concentration of HA, might be responsible for the observed difference.

Investigations with rhodium and iridium are few: topo-trichloroacetic acid (or pentadecafluorooctanoic acid) in benzene quantitatively and rapidly extracted rhodium(III) as $[Rh(A)_3(topo)_4]$ (A = anion of the acid)¹⁴³¹⁻¹⁴³². H₂dehp showed a similar extraction, but topo caused no enhancement¹⁴³¹. R₃PO-C₆H₆ (R = alkyl) was employed for the extraction of rhodium and iridium from 4 M HCl solution prior to the determination of the micro amounts of rhodium present in large amounts of iridium in

an anodic stripping voltammetric method 1433.

Nickel sub-group. Topo-hexane extracted nickel(II) from aqueous SCN^--ClO_4 medium¹⁴³⁴, although the extraction was less than that of cobalt(II) from solutions with high concentrations of SCN^- ions. From ClO_4^- alone, the extraction of both metals was similar. The formation of various species in the organic phase, namely $[Ni(ClO_4)_2L_4]$, $(Ni(NCS)(ClO_4)L_4]$ and $[Ni(NCS)_2L_4]$ for nickel(II) and $[Co(ClO_4)_2L_3]$, $[Co(NCS)_4]$, $[Co(NCS)_4]$, $[Co(NCS)_4]$, $[Co(NCS)_4]$, $[Co(NCS)_4]$, and $[Co(NCS)_4]$ for cobalt(II), was established 1435. Other extraction studies have been made with topo 1338 and $[Co(NCS)_4]$ from aqueous chloride media.

The quantitative extraction of nickel(II) was achieved with topo—Hpmtfp in cyclohexane from aqueous solution (pH 1.5–2.8)¹³³⁹. Other synergistic systems used for the extraction of nickel(II) include topo—[4-(2-pyridylazo)resorcinol]¹⁴³⁶, topo—(Kelex 100 and 8-sulphonamidoquinolines) in chlorobenzene¹⁴³⁷ and topo—β-diketones (Htta, Hacac, Hba, Htfa, Hbfa or Hhfa) in CCl₄ from perchlorate medium^{1435,1438–1443}. Table 20 gives a summary of the extraction data for nickel(II), cobalt(II) and copper(II). The extraction of cobalt(II) and nickel(II) with Hacac or Hacac—topo was poor; likewise, extraction with Htfa and Hhfa was poor, but the addition of topo enhanced the extraction to a measurable extent. From Table 20, a number of conclusions may be drawn: (a) the stability constants of nickel(II) chelates in the aqueous phase are generally higher than those of cobalt(II) chelates but lower than those of copper(II) chelates; (b) the partition constants of nickel(II) chelates are one tenth to one thirtieth of those of cobalt(II) chelates and much lower than those of copper(II) chelates; and (c) the adduct formation constants are similar. The higher hydration of nickel(II) and cobalt(II) is responsible for their low partition coefficients.

Topo-cyclohexane (in CHCl₃, mibk or 2,2'-dichlorodiethyl ether) mixtures are useful in the mutual separation of palladium, platinum and gold from aqueous HX (X = Cl, Br)¹⁴⁴⁴. Other reagents used for extraction studies are topo-R₃PO (in toluene or decanol)^{1445,1446} for palladium and platinum from HCl (I), topo-molten diphenyl for palladium and platinum from HCl (or HNO₃)¹⁴⁴⁷ (II), topo-R₃PO for palladium from HNO₃ (III)¹⁴⁴⁸ and topo-toluene for platinum from HCl(IV)^{1449a}. For system I, maximum extraction (as [MCl₂L₂]) was observed at 5 M HCl, and an increase in the length of the hydrocarbon chain of the alkyl substituent increased the extraction¹⁴⁴⁵. Significantly, topo showed lower extraction than the corresponding phosphine sulphides. When > 20% of topo with decanol was used, the extraction was same as that when topo

TABLE 20. Summary of data for extraction of cobalt(II), nickel(II) and β-diketone-topo system^a

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Reagent	M	$\log \beta_1$ (aq.)	$\log \beta_2$ (aq.)	Log D	$\log \beta_1$ (org.)	$\log \beta_2$ (org.)
Hacac	Co	_	_	-0.94	1.46	NC^b
	Ni	_	_	-2.25	2	NC
	Cu	7.81	14.22	0.83	1.28	NC
Hba	Co	4.55	8.14	1.37	3.44	NC
	Ni	4.41	9.86	-0.14	3.50	NC
Htfa	Co	3.50	5.60	-2.14	5.36	7.76
	Ni	3.74	6.68	-3.25	5.50	8
	Cu	4.80	9.14	1.40	2.96	NC
Hbfa	Co	3.40	5.24	2.06	6.15	9.34
	Ni	3.60	6.68	0.76	5.19	8.98
Hhfa	Co	1.56	2.32	-1.02	5.19	10.58
	Ni	1.90	3.10	-2.1	5.80	10.50
	Cu	2.25	3.20	1.39	5.63	9.36

^aData from refs. 1438-1441.

alone was used ¹⁴⁴⁶. Hence for the lower topo concentration, decanol had a synergistic effect. In system II, the *D* value was nearly same for palladium and platinum from HCl (Pd 126, Pt 123), but from HNO₃, *D* was higher for platinum(II) (107) than palladium(II) (6.7)¹⁴⁴⁷. There was no extraction from H₂SO₄ medium. System III showed a higher extraction for palladium with phosphine oxides over phosphonates or phosphates ¹⁴⁴⁸. Various species identified were [Pd(NO₃)₂L₂]·nH₂O (n = 0, 2, 4). System IV showed a high extraction of platinum(IV), probably because the extraction steps involve a solvating mechanism (K_{ex} = 2.6 × 10³ dm³ mol⁻¹); in contrast, rhodium(III) showed poor extraction.

x. Elements of Group IB. Extraction studies for copper(II) with phosphine oxides alone are scarce. Thus, although topo showed extraction of copper(II) from Cl⁻ medium¹³³⁸, there was no extraction from HCl, $\rm H_2SO_4$ or $\rm HNO_3^{1447}$. As a result, phosphine oxides are mainly used as synergists in the extraction of copper(II) with different reagents. Various synergistic systems used for the extraction of copper(II) include topo- β -diketones (Htta, Htfa, Hhfa, Hacac or Htfma) in benzene^{1449b,1450-1453}, *n*-hexane⁴⁴⁹ or xylene(I)¹³⁴⁰, topo-Hpmap in benzene and other solvents (II)¹⁴⁵⁴ and topo (or Ph₃PO)-benzeneazo-2-naphthol(HA) from NaOAc-HOAc (pH, 5.5)¹⁴⁵⁵ (III) (no synergism). From system I, the order of extraction efficiency of the β -diketones was inferred from D values to be Htta > Hhfa > Htfa > Hacac^{449,1449b}. The lower D value for Hhfa than for Htta is attributed to the solubility of [Cu(HFA)₂·2H₂O in water¹⁴⁵⁰. Topo-Hacac showed no synergism, probably owing to the low stability of the adduct¹⁴⁵¹. Interestingly, the formation constants for

$$CuA_2 + TOPO \stackrel{K}{\rightleftharpoons} CuA_2 (TOPO)$$

in benzene¹⁴⁵² supported the above sequence [HA, K (lmol⁻¹): Htta, 1700; Htfa, 940; Hacac, 45). For the Htta-topo system¹⁴⁵⁰, it was observed that copper(II) showed a higher value for the equilibrium constant for the reaction

$$M^{2+} + 2HTTA + TOPO \stackrel{K}{\Longrightarrow} M(TTA)_2(TOPO)^+ + 2H^+$$

than zinc(II) (K: Cu, 1800; Zn, 0.1).

^bNo complex.

Another observation for system $I(topo-Htta-C_6H_6)^{1453}$ is that higher topo concentrations destroyed the synergism owing to (Htta.topo) adduct formation and to increased $TOPO\cdots H_2O$ interaction, which increases the amount of H_2O in the organic layer, which in turn would compete with TOPO for adduct formation with $[Cu(tta)_2]$. For system II, it was observed that the extraction constant increases monotonously with a decrease in temperature $(37-7\,^{\circ}C)^{1454}$. For system III, the decrease in the formation constants of $[CuA_2]$ with increasing solubility of H_2O in the solvent indicates the lack of any H_2O in the coordination sphere of the extracted complex¹⁴⁵⁵. This explains the lack of synergism when topo or Ph_3PO was added to benzeneazo-2-naphthol solution for extraction. The species extracted were generally of the type $[CuA_2L]$ (A = anion of the chelating ligand; L = organophosphorus reagent).

Recently, silver(I) was extracted using Ph_3PO in $CHCl_3$ from the aqueous phase (pH 6, HoAc-NaOH buffer)¹⁴⁵⁶. A number of ions tested (Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Sn, Pb, Mg, Al, Cr, Fe, NO_3^- , CH_3COO^- , SO_4^{2-}) did not interfere, but mercury(II) did interfere. The extracted species was established as $[Ag(Ph_3PO)_n(NO_3)]$ (n=1, 3 depending on Ph_3PO concentration). Silver(I) was synergistically extracted with dibenzo-18-crown-

6-topo¹⁴⁵⁷ and the species was [Ag(E) (topo)]⁺ (picrate)⁻ (E = crown ether).

Unlike copper(II), there have been several investigations of gold(III) extraction with tertiary phosphine oxides, namely topo in C_6H_6 (or CHCl₃, CCl₄, PhMe, C_6H_{12} or isooctane) from HCl solutions 1391,1392,1445 , topo in CCl₄ from hydrohalic acids (gold present in traces) topo in molten diphenyl from HCl, H_2SO_4 or HNO₃ and Ph_3PO in C_6H_6 1345,1458,1459 . From these studies, it was concluded that (a) gold was generally extracted as a hydrogen-bonded ion-pair species, $(R_3PO)_nHAuCl_4$ (n=1, $2)^{1391,1392,1445}$, or $H_3O^+\cdot 3R_3PO\cdot yH_2O\cdots [AuX_4]^-$ ($0 \le y \le 3$) (R=Ph, n-octyl; $X=Cl, Br)^{1459,1460}$; (b) the separation factors for Au, Mo, Cr and Fe are fairly good for mutual separations 1345 ; (c) the maximum D was at 4 M acid concentration and its value increased from 3.53 to 10.32 on changing trihexylphosphine oxide to topo; D was also at a maximum when the number of carbons atoms in the extractant was between 23 and 24; the introduction of an electron-withdrawing group lowered the value of D^{1445} ; in contrast, the tertiary phosphine sulphides were found to be better extractants than the phosphine oxides; and (d) the extraction of gold(III) from HCl or H_2SO_4 with topo in the diphenyl system 1447 was higher than that from HNO₃ ($D>10^3$ versus 86.4). The tendency of HNO₃ to be extracted with R_3PO appears to be responsible for this apparent difference. Significantly, the topo-diphenyl pair showed no extraction of silver(I) 1447 .

Bis(2-ethylhexyl)dithiophosphate and topo in toluene extracted silver and gold simultaneously from copper- or bismuth-containing materials prior to their determina-

tion by atomic absorption spectrometry 1461.

xi. Elements of Group IIB. Topo in C_6H_{12} extracted zinc(II) from NaX–NaClO₄ (X = Cl, Br, I) solutions¹³⁴². A variety of extracted species such as $[Zn(ClO_4)_2(topo)_4]$, ZnX (ClO₄)(topo)₃] and $[ZnX_2$ (topo)₂] were identified, and the extraction decreased in the sequence $I^- > Br^- > Cl^-$ ($K_{ex} = 6.12$, 4.51 and 3.64, respectively). The higher covalent bonding character of iodide and its hydrophobic nature increased the extraction of ZnI_2 complexes over other zinc(II) halide complexes. From SCN⁻ media, zinc(II) showed enhanced extraction as $[Zn(NCS)_2$ (topo)₂]¹⁴⁶². The difference is attributed to the greater stability of $Zn(NCS)_2$ species over ZnX_2 in the aqueous phase.

The extraction of zinc(II) from molten KSCN at 195 °C with R₃PO in phenanthroline decreased in the order topo > $Ph_3PO > (Me_2N)_3PO > bipy (K_{ex} = 3.80, 3.20, 2.0 and 1.60, respectively), the extracted species being [ZnL_n(NCS)₂]{n = 2 for topo, (Me₂N)₃PO,$

3 for Ph₃PO and 1 for bipy}¹⁴⁶³.

Using tertiary phosphine oxides, other extraction systems for zinc(II) are topo in PhMe from HCl or Cl $^-$ medium 1326,1338,1464,1465 , topo in C $_6$ H $_6$ from 3 M HCl + 1 M

 $\rm H_2SO_4^{-1466}$ or $\rm 4\,M\,H_2SO_4$ (I)¹⁴⁶⁷, R₃PO-xylene from Cl⁻ media (II)^{1329,1330} and topo in toluene or decalin from glycol or MeOH-H₂O phases containing Cl⁻ and ClO₄⁻ ions (III)^{1468,1469}. System I showed a higher recovery of zinc(II) over cadmium(II) (79.5% versus 2.6%). Here water was used as the stripping agent instead of the acids or bases commonly employed. Similarly, system II showed excellent selectivity for zinc(II) over iron(II), copper(II) and lead(II) and moderately good selectivity over iron(III); as usual the extraction decreased in the sequence $\rm R_3PO > R_2(R'O)PO > R(R'O)_2PO > (R'O)_3PO$. System III showed an extraction order for the glycols of propylene glycol > ethylene glycol > ethylene glycol-water.

Topo–Htta (or Hhfa) extracted zinc(II) from HClO₄ solution as $[ZnA_2(topo)_n]$ (⁶⁵Zn tracer study) (n=1 for Htta and 1,2 for Hhfa)^{449,1450}. The extraction constants (K_{ex}) followed the sequence $[Zn(Hfa)_2(topo)] > [Zn(tta)_2(topo)] > [Zn(tta)_2(topo)] > [Zn(tta)_2]$ ($K_{ex} = 1000, 12, 0.1$ and 8.5×10^{-10} , respectively). The excess of topo destroyed the synergism in the case of Hhfa system, which was avoided when the aqueous phase was buffered with acetate (pH 5). The fluorinated β -diketones showed a higher extraction of zinc(II) owing to the increased stability of topo adducts with zinc(II) chelates ¹⁴⁷⁰. As expected, a CF₃ group in β -diketones increases the Lewis acidity of the zinc(II) chelates.

Distribution studies on $[Zn(tta)_2(topo)]^{1471}$ revealed that the order of extraction in a series of organic solvents(S) decreased in the order hexane > cyclohexane > $CCl_4 > C_6H_6 > CHCl_3$ (D=0.175, 0.135, 0.051, 0.028 and 0.0003, respectively). The addition of water to the Zn^{II} -Htta-topo system lowers the extraction as topo is replaced from $[Zn(tta)_2(topo)]$ by H_2O forming $[Zn(tta)_2(2H_2O)]$. Addition of topo increases the extraction again. Other β -diketone- R_3PO systems for zinc(II) extraction are topo (or Ph_3PO)-Hbfa (or Hpvta) in C_6H_6 from ClO_4 medium^{1472,1473} (I), topo (or Ph_3PO)-Hbfa (or thiobenzoyltrifluoroacetone) in Ph_4 from Ph_4 from Ph_4 from Ph_4 had in Ph_4 from Ph_4 from

Pyrazolone-R₃PO and other combinations that have been used for the extraction of zinc(II) are topo-Hpmsp in C_6H_6 (I)¹⁴⁷⁶, topo-Hpmbp in different organic solvents¹⁴⁷⁷, topo-Hpmtp in C_6H_{12} (II)¹³³⁹, topo-H₂dehp(III)^{1478,1479}, topo-NaD (NaD = sodium dinonylnaphthalenesulphonate, a liquid cation exchanger) in C_6H_6 from HClO₄ (IV)¹⁴⁸⁰ and topo-(4-methyl-N-8-quinolinylbenzenesulphonamide) in toluene(V)¹⁴⁸¹. System I was most effective for the separation 1476 of zinc(II) from cadmium(II) at pH 4.5. An amount as low as 20 µg of zinc in 20 mg of cadmium (1:1000 ratio) could be separated. In system II, quantitative extraction (>98%)¹³³⁹ of zinc(II) was achieved from aqueous solutions of pH 1.5–2.8. System III showed a lower extraction than those shown by topo- β -diketones^{1478,1479}, probably owing to the steric hindrance in the former. Addition of more topo reduced the extraction (antisynergism) owing to H₂dehp-topo hydrogen-bonded adduct formation, which lowered the effective concentration of H₂dehp. Similarly, system IV showed 1480 lower synergism than topo-Htta. However, the extraction was quantitative ($K_{\rm ex} = 6.1 \times 10^4$). Significantly, NaD alone showed a greater extraction than Htta by a factor of 103. The usc of HD-topo in place of NaD-topo lowered the extraction due to HD topo adduct formation. The extracted species was suggested to be $[ZnD_2(topo)_n]$ (n = 1, 2). System V also extracted zinc(II) quantitatively from 0.1 M IINO₃ solution. Quinolinc-8-ol and Ph₃PO synergistically extracted zinc(II) in a manner similar to that of cobalt(II) as described carlier 1429,

TOPO has been used to extract cadmium(II) from NO_3^- or $Na(X, ClO_4)$ (X = Cl, Br,

I) media 1326,1338,1482 , but efficient extractions occur when topo is combined with other chelating agents. For instance, extraction of cadmium(II) with topo–Hbfa in $C_6H_6^{-1483,1484}$ was efficient, whereas topo or Hbfa alone showed negligible extraction. The extracted species was established to be $[Cd(bfa)_2(topo)_2]$. Other effective combinations topo– $F_3CC(O)CH_2C(O)C_2H_5$ in xylene from perchlorate medium 1340 and topo–Hpmtp in C_6H_{12} showed quantitative extraction 1339 . Extraction with topo– H_2 dehp in tetradecane has also been reported 1485 .

Topo in molten diphenyl¹⁴⁴⁷ showed a higher extraction of mercury(II) from HCl (D=61.3) and lower from HNO₃ or H₂SO₄ (D=0.1-0.6), suggesting a higher extractability of [HgCl₂(TOPO)_n] (n=1,2) type of species over corresponding nitrate or sulphate species. In comparison, the extractions of gold, palladium and platinum were high. Triisopentylphosphine oxide in various solvents extracted mercury(II) as

[HgCl₂L] and [HgCl₂L₂] $^{14\hat{8}\hat{6}}$.

xii. f-Block elements. This group of elements has attracted considerable interest in extraction science on account of both the separation difficulties posed by these elements and their importance in the generation of nuclear energy and in radiochemistry.

Lanthanides. For convenience, the extraction studies are divided into different sections

based on the nature of the reagent used.

Extraction of lanthanides with R_3PO alone. Table 21 contains various metals extracted with tertiary phosphine oxides (R_3PO). It can be seen that the most commonly extracted species is $[MX_3L_3]$ (X= anion) and the coordination number varies depending on the coordinating ability of the anion; NO_3^- generally acts as a chelate and thus 8- or 9-coordinate species are formed. Some important comments on the systems may be made as follows. In system I, the addition of Na_2H_2 edta· $2H_2O$ promoted extraction, but the mechanism involved is not known¹⁴⁸⁷. In system II, the extraction increased in the order topo > $Bu_3^nPO \gg tbp^{537}$. For a given reagent, $log K_{ex}$ was found generally to increase with decrease in the metal ion radius (e.g. for topo, the $log K_{ex}$ values are 8.35 for La and 9.39 for Cu).

In system III, topo showed a lower extraction ¹⁴⁸⁸ than tbp, which is probably the only case of reversal of the general trend, followed by R_3PO , namely, topo > Bu_3^nPO > Ph_3PO > tbp. In system IV, maximum extraction of cerium(III) was noted at 2 M topo ¹⁴⁸⁹. Similarly, system V showed a maximum value of D at 0.3-0.5 M HNO₃ ¹³⁴⁶. System VI showed ¹⁴⁹¹ that K_{ex} is not necessarily higher for smaller ionic radii ($K_{\text{ex}}:M = \text{Nd}$, 5.8×10^7 ; Er, 1.5×10^6 ; Gd, 5.3×10^4) and can follow a complicated trend depending on the system. System VII showed a case of the salting-out effect ¹⁴⁹², where

the presence of NH₄NO₃ was necessary for extraction.

From systems IX and X, it was observed that the replacement of an R group by an alkoxy group (RO) lowered the extraction 1344,1352 , obviously owing to decreased Lewis basicity of $(RO)_3PO$ and also to enhanced $H_2O\cdots(RO)_3PO$ interaction. A decreasing trend in extraction of the type $R_3PO > R_2(RO)PO > R(RO)_2PO > (RO)_3PO$ is followed. Interestingly, system XI (at $\ge 0.25\,\text{M}$ topo) is the most selective 1494 for lanthanide separations to date. It also represents the first report of the extraction of lanthanides as their hydroxides. System XII involves the extraction of the rare earths 1495 from several geosamples. Here Sc, Fe, Cr, U and Th are also removed. The use of mixed R_3PO ligands did not show any improvement in extraction over the use of individual ligands (XIII) 1496 .

Europium(III) showed a higher extraction from LiCl than HCl media (XIV)¹⁴⁹⁷ and it may be attributed to the lowered effective concentration of topo due to topo ··· HCl interaction. System XV is very useful for separating europium from americium and curium^{1498–1499}. System XVI shows the effect of temperature (20–60 °C) on the extraction of europium(III)¹⁵⁰⁰. It was found that $-\Delta H$ values were higher for R_3 PO than for tbp, although the trend was the reverse for $-\Delta S$ values. Hence the extraction was

enthalpy driven.

TABLE 21. Extraction of lanthanides with tertiary phosphine oxides

System	Metal extracted	Reagent and medium	Species extracted	Ref.
1 11 11 2 >	La La, Eu, Lu Ce Ce La, Sm, Pr, Gd, Dy, Ho	topo; CIO_4^- R_3PO -xylene ($R = n$ -octyl, Bu''); SCN^- topo-PhMe; HNO_3 or $LiNO_3$ topo; NH_4SCN R_3PO -kerosene ($R = C_nH_{2n+1}$, $n = 7-9$);	$\begin{bmatrix} La(ClO_4)_3L_n \\ M(NCS)_3L_n \end{bmatrix} (n = 3, 4)$ $\begin{bmatrix} Ce(NO_3)_3L_3 \\ Ce(NCS)_3L_3 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} M(NO_3)_3L_3 \\ M(NO_3)_3L_3 \end{bmatrix}$	1487 537 1488 1489 1346, 1490
555××555	Nd, Gd, Er Nd Ln Ln (except Pm) Ln La, Pr, Eu, Tb, Ho, Yb Ln	topo-polyphenyl; LiNO ₃ -KNO ₃ (molten) topo-kerosene; NH ₄ NO ₃ (molten) topo-kerosene; NH ₄ NO ₃ R ₃ PO (R = Ph; <i>n</i> -octyl); HNO ₃ R ₃ PO; NO ₃ R ₃ PO (R = isoalkyl, etc.); Cl ⁻ , SCN ⁻ topo-CHCl ₃ ; Cl ⁻ topo-CHCl ₃ ; Cl ⁻ topo-C ₆ H ₁₂ ; acidic solutions topo-Bu ₃ PO-PhMe; NO ₃ ⁻	$[M(NO_3)_3L_n](n = 2, 3)$ $[Nd(NO_3)_3L_n]$ $[M(NO_3)_3L_3]$ $[M(NO_3)_3L_2]$ $[M(NO_3)_3L_n](?)$ $[M(OH)_3L_n]$ $[M(NO_3)_3L_3] (L = topo, Bu_3^nPO) and$	1491 1492 1493 1344 1352 1494 1495
XIV XVI XVI	Eu Eu Eu	topo- p -xylene; HCl (or LiCl) topo- p -xylene; NH ₄ NO ₃ R ₃ PO (R = mixed alkyl groups); HNO ₃ (or NH ₄ NO ₃)	M(NO ₃₎₃ (topo)(Bu;rO) [Eu(NO ₃) ₃ L ₃] —	1497 1498–1499 500

TABLE 22. Extraction of lanthanides with tertiary phosphine oxides-\(\beta\)-diketones

System	Metals extracted	Reagent and medium	Species extracted	Ref.
Jerosel	9	(a) topo-Htta; lactic acid (b) R ₃ PO-HA (HA = naphthoyltrifluoroacetone; R = Ph noctvl); acidic	[Ce(tta) ₃ L ₂] [CeA ₃ L ₂]	1501 1502, 1503
	La, Nd, Eu, Tb, Lu Nd, Ho, Er	ic -000-	$[M(bfa)_3L_n](n=1,2)$ $[M(tta)_3L_n](n=1,2)$	533a 1504,1505
IV V VI VII	Nd, Ho, Er Sm, Pm, Tm Ho, Er Tb	(b) topo-fitta-ring, C_{13} CO (c) topo-Htta; X^{-} ($X = CIO_4$, NCS, NO ₃ , CI) $R_3PO-Htta-C_6H_6$ ($R = Ph$, n -octyl); HCI topo-Htta; CIO_4^{-} $Ph_3PO-Htta-bipy; LiNO_3-NH_4NO_3$	$ \begin{bmatrix} M(tta)_3L_2 \\ [M(tta)_3L_n](n=1,2) \\ [M(tta)_2L_5](CIO_4) \end{bmatrix} $	1506 1318–1319, 1507 1509 1508
III'X XX X	Ln (except La, Ce, Pm) Ln (except Pm, Lu) Ln	(molten) Bu ₃ *PO-Htta Ph ₃ *PO-Htta-C ₆ H ₆ ; ClO ₄ topo-high mol. wt β -diketones (LIX 51, LIX 54) or Hdbm	$[M(tta)_3L_n](n = 2-4)$ $[M(tta)_3L_2]$ $[MA_3L_n](n = 1, 2)$	1348 1510 1511
IX IX	Nd Eu	(HA)-kerosene; acidic topo (or Ph ₃ PO)-Htta; acidic (a) R ₃ PO-Hbfa-C ₆ H ₆ (or CHCl ₃ , CCl ₄)	$\begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Nd}(\operatorname{tta})_3 L_2 \\ \left[\operatorname{Eu}(\operatorname{bfa})_3 L_n \right] (n=1,2) \end{bmatrix}$	49 1473, 1512, 1513
		(b) Bu ₃ PO-Htta-C ₆ H ₁₂ ; NO ₃ ⁻ (c) topo-Htta-C ₆ H ₁₂ ; Cl ⁻ (d) topo (or Bu ₃ PO)-ASCN-xylene-NH ₄ SCN (e) topo-Htta-different solvents (see text);	[Eu(tta) ₂ (NO ₃)L ₂] and [Eu(tta) ₃] [Eu(tta) ₃ L ₂] See text [Eu(tta) ₃ L _n]($n=2,3$)	1514 1515 1516 1517
XIII	Lu	acidic (f) $Ph_3PO-Htta-CHCl_3$; CIO_4^- (a) $topo-(Hba+Hdbm)-C_6H_6$; acidic (b) $topo-(Hba+Hhfa)-C_6H_7$, acidic	[Eu(tta) ₃ L ₂] See text	1518 ^a 1519
XIV	Lu	topo- β -diketones- C_6H_6 ; acidic	[LuA ₃ L]	1520

⁴Ph₃AsO, an analogous ligand, showed a higher extraction than that with Ph₃PO.

Synergic extractions of lanthanides with $R_3PO-\beta$ -diketones. Table 22 lists various metals studied using β -diketones with R_3PO as the synergists. Europium(III) is the most studied element and is therefore discussed in detail. The extracted species are generally of the $[MA_3L_2]$ type, having 8-coordination. Species with different numbers of A^- and L ligands attached to M have also been detected. Topo again is a superior synergist to

Bu₃ⁿPO, Ph₃PO and tbp, in that sequence.

Some comments may be made on the systems shown in Table 22. System Ib shows more efficient extraction of cerium(III) than system Ia, although both showed better extraction than with either β -dikctone or R_3PO alone $^{1501-1503}$. A separation factor of 4.0 for Ce/Am was achieved in system Ia; the separation factors for other elements are (Ce/Eu, 4.3, Ce/Pm, 6.7). From system II, based on stability constant data 533a , it was concluded that the stability of an adduct increases with increase in the ionic radius: Lu > Tb > Eu > Nb > La. However, system VIII shows that the stability constants 1348 increase with increasing atomic number of the lanthanides and this difference may be attributed to the different set of reagents used.

From system IV, the extraction was found to vary with the anions in the sequence, for example, for Ho^{1506} $ClO_4 > NCS > NO_3 > Cl$. Also, the nature of species varied from $[M(tta)_3L_2]$ at low metal concentration to $[M(tta)_2XL_5]$ at high metal

concentrations.

The variation in the nature of the solvents 1318,1319,1507,1509 affected the *D* values in the sequences (V, VI): (a) cyclohexane > *n*-hexane > CCl₄ > C₆H₆ > CHCl₃ 1318,1319 and (b) 1,2-C₂H₄Cl₂ > CH₂Cl₂ > C₆H₅Cl > Cl₂C=CHCl > C₆H₆ 1509 . These orders represent the decreasing sequence of their dielectric constants. From system V, it was further observed that samarium(III) extraction 1507 was quantitative with topo or Ph₃PO (topo, $\beta = 3.9 \times 10^{13}$; Ph₃PO, $\beta = 8.2 \times 10^{10}$), which provides an efficient method for samarium(III) extraction, but the effect of interferents is not known.

The use of high-molecular-weight β -diketones (system X)¹⁵¹¹ did not show any improvement in the separation factors between neighbouring metals (separation factors are 2.33 for Hdbm and 1.97 for LIX 51 and 1.72 for LIX 54). From system XIIa, it was concluded that the stability of an adduct increased in the order topo > Ph₃PO > tbp > quinoline^{1473,1512,1513} and also that higher log β_2 values were observed in CCl₄ than in CHCl₃ ¹⁵¹². A significant observation from system XIIc is that the stability constants were higher for topo than for bis(*n*-hexylphosphinyl)alkanes¹⁵¹⁵ discussed later.

In the Eu^{III}–Htta–topo system ^{1513,1521}, it was established that the synergistic reactions in the organic phase are predominantly enthalpy stabilized, whereas complex formation reactions with the trivalent lanthanides in the aqueous phase are invariably entropy stabilized ¹⁵²¹. The increased electrostatic interactions between the metal chelate and the donor molecules in the organic phase of low polarity increase the enthalpy values. Further, the energy required to remove H₂O from the hydrated metal chelate in the organic phase is small because only a small number of H₂O molecules are attached in

the organic phase, which lowers the entropy.

In the extraction of europium(III) with topo (or Bu_3^nPO) and ASCN (XIIId)¹⁵¹⁶ (where ASCN is the thiocyanate form of Aliquat 336-S, a quaternary ammonium chloride liquid anion exchanger), the extracted species were: $[Eu(NCS)_4 \cdot A \cdot (topo)_n]$ (n = 2, 3) and $[Eu(NCS)_4 \cdot A \cdot (Bu_3^nPO)_4]$. The species with R_3PO alone were $[Eu(NCS)_3(topo)_n]$ (n = 3, 4) and $[Eu(NCS)_3 (Bu_3^nPO)_4]$. The mechanism of synergistic extraction appears to be the replacement of R_3PO by ASCN molecules and the preferential extraction of the bulky ammonium-like species $[M(NCS)_4(topo)_3]^-$ by the cation of the quaternary amine. Equilibrium constants for the synergistic extraction vary in the sequence topo $< Bu_3^nPO \ll$ tbp. The strongly basic topo is replaced with more difficulty than the weakly basic tbp. Thus, topo showed antisynergism with ASCN, Bu_3^nPO caused no change and tbp showed

synergism. The synergism appears to be solvent dependent and thus no synergism was observed in *n*-hexane.

The extraction data for system XIIe¹⁵¹⁷ as a function of effect of solvents is shown in Table 23. The adduct formation constants $K_{\rm S,m}$ are strongly dependent on the diluent, e.g. $K_{\rm S,2}=15.08$ in pentane and 7.68 in CHCl₃. The solubility parameter, $\delta_{\rm org}$, of the diluent and log $K_{\rm S,m}$ are correlated by a linear equation:

$$\log K_{\rm S,m} = 2B\delta_{\rm org} + {\rm constant}$$

where B is a negative constant obtained as the slope of the plot of $\log K_{S,m}$ vs δ_{org} . The extraction constant, $K_{ex,S}$, varies in proportion to $K_{S,m}$ in each diluent and a similar relationship,

$$\log K_{\rm ex,S} = 2B\delta_{\rm org} + {\rm constant}$$

can be written. Generally, $K_{\rm S,m}$ and $K_{\rm ex,S}$ decrease with increasing solubility of the adduct in a solvent, with a few exceptions. The values increase in the order aliphatic diluents > ${\rm CCl_4}$ > benzene and its derivatives > some halogenated diluents. From similar studies on the uranyl system, which forms $[{\rm UO_2(tta)_2(topo)}]^{1522}$, $\log K_{\rm ex,S}$ decreases to a lesser extent with increasing $\delta_{\rm org}$ and thus separation from europium(III) is difficult in aliphatic diluents, but it is very easy in diluents with large solubility parameters. Hence the choice of solvent is very important not only for synergism but also for separation from other components.

The shift reagent $[Eu(tta)_3]$ has been used to study the synergistic extraction of rare earths¹⁵²³ by analysing the NMR shifts in the phenylortho-protons of Ph₃PO by its interaction with $[Eu(tta)_3]$. The concentration dependence of the induced shifts gives the stoichiometry and the stability constant of the adduct, $[Eu(tta)_3L_2]$ $(L = Ph_3PO)$.

TABLE 23. Adduct formation and synergistic extraction constants for the Eu–Htta–topo system $(25 \,{}^{\circ}\text{C})^{a,b}$

Diluent	S_{org}	$Log K_{S,2}$	$Log K_{ex,S}$
Pentane	7.05	15.08	7.02
Hexane	7.3	14.96	6.85
Heptane	7.4	14.76	6.71
Cyclohexane	8.2	14.46	6.54
Isopropylbenzene	8.5	13.04	4.92
Carbon tetrachloride	8.6	12.88	4.43
Toluene	8.9	12.02	4.01
Benzene	9.15	11.78	4.10
Chloroform	9.3	7.68	-0.74
Chlorobenzene	9.5	11.34	3.00
Dichloromethane	9.7	10.14	1.87
o-Dichlorobenzene	10.0	11.66	3.39
Bromoform	10.5	9.04	0.53

^aFrom ref. 1577.

$$Eu^{3+} + 3Htta + mS \xrightarrow{K_{ex,S}} [Eu(tta)_3 S_m] + 3H^+$$

aq. org. org. aq.

^bEquations:

TABLE 24.	Extraction	data	for	the	lutetium(III)–β-diketone–
topo system					

$R^1C(O)CH_2C$	$C(O)R^2$		
R ¹	R ²	Log K	$\log \beta_1$
Me	Me	_	4.35
Et	Et	-16.57	4.35
Pr^{i}	Pr^i	-16.57	4.80
Me	Bu^t	-16.90	4.80
Bu ^t	Bu^t	-18.37	4.80
Me	Ph	-15.21	5.25
Me	Naphthalene	-15.06	5.45
Ph	Ph	-15.16	6.15
Me	CF ₃	_	6.25
Ph	CF ₃	− 7.69	7.50
$2-C_4H_3S^b$	CF ₃	-6.50	7.25
$2-C_4H_3O^c$	CF ₃	-6.78	7.15
CF ₃	CF ₃	_	6.25

^aAll data from ref. 1520.

Ph₃PO interacts with [Eu(tta)₃] in CDCl₃ in two steps, 1:1 and 1:2 (log $\beta_1 = 7.93$, log $\beta_2 = 9.67$).

The ternary system XIII revealed that the stability of an adduct of the mixed chelate varies in the order [Lu(ba)(bfa)₂] > [Lu(ba)₂(bfa)] > [Lu(ba)(dbm)₂] \approx [Lu(ba)₂(dbm)]. A detailed study of the extraction of lutetium(III) with a series of β -diketones reveals a number of interesting observations (system XIV, Tables 22 and 24)¹⁵²⁰: (a) β -diketones with a CF₃ group can extract lutetium(III) from a lower pH region owing to the enhanced acidity of the OH groups; (b) β -diketones with bulky groups such as benzoyl, thenoyl and pivaloyl showed high extractability, attributed to the hydrophobic structure of the chelating molecule; and (c) the stability of the topo adducts (log β) increase with increase in log K, indicating that there is no steric hindrance by the terminal groups.

Extraction of lanthanides with R_3PO -pyrazolones and other reagents. Like β -diketones, pyrazolones also constitute an important class of reagents, although they have attracted less attention. Table 25 gives the synergistic systems used for the extraction of lanthanides together with the various types of species extracted. From systems I-VI, it was concluded that (a) the extraction constants showed a maximum at europium or holmium and the change was monotonic with increasing atomic number 1524,1525 ; (b) Hpmop is more selective than Hpmbp (the separation factors with Hpmop were, Pr/Eu 1.33 and Eu/Tb 2.02) 1526 ; (c) the synergism is attributable to expansion of the coordination sphere and not to replacement of H_2O by topo 1349,1351 ; (d) Hpmbup-topo showed a higher synergic effect than Hpmbp-Bu₃PO (system V) 1532 ; (e) the ternary systems also show synergism, e.g. for terbium(III) (system IV) 1528 N-503 enhanced the extraction significantly (log β = 4.01 versus 1.45 when no N-503 was used); and (f) the pyrazolonethione ligand alone gave no detectable extraction in the ranges studied, but the addition of topo resulted in synergistic extraction (system VI) 1529 .

When R₃PO-substituted phosphoric acid combinations were used (systems VII-X), the following conclusions were made: (a) in the case of cerium(III) extraction, a large Ce/Am separation factor of 150 was achieved in system VII(a)¹⁵⁰¹; (b) an antagonistic effect was observed in the extraction of dysprosium(III) (VIIb) when excess of topo was

^b2-Thiophenyl.

^c2-Furyl.

TABLE 25. Extraction of lanthanides with tertiary phosphine oxides-pyrazolones and other synergistic systems

System	Metals extracted	Reagent and medium	Species extracted ^a	Ref.
I	La, Pr, Eu, Ho, Yb	topo (or cmpo) ^b -Hpmtfp-CHCl ₃ ; ClO ₄	$[MA_3L_2]$	1524, 1525
II	Pr, Eu, Yb	topo-Hpmop-CHCl ₃ ; acidic	$[MA_3L]$	1526
III	Nd	(a) topo-Hpmbp; acidic (b) Bu ₃ PO-Hpmbp-PhMe; HClO ₄	[NdA ₃ L] —	1349, 1351 1527
IV	Tb	topo-Hpmbp-N 503 ^c -PhMe	$[TbA(N 503)_2L_3]$	1528
V	Yb	Bu" PO-Hpmbup-PhMe	$[YbA_3L_n] (n = 1, 2)$	1532
VI	Eu	topo-HA ^d -C ₆ H ₆ ; HClO ₄	$[EuA_2(HA)L_2(ClO_4)]$	1529
VII	Ce	topo-H2dehp; lactic acid	$[CeA_3L_2]$	1501
	Dy	topo-H2dehp-kerosene; HCl		1530
VIII	Ln	R_3 PO-H2dehp; NO_3 (R = 1-methylheptyl)	$[MA_3], [M(NO_3)_3L_3]$	1531
IX	Tm	topo-HA-PhMe; HCl (HA = mono-2-ethylhexyl- phosphoric acid)	_	1533
X	Ln	topo-HA ^e ; Cl	$[MA_3(HA)(topo)]$	1534
XI	La, Pr, Eu, Yb	topo-HA-CCl ₄ ^f	$[M(OH)A_2L_2]$	1535
XII	La, Pr, Eu, Yb	topo-HA-CCl ₄ ^g ; Cl ⁻	[MClA ₂ L ₃]	1536
XIII	Eu	(a) topo-HA-CHCl ₃ ^h (b) topo-HA-CHCl ₃ ⁱ	$ \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{EuA}_3 \operatorname{L}_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ [\operatorname{EuA}_2(\operatorname{HA})\operatorname{L}_n \end{bmatrix} $	1537 1538
XIV	Ln	R_3 PO-nta-deta ^j (R = isoamyl)		1539
XV	Pm	topo-HA-CHCl ₃ i	$[PmA_{1.5}(HA)_{1.5}L_n]$	1538
XVI	Eu	$Ph_3PO-H_2Sal-\tilde{C}_6H_6$ (or <i>n</i> -hexane) ^k	[Eu(HSal) ₃ L ₂]	1540

^aHA represents pyrazolones or other similar reagents.

used 1530 ; (c) system VIII showed a lack of mixed chelates, an observation against the normal trend 1531 ; and (d) system IX promises 1533 interesting mutual and group separations of f-block elements as the trend in their extraction shows: $Tm > Y \gg Eu > Am$. Extraction with substituted phenols suggests that the separation factors for the heavier lanthanide elements become large; they are the highest to date (system XII) 1536 . Additionally, the species are different to those normally observed. System XIIIb revealed that extraction decreases in the order topo < tbp > bipy, a behaviour against the common trend 1538 . Similarly, system XIV shows that an amine reagent can be suitable for the separation of the cerium sub-group 1539 . The extraction of europium(III) from nitrate solutions with trioctylammonium nitrate, $\{Oct_3NH\}(NO_3)^{1541}$, forms the species

 $^{^{}b}$ cmpo = octylphenyl (N,N-diisobutylcarbamoylmethyl)phosphine oxide.

 $^{^{\}circ}$ N 503 = N, N-dimethylheptylacetamide.

 $^{{}^{}d}HA = 4$ -benzoyl-2,4-dihydro-5-methyl-2-phenyl-3H-pyrazol-3-thione.

^eHA = bis(2,4,4-trimethylpentyl)phosphoric acid.

^fHA = 2-(3,5-dibromo-2-pyridylazo)-5-diethylaminophenol.

^gHA = 2-(2-pyridylazo)-4-nonylphenol.

^hHA = 1-nitroso-2-naphthol.

ⁱHA = N-benzol-N-phenylhydroxylamine.

^jNTA = nitriloacetic acid; deta = diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid.

^kH₂Sal = salicylic acid.

 ${R_3NH}[Eu(NO_3)_4]$, which reacts with R_3PO (R = Ph, n-octyl) in benzene to form $[Eu(NO_3)_4L]^-$. However, the exact nature of the species requires further investigations.

Actinides. Most of the extraction studies reported for the actinides deal with Th, U, Pu and TPE elements. Only a few investigations on the other actinide elements have been reported. Uranium is the single most studied element among f-block elements, with europium and americium occupying second and third positions respectively.

Actinium. Actinium(III) was extracted from 8 M LiCl with topo as Li₂[AcCl₅L₂] and

the recovery was more than 95% 1542.

Thorium. Topo (in cyclohexane) extracted thorium(IV) from HCl, HNO₃ ¹⁵⁴³ or Cl⁻solutions¹³³⁷. A single extraction quantitatively removed thorium(IV) from 1 M HNO₃ or 7 M HCl; extractions from acids at other concentrations were low. Extraction from H_2SO_4 or H_3PO_4 solutions was poor and in the case of HClO₄ solution two immiscible phases formed, complicating the recovery of thorium. This method (topo- C_6H_{12}) was useful in the quantitative recovery of thorium from monazite and other raw materials after their leaching with H_2SO_4 or H_3PO_4 . Rare earths do not interfere, but zirconium(IV) is co-extracted with thorium(IV). The nature of the extracted species depended on the anion, being $[ThX_4L_3]$ for X = Cl, $NO_3^{1543.1544}$ and $[ThX_4L]$ for $X = Br^{1545}$, but was independent of the organic solvent (PhMe, Me_2CO , etc.) Interestingly, from bromide solutions, the separation of thorium from uranium was facile. Other studies of the extraction of thorium include topo in dodecane from aqueous LiNO₃ solution¹⁵⁴⁶ and R_3PO (R = isopentyl, etc.) in C_6H_6 , CCl_4 , $CHCl_3$ or heptane^{1547,1548}. The species extracted were of the type $[Th(NO_3)_4L_n]$ (n = 1-4).

Topo Htta in different organic solvents (e.g. hexane)^{49,1318,1319,1505,1549} synergistically extracted thorium from HCl as [Th(tta)₄L]. Whereas topo enhanced extraction, the addition of other oxygen donors such as ethanol and isobutanol lowered synergism due to the replacement of coordinated topo by these alcohols. The Htta-Bu₃ PO (or Ph₃PO) also synergically extracted thorium forming the species: [Th(tta)₄(Ph₃PO)], [Th(tta)(NO₃)₃]^{49,1550}. With Bu₃ PO, the synergism was attributed to the tendency of thorium to acquire 8-coordination and not to the replacement of H₂O by Bu₃ PO. Whereas topo-Hdbm in C₆H₆ showed no synergism¹³¹⁰, topo-LIX 54 (a β -diketone, HA) in C₆H₆ showed quantitative extraction of thorium (as ThA₄L) from acidic solutions

(pH 2.8)1551

Thermodynamic studies on the extraction of thorium^{1349,1351} by topo-Hpmbp suggested that synergism was associated with the replacement of solvate water by an adduct molecule with no change in the coordination number. Other extraction systems are topo-bcnzoic acid in CCl₄¹⁵⁵² and topo-quinolin-8-ol¹⁵⁵³. The topo-benzoic acid system offers an easy method for the separation of Th from La, Gd, Y or Tb.

Protactinium. Ph₃PO in CHCl₃ separated protactinium(V) from thorium(IV) in HNO₃ solution¹⁵⁵⁴. An analogous arsenic ligand, Ph₃AsO, could also be used. Another study described the extraction of protactinium(V) from a variety of acids such as HF,

HClO₄, oxalic or tartaric acid; extraction was highest from HClO₄ ¹³⁶⁴.

Uranium. Uranium extraction occurs essentially in the hexavalent state and only a few studies have dealt with the tetravalent state. The work reported is split into various parts. A separate section describes the recovery of uranium from wet-process phosphoric acid solutions and ores.

Extraction of uranium with R_3PO alone. In a number of investigations the use of R_3PO alone for the extraction of uranium(VI) from various media was studied. Topo has been most commonly used for the extraction of uranium(VI). It was observed that the nature of the extracted species remained more or less the same when the aqueous phase contained different anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, etc). The most common species was $[UO_2X_2(R_3PO)_2](X = Cl, NO_3, ClO_4, \frac{1}{2}SO_4; R = n\text{-octyl}, n\text{-butyl}, \text{etc.})$ and the organic solvents commonly used were cyclohexane, toluene, benzene, $CHCl_3$ or $CCl_4^{-1326,1338,1356,1548,1555-1561}$.

The formation of species of the type $[UO_2(NO_3) \ (ClO_4) \ (Bu_3^n PO)^{1560}$, $[UO_2(NO_3)_2 \ (topo)]^{1564}$, $[UO_2(SO_4)L_2] \cdot H_2SO_4 \ (L = topo, \ Bu_3^n PO)^{1557}$ has also been observed.

Some other conclusions on and applications of the use of R₃PO for the extraction of uranium(VI) are as follows: (a) topo in cyclohexane¹⁵⁶² or topo in molten naphthalene (at 80 °C)¹⁵⁶³ quantitatively separated uranium from several elements present in HNO₃ solutions¹⁵⁶³; (b) topo in toluene separated uranium, present in urine, with 90.5% recovery; Na, K, Ca, Mg and Fe did not interfere¹⁵⁶⁴; (c) recovery of uranium from aquatic sediments¹⁵⁶⁵ and that of uranium and thorium (in traces from rare earths¹⁵⁶⁶) using topo in cyclohexane; (d) recovery of uranium from uranium liquors with R₃PO (R = *n*-butyl, *n*-octyl) or Ph₃PO¹⁵⁶⁷; (e) separation of uranium(VI) from bismuth (1:10 000 ratio) with tris(2-ethylhexyl)phosphine oxide in cyclohexane from NaNO₃ solution (pH 2.5–3.0¹⁵⁶⁸, (f) separation of uranium(VI) from rare earths dissolved in a fused NaSCN–KSCN eutectic with topo–tetralene¹⁵⁶⁹; (g) topo in toluene extracted U^{234,238} from a sample of Ra²²⁶ in HClO₄ solution¹⁵⁷⁰; (h) extraction was high from HNO₃ or HCl and poor from H₂SO₄ or H₃PO₄¹⁵⁵⁶; (i) the extractability of uranium(VI) from HNO₃–H₂SO₄ with R₂MePO (R = HOCH₂—) in benzene was much higher than that with tbp¹⁵⁷¹; however, thorium is co-extracted; and (j) UO₂²⁺ was synergistically extracted when Oct₃N was added to topo for extraction from aqueous (NH₄)₂SO₄¹⁵⁷²; the extracted species was identified as (R₃NH)₂[UO₂(SO₄)₂ (topo)].

The only investigation into the extraction of uranium(IV) with phosphine oxides is its extraction from HCl with topo in cyclohexane¹⁵⁷³. It was observed that an increase in temperature (10–45 °C) led to a higher transfer of UCl₄ from the aqueous to the organic layer. The activation energy was 45.2 kJ mol⁻¹ for topo and 38.5 kJ mol⁻¹ for

tbp.

Extraction of uranium with $R_3PO-\beta$ -diketones. Only R_3PO-H tta ($R=Bu^n$, n-octyl, Ph) combinations have been used for the synergistic extraction of uranium. The extraction of uranium with R_3PO-H tta in benzene, CHCl₃, etc., from HCl or HNO₃ formed $[UO_2(tta)_2L_n](L=topo, Bu_3^nPO \text{ or Ph}_3PO; n=1-3)^{49,449,1318,1319,1504,1574-1576}$ in the organic layer. The extraction with Htta alone was poor and addition of R_3PO enhanced the extraction 1575,1576 by a factor of 10^4 . The K_{ex} values for the extraction of uranium(VI) from HCl with R_3PO-H tta varied in the order topo $\gg Bu_3^nPO > tbp$ ($K_{ex}=4.1\times10^8, 3.5\times10^3$ and 3.0×10^2 , respectively) Further, the highest extraction was observed when the organic solvent was cyclohexane. Studies on the effect of temperature lowered the extraction from HCl with Htta-topo revealed that a 10° C rise in temperature lowered the extraction by 20-30% whereas it remained unaffected with Htta alone. The extraction of uranium(IV) with Htta-Ph₃PO has been reported and the species $[U(tta)_4L]$ was formed 1577 . The formation constants of 1.24×10^4 and 2.67×10^5 for $[U(tta)_4L]$ and $[UO_2(tta)_2L]$, respectively, revealed a higher extraction of uranium(VI) than uranium(IV).

Extraction of uranium with R_3PO -pyrazolones. A series of combinations of pyrazolones and topo in the usual solvents were used for the extraction of uranium(VI). The extracted species was [UO₂A₂L] (HA = Hpmbp^{1349,1351,1574,1579}; Hpmcbp = 1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-(2'-chlorobenzoyl)pyrazol-5-one¹⁵⁸⁰; HPMTFP¹⁵⁸¹; Hbmppt = 4-benzoyl-2,4-dihydro-5-methyl-2-phenyl-3*H*-pyrazol-3-thione¹⁵⁸²]. Some conclusions that may be drawn from these studies include (a) the synergism was attributed to the replacement of solvate water by the added ligand^{1349,1351}; (b) adduct formation was enthalpy and entropy stabilized^{1579,1581}; (c) Hpmcbp-topo showed higher extraction than Hpmbp-topo¹⁵⁸⁰; (d) the extraction properties of Hpmtfp-topo were similar to those of Hpmap¹⁵⁸¹; and (e) the extraction could be followed by a computer-controlled flow-injection system¹⁵⁸².

A ternary system, Hpmbp-Htta-topo, extracted UO₂²⁺ as [UO₂(pmbp)(tta)· (topo)]¹⁵⁷⁴. This ternary complex is stable, but no improvement in extraction over

Hpmbp-topo was achieved although it showed a higher extraction than Htta-topo. Uranium(IV) was extracted as [UA₃ClL] from HCl with Hpmbp-topo in CHCl₃¹⁵⁸³.

Extraction of uranium with R_3PO-H_2dehp (and related compounds). The synergistic extraction of uranium(VI) was carried out using H_2dehp (or related compounds) and R_3PO combinations ($R = Bu^n$, n-octyl, Ph, isoamyl) as follows: topo- H_2dehp (Ph) from Ph0 solution Ph1 solution Ph2 solution Ph2 solution Ph3 and Ph4 solution and topo-Ph4 solution and topo-Ph4 solution and topo-Ph6 solution Ph8 solution Ph9 from Ph9 solution and topo-Ph9 solution Ph9 solution Ph9 solution and topo-Ph9 solution Ph9 solution

Extraction of uranium with R₃PO-organic acids. Topo fatty acids/aromatic acids have also been used for the extraction of metals. Here the acids act as synergists, although antisynergism was also observed under certain experimental conditions. For instance, in the extraction of uranium(VI) with topo in CCl₄ from aqueous perchlorate medium^{1591b}, benzoic acid actcd as a synergist up to a certain acid concentration (0.01 M), but at higher acid concentrations, topo interacts with the acid, thus lowering the topo

concentration; the extracted species is [UO₂(ClO₄)(PhCOO) (topo)].

Topo-PhCOOH-CCl₄ offers an excellent method in acidic solution (pH 2.5-3.5) for the separation of uranium from rare earths, which are virtually unextracted by this combination (separation factor 800–2500 for U/rare earths). This method was used for the determination of uranium in rocks and minerals. Topo-salicylic acid showed synergistic extraction of UO_2^{2+} from aqueous NO_3^- , Cl^- or ClO_4^- solutions (and for > 0.1 m NaNO₃, it showed antisynergism because the benzoate ions cannot compete with NO_3^- in their coordinating ability to uranium(VI). Since the salicylic acid acts as a chelating agent, and forms stable chelates, no antisynergism was observed even at high NO_3^- concentration. There was no extraction of UO_2^{2+} from sulphate solutions.

In the extraction of uranium(VI) with topo in CCl₄ from dilute HNO₃ (pH 1-5)^{1593,1594} in the presence of aromatic monocarboxylic acids, it was demonstrated that the presence of salicylic acid showed the highest extraction. The method was suitable for the separation of uranium(VI) from rare earths, Y, Th, Zr, Ir and Fe, followed by direct spectrophotometric determination. These elements interfere when uranium(VI) is determined with arsenazo III reagent. At pH \approx 5, the *D* values decreased in the order salicyclic acid (693) > phenylpropionic acid (363.0) > o-chlorobenzoic acid (223) > benzoic acid (93.9) > hydroxycinnamic acid (37.4) > trans-cinnamic acid (32.9) > o-nitrobenzoic acid (8.4). The action of the acids varied from antagonistic below pH 1.8 to synergistic above pH 2.0. The synergistic effect depends linearly on the pK values except for salicylic acid. At low pH, acids are protonated and then interact with topo, lowering its activity when the pH is increased. Organic acids dissociate and transfer to the aqueous phase, forming complexes with UO₂²⁺.

A scries of fatty acids (valeric acid, $Me(CH_2)_3COOH$; capric acid, $Me(CH_2)_8COOH$; pentadecanoic acid, $Me(CH_2)_{11}COOH$; palmitic acid, $Me(CH_2)_{10}COOH$; and margaric acid, $Me(CH_2)_{15}COOH$) acted as synergists (pH > 1.9) during the extraction of UO_2^{2+} with topo in different organic acids¹⁵⁹⁵. Since the dissociation constants of the acids are similar, the corresponding synergistic effect was also similar. An increase in pH increased the synergism, as expected. The chain length did not have any extra effect on

the synergism. The D values decreased in the sequence $C_6H_6 > C_6H_{12} > CCl_4$. The behaviour of xylene and toluene was similar to that of cyclohexane.

Recovery of uranium from wet-process phosphonic acid/ores. The recovery of uranium from wet-process phosphonic acid solutions and ores has recieved special attention. For effective recovery, uranium must be present in oxidation state VI, and therefore any uranium(IV) present has to be converted into uranium(VI) using an oxidizing agent. Topo-H₂dehp is commonly employed for extraction; however, a few other reagents have also been used.

A number of workers have described the extraction of uranium(VI) from wet-process phosphonic acid solutions of phosphate ores using H_2 dehp-topo $^{1596-1608}$. Some important conclusions drawn are (a) typical yields in uranium recovery from H_3PO_4 and phosphate ores are 95 and 80.8%, respectively 1607 ; however recoveries of > 98% and concentration of uranium in H_3PO_4 from ~ 60 mg l⁻¹ to 7 g l⁻¹ was achieved in another study 1608 ; (b) the extracted species was identified as $[UO_2A_2(topo)]^{609}$ (HA = H_2 dehp); (c) iron present in the uranium-loaded organic layer was removed by placing it in contact with a stream of 30% $P_2O_5-H_3PO_4^{1596-1598}$; (d) the extraction decreased on changing the solvent in the order kerosene > hexane $> C_6H_6 > CCl_4$; and (e) the recovery of uranium from the Itataia wet-process H_3PO_4 involved first reduction of uranium(VI) to uranium(IV) followed by its extraction with octylpyrophosphoric acid in kerosene $^{1602.1603,1605,1606}$. The organic layer was then stripped with concentrated H_3PO_4 and the uranium(IV) converted to uranium(VI) with an oxidizing agent followed by re-extraction with H_2 dehp-topo. The extract was stripped with $(NH_4)_2CO_3$ and the uranium(VI) recovered as a commercial concentrate.

Other reagents used for uranium(VI) extraction are topo and a mixture of H_2 dehp and mono- and di-(nonylphenyl) phosphate in kerosene (I)¹⁶¹⁰; topo-(R₂CHO)₂P(O) (OH) (R = BuOCH₂) in kerosene (II)^{1611,1612}; dialkylphosphoric acid and mixed phosphine oxides (III)¹⁶¹³; and R₃PO (R = alkyl)¹⁶¹⁴ and bifunctional chelating agents incorporating a phosphine oxide and phosphoric acid diester, *O*-methyldihexylphosphine oxide-O'-2-ethylhexylphosphoric acid (IV)¹⁶¹⁵. System I gives a recovery of uranium(VI) present to the extent of 0.00092% in H_3 PO₄ with > 90% efficiency¹⁶¹⁶. System II was superior to H_2 dehp-topo (D = 14.0 versus 4.2). Iron(III) present showed poor extraction (D = 0.40 versus 0.04). Similarly, system III showed a greater extraction efficiency than H_2 dehp-topo (K_{ex} = 31.5 versus 25.0). System IV appears to be an excellent and superior

alternative to H2dehp-topo for the extraction of uranium(VI)1615.

Neptunium. Investigations on the extraction of neptunium(IV) from HNO₃ have involved (a) Ph₃PO in CCl₄, C₆H₆ or CHCl₃¹⁶¹⁷, (b) Hpmbp-topo in C₆H₁₂¹⁶¹⁸ and (c) Htta-Bu₃ⁿPO¹⁵⁵⁰. Ph₃PO extracted neptunium as [Np(NO₃)₄(Ph₃PO)] whereas with other reagents the extracted species were [Np(tta)₂(NO₃)₂(Bu₃ⁿPO)₂]. [Np(tta)₃(NO₃) (Bu₃ⁿPO)] and [Np(tta)₄]. Hpmbp-topo could separate neptunium(V) the transplutonium elements, uranium(VI) and the rare earths. In the last two synergistic systems, the synergism was attributed to the ability of neptunium to acquire 8-coordination and not to the replacement of H₂O by topo.

Plutonium(IV, VI). Topo in hexane extracted plutonium(IV) quantitatively (99.5%) from HNO₃ over a range of concentrations (0.3–11.0 M)¹⁶¹⁹; however, the extraction of plutonium(VI) required a lower acidity (0.3–0.7 M HNO₃). Both plutonium(IV) and plutonium(VI) were readily separated from plutonium–americium mixtures. From HCl solutions, the extraction of both of these was quantitative at 5 M HCl but poor at < 5 M HCl. The formation of species of the type [PuX₄L₂] or [PuX₆L₂] (X = Cl, NO₃) was

suggested

Plutonium(IV) was extracted from uranium fission products in the presence of NaNO₃ using Bu_3^nPO in CCl_4^{1620} and from HNO_3 solutions with a range of phosphine oxides, $R_2R'PO(R,R'=Me$ to C_8H_{17} , Ph), and observations similar to those for

zirconium niobium were noted ¹³⁶⁶. Use of Bu₃ⁿPO with H₂dehp gave a 50-fold enhanced extraction of plutonium(IV) and plutonium(VI) than with either of these reagents separately ¹⁵⁸⁸. Bu₃ⁿPO-Htta in hexane extracted plutonium(IV) synergistically from HNO₃ solutions ¹⁵⁵⁰. Here the synergism was attributed to the ability of the actinides to achieve a coordination number of eight and not to the replacement of H₂O by Bu₃ⁿPO or similar molecules. The formation of [Pu(tta)₂(NO₃)₂(Bu₃ⁿPO)₂]·[Pu(tta)₃(NO₃) (Bu₃ⁿPO)] and [Pu(tta)₄] was observed.

Topo-H₂dehp in kerosene was used to extract plutonium quantitatively from H₂SO₄ solutions (containing NaNO₃ or HNO₃) obtained by acid digestion of plutonium-contaminated waste free from sulphate¹⁶²¹. The presence of H₃PO₄ in the feed did not influence the extraction of plutonium, but uranium(VI), if present, is also extracted. Stripping of the organic phase with (NH₄)₂CO₃ or 1 M HNO₃ transfers only plutonium to the aqueous layer, leaving uranium(VI) in the organic phase. The extraction of

americium(III) as noted above was poor $(K_{ex} < 1\%)$.

Transplutonium elements (TPE). The yield of TPE from the irradiation of plutonium is usually a few percent of the target material. The atom ratio of the fission products, TPE/lanthanides, is Ca I:10. The separation of lanthanide group elements from TPE is difficult owing to the similarity of their chemical properties. The studies described below provide various methods for the separation of TPE from one another or other elements.

Extraction of TPE with R_3PO alone. Topo in xylene showed poor extraction of americium(III) from HCl but the extraction increased by a factor of 10^5 from LiCl solutions¹⁴⁹⁷. An increase in the concentration of LiCl lowers the water activity, which in turn leads to higher ligation of americium(III) by topo. The extracted species was $[AmCl_3(topo)_n]$ (n=1, 3, depending on the LiCl concentration). In another study¹⁶²², the separation factors for californium and einsteinium from americium and curium increased with increase in the number of the halide ions in the inner-sphere coordination to the metal with a simultaneous decrease in the degree of complexation in the aqueous phase. Bromide ions showed less inner-sphere coordination than chloride ions.

Topo (in *n*-octane) showed a similar extraction of americium(III) and curium(III) from aqueous nitrate medium ($K_{\rm ex}=1.5\times10^7\,{\rm l^3\,mol^{-3}}$ for Cm and $2.9\times10^7\,{\rm l^3\,mol^{-3}}$ for Am)¹⁶²³. Bu₃ⁿPO in benzenc or topo in xylene also extracted curium and americium from aqueous nitrate or HNO₃ solutions^{1498,1499,1623}. The extracted species appeared to be [M(NO₃)₃L₃]. It was observed that at constant NO₃⁻ concentration, the value of D was higher at lower acid concentration. Addition of top to the topo solution enhanced the extraction of americium(III) from concentrated HNO₃¹⁶²⁴. Top was labelled as a modifier. Similar behaviour was noted in the extraction of americium(III) with diaryldialkylcarbamoylmethylphosphine oxide¹⁶²⁵.

The extraction of the TPE (Am, Cm, Cf) from nitrate media with trioctylamine nitrate is enhanced by the addition of topo or Ph_3PO in benzene¹⁵⁴². $(R_3NH)[M(NO_3)_4L]$ and $[M(NO_3)_5L_n]^{2-}$ (n=1,2) were suggested to be the extracted species. The behaviour of triaurylamine–topo for americium, curium, and promethium was similar¹⁶²⁶. The extraction of americium(III) or curium(III) with N-benzoyl-N-phenylhydroxylamine in CHCl₃ was enhanced after the addition of R_3PO , but the synergistic extraction decreased in the sequence tbp > topo > bipy, which is the reverse of the basicity of these donor ligands¹⁵³⁹.

The extraction of americium(III) from 1 m NH₄SCN solution with topo or Bu₃ⁿPO in xylene was increased when a liquid anion exchanger, ASCN (ASCN = thiocyanate form of a quaternary ammonium chloride, Aliquat 336)^{537.1516.1627}, was added. The synergic species were $[Am(NCS)_4.A.(topo)_m]$ (m=2,3) and $[Am(NCS)_4.A.(Bu_3^nPO)_3]$. The separation factors for Am/Eu increased from 2.9 to 6.0 for topo and from 3.3 to 6.2 for Bu₃ⁿPO on addition of ASCN. The greater participation of 5f orbitals in bonding to

TABLE 26. Extraction of metals with bis(tertiary phosphine oxides)

$R_2P(O)(CH_2)_nP(O)R_2$					
R	n	M	etal		Ref.
			ck eleme	nts	
n-Octyl	2	Sc(III	() ^a		1633, 1634
n-Octyl	2	Fe(III	$(1)^a$		1633–1636
Ph	1	Fe(III			1633-1636
	-4,6	Co(II			1637
n-Octyl, Ph	1	Y(III)			1638, 1639
<i>n</i> -Octyl, 1 II	1		, Hf(IV)	γa,c,d	1640-1642
	1–6,		/I), Ga(I		1324, 1325,
		1010()	1), Ga(1	11)	1382
	8, 10	NIL/II	T) Ta/II	T\a.d	1643
n-Hexyl	1		II), Ta(II		1633
n-Octyl	2), Al(III)		
n-Hexyl	1			n metals ^c	1644
	_		ck eleme	nis	1622 1644
n-Octyl	4	Ce(II			1633, 1644
n-Octyl, Ph	1	Nd(I)			1639
Ph 2	2-4,6			(II) , $Tm(III)^b$, $Am(III)$,	1637,
			II), Cf(II		1645–1647
n-Hexyl	1-4	Pr(III	I), Nd(II)	I), $Sm(III)^{a,c,e}$, $Tm(III)$,	1648-1654
, and the second se		U(VI)		
Ph, n-octyl	1		Í), Am(I	$\Pi)_c$	1655, 1656
Ph	1			I), $Am(III)$, $Cm(III)^g$	1657
Ph, etc.	1			II), Cm(III), Bk(III),	1658,
FII, etc.	T			$(1), U(VI)^a$	1659–1667
TN -4-1	1				1534, 1668
Ph, n-octyl	1		II), Am(I	11)	1669
n-Hexyl,	1	Th(I	V) ^u		1009
2-ethylbutyl					1661 1662
n-Butyl,	1,2	Pu(II	Π), Pu(Γ	V), $Pu(VI)$, $Pa(V)^a$	1661, 1662
n-octyl, Ph					
Ph, n-butyl,	1-3	Am(I	$(II)^a$		1636, 1670
n-octyl					
	1, 4, 5	Am(1	(II), Cm(III), $Cf(III)^h$, etc.	1671
Ph, n-octyl	2	U(VI			1672, 1673
Miscellaneous ligands			<u> </u>		
Reagent		R	n	Metal	Ref.
$Ph_2P(O)CH_2P(O)R_2$ (R = o	octyl)		_	Eu(III), Am(III) ^c	1655, 1656
					1674
cis- and		Ph	-	$Mo(VI)^a$	1675
trans-R ₂ P(O)CH=CHP(O)	$)R_2$				4660 4660
		Ph,		Eu(III), Am(III), Pu(III),	1660–1662,
		p-Tol		Pu(IV), Pu(VI), Pa(V),	1668
				$U(VI)^{a,c}$	1673, 1676,
					1678
$Ph_2P(O)C \equiv CP(O)Ph_2$		_		Pu(III), Pu(IV), Pu(VI),	1660, 1662
				Pa(V), U(VI)	1673
Ph ₂ P(O)CH(R')P(O)Ph ₂				$Eu(III), Am(III), Cm(III)^{a,c}$	1658, 1668
				Bk(III), Cf(III), Es(III),	1030, 1000
(R' = Cl, allyl etc)					
CHECH POP 3		0 1 1		Eu(III), U(VI)	1224 1225
$p-C_6H_4[CH_2P(O)R_2]_2^i$		n-Octyl		Mo(VI), Ga(III)	1324, 1325,
					1382
					(continued

TABLE 26. (continued)

Miscellaneous ligands				
Reagent	R	n	Metal	Ref.
o-, m-, p-C ₆ H ₄ [CH ₂ P(O)Ph ₂] ₂	_		Eu(III), U(VI), TPE, Pu(IV), U(IV), etc.	1678, 1679
$R_2P(O)(CH_2)_nP(O)R_2-HA$:				
HA = Hbfa, Hpvtfa	Ph	1,2	Zn(II)	1472, 1473
Hbfa	Ph	1,2	Eu(III) ^c	1473, 1515,
TT44 -	** '			1680
Htta	n-Hexyl	1,3,4	$\mathrm{Eu}(\mathrm{III})^e$	1473, 1515, 1680
Htta	Ph	2	Ln(III) ^b (except Ce, Pm, Er, Lu)	1681
Hpmtfp	Ph	1	La(III), Pr(III), Eu(III) ^c , Ho(III), Yb(III)	1524, 1525
Hpmbp	Ph	1	$Am(III)^a$	1677

[&]quot;HNO3.

americium as compared with europium appears to be responsible for this difference. Americium(III) and curium(III) were extracted as $[M(tta)_3(topo)_2]$ from 0.01 M HCl with Htta-topo in different organic solvents ^{1318,1319}. The highest extraction was found with cyclohexane as the diluent and the lowest with CHCl₃. Further, the extraction constant (K_{ex}) decreased in the order topo > Ph₃PO > tbp (3320, 7.0 and 0.11, respectively). Htta-Bu₃"PO and Hdbm-topo have also been used for the synergistic extraction of americium(III)^{1310,1514}.

Htta-topo in cyclohexane has been exploited for the separation of traces of americium(III) from other rare earths or actinide congeners in HNO3 media 1628. The method involved prior oxidation of americium(III) to americium(V) using aqueous peroxodisulphate solution. Americium(V) remained in the aqueous phase, whereas the other elements (e.g. Ce, Eu, Cm, Pm) were extracted. Interestingly, the Cm/Am separation factor depended on the concentration of the oxidant, being 2187 for 0.05 M (NH₄)₂S₂O₈ vs 389 for 0.25 M (NH₄)₂S₂O₈. This decrease in the separation factor was attributed to the coordination of curium(III) by the peroxodisulphate ions. The D values for the elements extracted decreased in the order Cm>Ce>Pm>Eu (105, 89.5, 76.3 and 63.7, respectively). The separation of americium(III) from Ce, Eu, U, Np, Pu, Cm, Bk and Cf was effected with Hpmbp-topo in C₆H₁₂¹⁶²⁹ in a similar way to that described for Htta-topo¹⁶²⁸. The extraction of americium(III), curium(III), californium(III) and berkelium with Hpmbp-R₃PO varied with R in the sequence 1630,1631 topo > Ph₂PO > Bu₃ⁿPO > Ph₃PS. A comparative study 1631,1632 of the extraction of TPE with β-diketones and pyrazolones along with topo showed an extraction sequence Hbfa < Htta < Hpmdbp < Hpmbp. Interestingly, the extraction of americium(III) from HClO₄ by 4-benzoyl-2,4-dihydro-5-methyl-2-phenyl-3H-pyrazol-3-thione (HA) in

^bLiNO₃-KNO₃ (eutectic, 160 °C).

[°]HClO₄.

dH2SO4.

[°]HCl.

^fHNO₃-H₃DO₄.

⁹H₃PO₄.

^hNaNO₃.

 $^{^{}i}p$ -xylene- $\alpha\alpha'$ -diylbis(di-n-octylphosphine oxide).

benzene was undetectable; however, the addition of topo led to the synergistic extraction as [AmA₃(topo)₂] with a selectivity of 68 for americium over europium¹⁵²⁹. Finally, mono-2-ethylhexylphosphoric acid-topo in toluene extracted americium(III) from HCl, but the synergism was lower than that for thulium, yttrium, and europium 1533.

- b. Extraction with di-tertiary phosphine oxides. This section describes the liquidextraction chemistry of di-tertiary phosphine oxides. A previous review in this area gives an excellent account of their solvent extraction properties³⁶. For a balanced treatment, a summary of various extraction systems is given in Table 26, from which some interesting conclusions can be drawn:
 - a. Generally, the metals were extracted as $[Sc(NO_3)_3L_2]$, $[Y(NO_3)_3L_2]$, $[MoO_2LCl_2]$, $[GaCl_3L_m]$ $(m = \frac{1}{2} \text{ or } 1)$, $[ZnA_2L]$, $[M(NO_3)_3L_n]$ M = Ce, Nd, Pm, Eu, etc.; n = 1-3), $[Th(NO_3)_4L_2]$, $[ML_m(ClO_4)_3]$ (m=2,3; M=Eu, Am), $[UO_2(NO_3)_2L]$ and $[MA_3L]$, $(M = La, Eu, etc.; HA = \beta$ -diketone or pyrazolone).

b. Di-tertiary phosphine oxides are better extractants than monotertiary phosphine oxides, probably owing to the chelate effect and the more hydrophobic environments

created by the bulky organophosphorus moieties of the bidentate ligands.

c. $dpmO_2$ and $cis-R_2P(O)CH=CHP(O)R_2$ (R = Ph, p-Tol) are for superior extractants to other bidentate ligands. There is no clear relationship between the extraction efficiency and chain length, although ligands with smaller numbers of CH2 groups generally showed higher extraction.

d. trans-Ph₂P(O)CH=CHP(O)Ph₂ and Ph₂P(O)C=CP(O)Ph₂ are poor extractants in comparison with the bidentate ligands discussed above 1673.

e. When a phenyl or aryl group on phosphorus is replaced with an alkyl group such as butyl, hexyl, octyl or ClCH2CH2, PhCH2, the extraction decreases. This difference is attributed to aryl stabilization, which is an entropy effect 1638,1682,1683. Further, the introduction of electron-withdrawing substituents on phosphorus leads to a decrease in extraction and vice versa¹⁶⁸⁴, 1685.

f. The extraction of a metal in the presence of H₃PO₄ was low, owing to possible complexation of the metal ion together with extensive hydration of the complex. Generally, the extraction decreased in the sequence HNO₃ ≈ HClO₄ > HCl >

 $H_2SO_4 > H_3PO_4$.

g. Using Ph₂P(O)CH₂P(O)Ph₂ and hydroxyethylenediphosphoric acid¹⁶⁸⁶, a separation factor for Am/Fe of > 104 (from HNO₃) was achieved, making the quantitative

separation of the two possible.

- h. Stability constant data on TPE with $Ph_2P(O)(CH_2)_nP(O)Ph_2$ (n = 1,4,5) revealed that the order of extraction of the metals was Am > Cm » Cf¹⁶⁷¹. Further bidentate phosphine oxides with branched groups were most effective for the extraction of TPE^{1687} .
- i. The replacement of hydrogen in the methylene of dpmO₂ by other atoms or groups such as allyl, Cl or n-dodecyl lowered the extraction 1658.
- j. Ph₂P(O)(CH₂)₄P(O)Ph₂ was shown to possess a separation factor for Eu/Am of > 10⁴ in the molten state 1637; other ligands also showed a higher extraction of lanthanides over actinides.
- k. $R_2P(O)CH_2P(O)R_2(R = n-\text{hexyl}, 2-\text{ethylbutyl})$ showed quantitative extraction of thorium(IV) from nitrate media 1669.
- l. Uranium(VI) and Protactinium(IV) were separated from cerium(III) in acidic solution using $Ph_2P(O)CH_2CH(R)P(O)Ph_2^{1688}$. For R = Me, a maximum separation factor for plutonium(IV)/uranium(VI) was achieved from 1 M HNO₃. Curium(III), cenium(III) and europium(III) were poorly extracted. Addition of H2dehp had no effect.

- m. The replacement of PO with SO (sulphoxide) was shown to lower the extraction. For example, for the extraction of europium(III) and americium(III) ¹⁶⁵⁹ the extraction capacity decreased in the order PO-PO > PO-SO > SO.
- n. o- and $m\text{-}C_6\text{H}_4(\text{CH}_2\text{P(O)Ph}_2)_2$ were shown to possess high degrees of specificity, which in turn depended on the size of the metal ion¹⁶⁵⁸. The O-substituted isomer was highly selective for uranium(VI) (U/Am separation factor = 10⁵), whereas the m-substituted isomer was selective for americium(III) and was 3×10^3 times better than the o-substituted isomer.
- c. Extraction with poly-tertiary phosphine oxides. Only a few investigations of the use of poly-tertiaryphosphine oxides have been made. The ligands used and the metals extracted are $\{Ph_2P(O)CH_2\}_2P(O)R$ (R = Ph, OH, OEt) for zirconium(IV) and hafnium(IV)^{1689,1690} and 1,3,5-C₆H₃{CH₂P(O)Ph₂}₃, 1,2,4,5-C₆H₂{CH₂P(O)Ph₂}₄ and 2,3,5,6-C₆H₂{CH₂P(O)Ph₂}₄ for TPE, uranium(VI) and europium(III)^{1658,1678}. It was observed that these ligands did not provide any enhanced extraction over bidentates, probably owing to steric factors.
- d. Extraction with mono- and di-tertiary phosphine sulphides/selenides. Extraction studies on tertiary phosphine sulphides or selenides are few²¹ compared with the extensive work reported on tertiary phosphine oxides. Bu₃ⁿPS quantitatively extracted silver(I) from $\rm H_2O$ and $\rm HNO_3$ media^{1691,1692,1693}, gold(III) from $\rm HNO_3$ ¹⁶⁹² and mercury(II) from 0.1 m HCl and HNO₃ media^{1691,1692}. Extraction of other metals such as copper(II), zinc(II), lead(II) and bismuth(III) was poor (D < 0.56)^{1691,1692}. Using Bu₃ⁱPS and Oct₃PS, more than 95% recovery of mercury(II) from waste waters and waste solids was achieved¹⁶⁹⁵. In a study with Cl⁻ or SCN⁻ media, the formation of $\rm [HgX_2L_n]$ (n = 1, 2: $\rm L = Bu_3^i$ PS, Oct₃PS, $\rm X = Cl$, SCN)¹⁶⁹⁴ was established.

 $n ext{-}Oct_3PS$ showed high levels of extraction of silver(I), mercury(II) and palladium(II) from HNO₃ media ¹⁶⁹⁵. From HCl media extraction of mercury(II) was less ($D=10\,600\,\text{vs}$ 586) and gold(III) showed high extraction (D=6280)¹⁶⁹⁵. Increasing the HCl concentration enhanced the extraction of gold(III) and lowered that of mercury(II). Extractions of palladium(II), platinum(IV), molybdenum(VI) and selenium(IV) from HCl

were poor or nil (platinum)1695.

Bu $_3^i$ PS and di-2-ethylhexylphosphoric acid in Varsol DX-364 quantitatively extracted silver(I) or palladium(II) from dilute $H_2SO_4^{-1697}$. The extraction using Bu $_3^i$ PS in toluene from HNO $_3$ media was also quantitative 1697 . Similarly. Pr $_3^i$ PS is highly selective for silver(I), from acidic sulphate solutions containing copper(I) and zinc(II) 1698 . Ph $_3$ PS in CHCl $_3$ was also used for the extraction of silver(I) deposited on electrodes 1699 . Bu $_3^i$ PS in toluene or a mixture of Bu $_3^i$ PS, 2-ethylhexanol (or p-nonylphenol) 1700,1701 and di-n-hexyl sulphide extracted palladium(II) from HCl solutions $^{1702-1704}$ containing Pd, Pt, Rh and Ni. In the absence of the alcohol or phenol, precipitates are formed. The formation of $[PdCl_2L_n]$ (n=1,2) was identified $^{1700-1701}$.

 $n\text{-Oct}_3PSe$ is a very suitable extractant for palladium(II), the *D* value being > 10^3 versus $(C_{10}H_{21})_2(C_8H_{17})PS$ or $(C_9H_{19})_2(C_{10}H_{21})PS$ $(D\approx500)^{1705}$. *D* values for platinum(II), rhodium(I) and iridium(I) were low. However, in another study, Bu_3^nPS and Ph_3PS were used for the recovery of the fission product rhodium from aqueous

HNO31706.

Rhenium(VII) showed higher extraction with n-Oct₃PE in the sequence n-Oct₃PO > n-Oct₃PS > n-Oct₃PSe¹⁷⁰⁷.

Studies on di-tertiary phosphine sulphides are limited^{1699,1708,1709}. However, these reagents were found to be more efficient extractants for silver(I) and mercury(II) than Ph₃PS ligands^{1699,1708,1709}.

2. Reversed-phase chromatography

Reversed-phase chromatography (RPC) is another useful technique for the separation of metals. Here a paper or a resin acts as a solid phase which is soaked with a suitable organophosphorus reagent. Investigations in this area are few compared with liquid-liquid separations.

a. d-Block elements. Zirconium(IV) was recovered from HNO₃ solution by sorption on macroporous styrene-divinylbenzene resin saturated with Bu₃ⁿPO. The extraction was increased by the use of a solid extractant, eliminating loss of the reagent¹⁷¹⁰.

Tantalum(V) (in traces) was selectively removed from a niobium extract (Nb 76.3 gl⁻¹, Ta 0.08 gl⁻¹)¹⁷¹¹ containing tantalum and other metal ions in addition to HF, NH₃, K + or H₂SO₄, by sorption with topo fixed on porous polypropylene beads. The spent sorbent was regenerated by eluting the tantalum into an aqueous solution containing NH₄⁺, K + or HF.

Noble metals (Rh, Pd, Pt, Au, Ir) were separated and determined by paper and column reversed-phase chromatography using tris(2-ethylhexyl)phosphine oxide as the extracting agent¹⁷¹². Topo has been used to remove cobalt(II) from cations sorbed on anion-exchange resins¹⁷¹³. Ruthenium(III) was equilibrated between a 2 M HCl phase and a solid phase consisting of R_3PO (R = n-butyl or octyl) on Kieselguhr¹⁴¹⁴. Addition of n-octanol or cyclohexanol lowered the extraction of ruthenium(III) due to hydrogen-bonded interaction with R_3PO .

b. Main Group elements. Gallium(III) was separated from 2–6 M HCl solutions of a number of binary and multi-component mixtures with topo as a stationary phase on a silica gel column¹⁷¹⁴. The method was suitable for the separation of trace amounts of gallium from bauxite samples. Similarly, selenium(IV) and tellurium(IV) were extracted from 4–6 M HCl solution and separated from several elements with topo fixed on a resin as the stationary phase¹⁷¹⁵.

Various alkali metals were separated from each other, e.g. Li from Na, Be from Mg, using methylenebis(di-n-hexylphosphine oxide) as the stationary phase in RPC (paper

and column)¹⁷¹⁶.

c. Lanthanides and actinides. The distribution of rare earth elements (Ce, Nd, Eu and Gd), Am and Cm between dilute HNO₃ and isopentyldialkylphosphine oxide–solid resin sorbent was studied under static and dynamic conditions¹⁷¹⁷. The separation factors Cm/Ce = 500, Cm/Nd = 260, Cm/La = 250, Cm/Eu = 14 and Cm/Gd = 14 indicate the possibility of group separation of TPE and rare earth elements. Separation of TPE and rare earths from palladium was also studied.

A series of rare earths were separating using methylenebis{di(2-ethylhexyl)phosphine oxide} as the stationary phase in RPC¹⁷¹⁸. The separation factors were higher in HNO₃ than in HClO₄ or HCl solutions. Lanthanum, cerium, thorium and uranium were recovered from HNO₃ solution by sorption on macroporous divinylbenzene saturated with phosphine oxides such as Bu₃ⁿPO¹⁷¹⁰. Various rare earth impurities present in traces in Sc₂O₃ were separated with topo as a stationary phase in RPC prior to their determination by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES)¹⁷¹⁹. Similarly, methylenebis(di-n-hexylphosphine oxide) and topo were used as the stationary phases in RPC to separate the rare earths from each other¹⁷¹⁶. The D values generally increase as the charge to radius ratio of the unhydrated cation increases.

Uranium and thorium were separated from H_3PO_4 solutions by trialkylphosphine oxide (R_3PO , R groups containing C_7 or C_8 atoms) fixed on Levextrel resin¹⁷²⁰. The separation of uranium(VI) from solutions using topo and polyurethane foam is efficient and specific¹⁷²¹. A desorption method was investigated which recovered 77.3% of the

uranium and 94% of the topo from an ore. The absorption and desorption steps are fairly specific for uranium, although other actinides could interfere.

A column of glass beads coated with tri-m-tolylphosphine oxide adsorbed uranium from partially digested urine ¹⁷²²; the recovery was 73%. Uranium(VI) was transported from acidic media with topo as a liquid membrane supported on a microporous polymer in the form of a flat sheet or tube ¹⁷²³; the uranium(VI) was extracted as $[UO_2(NO_3)_2L_2]$.

The recovery of plutonium even at trace levels from nitric acid waste was best carried out with topo sorbed on Amberlite XAD-4 resin as compared with the use of tbp, dihexyl-N,N-diethylcarbamoylmethylphosphine oxide or octylphenyl-N,N-diisobutyl-carbamoylmethylphosphine oxide^{1724,1725}. Topo on Dowex 1-X4 (50–100 mesh) was found to be superior to Amberlite XAD-4 for the recovery of plutonium¹⁷²⁶.

Topo supported on a microporous polyethylene (Microthene) was used to separate uranium from radium-226 present in phosphorites and their industrial derivatives ¹⁷²⁷. Trialkylphosphine oxide–GDX-301 resin separated uranium from acidic solutions of pH 5.8–6.2¹⁷²⁸. Htta–topo extracted uranium, neptunium and plutonium from the waste water of a nuclear plant; the extract was passed over active carbon, which led to their separation by adsorption ¹⁷²⁹. A liquid membrane system consisting of H_2 dehp–topo on Escaid 100 extracted uranium from $H_3PO_4^{1730}$. The emulsifier Paranox was used at 3% in a solution containing 5 M H_3PO_4 and 5 g l⁻¹ of iron(II) at 45 °C. In a continuous process treating 5 l min⁻¹ of H_3PO_4 , the recovery of uranium was >90%. Divinylbenzene copolymer resin impregnated with H_2 dehp–topo selectively adsorbed uranium from wet-process H_3PO_4 solutions ¹⁷³¹. Uranium was recovered from wet-process H_3PO_4 by extraction with a liquid membrane with H_2 dehp–topo showing a synergistic effect ¹⁷³².

Recently, sorption of europium and actinides was carried out by means of octylphenyl-N,N-diisobutylcarbamoylmethylphosphine oxide loaded on silica¹⁷³³.

3. Ion-selective electrodes

a. Alkali and alkaline earth elements. Topo acted as a neutral lithium carrier in a lithium ion-selective electrode membrane 1734 . Thus, when topo was used with 1% potassium tetrakis (p-chlorophenyl)borate in o-nitrophenyl octyl ether-PVC membrane, the electrodes exhibited a nearly Nernstian response with an Li/Na selectivity of 1:60, better than that achieved with previous electrode sensors. Further, topo dramatically improved the Li/Na selectivity of a 14-crown-4 electrode and was used for analysing diluted serum samples. The addition of topo and lipophilic $Bu_4^nBF_4$ to a PVC membrane lithium ion-selective electrode (based on synthesized non-cyclic neutral carriers) showed an increased selectivity for lithium over the other alkali metal ions 1735 . The selectivity coefficient ($\log k_{\text{Li},\text{M}}$) increased from 1.5 to 2.2 for Li over Na and from 2.0 to 3.0 for Li over K the results obtained are of practical use in developing lithium ion-selective electrodes, as the proposed additives exert positive effects on several kinds of non-cyclic lithium-selective carriers in PVC matrix ion-selective electrodes.

PVC membranes made from ether carboxylic acid ionophores (crowns) (165 or 166) and potassium tetrakis(p-chlorophenyl)borate, with or without topo as additive, when coated on the tips of silver wires and combined with flow-injection analysis showed increased selectivity¹⁷³⁶. Membranes made from 165 and topo showed increased selectivity for K over Na, Rb, Cs and Sr at low contents of phenylborate and decreased selectivity for K over Li, Ca and Mg at high contents of phenylborate; however, topo enhanced the selectivity of potassium over the cations examined, excluding lithium. For membranes of 166, the addition of topo decreased the selectivity for Cs over Rb, K, Na, Li and Mg, whereas the selectivity was increased over Ca and Sr.

The selectivity characteristics of ion-selective electrodes, especially Ca^{2+} ion-selective electrodes based on $R_2PXP(O)R_2\{X = CH_2, o-C_6H_4(CH_2)_2, R = alkyl, Ph or Tolyl\}$

$$CO_2H$$
 CO_2H
 CO_2

have been studied using several plasticizing agents with different dielectric constants such as dioctyl phthalate and dibutylphthalate 1737 . The selectivity depends on the concentration of lipophilic anion in the membrane. An electrode based on tetratolyl-o-xylylenediphosphine dioxide 1738 was best for Ca²⁺. Using the *meta*- in place of the *ortho* isomer made it possible to develop a calcium ion-selective electrode with a high magnesium selectivity, $(K_{\text{Ca/Mg}} = 1.8 \times 10^{-5})^{1739}$.

b. Main Group elements. Trace antimony(III) in water was preconcentrated by electrolytic deposition on a topo-modified wire electrode before its determination by atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS)¹⁷⁴⁰. Various metal ions and organic compounds did not interfere. In another study, antimony(III) in water was determined by potentiometric stripping analysis with a topo-modified glassy carbon electrode¹⁷⁴¹. Improvements in the characteristics of the electrode depend on the complex absorbing property of the thin film on the surface of the modified electrode. Such modified electrodes show good reproducibility and sensitivity.

In cyclic voltammetric experiments, a gold film electrode modified with a film of topo in a PVC matrix showed that the electrode is useful for highly selective determinations of a number of metals, namely antimony, bismuth and lead 1742.

c. Transition elements. Technetium-(IV) and -(VII) were concentrated from 3 m HCl by complexing them with topo applied as a thin layer to a glassy carbon electrode $^{1743-1744}$. After an enrichment time of 10 min, about 1.8×10^{-8} m technetium(VII) could be determined using differential-pulse cathodic stripping voltammetry. Technetium(IV) produces a peak near that of technetium(VII) and can therefore be used for a rough estimation of the technetium(VII)/technetium(IV) ratio.

A gold film electrode modified with a film of topo in a PVC matrix showed that the electrode is useful for the highly selective determination of chromium, iron, mercury and uranium¹⁷⁴². Down to 0.02–50 ppm of mercury in environmental samples (e.g. river sediments) can be determined with good precision and accuracy. A topo-modified mercury electrode was used for the preconcentration of cadmium(II) by immersing the electrode in cadmium(II) solution prior to its determination by cyclic voltammetry¹⁷⁴⁵. A topo-coated glassy carbon electrode was used for the voltammetric determination of uranyl ions after preconcentration on a topo layer¹⁷⁴⁶. The method was fairly selective for UO₂²⁺ because the topo layer electrochemically masked some metal ions which gave reduction waves at a glassy carbon electrode without a topo coating. A mercury film electrode modified with a film of topo in a PVC matric was used for the galvanostatic stripping determination of bismuth in copper alloys¹⁷⁴⁷. The method is simple, selective and rapid, but tin(IV) interferes (the detection limit was 0.002–0.5% of bismuth).

In a recent study, organotransition metal complexes were used as selective surfaces for the reversible detection of SO_2 with a piezoelectric crystal sensor¹⁷⁴⁸. For instance, $[Mn(OPPh_3)_4(SO_2)_2I_2]$ was identified as a candidate coating for the reversible detection

of SO_2 on piezoelectric crystal sensors. A specified copper complex acts as a reversible coating for the detection of SO_2 in the range $10-1000 \,\mathrm{mg}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$.

4. Miscellaneous applications

a. Extractive and direct determination of metals. This section covers some applications not discussed earlier. The only application in which organophosphorus reagents have been used for direct determination without extraction is in the determination of palladium and rhodium using Ph₂PCH₂CH₂P(O)Ph₂ and {Ph₂P(O)CH₂CH₂}₂P(O)Ph. Metals such as platinum, iridium, copper, nickel and cobalt did not interfere ¹⁷⁴⁹. Mono-phosphine oxide formed 1:2 and 1:4 complexes and tris-phosphine oxide formed 1:2 complex with palladium. Rhodium formed 1:6 and 1:3 complexes respectively. Topo-mibk extracted trace metals (Ag, Bi, Cd, Pb, Se, Te, Sn and Zn) present in steels and superalloys as their iodo complexes prior to their determination by AAS¹⁷⁵⁰. Similarly, this extractant separated Cu, Zn, Mo, Ag, Cd, In, Sn, Sb, Te, Tl, Pb and Bi from the matrix of geological samples which were subsequently determined by AAS¹⁷⁵¹.

A series of elements, Cd, Mn, Pb, Co, Ni and Cu, were quantitatively separated and concentrated from sea water using a low concentration of topo-1,1,1-trifluoro-4-mercapto-4(2-thienyl) but-3-en-2-one in cyclohexane¹⁷⁵² before their determination by AAS. Topo-dithizone in cyclohexane extracted Cd, Ni, Fe, V, Cu, Pb, Zn, Ti, Al, Zr and Co simultaneously¹⁷⁵³. The method can be used for the preconcentration of trace metals from natural waters prior to determination. Topo-1,1,1,2,2,3,3-heptafluoro-7,7-dimethyl octane-4,6-dione in dodecane extracted several metals from aqueous chloride solutions^{1754a}.

Using topo—Hhfa and Triton X-100, simultaneous determination of terbium, samarium and europium was carried out^{1754b}. Topo was used for the separation of rare earth elements and yttrium from geological samples followed by their determination using ICP-AES^{1754c}.

b. Fluorimetric determinations and related applications. Organophosphorus reagents have played a significant role in fluorescence; accordingly, this section briefly discusses analytical and related applications based on fluorescence.

Htta-topo has been used for the determination of europium and samarium by laser-excited fluorimetry 1756,1757 (emission line 619 nm for Eu and 650 nm for Sm). The detection limits were 0.2-10 ppb Eu and 0.1-1 ppm Sm. A flow-injection spectrofluorimetric 1757 method was developed for the determination of terbium(III) based on solubilizing its ternary complex with topo and pivaloyltrifluoroacetone in a micellar solution of nona (oxyethylene) dodecyl ether at pH 3.5. Excitation and fluorescence wavelengths of 310 and 611 nm were used. The accuracy and reproducibility are good up to $16 \,\mu g \, 1^{-1}$ of terbium(III). No interference from a 20-fold excess of rare earths tested was observed.

Fluorescent paint compositions containing fluorine-containing β -diketone and alkylphosphine complexes of europium or terbium are useful for commercial displays ¹⁷⁵⁸. Thus [Eu(HFA)₃(topo)] complex was mixed with ABS-100 paint and a thinner to give a composition which was screen-printed onto an acrylic plate and dried. The print showed bright-red fluorescence on UV irradiation.

B. Catalytic Applications

Most of the catalytic applications pertain to complexes of tertiary phosphine oxides and are discussed here. The applications of complexes of tertiary phosphine chalcogenides, which are few, were described in a recent review²¹.

TABLE 27. Metal complexes as catalysts

	Catalyst	Applications	Ref.
B A	(i) [TiCl ₄ (OPPh ₃)] (ii) TiCl ₃ -Ph ₃ PO-AlCl ₃ (i) [CrO(O ₂) ₂ (OPPh ₃)]	d-Block elements In pinacol rearrangement of benzpinacol For preparation of polybut-1-ene foam from but-1-ene at 80 °C It oxidized tetralin and cyclohexene at 20 °C in the presence of Me ₃ COOH to give tetralone and cyclohex-2-enone, respectively. Admantane and cyclohexane also oxidized to alcohols, etc. Safe to handle compared with [CrO(O ₂) ₂ L]	59 1759a 1759b
	(ii) $[CrCl_2(NO)_2(OPPh_3)_2]$, $[CrCl_3(OPPh_3)_3]$ (iii) $[CrCl_2L_2]$, $[CrCl_2L_2(NO)_2]$, $[CrCl_3L_3]$ and $[(CrCl_3L_2)_2]$ $(L = Bu_3PO, Ph_3PO)$	(L = pyridine-N-oxide) Used for the dimerization of alkenes such as C_2H_4 Used for the dimerization, polymerization and copolymerization of ethylene and propylene	1760, 1761 1762a
	(iv) [Mo(NO) ₂ (OEt) ₂ (OPPh ₃) ₂] or [Mo(N)Cl ₃ (OPPh ₃) ₂] and EtAlCl ₂ (v) [Mo(NO)Cl ₃ (OPPh ₃) ₂] and EtAlCl ₂	Used in the metathesis of olefins such as pent-2-ene Used in disproportionation of pent-2-ene to hex-3-ene and	185, 1762b 180, 181, 1763–1767
	(vi) $[MoCl_n(NO)_{4-n}L_2](L = Ph_3PO, n = 1-3)$	corresponding [W(NO)Cl ₃ (OPPh ₃) ₂] showed lower activity Used in epoxidation of alkenes. Activity was comparable to that of	1768, 1769
	(vii) $[MoO_2Cl_2(OPPh_3)_2]$ and $[MoO_2Cl_2(dpeO_2)]$	[Mo(O ₂)(acac) ₂] Used in epoxidation of cyclohexene, dpeO ₂ showed higher activity over Ph ₃ PO or even other neutral ligands such as	1770
O	(viii) $[MO(O_2)_2(OPR_3)_2]$ ($M = Mo, W$) (i) $[Fe(OPPh_3)_4(I_3)_2]$ (ii) $[FeX_3(OPPh_3)_2]$ ($X = CI, Br, I, NCS$)	Used in epoxidation of alkenes Used in epoxidation of Ph ₃ P to Ph ₃ PO (a) Used for oxidation of Ph ₃ P to Ph ₃ PO by O ₂ . Bromo or thiocyanato complex showed the highest effect. The oxidation in MeCN is quantitative and selective at 30–70 °C under atmospheric pressure of O ₂ . For X = NCS, reduction of iron(III) to iron(III) takes place with oxidation of Ph ₃ P to	175 1771 278, 302, 303, 1772–1775
	(iii) $[M(NO)_2(R_3PO)X]$ ($M = Fe$, Co; $R = alkyl$ or aryl; $X = Cl$, Br, I)	Ph ₃ PO. The reduction rate depends on iron(III) to Ph ₃ P ratio. Order of activity: NCS > I > Br > Cl (b) Selective catalyst for organic compounds Used in the dimerization of dialkenes	1776 1785

1777 1780 1778, 1789	1781	961 392, 1782 1783	1784	1786	1/8/	1788	1789		1790	1791
Used in reductive carbonylation of MeOH to MeCHO Used for the hydrogenation of butadiene or isoprene Used for preparing cyclododecane and in hydrogenation reactions	Used for hydroformylation and oxidation of aldehydes. E.g. C_2H_4 was converted to EtCHO which then gave EtCO ₂ H, (FtCO) ₂ O and some Et.CO	Used for reduction of cyclohexene and acetophenone Used for hydrosilylation of alkenes by alkyldichlorosilanes Used for dimerization of alkencs	Used for hydrosilylation of alkenes ($RCH = CH_2$, $R = hexyl$, pentyl). Alkyl catalysts were more effective than aryl catalysts Used for dimerization of conjugated dialkenes	Used for preparing organosilanes from reaction hydrosilanes and alkenes at 100–120 °C	Osca III the preparation of carbonic esters Main Groun elements	(a) Used for the preparation of poly(oxazolidones) from phenyl isocyanate and phenyl glycidyl ether	(b) Used in synthesis of model 2-oxazolidone and poly(oxazolidones) involving terpolymerization of (3-vinylphenylazo)methylmalodinitrile,	(3-vinylphenylazo)phenyl sulphide or 1-(3-vinylphenylazo)-1,1-diphenylmethyl acetate with methylmethacrylate and butane-1,4-diol dimethylacrylate	Used as latent cross-linking catalysts for the manufacture of flexible polyurethane foam with good heat resistance (up to 140°C in air)	Used in the addition of CO ₂ to oxetone giving trimethylene carbonate. Bu ₂ SnI ₂ (Bu ₃ PO) showed no activity. Hence the coordination mode of ligands and the stability of the complexes are important
(i) [Col ₂ (OPPh ₃) ₂] (ii) [Co(NO ₃) ₂ (OPPh ₃) ₂] and Et ₃ Al (iii) [Rh(hdmg) ₂ (O ₂)L] (L = Ph ₃ PO; H ₂ dmg = dimcthylglyoxine) and	(iv) [Rh(CO) ₂ (acac)(topo)]	(v) [Rh(cod)(L)](ClO ₄) (L = dpmO ₂ , dpeO ₂) (i) [NiCl ₂ L ₂] (L = Ph ₂ EtPO, etc.) (ii) [NiCl ₂ (OPR ₃) ₂] (R = Bu, Ph) and EtAlCl,	(iii) $[NiX_2(OPR_3)_2]$ (X = Cl, Br, NO ₃ ; R = alkyl or aryl) (iv) $[Ni(NO)LX]$ (X = Cl, Br, I; L = R,PO)	(v) $[NiX_2L_2](X = CI, Br; L = Bu_3PO, Bu_2PhPO, etc.)$	Copper(11) 131 Compter	AlCl ₃ -Ph ₃ PO complex			(i) $[Bu_2SnX_2]-Ph_3PO$ (X = Cl, NCS)	(ii) [Bu ₃ SnI(Bu ₃ PO)]

Ö

Ξ

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TABLE 27. (continued)

Ref.	1792a	1792b	59	1793	1793
Applications	Used for polycondensation of the monomer forming non-discoloured poly(ethylene terephthalate), which is useful as thermoplasts for fibres, varus, and films	Used for polymerizations, oligomerizations and oxidations	Used for pinacol rearrangement of benzpinacol	s-Block elements Used for rearrangement of epoxides to carbonyl compounds. Thus 1-methylcyclohexene epoxide was converted into	1-metnyleyclopenane-1-carboxaldenyde Showed similar catalytic properties, but the products were different. Thus 1-methyleyclohexene gave 2-methyleyclohexanone and a small amount of 1-methyleyclopentane-1-carboxaldehyde
Catalyst	I (i) $[SbF_3L_n]$ ($n=2$ for Ph_3PO and 1 for $dpmO_2$)	(ii) $[SbX_3L]$ {X = Cl, F; $L = R_2P(O)(CH_2)$, P(O)R ₂ ; $R = Mc. Pr! Ph: n = 1.2$ }	(iii) [SbCl ₅ (OPPh ₃)]	J (i) [LiBr(OPPh ₃)]	(ii) $[LiClO_4(OPPh_3)]$

Table 27 describes various metal complexes of phosphine oxides which have been used as catalysts for various organic reactions. It can be seen that complexes of the d-block elements have generally been used, whereas complexes of the main group elements have been used comparatively little and only a few s-block element complexes have been used. There is no complex of an f-block element whose catalytic properties have been explored. From Table 27 it can be seen that a variety of organic reactions have been catalysed and that in some cases phosphine oxide complexes were superior to other known catalysts. Examples given in Table 27 and those in the previous review²¹ provide further scope for organic reactions which can be studied using metal complexes of phosphine oxides or chalcogenides.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

From this survey of the literature, it is apparent that the coordination chemistry of tertiary phosphine oxides, sulphides and selenides has been extensively studied; the work on phosphine telluride chemistry is limited, however. Further, the work on mono-tertiary phosphine oxides, sulphides and selenides is much greater than that on di- and polytertiary phosphine oxides and chalcogenides. However, it should be pointed out that the coordination chemistry of di- and polytertiary phosphine oxides and chalcogenides will continue to attract attention, particularly in opening up new areas where anionic ligands of the type $\{R_2P(E)\}_2CH^-$ and $\{R_2P(E)\}_3C^-$ and unsymmetrical phosphorus ligands such as $R_2P(CH_2)_nP(E)R_2$ and $R_2P(S)(CH_2)_nP(Se)R_2$ (E=O,S,Se; R=aryl or alkyl) can be used. Their coordination chemistry is rich in NMR spectroscopy and interesting from the point of view of both metal-ligand bonding and the formation of homo- and hetero-polymetallic complexes. A new ligand, the neutral methanide $Ph_2P(S)CHPPh_2Me$, discussed in connection with the gold chemistry of phosphine chalcogenides 1221, is likely to attract attention on a significant scale in view of its interesting bonding properties.

It may be noted that most of the coordination chemistry of these ligands reported so far has been with transition metals, while Main Group and s-group elements have been poorly studied, with a few exceptions such as tin-bis(phosphine oxide) chemistry. Further studies may be expected for various complexes mentioned in the text.

Apart from coordination chemistry of tertiary phosphine oxides, these ligands have been used (a) for the extraction of metals (liquid-liquid separation), (b) in reversed-phase chromatography for the separation of metals (c) in ion-selective electrodes, (d) for extractive and direct determination of metals and (e) for the fluorimetric determination of metals. Complexes of these ligands have also been used in the catalysis of several organic compounds. Similarly, tertiary phosphine chalcogenides find use in these areas but to only a very small extent. However, great scope exists for the development of the metal extraction chemistry (and related areas) of tertiary phosphine chalcogenides.

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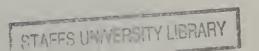
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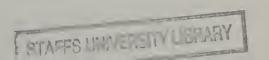
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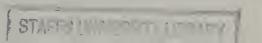
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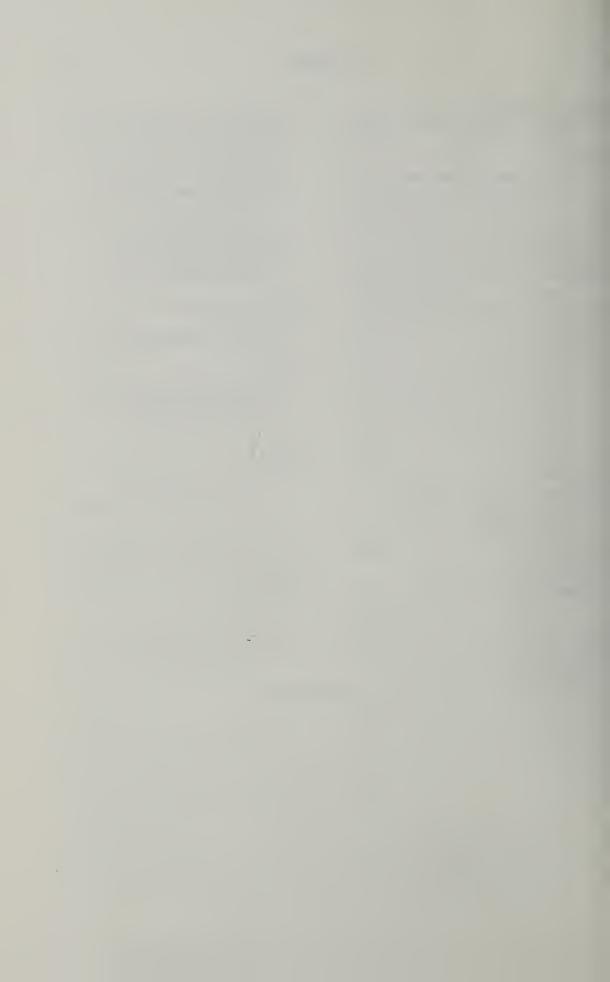
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